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A Seaweed Aquaculture Imperative to Meet Global Sustainability Targets

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Preface

Seaweed aquaculture accounts for 51.3% of global mariculture production and grows at 6.2% per year (2000-2018). It delivers a broad range of ecosystem services, providing a source of food and natural products across a range of industries while offering a versatile, nature-based solution for climate change mitigation and adaptation and for counteracting eutrophication and biodiversity crisis. Here we offer the perspective that scaling up seaweed aquaculture as an Emission Capture and Utilisation technology, one supporting a circular bioeconomy, is an imperative to accommodate more than 9 billion people in 2050 while advancing across many of the UN Sustainable Development Goals.

Achieving the UN Sustainable Development Goals (UN SDG), including environment, biodiversity and climate targets (UN 2015, www.sutainabledevelopment.un.org) requires reduced resource consumption. At the same time, the growing human population, expected to approach 9.7 billion by 2050 (https://population.un.org/wpp/), raises demands of healthy food, clean energy and products. Solving this conundrum requires new solutions to deliver the required resources while meeting the UN SDGs. Here we identify seaweed farming as a unique, scalable and sustainable solution to this conundrum, and submit that delivering the full potential of this option is an imperative for a sustainable future.

The capacity of agriculture to meet future food demands is forecasted to become limited by arable land and freshwater availability[1]. Likewise, reducing greenhouse gas emissions to meet the targets of the Paris Agreement while supporting increasing energy and food demands remains challenging[2,3]. Our capacity to achieve the goals of the Convention on Biological Diversity is jeopardized by losses of ecosystems and species on land and in oceans (IPBES 2018), with these losses predicted to be aggravated by climate change (IPCC 2015, 2019). Achieving a healthy environment is also fundamental to meet UN SDGs (UN 2015), encompassing poverty eradication, improved health and provision of good jobs, while reducing economic and gender inequality.

Meeting UN SDGs on time and at scale while the human population continues to grow requires novel, potentially disruptive strategies to deliver the required transformational change. Specifically, there is a need to identify novel bioresources that can be grown sustainably, with minimal requirements of arable land, water and energy, support a net production of healthy food for humans and animals grown on land and at sea, sustainable and cost-effective energy, and provide sustainable materials harmless to the environment, while delivering positive, rather than negative impacts on biodiversity and the environment. The search for bioresources with such a broad slate of positive contributions is rapidly converging into seaweed aquaculture as a scalable, sustainable solution to many of these challenges[1,4,5]. Indeed, whereas we developed vegetable crops on land over 10,000 years ago, the domestication of seaweed for industrial aquaculture is a relatively recent and still ongoing phenomenon[6].

We anticipate rising demands for seaweed products driving production to be increased orders of magnitude above present levels, and ask what is the capacity of seaweed aquaculture to supply those benefits while avoiding negative impacts. We do so by first addressing the requirements and potential to expand seaweed aquaculture, and the environmental bottlenecks and risks involved. We then discuss how seaweed aquaculture can help achieve the UN SDGs, including the multiple products and services seaweed aquaculture may deliver.

Seaweed aquaculture production

Marine aquaculture is the fastest-growing component of food production (> 7% $year^{-1}$)[1], far exceeding the growth rates of agriculture (2% $year^{-1}$), livestock production (2.6% $year^{-1}$) and wild fisheries (0.1% $year^{-1}$)[1]. Sustaining the high growth rate of aquaculture has been proposed to play a critical role in developing the capacity to feed the 9.7 billion people populating Earth by 2050 (UN 2019, https://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/population/), since the growth rate of agriculture will become limited by arable land and freshwater supply and that of fisheries by the need to lower catches to maintain healthy wild fish stocks[1,7].

Seaweed aquaculture globally produced 31.8 million tons in 2018, comprising 51.3% of global mariculture production, with a market value of more than 11.3 billion USD[8]. Almost all of the production (99.9%) is derived from Asia, with China and Indonesia accounting for about half and a third of global seaweed production, respectively (Fig. 1), and a growing contribution from Africa[8].

Seaweed farms have reached large sizes in Asia, but their global extent, calculated as the ratio between the global production of 31.8 million tons fresh weight[8] (FW, about 10 times the dry weight, DW) and assuming a yield of 16 ton DW hectare^{-1} year^{-1} [9], is limited to approximately 1983 Km^2. This is about 250,000 times smaller than the global area occupied by agriculture and pastures[10], and 0.04% of the estimated areal extent of wild seaweed[11].

Following decades of growth in seaweed aquaculture production, the global production became stagnant since 2015 (Fig. 1)[8]. This is entirely due to a decline in production in tropical nations, particularly Indonesia (Fig. 1), in part due to spreading of diseases, heat waves and general loss of strain vigor[12], as well as perturbations in the global carrageenan market. Indeed a decline in production from 2017 was apparent in other carrageenophyte producing nations besides Indonesia, such as Malaysia, Tanzania, the Philippines and Madagascar, which emphasizes that global biosecurity strategies are pivotal for the resilience of the seaweed aquaculture industry. The recent decline in production in Indonesia and other nations may also be partially due to improved national reporting to FAO.

At the long-term (2000-2018) growth rate of about 6.2% year^{-1}, seaweed aquaculture would reach a global production of 252 million tons FW by 2050, extending over an area of about 15,733 Km^2 (Fig. 2). This is 6.6 fold higher than the current production but not far greater than the increase needed if the global demand for seaweed as food was to approach Japanese standards (5.3 g dry weight per person per day[13]) which, at a global population approaching 9.7 billion by 2050, would require a global production of 187 million tons FW per year (Table 1). A hypothetical upper limit to seaweed aquaculture, modeled on the basis of adequate nutrients and temperature as the only constraints, and without considering possible adverse effects on marine ecosystems, has been estimated at 48 million Km^2, equivalent to about 700,000 million tons FW year^{-1} [14]. At the current growth rate of 6.2 % year^{-1}, it would take two centuries to reach that ceiling, which is 18,373 fold above current production. The maximum area is about 10 fold greater than the area estimated for wild macroalgal forests[11], suggesting major competition for space and nutrients with native ecosystems shall this limit be achieved. The ceiling therefore needs to be much further constrained to levels that do not exert negative effects on native ecosystems, likely to areas below those of wild macroalgal forests[11]. Even if a much smaller precautionary upper limit is adopted to avoid negative impacts, there is ample scope for seaweed aquaculture to accelerate in response to increasing demands for seaweed products. Doubling the current growth rate to reach 12 % year^{-1} would lead to an estimated yield of 1,195 million tons FW and an area of 74,524 Km^2 by 2050, while a maximum, but highly unlikely, potential growth rate of 20% year^{-1} would lead to an estimated production of 10,869 million tons FW needing an area of 677,832 Km^2 by 2050 (Fig. 2, Table 1). These estimates are conservative, as the average yield of seaweed aquaculture of about 16 ton DW ha^{-1} used is nearly 10 fold lower than the maximum productivity reached under intensified farming conditions[15].

These calculations illustrate that the future growth of seaweed aquaculture is likely to represent the largest component of the industrialization of the oceans yet seen. The biophysical limits to global seaweed aquaculture will not be met by 2050, nor possibly at any point before well into the 22nd century. However, biophysical limits may be met at national scales, for nations with limited suitable areas or those that, as China, already have a mature seaweed aquaculture industry and may meet their biophysical limits, imposed by nutrient availability in this case, within the 21st century[9].

Whether the future growth rate of global seaweed aquaculture will conform to a "business as usual" 6.2 % year^{-1}, slow down to half of that or accelerate to triple that rate will be imposed by the regulatory environment and market demand, as well as technical development. The regulatory environment needs to be prepared for the rising demand of seaweed products, providing concessions to accommodate the growing demand for seaweed farms. Whereas systems are in place in Asian and African nations with a mature seaweed industry, the regulatory environment in Western nations remains unprepared to accommodate seaweed farming. A marine spatial planning that identifies suitable areas to be set aside for seaweed farming, identifies local biophysical limits and seeks positive synergies while avoiding negative impacts is required. Positive synergies may derive from pairing seaweed farms with locations and activities that increase nutrient inputs, including areas supporting animal aquaculture. Avoiding negative impacts require closing areas that act as sources of toxic pollutants, which may compromise the safety of seaweed products (unless these are used for biofuel or other non-consumptive uses), or areas that harbor vulnerable habitats, such as benthic macrophytes (e.g. seagrass, coral reefs or wild seaweed forests) that may be negatively impacted if shaded by overlaying seaweed farms. Market demand for seaweed products is constantly expanding, and can be propelled further by generating incentives or tax deductions that compensate the farmers for the environmental benefits seaweed farming may bring about, such as nutrient and carbon removal.

As the targets for marine protected areas (MPAs) raise in ambition, from the current 7.6 % of ocean space to 30% being proposed for 2030[16], and even more space is set aside for MPAs in the future, seaweed farming provide an activity that, adapted in scale and practice to local conservation targets, may contribute to the goals of MPAs while providing jobs and revenue to local communities[17], which may be otherwise at risk of being excluded from operating in the MPAs.

Seaweed aquaculture contributions to UN SDGs

Catalyzed by mushrooming applications and demands for seaweed products, seaweed aquaculture is poised to become globally relevant as a source of jobs and the economy. There is, therefore, an opportunity to manage the growth of seaweed aquaculture to realize the full potential of how seaweed aquaculture could serve as an Emission Capture and Utilisation technology (ECU) while simultaneously contributing to advance human development along several UN SDGs. Indeed, seaweed aquaculture generates multiple ecosystem services that lead to direct benefits in advancing a number of SDGs (SDGs 2,3,7,13,14), which, in turn, provide integrative benefits contributing to additional SDGs (SDGs 1,4,5,8-12,15, Fig. 3).

Zero Hunger (SDG2), and Good Health (SDG3)

Most cultivated seaweeds are currently used for human consumption (90% of production), directly or as additives (Fig. 3), the latter being predominantly hydrocolloids including agar, alginates and carrageenans, used as viscosity-modifying agents in the food and pharmaceutical industries[18].

Seaweeds are healthy components of human diets, providing macro- and micro-nutritional elements, antioxidants, fibers, and healthy fatty acids contributing to mitigate the risks of various diseases[19]. Increasing the consumption of seaweeds by the global population to match the current consumption by the Japanese population (5.3 g DW per day)[13] would require a seaweed production for food alone of 150 million tons FW at present and 187 million tons

FW in 2050 (human population at 7.8 and 9.7 billion, respectively). A more likely target would be to reach half of per capita Japanese intake globally[20], which will require a maximum of 93.5 million tons FW in 2050 (Table 1). This is about 3 times the current production (Fig. 1), and would generate a significant market pull for expanding the seaweed aquaculture for food supply. Future demands for seaweed products would be even higher when including seaweed hydrocolloids used in the food industry, which currently account for a minimum of 54% of global seaweed production[8], but that are recommended against among some consumer groups. Seaweeds may accumulate harmful elements from the environment, thus regular monitoring of harmful elements in seaweeds is required (http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/eri42405.pdf), a practice required for all food products, not just seaweed.

Seaweed provides an opportunity to produce sustainable feed for aquaculture animals beyond herbivores (Fig. 3). The replacement of fish oil and meal in animal feed by seaweed aquaculture products has been argued to be an imperative to develop sustainable animal aquaculture at the scale required to sustainably feed a growing human population[1]. Use of some seaweed in fish feed has positive effects on fish growth and immune systems. However, the formulation of fish feed from seaweed, directly, or indirectly by using seaweed to feed small invertebrates, which are then used as feed, has not been implemented at any scale and remains a future opportunity. Realizing this opportunity will require significant R&D efforts to optimize seaweed as an alternative to fish meal and fish oil in the aquaculture industry[21]. Seaweeds have also been used traditionally as supplements for livestock feed in coastal regions[22], a practice that is currently getting renewed focus. Inclusion of seaweeds in animal feed may contribute to the protein and energy requirements of livestock and provide beneficial bioactive compounds that may improve production and health status of both monogastric and ruminant livestock[22], while also contributing to greatly reduce methane emission from ruminants[23]. As for humans, the content of harmful elements in seaweed intended for animal feed needs to be monitored to avoid negative health impacts. The global amount of animal feed for ruminants, poultry, pigs and fish is currently about 1 billion tons[24], and is forecasted to increase by 60% by 2050[24]. Assuming a potential contribution of seaweed of 1% of feed DW, the total potential demand at present would be 100 million tons FW , i.e. three-fold the current total seaweed aquaculture production[8], and 160 million tons FW by 2050 (Table 1).

Seaweed washed onto shorelines have been used for centuries to amend agricultural soils and promote plant growth[25]. Seaweed extracts stimulate seed germination and root development, enhance frost-, drought- and salinity resistance, increase nutrient uptake and control phytopathogenic fungi, insects and other pests[25]. Seaweed amendments also provide nutrients, including nitrogen and phosphorus, absorbed from coastal waters where excess nutrients deriving from land may threaten ecosystem health[9]. Phosphorus is an increasingly limited mineral resource and production of nitrogen fertiliser is a highly energy-demanding process[5]. Adding seaweed to agricultural soils as biofertiliser returns these valuable nutrients to the bioeconomic system on land, helping turn a linear flow of nutrients from watersheds into the ocean, into a circular economy of nutrients (Fig. 4). As for their use as food and feed, the elemental composition of seaweed needs to be monitored before application to agricultural soils to ensure that amendment of soils with seaweed leads to pollutant levels kept within safe limits, as defined by the WHO.

Affordable and Clean Energy (SDG7)

Seaweed biomass can be used to produce ethanol, butanol, biogas, biodiesel, bio-oil or hydrogen through a number of processes including fermentation, hydrogen release, transesterification, pyrolysis, liquefaction and gasification[26]. Demands for seaweed-based biofuels, currently using about 1% of seaweed production[18], are likely to rise, driven by demands from the transportation sector. Both the aviation and shipping industries are expected to grow at about 6% annually, and are committed to cap emissions from fossil fuels at present, or lower, levels. The search for zero-carbon, energy-dense fuels required to supply the required energy by these sectors has identified seaweed as a promising source, as provision of green hydrogen at scale remains a distant goal.

Seaweed aquaculture can yield a net life-cycle integrated benefit in terms of CO_2 capture[27], in contrast to microalgae which yield marginal net CO_2 capture at a high cost[28]. The removal of CO_2 from the atmosphere has been calculated at 961 kg CO_2 per ton DW of seaweed, or about 84% of the carbon yield, reduced to 68% of the gross biofuel production when considering life-cycle energy requirements[26]. While use of seaweed biofuel will release CO_2 back to the atmosphere, it still carries the benefit of reducing emissions by displacing use of fossil fuels. However, if coupled with carbon capture technology, seaweed bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS), has the potential for becoming a negative emission technology[28]. Yet, life-cycle assessments indicate that current technologies and cost structures may deliver only marginal negative emission benefits[29], so more advanced technologies and system reconfigurations will be required for seaweed to support economically-feasible BECCS (Fig. 4).

Whereas research on bioethanol and biogas production from macroalgae is growing rapidly[18], current processes do not yet lead to an economically viable model. "*Blue*" biofuels are, therefore, not yet available as a consumer option, and but will be a far more sustainable option than land biofuels, which have increased food prices by diverting food crops to the production of fuel, and represent a main driver of deforestation in the tropics[30]. The integration of seaweed biofuels in a cascading biorefinery, also producing molecules of interest, such as proteins[31], offers a path to increase the Energy Return on Energy Invested required to render seaweed biofuels profitable[32] (Fig. 4). The future of "blue" seaweed biofuels remains uncertain and would depend on balancing economic and social enablers, such as increasing the price of CO_2 while avoiding that high prices would reduce the availability of seaweed as food.

Industry Innovation (SDG9)

Seaweed can be used as a source of sustainable and durable biomolecules for a number of industries (Box 1), including high-value molecules and seaweed biopolymers to be used in cosmetics, drugs and nutraceuticals, or materials for construction, packaging or textiles (Box 1). If produced free of hazardous chemicals, these materials can be recycled and reused in a circular economy and/or disposed of at burial sites to contribute to climate change mitigation at end of use (Fig. 4).

Climate Action (SDG13)

Seaweed farming can contribute to climate change adaptation by, for instance, locally buffering ocean acidification and ocean deoxygenation[5] (Fig. 3). The intense photosynthetic activity of seaweeds is able to raise seawater pH by up to 1 unit during the daytime, with pH values up to 9.2 for aerated cultures[33], thereby potentially enhancing conditions for biocalcification and offering refugia to calcifiers vulnerable to ocean acidification[5,34]. Likewise, their photosynthetic oxygen release may provide local refugia from coastal deoxygenation[5], as demonstrated recently, both for elevated pH and oxygen, for seaweed farms in China[34].

Seaweed farming can also contribute to mitigate GHG emissions by sequestering carbon and/or contributing to reduce emissions as an Emission Capture and Utilization (ECU) technology (Figs. 3 and 4). The footprint of seaweed farms on CO_2 uptake can be regionally relevant in areas with large farms, such as the coastal area of Lidao (China), where sea surface pCO_2 was reported to be, on average, 21 μatm lower than in reference areas far away from seaweed farms, enhancing annual CO_2 uptake by 1.7 ton CO_2 ha^{-1} (10 mmol m^{-2} d^{-1}) relative to reference areas[35]. Moreover, depending on stocking density, the yield of seaweed production is likely to increase with increasing atmospheric CO_2 in the future, as seaweed in dense cultures are often CO_2-limited[33], further increasing their future scope as CO_2 sinks.

Box 1. Seaweed as a source of materials

Seaweed Biopolymers: Biopolymers derived from seaweed polysaccharides are renewable, biodegradable, biocompatible, and environment-friendly[67]. In particular, alginate from brown seaweed can be used as a starting material for bioplastic film, with a yield of about 30% by weight for *Sargassum siliquosum*[68]. Seaweed polymers are already in use to replace synthetic polymers for a number of applications, ranging from replacement of single-use plastics (e.g. straws and cups for drinks, plastic films, cf. Loliware.com), synthetic fibers in textiles, and plastics in shoes (e.g. flip-flops, www.algenesismaterials.com). Bioplastics from seaweeds are reported to be more resistant to microwave radiation, less brittle and more durable compared to bioplastics from other sources, so therefore having a great scope for growth in demand.

High-value Molecules: Cosmetics, Drugs and Nutraceuticals (also contributing to UN SDG 3 Health and well-being) The unique variety of seaweed secondary metabolites combined with synergies between the bioactive and technical properties of the polysaccharides, renders macroalgae biomolecules valuable in multiple biomedical applications spanning from anti-cancer to anti-obesity and gut health effects, as well as novel applications in targeted drug delivery, wound healing and tissue-engineering[69]. In cosmetics and skincare, also the antioxidant and antimicrobial properties are exploited in combination with the gelling properties optimising at the same time the beneficial effects on mitigating skin problems such as hyperpigmentation, premature aging and acne[69], while improving product texture and shelf life.

***Durable materials*:** Dried or processed seaweed material is also useful for insolation, fire-resistant material, furniture or as additives or binders in composite materials based on wood or waste fibres, therefore meeting the growing demand for natural, durable and biodegradable materials.

***Other materials*:** Alginates are commonly applied as stabilizers for the preparation of emulsions and suspensions in the production of paint, construction materials, glue, and paper, as well as in oil, and in the photo and textile industries.

Growing seaweed release a considerable fraction of their production into the environment as dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and particulate organic carbon (POC), some of which is sequestered in coastal sediments or the deep sea (Fig. 4)[10]. The few available estimates from seaweed farms suggest that farmed kelp may release as much carbon in the environment as that harvested[36], comparable to wild algal forests[11]. Assuming the fraction of exported farmed seaweed carbon that is sequestered over climatically-relevant periods is similar to that of wild seaweed stocks (11%[11]), global seaweed aquaculture may have sequestered about 0.7 Tg CO_2 in 2018. At a maximum sustained growth rate of 20% per year, seaweed aquaculture could sequester about 421 Tg CO_2 per year in coastal sediments by 2050 (Table 1), reaching 112 Pg CO_2 per year if the reported upper ceiling to seaweed farming[14] would be reached.

The climate mitigation benefits of seaweed aquaculture as an ECU technology can be expanded much further after harvest. Seaweed feed additives reducing ruminant methane emissions would contribute directly to emission reduction, and so would seaweed biofuel- and seaweed plastic substitutes for fossil carbon sources. Any seaweed product substituting a product with higher CO_2 footprint or being sequestered after use would also contribute to emission reductions. The global macroalgal production of 31.8 million tons FW[8] implies (provided an average carbon content of 24.8% of seaweed DW and a DW content of 10% of FW[5]) that 0.79 Tg C yr^{-1} is harvested globally, therefore pointing at a capture potential of 2.89 Tg CO_2 yr^{-1} if all seaweed production was to be used for applications directly or indirectly substituting use of fossil carbon or if seaweed products were permanently sequestered after use (Fig. 4). Reducing the carbon footprint of seaweed production, identifying alternatives to energy-intensive processes and materials through life-cycle analysis, will further contribute to increasing the potential contribution of seaweed aquaculture to climate action.

Evidence from laboratory fermenters suggesting that the addition of the red seaweed *Asparagopsis taxiformis* to the feed of ruminants can greatly reduce their methane emissions, has been recently confirmed at the farm scale[23]. The addition of 0.1-0.2 % dried algae to cow feed led to 98% methane emission reduction, benefits on feed conversion rates and animal growth rates and no negative impacts on dairy or meat production or quality[23]. Because livestock CH_4 emissions account for 44% of GHG emissions from agriculture, the use of seaweed as a feed supplement for ruminants holds great promise to mitigate climate change and supply more climate-friendly meat and dairy products.

Macroalgae produce short-lived halocarbons, at rates varying hugely within and among species, that destroy ozone when emitted to the atmosphere, potentially increasing UV flux to the Earth's surface[37]. Even if the growth rate of seaweed aquaculture would double to reach an area of 100,000 Km^2 by 2050, i.e. 50 times the current area, seaweed farming would increase the total seaweed emission of short-lived halocarbons by 1%, assuming that farmed and wild seaweed support similar emissions per unit area. Moreover, wild seaweeds are believed to be a much smaller source of short-lived halocarbons than phytoplankton[38,39]. Accordingly, we argue that the contribution of seaweed aquaculture to global short-lived halocarbon emissions will remain undetectable and, therefore, of minor concern.

Life Below Water (SDG14)

Seaweed, particularly kelps that make up more than 40% of seaweed aquaculture production, act as ecosystems engineers that stimulate biodiversity by developing complex habitats and modifying biogeochemical and physical properties of the environment while also serving as food source[40]. In particular, seaweed communities play an important role as nurseries of juvenile fish and invertebrates[40]. Seaweed aquaculture, may similarly provide complex habitats that can aid the restoration of ecologically-deteriorated coastal areas, and has been shown to enhance the abundance and species richness of macrofauna[41] (Fig. 3). In addition, seaweed farming can help displace harvest of wild seaweed, which is a source of impacts to kelp forests and other seaweed habitats in many areas of the ocean.

Fertilizer application to increase yield of land crops, and subsequent emissions of excess nutrients to coastal waters is the main driver of coastal eutrophication and hypoxia, with profound negative impacts on coastal ecosystems[42]. Seaweed aquaculture acts in the opposite direction, as nutrients are removed from coastal waters with harvest[43,44] and can be returned to the land bioeconomic system[43](Fig. 4). Seaweed aquaculture took up about 60.3 ton N and 7.6 ton P per km^2 of farm in 2014 in China[9], removing 5.5% and 39.6% of N and P inputs to Chinese coastal waters, respectively[9]. Seaweed growing in integrated multi-trophic aquaculture (IMTA) reduces nutrient emissions from fish aquaculture by up to 60% for N and 90% for P [44], while also providing a net input of oxygen to coastal waters[34] (Fig. 3). Seaweed farms contribute a higher net oxygen input to seawater than wild seaweed stands, which partially decompose in the environment (about 37.3% of their net production, on average[11]), thereby consuming oxygen, whereas the seaweed crop is removed from coastal waters with harvest.

The development of a sustainable seaweed aquaculture must also consider the possible negative impacts on ecosystems[45,46]. These include the materials used, often including plastics and ropes of synthetic materials, that may contribute to littering marine areas around seaweed farms. There is an opportunity, once prices become competitive, to replace synthetic plastics used at seaweed farms with materials based on seaweed polymers (Box 1). Seaweed aquaculture may compete with native ecosystems for resources, including light and nutrients and should not be placed over benthic primary producers, such as seagrass, corals or native seaweed, which may be impacted by shading and physical damage[45,47]. Seaweed farms in Indonesia are, for example, often set above seagrass meadows in reef lagoons, as their sediment offers better anchoring for supporting structures. As a consequence, seagrass meadows, which are critical habitats contributing to biodiversity and carbon sequestration, are impacted by both shading and trampling by farmers[47]. Whereas removal of excess nutrients by seaweed farms can improve water quality[9], further removal supported by background nutrient pools would lead to competition with native ecosystems for nutrients, with potential adverse effects on primary production and food webs[45]. Calculations of the ceilings to seaweed aquaculture imposed by anthropogenic nutrient inputs in China[9] can be extended to other coastal areas. Artificial upwelling has been proposed, and tested, as a possible solution to overcome this limitation[9], but the cost and associated CO_2 emissions may reduce the environmental and economic benefits of seaweed aquaculture.

Whereas seaweed farming should preferably use native species and strains, non-native species or strains are widely used, such as *Saccharina japonica* originally from Japan, now farmed in China and Korea[48]. Seaweed aquaculture has also been suggested as a possible source of explosive proliferations of opportunistic green macroalgae, known as green tides[49]. However, attribution of green-tide events in Qingdao, China, to seaweed aquaculture[50] was subsequently challenged by studies that identified crustacean aquaculture pond systems in Jiangsu as the most likely "seeds" for the bloom[51]. Further research has broadened the scope of the possible drivers of the green tide, still including the seaweed aquaculture hypothesis[52] as a source of "seeds" for green tides in the Sea of Japan[53]. Recent analyses suggest that adaptive management practices can reduce the risks of seaweed farming seeding green tides[54]. Global biosecurity strategies are pivotal for mitigating introduction of non-native and opportunistic species, diseases and pests as well as for protecting local genetic resources[48].

Life on land (SDG15)

The expansion of land-based production systems has already transformed 50 million Km^2, or 46.6% of non-frozen land into agricultural, pastoral and farmland, and remains the main driver of tropical deforestation[55], with a broad array of negative effects ranging from alteration of biogeochemical cycles to biodiversity decline and desertification[56]. Seaweed farming does not require arable land nor freshwater, thereby reducing the footprint of food production on water appropriations. Likewise, neither herbicides nor pesticides are applied in seaweed aquaculture. Hence, supplementing vegetable production on land with seaweed production limits degradation of terrestrial ecosystems.

No Poverty (SDG1)

Seaweed aquaculture has been named a technology for the poor, as the capital cost required to establish a farm is modest (e.g. < US $ 15,000 per ha in Mexico[57]), because acquisition of heavy machinery and land is not required, possibly with the exception of post-harvest processing facilities on land and offshore kelp cultivation. It is a valuable source of income and employment, particularly in developing nations, where seaweed aquaculture often provides additional income to artisanal fisher households[4,57].

Evidence of the environmental and social benefits of seaweed aquaculture should lead to public policies and management systems that provide payments or tax benefits for ecosystem services to farmers[5]. Examples of such policies may involve providing incentives to develop seaweed aquaculture in eutrophied coastal areas, to develop integrated seaweed/animal aquaculture[44], and payments for carbon and nutrient credits. The drive toward large-scale, advanced farms need be balanced with an attention to local, small-scale farms that deliver benefits to vulnerable communities. Seaweed farmers are also in need of expert advice to mitigate risks by selecting species suited for the target environments, diversify products and markets, build resistance to climate change and disease and develop crop insurance schemes.

Gender Equality (SDG5)

In many developing nations women take care of seaweed farms while men work as fishermen[4]. The role of women as seaweed farmers, who are organized in communities in Africa and Indonesia, has empowered them in their communities, and raised their status by contributing to the household economy[58].

Partnerships for the goals (SDG17)

Developing the full potential of seaweed aquaculture to contribute to UN SDGs requires that current barriers be addressed. These include technical challenges in off-shore cultivation, negative perceptions of marine aquaculture in general that neglect the environmental benefits of seaweed aquaculture, hurdles to obtain concessions for seaweed farms, a disconnect between production and research and innovation across regions, limited markets for the growing slate of seaweed products, and lack of monetary compensations for the ecosystem benefits seaweed farming delivers. Overcoming these barriers requires broad partnerships involving academia, industry, market operators and entrepreneurs, communicators, authorities and decision makers (fig. 3).

The reported impacts of some forms of marine aquaculture on the marine environment lead to negative social perceptions reflected in negative quality expectations of aquaculture compared to wild products[59], and eventually translates into adverse regulatory environments limiting the spread of marine aquaculture in many countries[60,61]. However, perceptions of aquaculture as a source of impacts to the environment overlook efforts to increase its sustainability as well as its potential benefits[1], which are many in the case of seaweed aquaculture (Fig. 3). Developing a more balanced public awareness of the role of aquaculture in the environment and addressing public misconceptions on the contribution of seaweed farming towards the sustainable use of coastal ecosystems is an imperative for the future growth of this industry. Reversing biased, negative perceptions with accurate, factual information may also facilitate the regulation for concessions, which in some nations is so demanding as to effectively prevent the development of a seaweed industry[61].

Planning for space allocations for seaweed aquaculture requires marine spatial planning[62]. This demands, in turn, the development of site selection tools that identify suitable sites from simple metrics and hydrodynamic and ecological models that help maximize positive environmental impacts of seaweed aquaculture and avoid negative ones. Deploying seaweed farms also requires an understanding of risks as well as robust sustainability guidelines in operating the farms[46], which are available for Europe[63] and internationally from the Aquaculture Stewardship Council (ASC) standard on seaweed aquaculture (https://www.asc-aqua.org/what-we-do/our-standards/seaweed-standard/). Sustainability standards need to consider biosecurity risks from exotic species, risks to consumers from heavy metals and pollutants, diseases[46,64], and potential impacts to ecosystems, such as shading of seagrass beds below ill-placed farms[47], and co-opting of nutrients required for the normal function of neighboring ecosystems[46]. Developing a comprehensive certification system that recognizes seaweed products as compliant with sustainability standards will greatly help deliver on the potential for positive environmental impact as seaweed production expands.

Future contributions of seaweed aquaculture to climate change mitigation and adaptation will be propelled by introducing market mechanisms to compensate the farmer for climate services, which is only present on the price system of biofuels, a small fraction of the total climate change mitigation potential of seaweed aquaculture[5]. Seaweed CO_2 capture could be commercialized as CERs (Certified Emission Reductions) or Voluntary Carbon Offsets, but the required certification systems are yet to be developed along with the robust scientific evidence for the magnitude, additionality, accountability and permanence of seaweed-based carbon sequestration in the environment. More broadly, compensation to the farmer for ecosystem services[65] and compliance with sustainability guidelines will help expand sustainable seaweed farming practices in areas, such as much of the western world, where this industry is still at its infancy.

A global expansion of seaweed aquaculture requires the development of technological solutions for large-scale automated off-shore cultivation[66], harvest and processing; best practice cultivation guidelines or Best Available Technology (BAT), including biosecurity programs securing safe management of biodiversity[46,63,64]. Reducing the economic risk to farmers, particularly small household-scale farmers that contribute much of the production in SE Asia and East Africa, requires implementing processes inspired by social arrangements and private-private and public-private partnerships that have provided security to small-scale farmers on land. These include securing fair and obligating trade agreements, unionization of smaller growers, centralizing of specialized key processes, such as breeding and hatchery processes, and the development of crop insurance schemes to protect the growers against losses from extreme events, such as cyclones and heat waves.

The growth of seaweed aquaculture is driven by scientific development and innovation. The high rate of growth on patents using seaweed, around 12% per year between

2000 and 2009[18], nearly doubled the growth of production, propelling a diversifying range of applications, including environmental, energy, food, cosmetic, and pharmaceutical industries[18] leading to the emergence of a phyco-economy (cf. phyconomy.net, Box 1). The rate of innovation is enhanced when research efforts are coupled with a productive seaweed aquaculture industry[18], although the value-add to the economy from the intellectual property developed through the synergy between seaweed production and research has not been quantified. R&D in seaweed aquaculture technologies, largely concentrated in the western world, is spatially dissociated from production, concentrated in Asia, SE Asia and Africa[18]. Developing partnerships that bring R&D providers and seaweed producers to collaborate in an entrepreneurial space will boost the growth of seaweed aquaculture. Whereas the biophysical limits to the expansion of seaweed aquaculture may be reached before 2050 within China and possibly other Asian nations, such as Korea and Japan, where seaweed aquaculture is already mature, we anticipate most of the future growth to be routed in the tropics and the Arctic, with their massive coastlines. It is in these areas where partnerships, across governments, industry, investors and local communities will be most needed.

In conclusion, seaweed aquaculture stands out through its many simultaneous benefits for sustainable development among the broad range of industries humans deploy in the ocean (Fig. 3). The major benefits of seaweed aquaculture include food provision (UN SDG 2) supporting healthy populations (UN SDG 3), poverty alleviation (UN SDG 1), affordable and clean energy (UN SDG 7), contributing to climate action (UN SDG 13) with prospects for future development through industry innovation (UN SDG 9) and responsible production systems (UN SDG 12), and a prevalence of positive impacts on the environment (UN SDG 14 and 15), along with additional societal benefits (Fig. 3). Realizing this potential requires partnerships (UN SDG 17) to drive innovation through West-East and South-North collaborations across the full production chain to ensure a balance between supply and demand. A triple helix partnership between academia, industry and government is essential for the delivery of the full potential of benefits of a the seaweed industry, and, hence, a sustainable ocean economy.

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Author Contributions

CMD and DKJ conceived this research and all three authors wrote the first draft, improved the text and approved the submission.

Competing Interests statement

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Figure headings

Figure 1. Total seaweed aquaculture production 2000-2018, main nations contributing to the production (China, Indonesia) and other nations contributing to the production[8].

Figure 2. Projected seaweed aquaculture production at annual growth rates of 3%, 6%, 12% and 20% per year from current levels[8] along with the corresponding area required by 2050 assuming a conservative production of 1604 ton DW Km^{-2}.

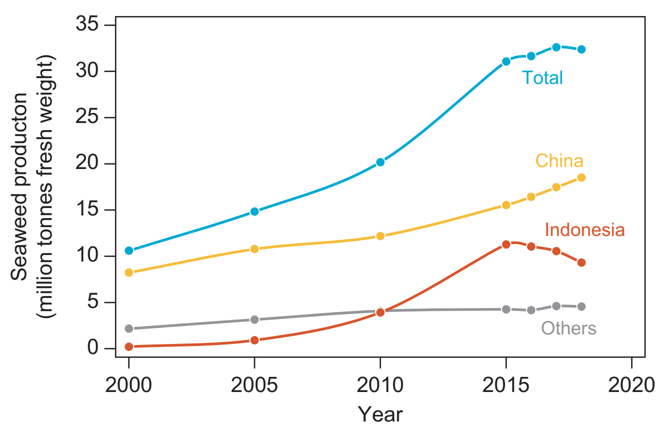
Figure 3. Seaweed production and utilisation contributes to advancing a number of UN SDGs, which provide integrative benefits contributing to additional SDGs. Logos reproduced from cf. https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/news/communications-material/),

Figure 4. Linear resource flow without (upper panel), and with seaweed farming supporting carbon capture and storage (central panel), and a seaweed-based circular bioeconomy with seaweeds as a bioresource delivering multiple uses and co-benefits (lower panel).

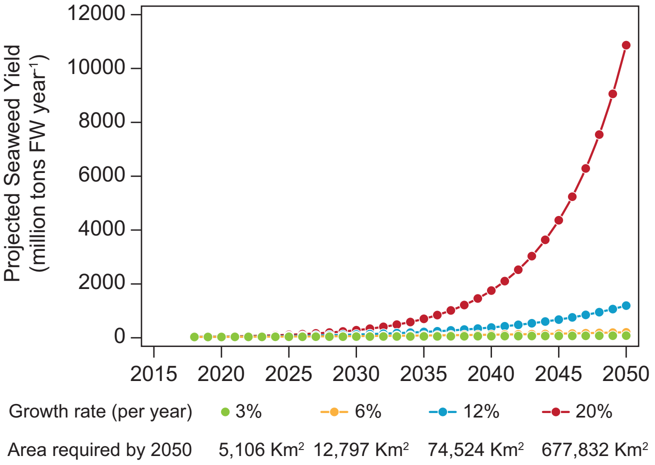
Table 1. Summary of projected growth in seaweed production by 2050 and products and associated requirements. The estimates are bracketed using a low growth scenario, 3 % year^{-1}, half of the realized long-term growth, and a high growth scenario, 20 % year^{-1}, and a "business as usual" scenario of the recent, decadal growth rate of 6.2 % year^{-1}. The estimates are calculated considering conservative current yield (16 ton DW hectare^{-1} year^{-1} [8]), nutrient uptake (60.3 ton N and 7.6 ton P km^{-2} [8]) and CO_2 sequestration estimates (0.00035 Tg CO_2 Km^{-2} year^{-1}).

Component	2050 Projection	Constraints and enablers
Production (million tons FW year^{-1})	81.8 (3% year^{-1}) 252 (6.2 % year^{-1}) 200,968 (20% year^{-1})	None at 3% year^{-1} Growth in demand at 20% year^{-1}
Area (Thousand Km^2)	5.1 (3% year^{-1}) 15.7 (6.2 % year^{-1}) 677.8 (20% year^{-1})	None at 3% year^{-1} Growth in demand and, locally, nutrient inputs and available space at 20% year^{-1}
Nutrient requirements and removal (10^6 ton N or P)	Nitrogen 0.31 (3% year^{-1}) 0.94 (6.2 % year^{-1}) 40.8 (20% year^{-1}) Phosphorus 0.048 (3% year^{-1}) 0.12 (6.2 % year^{-1}) 5.15 (20% year^{-1})	None at 3% year^{-1} Growth in demand and, locally, nutrient inputs and available space at 20% year^{-1}
Carbon sequestration (Tg CO_2 year^{-1})	1.8 (3% year^{-1}) 5.5 (6.2 % year^{-1}) 239 (20% year^{-1})	None Growth in demand and, locally, nutrient inputs and available space at 20% year^{-1}
Demans for Food production (million tons FW year^{-1})	187 (upper limit)	Human population matching Japan´s intake of 5.3 g DW per person per day[15]
Demands for Animal Feed Production	160	Meeting projected animal demand at 1 % of feed DW

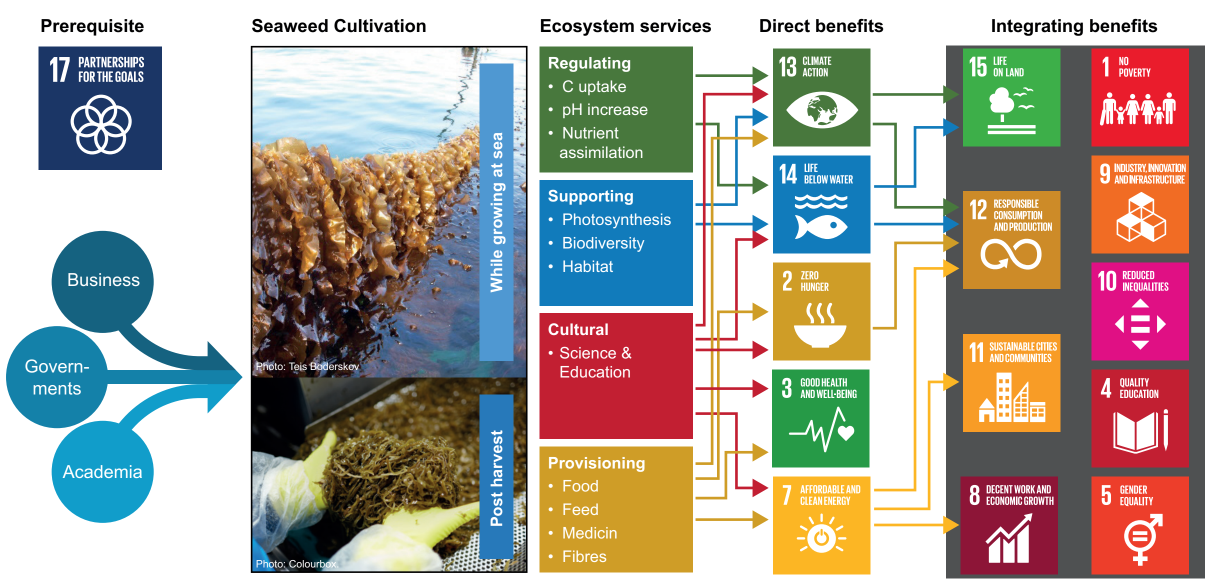
(million ton FW $year^{-1}$)		contributed by seaweed

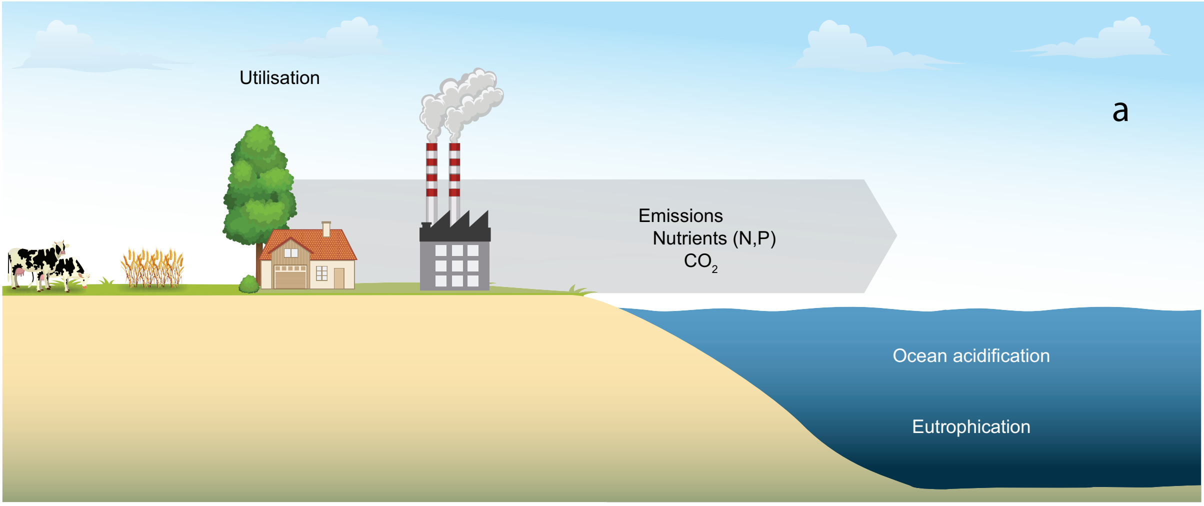


Seaweed producton
(million tonnes fresh weight)
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
2000
2005
2010
2015
2020
Year
Total
China
Indonesia
Others

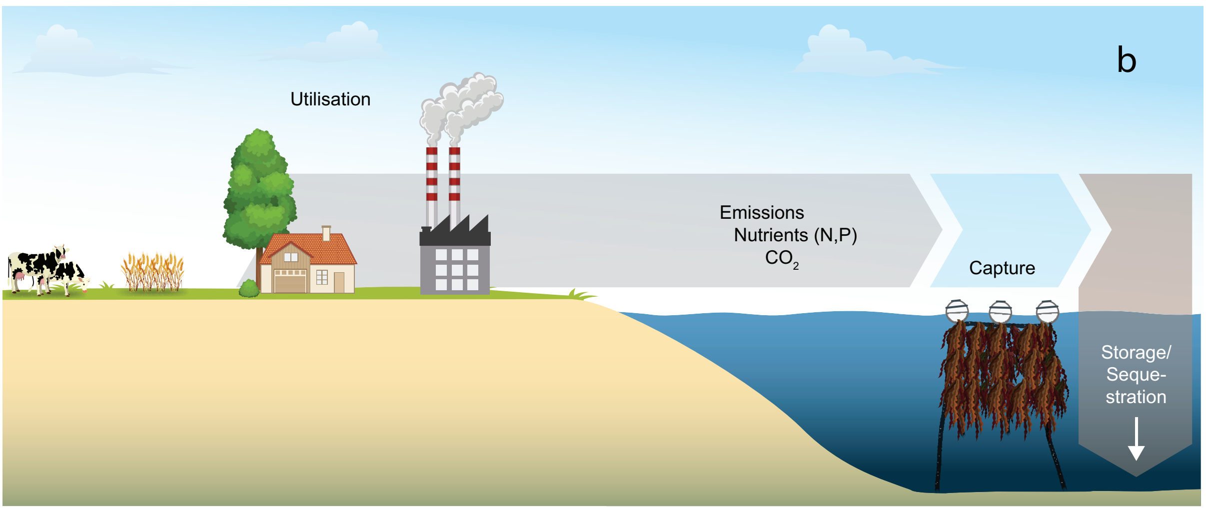


Projected Seaweed Yield
(million tons FW year^{-1})
12000
10000
8000
6000
4000
2000
0
2015
2020
2025
2030
2035
2040
2045
2050
Growth rate (per year)
3%
6%
12%
20%
Area required by 2050
5,106 Km^2
12,797 Km^2
74,524 Km^2
677,832 Km^2

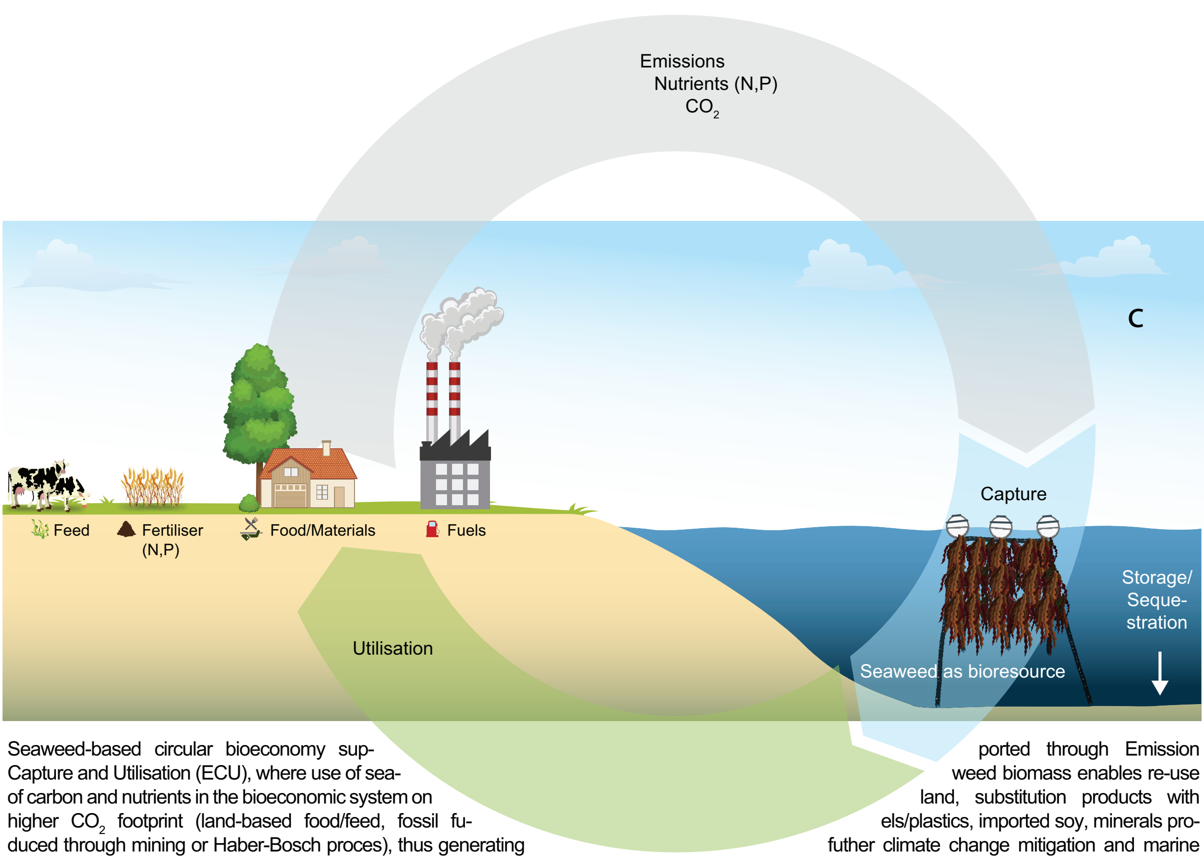

Prerequisite
Seaweed Cultivation
Ecosystem services
Direct benefits
Integrating benefits
17 PARTNERSHIPS FOR THE GOALS
Business
Govern-ments
Academia
While growing at sea
Photo: Teis Boderskov
Post harvest
Photo: Colourbox.
Regulating
• C uptake
• pH increase
• Nutrient assimilation
Supporting
• Photosynthesis
• Biodiversity
• Habitat
Cultural
• Science & Education
Provisioning
• Food
• Feed
• Medicin
• Fibres
13 CLIMATE ACTION
14 LIFE BELOW WATER
2 ZERO HUNGER
3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING
7 AFFORDABLE AND CLEAN ENERGY
15 LIFE ON LAND
12 RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION
11 SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES
8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH
1 NO POVERTY
9 INDUSTRY, INNOVATION AND INFRASTRUCTURE
10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES
4 QUALITY EDUCATION
5 GENDER EQUALITY



Linear ressource flow from land to sea with emissions accumulation in the atmosphere and the marine environment.



Linear ressource flow from land to sea, supporting Carbon Capture and Storage, with emissions accumulating in the the marine environment, maintaining use and loss of fossil and mineral resources with no



Seaweed-based circular bioeconomy sup- ported through Emission Capture and Utilisation (ECU), where use of sea- weed biomass enables re-use of carbon and nutrients in the bioeconomic system on land, substitution products with higher CO_2 footprint (land-based food/feed, fossil fu- els/plastics, imported soy, minerals produced through mining or Haber-Bosch proces), thus generating futher climate change mitigation and marine ecosystem resilience, while supporting a divers sustainable economy.