A neglected treasure of our waters

Why low trophic level fish are the future

Sebastian Braathen, Celia González-Jonte Villa, Åsne Omdal, Morten Skoland, Sarah Jørgensen Veillat & Mia Pernille Rubin Wollan

Introduction

Hunger is defined as when an individual has a physical discomfort due to the lack of obtaining sufficient and nutritious food, or the uncertainty that one will not be able to do so (Davis *et al.*, 1994). There are 854 million people in the world who are chronically or acutely malnourished due to hunger, and 2 billion people suffer from hidden hunger and micronutrient deficiencies (Sanchez et al., 2005). How food is produced, delivered, marketed and sold are factors affecting what kind of food choices people take (Steptoe, et al., 1995). The food that people in the western world consume does not necessarily contain the kind of nutrients one should have in one's body, which can lead to malnutrition (Spence et al., 2016). While both the production and availability of food in total is increasing, the malnutrition and food security is dangerously low (Premanandh, 2011). These issues have been heeded in the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, having appointed a specific sustainable development goal to 'End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition' (SDG 2), and thereby promoting agriculture to reach this goal (United Nations, 2015, pp. 15-16). However, as the population is growing, so is the demand for food and thereby demand of land area to produce the food (Wirsenius, 2010). This will be difficult to achieve in unison with SDG 15, which pleads for the protection and restoration of terrestrial ecosystems (United Nations, 2015, pp. 24-25). Keeping in mind that the ocean constitutes for 70 % of the earth surface, it would be a logical step to release some of the pressure on the land by using more of the ocean's resources, especially since only 2% of our overall calorie intake comes from the ocean (Lovelock, 2007; European Commission, 2017). There is a huge public interest towards seafood, due to its health benefits (Ackman, 1989) and also its sustainability (Smith et al., 2010). The oceans are thus a good source of nutrition, but the global catch of wild fisheries has not increased for decades (FAO, 2018). With the world population predicted to reach 10 million before 2100 (Roser, 2020), it is critical that a sustainable solution to this issue is found in order to reach SDG 2. At the same time, we have to take heed of SDG 14, which deals with 'conserving and sustainable using the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development' (United Nations, 2015, pp. 23, 24). We believe that changing our diet so it consists more of lower trophic level (LTL) fish species could be the answer.

Higher efficiency of lower trophic level species

The efficiency of eating LTL species is due to the roots of physics. LTL fish include herring, mackerel, sardine, anchovy and other small fishes. The Second Law of Thermodynamics demands that there be less available energy at higher trophic levels, because a lot of energy is lost in every level due to metabolism (respiration and heat production) and some more is lost due to inefficiencies in transferring the biomass produced (Brown et al., 2004). The Lindeman efficiency estimates the transfer of energy between trophic levels at 10% and that the percentage loss of energy due to respiration is progressively greater for higher levels in the food chain (Lindeman, 1942). LTL species are often presented in a high abundance. Many of these small fishes are forage fish and they are mostly been used for fishmeal production to higher trophic levels, as livestock industries and aquaculture (Smith et al., 2011). If these fishes were used as food, it would be a more sustainable use of the whole fish, and this again is great when it comes to the loss of energy in trophic levels (Smith et al., 2011). This leads to the conclusion that harvesting small fish is most efficient because they have higher productivity per unit biomass than large fish (Kolding et al., 2016). As an example, Peruvian anchovy contributes to 50 % of the production of fishmeal, and if this were used as a food source to the increasing population rather than food for bigger fishes it would help to reduce hunger and it may be easier to continue and promote fishing at LTL (Smith et al., 2011).

Mesopelagic fish

Another option would be to introduce new fisheries of underutilised fish species, such as mesopelagic fish (Zhou *et al.*, 2015). Mesopelagic fish are small, LTL fishes found in the twilight zone (200m to 1000m depth) of all our oceans, with the dominating species being Lantern fish (*Myctophidae*) (Gjøsæter & Kawaguchi, 1980). There is no exact estimation of their total global biomass, but it is believed to be a magnitude over 1000 million tons (Irigoien *et al.*, 2014). The potential to fish more mesopelagic species is thus high and that raises the next question: why has this not yet happened? One reason is the lack of knowledge on the effect mesopelagic fish have on their environment and ecosystem. They are a key resource for higher trophic levels and play a vital part in the global carbon cycle (Potier *et al.*, 2017; Davison *et al.*, 2013). Nevertheless, there is simply not enough insight on how the harvesting of these fish would affect already existing fisheries or even the global climate (St John *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, fishing mesopelagic species would be costly, due to the fish being located at a great depth and showing high trawl avoidance (St John *et al.*, 2016; Kaartvedt *et al.*, 2012). Gathering more information on the ecological role of the species and developing more adequate fishing gear is thus instrumental to make this fishery a possibility and to make sure it is conducted sustainably and does not collide with any of the targets of SDG 14.

Nutritional value

However, due to the high expenses of such a fishery, the profit, and thus demand, needs to be high as well. This brings us to another reason for the underutilisation of mesopelagic fish, which is one that concerns all LTL fish species. There is an overall disregard and distaste of small fish for human consumption, especially seen in the western world, that complicates the transition to LTL fish species in our diet (Zhou et al., 2015). In many countries people associate fish from LTL as the poor man's fish, and that the fillet is the nutritional part of the fish. It is true that filleted muscle contains a big portion of important proteins, however many of the micronutrients from bones, head and viscera are lost (Reksten, 2019). One of the many benefits with LTL is their size. Often, they are small, and that makes it so that the whole fish can be easily consumed. They consist of some of the most important micronutrients like iron, calcium, zinc and vitamin A (Roos et al., 2007). These are crucial for good health, and development and growth in children (Kolding, 2019). When comparing the nutritional value in small fish eaten whole with big fish processed into fillets, it is evident that small fish have more nutrients per weight then big fish (Reksten, 2019). Besides, research has shown that these fish have little environmental toxins (Reksten, 2019). A serious change in our relationship with small fish species is thus necessary and could be accomplished through good marketing and product development (Venugopal et al., 1995), which will contribute to SDG 12.7 and 12.8 by promoting sustainable consumption and raising the awareness of the public on the matter (United Nations, 2015, pp. 22-23). This could open up the possibility of a new fishery in mesopelagic fish, as well as create an opportunity to utilise the bycatch of small pelagic fish that is still being regarded as discard in most fisheries (Venugopal et al., 1995).

Conclusion

In a growing world where not the amount of food is the problem, but enough food with the necessary nutrients, low trophic level fish can be a key component to solve the growing demand. Less biomass is lost when remaining low on the food chain, and for the small mesopelagic fish, many are still unutilized. These fish have a huge potential as food for humans. Not only will the transition to LTL fish in our diet bring more food to the table, it will also increase the quality of the fish we eat. It will help us reach the Sustainable Development Goal 2, to end hunger and malnourishment in the world, while still using our oceans in a sustainable way and thus staying in line with SDG 14. To make this happen we will need a change of our view of LTL fish to make them a bigger part of our diet.

References:

Ackman, R. G. (1989). Nutritional composition of fats in seafoods. Progress in food & nutrition science, 13(3-4), 289.

Brown, J. H., Gillooly, J. F., Allen, A. P., Savage, V. M., & West, G. B. (2004). Toward a metabolic theory of ecology. Ecology, 85(7), 1771-1789.

Davis, B., & Tarasuk, V. (1994). Hunger in Canada. Agriculture and Human Values, 11(4), 50-57.

Davison, P. C., Checkley Jr, D. M., Koslow, J. A., & Barlow, J. (2013). Carbon export mediated by mesopelagic fishes in the northeast Pacific Ocean. Progress in Oceanography, 116, 14-30.

Emery, K. O., & Iselin, C. D. (1967). Human food from ocean and land. Science, 157(3794), 1279-1281.

FAO. (2018). The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2018 - Meeting the sustainable development goals. Rome. Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.

European Commission (2017). Food from the Oceans - How can more food and biomass be obtained from the oceans in a way that does not deprive future generations of their benefits? High Level Group of Scientific

Advisors Scientific Opinion No. 3/2017. pp. 13. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities: Luxembourg. ISBN 978-92-79-67731-1.

Gjøsæter, J., & Kawaguchi, K. (1980). A review of the world resources of mesopelagic fish (No. 193). Food & Agriculture Org.

Irigoien, X., Klevjer, T. A., Røstad, A., Martinez, U., Boyra, G., Acuña, J. L., ... & Agusti, S. (2014). Large mesopelagic fishes biomass and trophic efficiency in the open ocean. Nature communications, 5(1), 1-10

Kaartvedt, S., Staby, A., & Aksnes, D. L. (2012). Efficient trawl avoidance by mesopelagic fishes causes large underestimation of their biomass. Marine Ecology Progress Series, 456, 1-6.

Kolding, J., Jacobsen, N. S., Andersen, K. H., & van Zwieten, P. A. (2016). Maximizing fisheries yields while maintaining community structure. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 73(4), 644-655.

Kolding, J., van Zwieten, P. A., Marttin, F., Funge-Smith, S., & Poulain, F. (2019). Freshwater small pelagic fish and fisheries in the main African great lakes and reservoirs in relation to food security and nutrition. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

Lindeman, R. (1942). The Trophic-Dynamic Aspect of Ecology. Ecology, 23(4), 399-417.

Lovelock, J. E., & Rapley, C. G. (2007). Ocean pipes could help the Earth to cure itself. Nature, 449(7161), 403-403. Potier, M., Marsac, F., Cherel, Y., Lucas, V., Sabatié, R., Maury, O., & Ménard, F. (2007). Forage fauna in the diet of three large pelagic fishes (lancetfish, swordfish and yellowfin tuna) in the western equatorial Indian Ocean. Fisheries *Research*, 83(1), 60-72.

Premanandh, J. (2011). Factors affecting food security and contribution of modern technologies in food sustainability. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, 91(15), 2707-2714.

Sanchez, P. A., & Swaminathan, M. S. (2005). Cutting world hunger in half. Science, 307(5708), 357-359.

Smith, A. D., Brown, C. J., Bulman, C. M., Fulton, E. A., Johnson, P., Kaplan, I. C., ... & Shin, Y. J. (2011). Impacts of fishing low-trophic level species on marine ecosystems. Science, 333(6046),

1147-1150.

Smith, M. D., Roheim, C. A., Crowder, L. B., Halpern, B. S., Turnipseed, M., Anderson, J. L., ... & Liguori, L. A. (2010). Sustainability and global seafood. Science, 327(5967), 784-786.

Spence, C., Okajima, K., Cheok, A. D., Petit, O., & Michel, C. (2016). Eating with our eyes: From visual hunger to digital satiation. Brain and cognition, 110, 53-63.

St John, M. A., Borja, A., Chust, G., Heath, M., Grigorov, I., Mariani, P., ... & Santos, R. S. (2016). A dark hole in our understanding of marine ecosystems and their services: perspectives from the mesopelagic community. Frontiers in Marine Science, 3, 31.

Steptoe, A., Pollard, T. M., & Wardle, J. (1995). Development of a measure of the motives underlying the selection of food: the food choice questionnaire. Appetite, 25(3), 267-284.

Reksten, A. M. (2019). Nutrient composition of 19 marine fish species from Sri Lanka and their potential contribution to food and nutrition security (Master's thesis, The University of Bergen).

Roser, M., Ritchie, H. & Ortiz-Ospina, E. (2020). World Population Growth. Published online at OurWorldInData.org. Retrieved on May 3th, 2020 from: 'https://ourworldindata.org/world-populationgrowth' [Online Resource]

Roos, N., Wahab, M. A., Hossain, M. A. R., & Thilsted, S. H. (2007). Linking Human Nutrition and Fisheries: Incorporating Micronutrient-Dense, Small Indigenous Fish Species in Carp Polyculture Production in Bangladesh. Food and Nutrition Bulletin, 28(2 suppl2), S280–S293.

United Nations. (2015). Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. United Nations Sustainable knowledge platform. Sustainable Development Goals.

https://doi.org/https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld Venugopal, V., Shahidi, F., & Lee, T. C. (1995). Value-added products from underutilized fish species. Critical

Reviews in Food Science & Nutrition, 35(5), 431-453.

Wirsenius, S., Azar, C., & Berndes, G. (2010). How much land is needed for global food production under scenarios of dietary changes and livestock productivity increases in 2030?. Agricultural systems, 103(9), 621-638.

Zhou, S., Smith, A. D., & Knudsen, E. E. (2015). Ending overfishing while catching more fish. Fish and Fisheries, 16(4), 716-722.

161-