

## **Aquaculture: the missing contributor in the food security agenda**

Taryn Garlock<sup>1\*</sup>, Frank Asche<sup>2</sup>, James Anderson<sup>3</sup>, Adams Ceballos-Concha<sup>4</sup>, David C. Love<sup>5</sup>,  
Tonje C. Osmundsen<sup>6</sup>, Ruth Beatriz Mezzalira Pincinato<sup>7</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Food Systems Institute, and School of Forest, Fisheries, and Geomatics Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA, [tgainer@ufl.edu](mailto:tgainer@ufl.edu)

<sup>2</sup>School of Forest, Fisheries, and Geomatics Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA, [frank.asche@ufl.edu](mailto:frank.asche@ufl.edu)

<sup>3</sup>Food and Resource Economics, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA, [james.anderson@ufl.edu](mailto:james.anderson@ufl.edu)

<sup>4</sup>Food and Resource Economics, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA, [aceballos@ufl.edu](mailto:aceballos@ufl.edu)

<sup>5</sup>John Hopkins Center for a Livable Future, and Department of Environmental Health and Engineering, John Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA, [dlove8@jhu.edu](mailto:dlove8@jhu.edu)

<sup>6</sup>NTNU Social Research, Trondheim, Norway, [tonje.osmundsen@samforsk.no](mailto:tonje.osmundsen@samforsk.no)

<sup>7</sup>University of Stavanger Business School, University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway, [ruth.b.pincinato@uis.no](mailto:ruth.b.pincinato@uis.no)

\*Corresponding author: 185 Frazier Rogers Hall, PO Box 110570, Gainesville, FL, 32611, USA, email [tgainer@ufl.edu](mailto:tgainer@ufl.edu), phone 19412701385

1 **Aquaculture: the missing contributor in the food security agenda**

2

3 **Abstract**

4 Aquaculture's rapidly increasing contribution to global aquatic food supply is masked by  
5 rhetoric on sustainability and international trade. We examine the association of country-level  
6 aquaculture production and per capita consumption of aquatic food in 163 countries. We find a  
7 positive association between aquaculture production and aquatic food consumption at the  
8 national scale where a 1% increase in domestic aquaculture production is associated with a 0.9%  
9 increase per capita consumption. The results corroborate previous case studies showing  
10 consumption of aquatic food has increased among the poor as domestic aquaculture has  
11 expanded. The findings provide important insight to the role of aquaculture in global food  
12 security and highlight the significance of advancing aquaculture development in regions with  
13 high rates of malnutrition and food insecurity.

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15

16 **Highlights**

- 17 • Domestic aquatic food consumption is positively associated with aquaculture.  
18 • Aquaculture producers show comparably larger increases in per capita consumption.  
19 • Aquaculture plays an increasing role in aquatic food security.

20

21 **Keywords:** fish farming, fish consumption, poverty, seafood

## 22        **1. Introduction**

23        Globally, aquaculture is the fastest growing food production system (Garlock et al. 2020). It  
24        offers an important means to meet growing food demand and address nutritional deficiencies  
25        (Golden et al. 2021; Smith et al. 2010; Filipiski and Belton, 2018), and with lower environmental  
26        impact than many alternative animal source foods (Gephart et al. 2021; Hilborn et al. 2018;  
27        Froehlich et al., 2018; MacLeod et al. 2020). However, suppressed by discourse on sustainability  
28        and ocean health (Tlusty et al. 2019; Bogard et al. 2019) and stigmatized as a food destined for  
29        the wealthy (Golden et al. 2016; McCauley et al. 2018), aquatic food from aquaculture is often at  
30        the periphery of global food security planning and discussions on the future of food (Bennett et  
31        al. 2021). Here, we examine the association between country-level aquaculture production and  
32        provisioning of aquatic food.

33                Fish and other aquatic food from marine and freshwater environments are nutrient dense  
34        animal source food. Aquatic food is rich in bioavailable micronutrients such as zinc, calcium,  
35        and long-chain n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, and consumption of aquatic food is critically  
36        important for fetal neurocognitive development and adult cardiovascular health (Rimm et al.  
37        2018; Hibbeln et al. 2019; Mohan et al. 2021). Multiple factors influence aquatic food  
38        consumption including food production and availability, international trade, wealth, culture,  
39        religion, and health consciousness, among others (Govzman et al. 2021). Globally, average per  
40        capita consumption is 20.21 kilograms (kg) per year and is increasing although consumption  
41        varies considerably by region and country, with many developing countries and small-island  
42        states consuming more than double the average per capita. In some Asian countries where  
43        wealth, international trade and aquaculture are increasing, per capita consumption is increasing.  
44        For instance, consumption of aquatic food in China has more than tripled since 1990, increasing

45 from 11.2 kg per capita per year to 38.0 kg per capita per year in 2018. This development has  
46 paralleled growth in aquaculture, and China is currently responsible for about 57% of global  
47 aquaculture production and about 35% of global consumption of aquatic food.

48 Capture fisheries provide a diversity of nutrient-dense aquatic foods that are often  
49 culturally preferred and traditionally more accessible in rural and low-income communities  
50 (Golden et al. 2021; Hall et al. 2013). Stagnant or declining marine and freshwater catches and  
51 the absence of food-oriented fisheries management poses challenges for wild fish for food  
52 security in many low-income countries (Youn et al. 2014; Bene, Barange et al. 2015; Bennett et  
53 al. 2021). Changes in climate will add further challenges as many of the world's most dependent  
54 people live in the tropics where the impacts of rising temperatures will be most severe (Barange  
55 et al. 2018; Pincinato, Asche and Oglend 2020; Maire et al. 2021). New recommendations by  
56 EAT-Lancet Commission suggests a healthy diet includes 28g of fish and aquatic food per day,  
57 which, if met, would require a substantial increase in supply, and rising prices for aquatic food  
58 are already indicative of high demand (Willet et al. 2019; Tveteras et al. 2012). Improved  
59 governance of fisheries resources is not expected to substantially increase global supply of  
60 aquatic food although reductions in food waste may have a marginally larger impact (Love et al.  
61 2015).

62 Aquaculture is a promising path to meeting the demand gap for aquatic food (Costello et  
63 al. 2020). Aquaculture has more than doubled the availability of aquatic food in the past three  
64 decades, growing from 13.1 million mt in 1990 to 82.1 million mt in 2018<sup>1</sup>, and continued  
65 growth is almost certain (Kobayashi et al. 2015). Growth in aquaculture production has been  
66 unevenly distributed, and developing countries dominate global production as they have  
67 participated in the blue revolution to a much greater extent than the developed world (Garlock et

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<sup>1</sup> Excludes aquatic plants.

68 al. 2020). The largest aquaculture producing countries are in Asia, and countries in this region  
69 have shown the largest increases in per capita consumption of aquatic food since 1990 (Figure  
70 1).

71 The contribution of aquaculture to the diets of the Global South have been intensely  
72 debated (Beveridge et al. 2013; Bene et al. 2016; Belton et al. 2018; Golden et al. 2016; Golden  
73 et al. 2017; Belton et al. 2020). Trade of aquatic food has increased rapidly in parallel to the  
74 expansion of aquaculture (Anderson et al. 2018; Gephart and Pace 2015), and this has led to  
75 aquaculture being portrayed by some as a capital-intensive production practice oriented towards  
76 high-value or luxury species that are exported, reducing local access to fish among the world's  
77 poorest populations (Golden et al. 2016; Smith et al. 2010). Belton, Bush and Little (2018)  
78 challenge the narrative that aquaculture supports wealthy consumers and provide evidence that  
79 aquaculture facilitates access to aquatic food among low and middle classes in the ten largest  
80 developing country producers and show that aquaculture has a lower export share and is priced  
81 lower than capture fisheries. Toufique and Belton (2014) show farming of inexpensive  
82 freshwater fish facilitates greater accessibility and affordability of aquatic food to poorer  
83 segments of societies in Bangladesh. Garlock et al. (2020) show that the three largest aquaculture  
84 producing countries are among the world's four most populated countries, with the U.S. as the  
85 exception, which also supports the notion that aquaculture provides food domestically. In this  
86 paper, we contribute to this literature by examining the association of country-level aquaculture  
87 production and aquatic food consumption in 163 countries.

88

## 89 **2. Methods**

### 90 *2.1 Analysis*

91 We examine temporal trends in average per capita consumption of aquatic food by two types of  
 92 production level: absolute production and production per capita. We also examine per capita  
 93 consumption, per capita fisheries production, and per capita aquaculture production by region  
 94 and period. We employ regression analyses to examine the association of within country  
 95 aquaculture production and apparent per capita consumption of aquatic food in 163 countries.  
 96 We estimate two models, and the dependent variable in both is defined as national apparent per  
 97 capita consumption of aquatic food. In the first model, aquaculture production is defined by a  
 98 continuous variable *Aqua*, which is aquaculture production in metric tons in a given country in a  
 99 given year when an aquaculture industry exists (i.e., production is greater than 10,000 mt). We  
 100 specified the regression model as:

101

$$102 \quad \ln(y_{ct}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\ln(Aqua_{ct} + 1)) + \alpha_c + \theta_t + X_{ct} \quad (1)$$

103

104 where  $y$  is per capita consumption of aquatic food,  $\theta$  is the year fixed effects,  $\alpha$  is the country  
 105 fixed effects, and  $X$  is the covariates for country  $c$  at time  $t$ .

106 In the second model, a time trend dummy  $T$  is interacted with a treatment dummy  $Treat$   
 107 and coefficients are estimated for each period relative to the treatment onset similar to Sun and  
 108 Abraham (2021). This model is specified as:

109

$$110 \quad \log(y_{ct}) = \beta_0 + \beta(T * Treat_c) + \theta_t + X_{ct} \quad (2)$$

111

112 where  $Treat$  is a dummy variable that is equal to 1 if the country  $c$  is in the treatment group and 0  
 113 if in the control group, and  $T$  is a time trend dummy that is zero in the year the treatment begins,  
 114 +1, +2, +3, and so forth in years following the treatment onset and -1,-2,-3, and so forth in years

115 preceding the treatment onset. The treated group was defined as a given country in a given year  
116 with aquaculture production above a threshold of 10,000 metric tons. Countries having  
117 production less than 10,000 metric tons (where most have zero production during the whole time  
118 series available) served as the control group.

119

## 120 *2.2 Data*

121 We use apparent per capita consumption of aquatic food in kg/capita/year from 1975 to  
122 2018 from the United Nation's Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) as the dependent  
123 variable in our models. Data are accessible at [faostat.fao.org/](http://faostat.fao.org/). National annual  
124 aquaculture production from FAO (accessible at  
125 <http://www.fao.org/fishery/statistics/software/fishstatj/en>) was used as an explanatory variable.  
126 Gross domestic product (in 2010 USD) and population estimates were obtained from the World  
127 Bank (World Bank, Accessed 10/28/19) and FAO (FAO STAT Accessed, 10/28/19),  
128 respectively, and included in the model as covariates. Sensitivity of the models to China's  
129 aquaculture production were explored. The statistical inference did not change when Chinese  
130 production was excluded from the analysis, and there were only minor quantitative differences in  
131 the coefficients. All analyses were conducted using R software.

132

## 133 **3. Results**

134 Aquaculture's contribution to maintaining aquatic food in the diets of developing countries may  
135 be more prominent than previously understood. We find a positive association between  
136 aquaculture production and aquatic food consumption at the national scale. Countries that have  
137 developed aquaculture industries (i.e., production >10,000 mt) show higher per capita

138 consumption of aquatic food, and countries with higher aquaculture production per capita show  
139 comparably larger increases in per capita consumption between 1975 and 2018 (Figure 2). On  
140 average, countries with per capita aquaculture production below 0.09 mt/1000 persons have no  
141 clear trend in per capita consumption between 1975 and 2018, and countries with per capita  
142 aquaculture production between 0.09 and 2.9 mt/1000 persons show a comparably larger  
143 increase in per capita consumption over the period despite having lower per capita consumption  
144 throughout. This is indicative of the fact that in some countries demand for aquatic food can be  
145 supplied by provisioning of capture fisheries and/or imports of aquatic food and thus making  
146 aquaculture unnecessary.

147         Per capita consumption of aquatic food varies by region with wealthier regions showing  
148 higher per capita consumption (Figure 3). Asia has the largest increase in per capita consumption  
149 between 1990 and 2018 and also has the largest increase in aquaculture production per capita.  
150 All regions apart from Northern America and the Caribbean show increases in per capita  
151 consumption, and notably Northern America and the Caribbean are also the only regions that do  
152 not have increases in aquaculture production per capita. Fisheries production per capita is steady  
153 or decreasing for all regions with the largest decline occurring in South America. The decline in  
154 fisheries production per capita in South America is, to a large extent, driven by the declining  
155 production of reduction fisheries, and this combined with increasing aquaculture production per  
156 capita has yielded a slight increase in per capita consumption.

157         Our model estimates that a 1% increase in domestic aquaculture production is associated  
158 with a 0.9% increase per capita consumption (Table 1). The positive association of aquaculture  
159 production and aquatic food consumption shows that the results of studies in individual  
160 countries, such as Toufique and Belton (2014), Belton et al. (2018b), and Dey et al. (2005) which



161 find that consumption of inexpensive farmed fish has increased among the poor as local  
162 aquaculture has rapidly expanded, are generalizable. The model results also indicate that per  
163 capita fish consumption is larger in less populated countries and wealthy countries. While this is  
164 seemingly intuitive, it is also interesting to point out that there are several exceptions such as in  
165 the case of China, the world's most populous country, which has high per capita consumption of  
166 about 30 kg per capita, and Indonesia, the fourth most populous country, which has also high per  
167 capita consumption at 44 kg per capita (2018).

168 We examine the association of aquaculture and domestic aquatic food consumption  
169 through time and find that the association is positive and increases through time (Figure 4). This  
170 is consistent with studies showing production of many farmed species, once produced in  
171 sufficiently large quantities, will stabilize or drive down fish prices (Tveterås et al. 2012; Belton,  
172 Bush and Little 2018), both of which contribute to increased accessibility of aquatic food among  
173 the poor.

174

#### 175 **4. Discussion**

176 Discourses on aquaculture is often critical of its potential to improve local access to fish and food  
177 security among the poor (Golden et al. 2017), and capture fisheries are perceived to better serve  
178 the poor segments of society given the natural provisioning of capture fisheries has traditionally  
179 provided a relatively inexpensive and easily accessible source of aquatic food (Belton and  
180 Thilsted 2014). This paper contributes to an emerging literature that indicates this narrative in  
181 general is not true (Belton, Bush and Little 2018; Gephart et al. 2020). We show that aquaculture  
182 production is positively associated to aquatic food consumption at the national scale, and the

183 association is strongest in the long-term as production increases and enables greater access to  
184 aquatic food at lower costs (Asche et al. 2009; Tveteras et al. 2012; Belton and Thilsted 2014).

185         The increase in international trade of aquatic food is generally believed to weaken the  
186 importance on where aquatic food is produced. For instance, many wealthy countries, such as the  
187 US and UK, import substantial quantities of farmed aquatic food, which may compensate for the  
188 lack of domestic aquaculture production (Shamshak et al. 2019). However, our results suggest  
189 that where aquaculture production occurs is important for increasing aquatic food availability at  
190 the national level. This is perhaps because non-producing developing countries lack the logistics  
191 and transportation infrastructure to import aquatic food and/or are unable to pay higher  
192 international prices. The latter is consistent with Anderson et al. (2018) who show that most  
193 highly traded aquatic food are also high-value commodities such as shrimp and salmon.

194         Research on factors driving adoption of aquaculture has generally focused on country-  
195 level, regional or local case studies (Ruff et al. 2020). In some countries, aquaculture  
196 development may be driven by export-oriented demand such as in the case of US markets for  
197 Chilean salmon (Salazar and Dresdner 2021). In other countries, aquaculture growth is driven by  
198 domestic demand for aquatic food (Belton and Little 2011; Belton et al. 2018b). Demand for  
199 aquatic food is influenced by population, culture, religion, and wealth, among other factors, and  
200 the abundance of capture fisheries and trade of aquatic food can satisfy varying degrees of  
201 aquatic food demand (Naylor et al. 2021). Technical and governance considerations also  
202 influence aquaculture development such as biophysical factors, infrastructure, capital, and policy  
203 (Bostock et al. 2010; Engle and Stone 2013). Increasing urban domestic demand and  
204 infrastructure development have been important factors for aquaculture growth in Asia (Belton

205 and Little 2011), whereas in developed countries it is often suggested that regulatory policies  
206 have constrained development of aquaculture (Abate et al. 2016; Engle and Stone 2013).

207         Aquaculture will be pivotal in global efforts to shift to more environmentally sustainable  
208 diets and simultaneously achieving food security goals. Fished aquatic food production is  
209 stagnant and distributional shifts in fish stocks resulting from climate change will reduce  
210 capacity for fisheries to contribute to future aquatic food security in tropical, low-income nations  
211 (Lotze et al. 2019). Advancing aquaculture in regions with high rates of malnutrition and food  
212 insecurity, such as sub-Saharan Africa where aquaculture is limited, is important for maintaining  
213 and improving access to aquatic food (Chan et al. 2019; Golden et al. 2016; Koehn et al. 2021).

214

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365

366 **Figure captions**

367 **Figure 1.** Difference in per capita aquatic food consumption (kg/year) between 1990 and 2018.

368

369 **Figure 2.** Mean annual per capita consumption of aquatic food (kg) by (a) aquaculture  
370 production (MT in 2018) and (b) aquaculture production per capita (MT/1,000 persons in 2018).

371

372 **Figure 3.** Per capita aquatic food consumption (kg/year), per capita fisheries production  
373 (mt/1000 persons), and per capita aquaculture production (mt/1000 persons) by region and  
374 period.

375

376 **Figure 4.** Estimated relationship per capita aquatic food consumption and aquaculture  
377 production. Black points indicate no significance, orange points indicate significance at 0.05, and  
378 red points indicate significance at 0.001. A time of zero indicates the year in which the treatment  
379 begins (i.e., aquaculture production exceeds 10,000 metric tons).

380

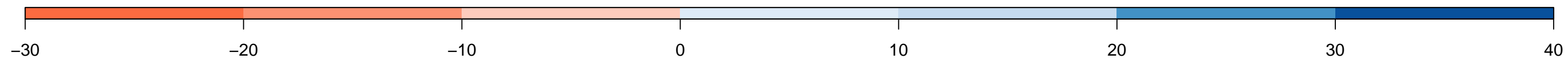
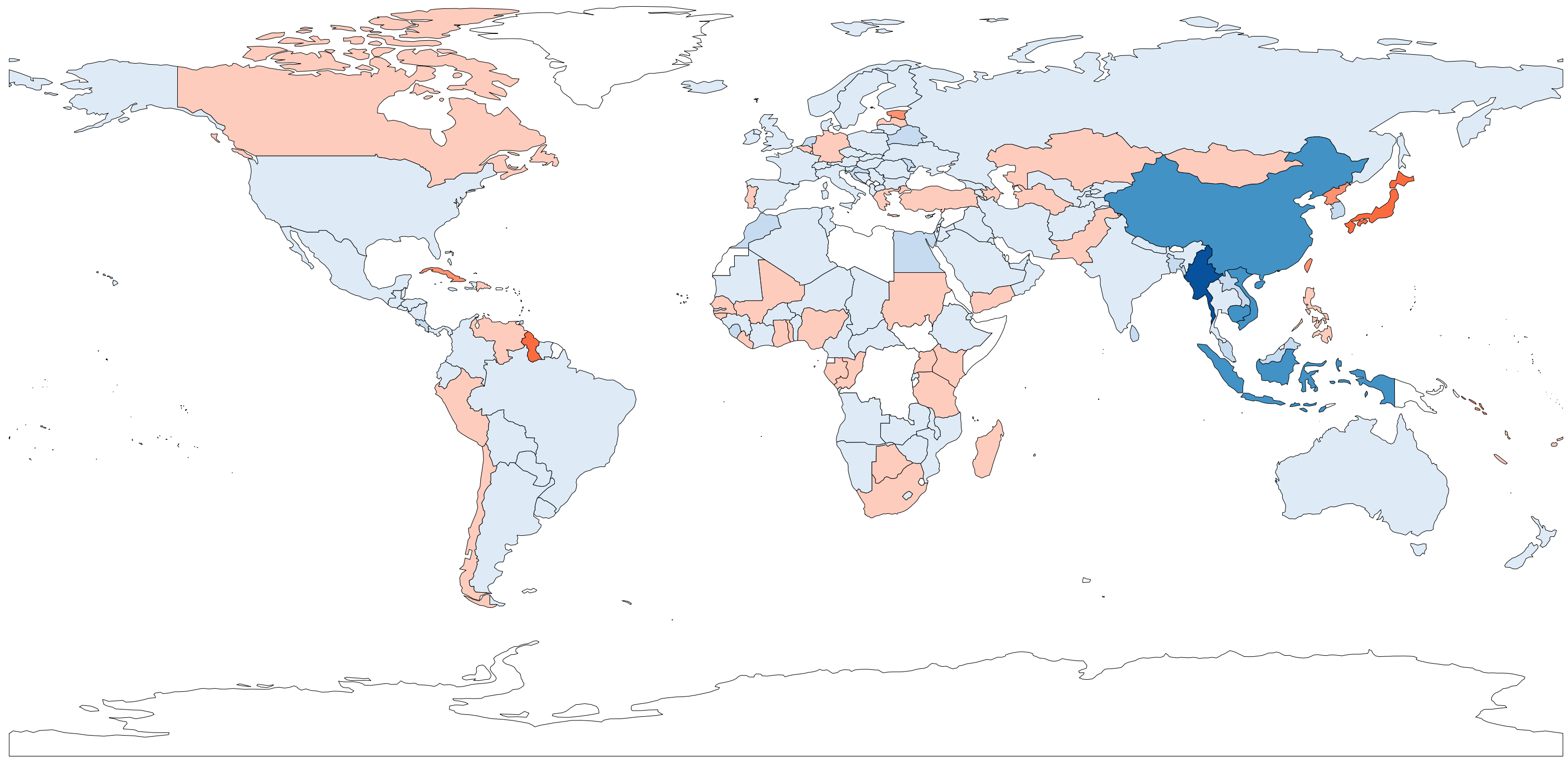
381 **Tables**

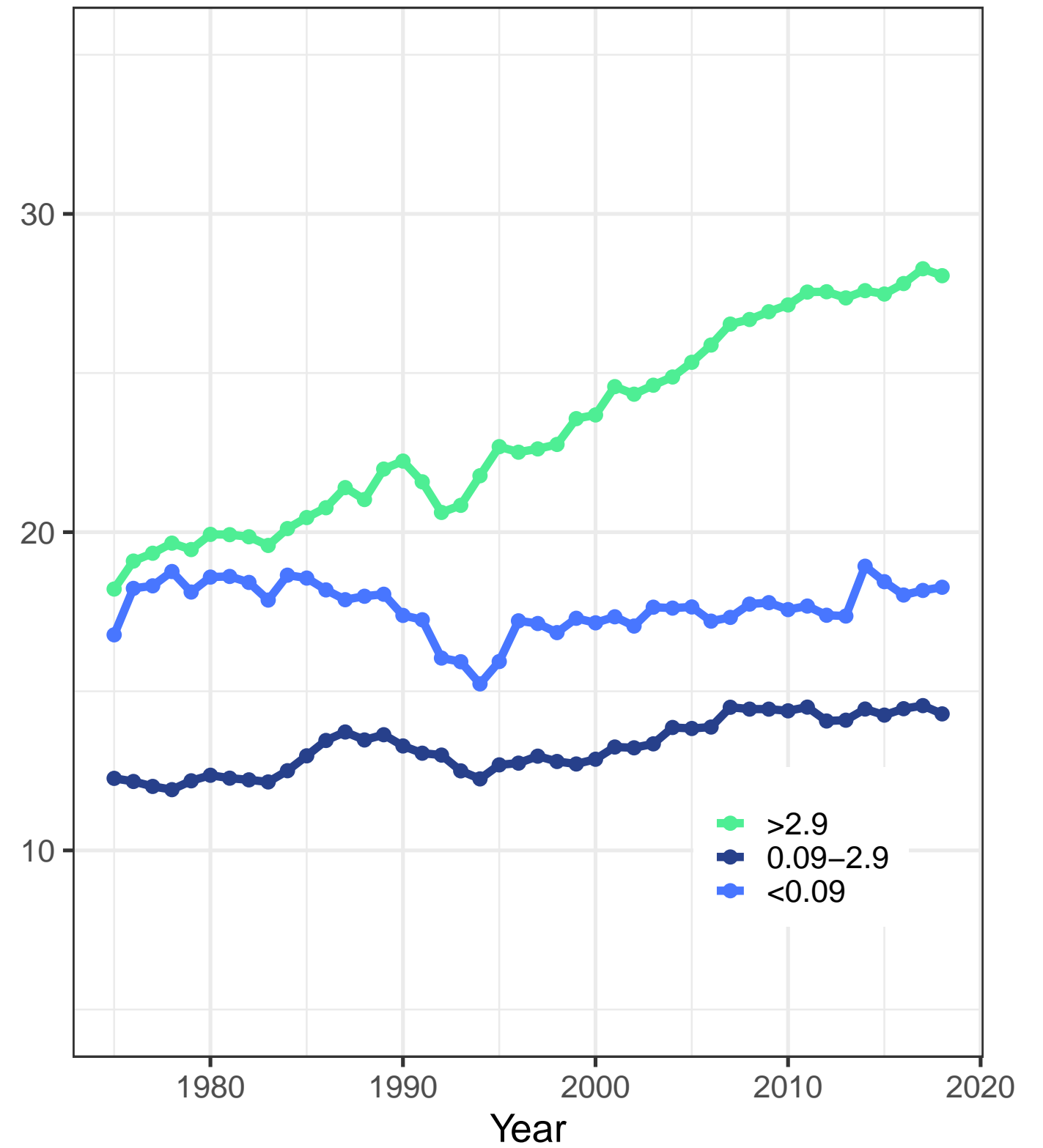
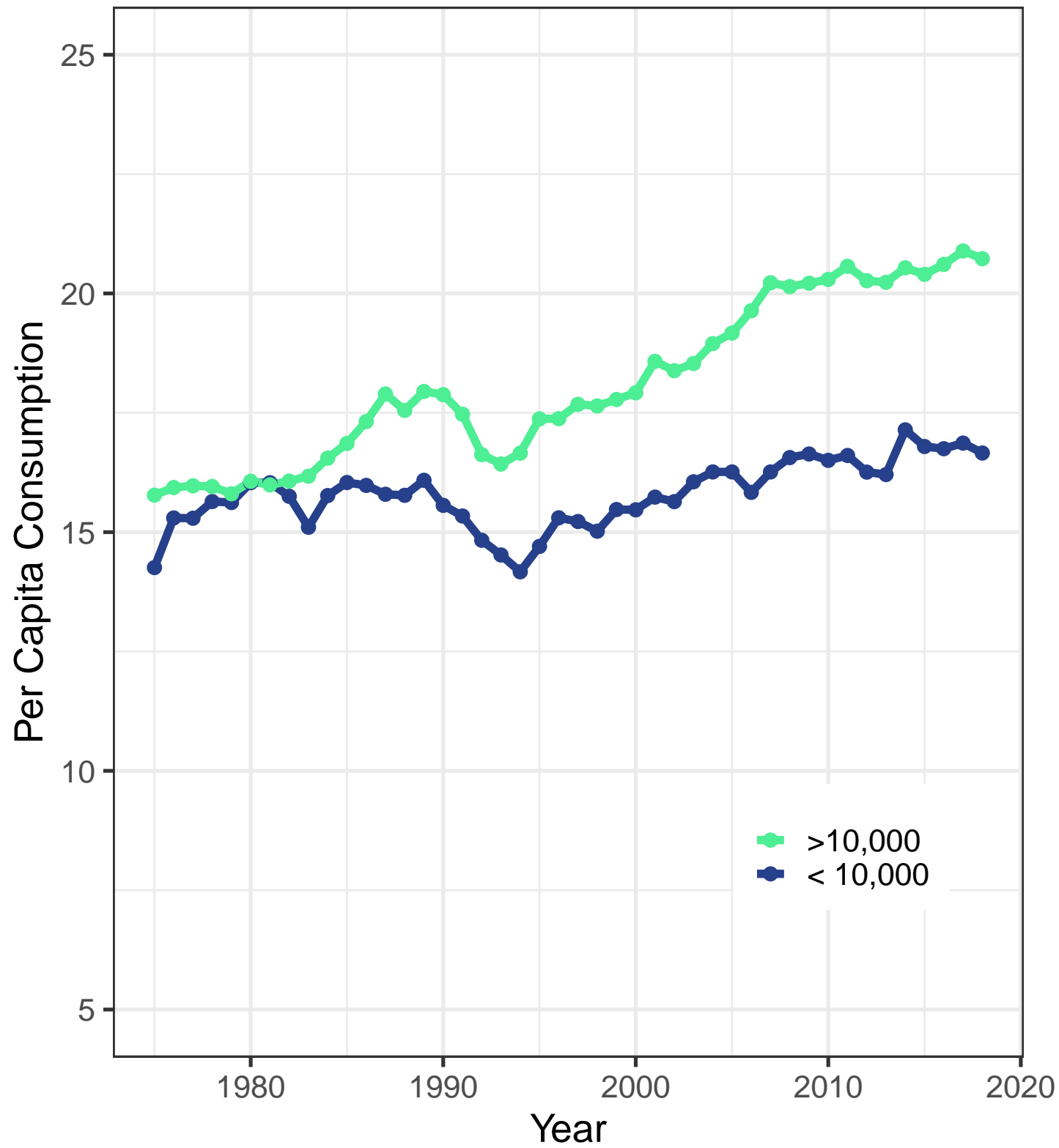
382 Table 1. Difference-in-differences estimation.

	Estimation
Intercept	-12.890 (<0.001)***
ln Population	-0.281 (<0.001) ***
ln GDP	0.573 (<0.001)***
$\beta_1$	0.009 (<0.001)***
R <sup>2</sup>	0.905
N	6005

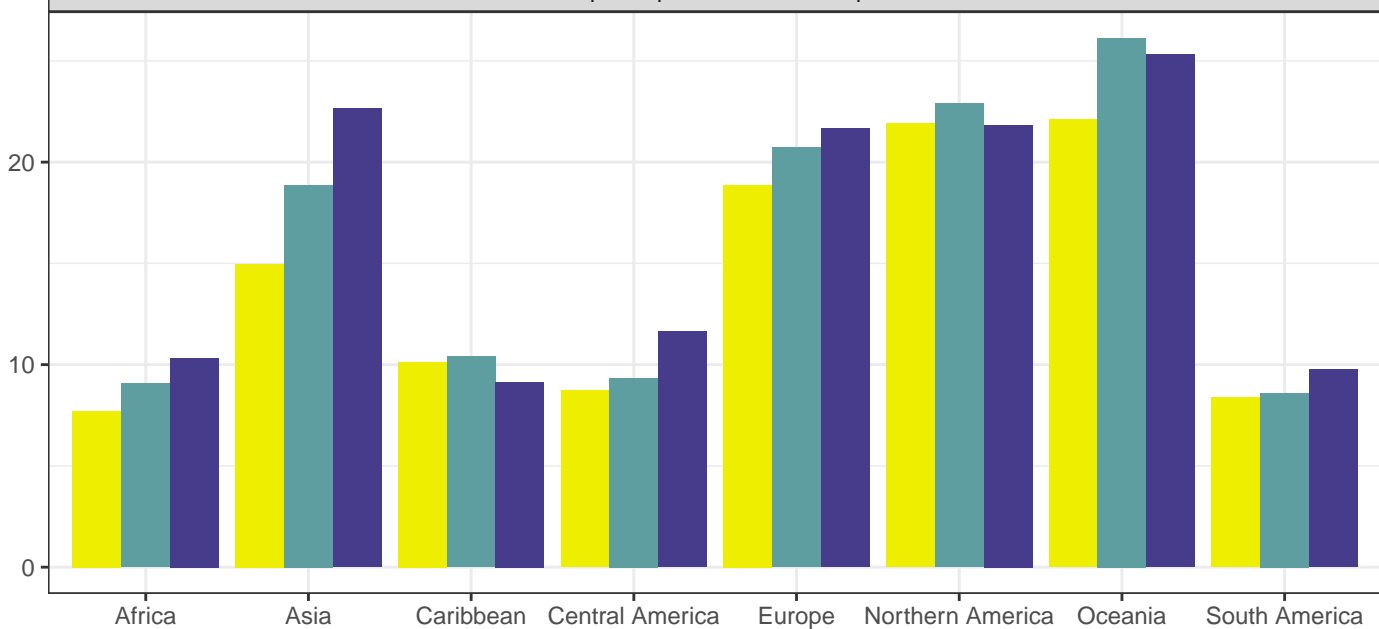
383 Standard errors are in parentheses.

384 \*\*\*Statistically significant at the 0.001 level, \*\* 0.01 level and \*0.05 level.

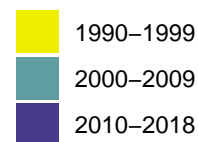
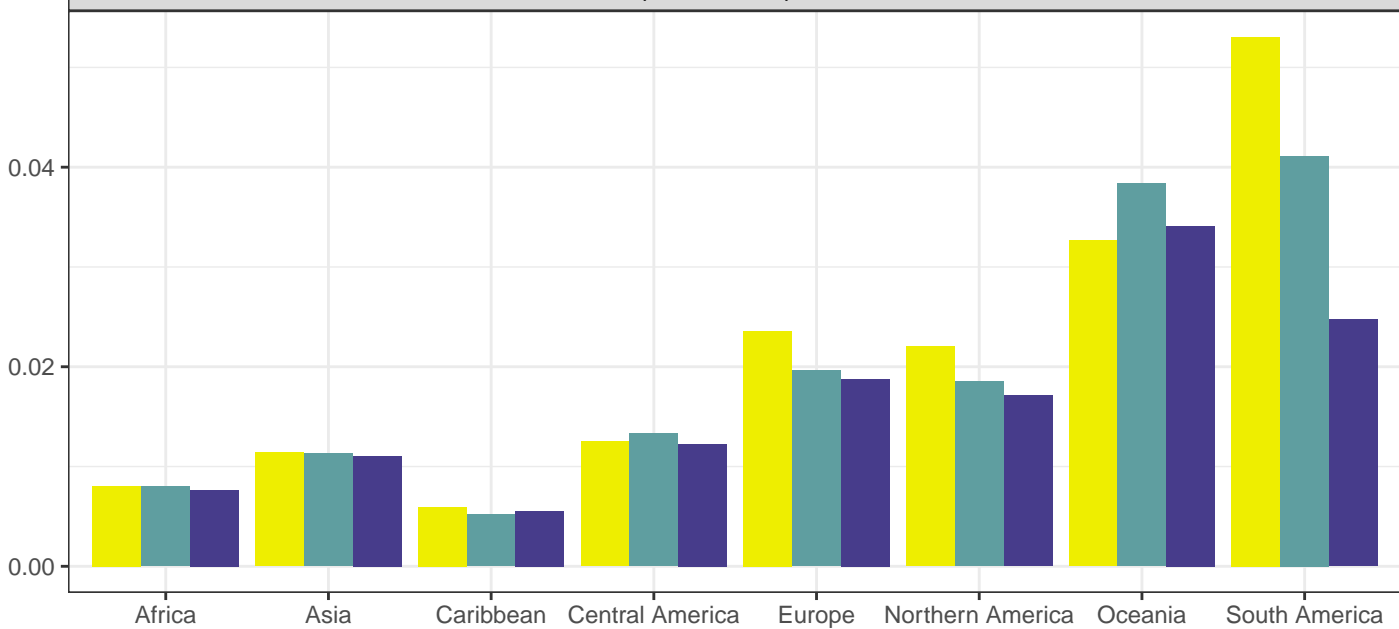




Per capita aquatic food consumption



Per capita fisheries production



Per capita aquaculture production

