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To cite this article: Alejandro H. Buschmann & Carolina Camus (2019) An introduction to farming and biomass utilisation of marine macroalgae, *Phycologia*, 58:5, 443-445, DOI: [10.1080/00318884.2019.1638149](https://doi.org/10.1080/00318884.2019.1638149)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00318884.2019.1638149>



Published online: 11 Sep 2019.



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## An introduction to farming and biomass utilisation of marine macroalgae

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### ABSTRACT

The interest in seaweeds by humans seems to have originated over 1700 years ago when several seaweed species became used in ethnic cuisines. These initial applications enabled the start of farming in Japan, China and Korea. However, in Western countries, demand for seaweed polysaccharides began only after World War II, when the demand for agar, alginate and carrageenans developed. At the present time, many researchers and entrepreneurs predict a promising future for innovation in the seaweed industry. In this context, this special issue covers some advances and constraints that seaweed farming and the utilisation of its biomass face today.

### ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 26 June 2019  
Accepted 26 June 2019  
Published online 11  
September 2019

### KEYWORDS

Biomass utilization; Marine macroalgae; Seaweed farming

Since at least the Neolithic period, humans along the coasts of the world harvested seaweed which constituted a significant component of their diets (e.g. Dillehay *et al.* 2008; Erlandson *et al.* 2015). In recorded history, interest in seaweeds by humans seems to have originated over 1700 years ago (Yang *et al.* 2017). During the past couple of centuries, several seaweed species became used in ethnic cuisines and the first seaweed gelling agents were extracted (e.g. Abbott 1996; Delaney *et al.* 2016). These initial applications enabled the start of farming in Japan, China and Korea. However, in Western countries, demand for seaweed polysaccharides began only after World War II, when the demand for agar, alginate and carrageenans was developed (e.g. Bixler & Porse 2011; Hafting *et al.* 2015). As seaweed aquaculture matures in the 21st century, many researchers and entrepreneurs predict a promising future for innovation in the seaweed industry. Developments will not only be associated with food products and polysaccharides, but also more valuable products such as functional foods, cosmeceuticals, nutraceuticals, pharmaceuticals, and perhaps also lower value products such as biofuels that have a high biomass requirement. The 'biorefinery concept', where seaweed biomass is used in an integral way with low waste production and reduced environmental impacts, seems to be the only viable approach for progress in industrial development (e.g. Buschmann *et al.* 2017).

According to FAO statistics (FAO 2016), yields of seaweed production through aquaculture are several times higher than the harvesting of natural populations (Table 1). Harvesting natural resources can produce considerable ecological, social and economic consequences if not well managed. For this reason, farming is an alternative that requires an understanding of its interaction with the biotic and abiotic environment. At present, the most important cultivated seaweed taxa are *Eucheuma* spp. and *Kappaphycus alvarezii* for carrageenans; *Gracilaria* spp. for agar; and *Saccharina japonica* (formerly *Laminaria japonica*), *Undaria pinnatifida*, *Pyropia* spp.

(formerly *Porphyra*) and *Sargassum fusiforme* (see Table 1 for authorities), all of which are used as food. These species are cultivated mostly in the sea, but some (e.g. kelps and nori) require an additional hatchery phase to grow the microscopic stages and to seed ropes or nets before deployment into the sea.

The number of species that are commercially cultivated is relatively low, posing a challenge to find new species that can offer novel products (Hafting *et al.* 2015). However, not only are new species needed, but extensive research is needed to incorporate modern technologies to understand how seaweeds perform under various culture conditions, how to optimise light and nutrient uptake, and how environmental stressors and enemies (e.g. pathogens and grazers) can affect productivity. Research is also needed to incorporate the assessment of genetic diversity, gene expression and inheritance of relevant traits to allow the development of strains and cultivars with known agronomic traits, as have been developed for thousands of years in terrestrial agronomy (Valero *et al.* 2017). Also relevant is the need for industrialisation that includes novel and energy-efficient technologies for seeding, harvesting and post-harvest operations. Finally, to make seaweed farming commercially relevant, emphasis should be placed on new product development, increased efficiency of biomass processing to achieve economic profitability, and minimisation of the production of unutilised residues (Neori *et al.* 2007). These are economic passives that a sustainable industry cannot afford to ignore. All of these topics cannot be covered in one journal issue. It is our hope that the articles found in this special issue of *Phycologia* will serve to both advance and enhance seaweed farming.

The issue starts by describing the progress, challenges and future directions of seaweed farming in the Western Hemisphere, particularly in the USA (Kim *et al.* 2019) and Latin America (Alemañ *et al.* 2019). Latin America has a strong potential for the development of seaweed aquaculture

**Table 1.** Seaweed production (tonne) by aquaculture and exploitation of wild stands during 2016 (biomass values and taxonomy after FAO 2016).

	Aquaculture landing	Wild land harvesting
<b>Brown algae</b>		
<i>Alaria esculenta</i> (Linnaeus) Greville	76	–
<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> (Linnaeus) Le Jolis	–	68,291
<i>Durvillaea antarctica</i> (Chamisso) Hariot	–	8015
<i>Laminaria digitata</i> (Hudson) J.V. Lamouroux	–	49,413
<i>Saccharina japonica</i> (Areschoug) C.E. Lane, C. Mayes, L. Druehl & G.W. Saunders	8,219,210	58,111
<i>Laminaria hyperborea</i> (Gunnerus) Foslie	–	10,422
<i>Lessonia nigrescens</i> Bory	–	155,741
<i>Lessonia trabeculata</i> Villouta & Santelices	–	49,802
<i>Macrocystis pyrifera</i> (Linnaeus) C. Agardh	1	35,092
<i>Saccharina latissima</i> (Linnaeus) C.E. Lane, C. Mayes, Druehl & G.W. Saunders	33	–
<i>Sargassum fusiforme</i> (Harvey) Setchell	189,910	–
<i>Undaria pinnatifida</i> (Harvey) Suringar	2,069,682	2679
Other brown algae	33,622	–
<b>Red algae</b>		
<i>Chondracanthus chamissoi</i> (C. Agardh) Kützing	–	2125
<i>Euचेuma denticulatum</i> Trono & Ganzon-Fortes	214,026	–
<i>Euचेuma</i> spp.	10,518,771	–
<i>Gelidium</i> spp.	–	2302
<i>Gigartina skottsbergii</i> Setchell & N.L. Gardner	–	22,199
<i>Gracilaria</i> spp.	4,149,524	26,423
<i>Gracilaria verrucosa</i> (C. Agardh)	450	–
<i>Gymnogongrus furcellatus</i> Kützing	–	239
<i>Kappaphycus alvarezii</i> (Doty) Doty ex P.C. Silva	1,527,217	–
<i>Mazzaella laminarioides</i> (Bory) Fredericq	–	2273
<i>Porphyra linearis</i> Greville	–	11
<i>Porphyra tenera</i> Kjellman	710,425	40
<i>Porphyra</i> spp.	1,352,520	109
<i>Sarcothalia crispata</i> (Bory) Leister	–	30,694
<b>Green Algae</b>		
<i>Caulerpa racemosa</i> (Forsskal) J. Agardh	2	–
<i>Caulerpa</i> spp.	585	–
<i>Codium fragile</i> (Suringar) Hariot	4,279	224
<i>Enteromorpha clathrata</i> (Roth) Greville	3,710	–
<i>Monostroma nitidum</i> Wittrock	7,158	1029
<i>Ulva pertusa</i> Kjellman	–	106
<i>Ulva</i> spp.	–	1070
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29,001,210</b>	<b>526,410</b>

due to its vast coastline, which encompasses different ecosystems with a wide variety of seaweed species. However, almost all of their production is based on harvesting natural beds from Chile, Peru and Mexico. Alemañ *et al.* present the status of seaweed production (from both natural beds and aquaculture production) in Latin American countries, emphasising the challenges and future requirements for success. The US began seaweed aquaculture in the 1980's for fuel production, but the first attempts did not result in commercial production. Since 2010, seaweed cultivation has been rapidly expanding in the US but only in limited areas. Kim *et al.* (2019) review the past and current status of the industry in the US and discuss potential opportunities and challenges for its full development.

In contrast with the development of seaweed cultivation on the American continent, the cultivation of seaweeds (i.e. *Kappaphycus* and *Euचेuma*) in Southeast Asia and East Africa, dominate global aquaculture production. Despite its success, there remain several lessons to be learned, as described in Hurtado *et al.* (2019), who introduce the term 'phyconomy' to refer to marine seaweed cultivation to mirror the term agronomy used for terrestrial plant cultivation. According to these authors, a key challenge for eucematoid cultivation is the delay in the introduction of cultivars or strains with higher productivity and/or resistance to disease. The development of such breeding and strain selection programs is reviewed by Hwang *et al.* (2019) who focus on Korean, Chinese and Japanese experiences. In their review, they emphasise the development of cultivar-related research and applications, with particular reference to key commercial species, i.e. *Saccharina japonica*, *Pyropia* spp., *Undaria* spp., *Cladosiphon okamuranus* and *Nemacystus decipiens*. An example of such research is provided by Lee & Choi (2019) who used gamma irradiation to generate a mutant of *Pyropia tenera* with improved heat tolerance.

Another challenge that seaweed cultivation is facing is the availability of suitable space in nearshore areas for the installation of new cultivation systems. This is needed to satisfy the increasing demand for biomass required for biofuels and processing of the resulting seaweed biomass. In response, an interest in developing offshore seaweed aquaculture has emerged, particularly in European countries. Azevedo *et al.* (2019) demonstrate the feasibility of cultivating *Saccharina latissima* at its southern distribution limit under exposed offshore conditions in Portugal, emphasising the need for technological and biological innovation for such challenging conditions.

Related to the processing of seaweed biomass, the concept of 'biorefinery' as applied to seaweeds has proven to be a promising move forward for the production of a wide range of products, including food, agrochemicals, biomaterials and biofuels. Here, Zollmann *et al.* (2019) present the challenge of developing industrially relevant and environmentally-friendly green seaweed biorefineries, including a survey of potential products and their co-production, using both traditional and emerging processing technologies.

Given global climate change, aquaculture will face environmental challenges similar to natural ecosystems. However, the inclusion of seaweed cultivation with other marine resource farms could result in the amelioration of potentially negative effects of global climate change, such as the increasing periodicity of green tide events (e.g. Cui *et al.* 2019). To alleviate the effects of ocean acidification on shellfish aquaculture, Fernández *et al.* (2019) propose incorporating the naturally generated chemical refuge of seaweed photosynthesis into shellfish aquaculture by co-cultivation.

Successful seaweed aquaculture requires an understanding of key concepts in nutrient uptake and assimilation, and Roleda & Hurd (2019) apply these to seaweed polyculture and Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA). A contribution by Shannon & Abu-Ghannam (2019) reviews recent developments in seaweed applications for human

health from an epidemiological perspective and as functional food ingredients. The issue ends with a review of an award-winning book on seaweeds as food (Cornish 2019).

We hope that the articles in this special volume will be useful to researchers, students, entrepreneurs and the public in general who have interest in producing seaweeds or transforming seaweed biomass into novel products. This issue of *Phycologia* provides a timely assessment of seaweed aquaculture and emerging, environmentally-friendly technologies that recognise the need for progress towards truly sustainable seaweed aquaculture.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As guest editors, we acknowledge the hard work of authors, reviewers, and David Garbary, Editor-in-Chief of *Phycologia*, for supporting this work.

## FUNDING

This work was supported by CONICYT-Chile (PIA, FB-0001).

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