

1 PLANNING PRECISION AQUACULTURE ACTIVITIES IN A CHANGING AND CROWDED
2 SEA

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15 Submission date: August 2022

16 Submitted to: Aquaculture

17

This manuscript has now been published as:

Mangano, M.C., Corbari, L., Giacoletti, A., Berlino, M., Kay, S., Ciralo, G., Sarà, G., (2023)
Planning precision aquaculture activities in a changing and crowded sea, Aquaculture, Volume
577, 739881.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2023.739881>

Abstract

18
19 Extreme climate events are increasingly challenging the growth of the marine aquaculture sector,
20 causing local influences on species performance and affecting production and yield - impacting where
21 to locate cage aquaculture facilities. Here we produced scenario-based quantitative maps using
22 modelled species-specific performance combined with predicted high-resolution future IPCC
23 temperature scenarios. We ran a species-specific Dynamic Energy Budget mechanistic model for four
24 model species, up to 2050, and mapped functional trait-based outcomes as: *i*) time to reach the
25 commercial size, *ii*) feces produced and *iii*) uneaten food. A high spatial resolution suitability index
26 allowed the sustainability of farming strategies for single- and multi-species to be identified across a
27 159.696 km² surface extension (Italian Exclusive Economic Zone; 6% of the Mediterranean basin
28 surface). Providing a good case study to shed light on difficult questions facing aquaculture planning
29 around the world. Good future performance under both representative concentration pathway (RCP)
30 scenarios were modelled for Sea bream and European seabass in inshore waters. Performance of
31 Mediterranean mussels and Japanese oysters was found to decrease slightly when compared to the
32 2007 – 2010 time interval. Scenario-based quantitative maps represent a heterogeneous species-
33 specific knowledge layer that is critical to better inform aquaculture management and development
34 strategies. Yet this knowledge layer is missing from the process to develop climate-resilient risk maps
35 and associated adaptation measures, as well as when informing stakeholders on potential site
36 expansion and/or the establishment of nascent aquaculture industry sites.

37

38 **Keywords:** Climate change scenarios, DEB model, adaptive spatial planning, human uses, climate
39 resilience, vulnerability patterns, RCP 4.5, RCP 8.5

Introduction

40

41 The detrimental - sometimes irreversible - damage to resources and related socio-economies caused
42 by the increased frequency, intensity and duration of adverse climate change phenomena are pushing
43 scientists, stakeholders and policy makers to research and design more adaptive tools and strategies
44 (Sumaila et al., 2011) that will help society better cope with these changes. Researchers from all over
45 the world are attempting to engage with stakeholders and inform policy decision-making processes
46 by promoting evidence-based management measures and integrated strategies (Holsman et al., 2019)
47 that will encourage conservation and sustainable use of marine resources in an equitable way
48 (Shyamsundar et al., 2013; Norström et al., 2014). One third of aquaculture production is marine
49 aquaculture, a sector that has grown at an impressive rate over the past decades, keeping the overall
50 price of fish down and making fish and seafood more accessible to consumers worldwide (FAO 2018;
51 HLPE 2014; Béné et al., 2015; World Bank 2013; Kobayashi et al., 2015; Tacon and Metian, 2016).
52 There remains potential to further exploit molluscs and seaweeds to support global nutritional security
53 (Naylor et al., 2021) despite some salient exceptions (see the decrease of aquaculture production of
54 mussels at EU level, an important contributor to the stagnation of EU aquaculture; Avdelas et al.,
55 2021). The increased occurrence of extreme climatic events will undoubtedly challenge the future
56 growth of this sector, by locally influencing species' performance affecting production and yield (e.g.,
57 temperature increase; Hernandez et al., 2007; Naylor et al., 2021; Blanchard et al., 2017; Froehlich et
58 al., 2018; Sarà et al., 2018a; Mangano et al., 2019; Giacoletti et al., 2021) and threatening the location
59 potential of these facilities (e.g., sea level rise, storm surges, diseases caused by parasites, bacteria,
60 viruses, and biotoxins; Rosa et al., 2012; Sarà et al., 2018b). This will exacerbate existing
61 environmental problems in focal productive areas, such as the Mediterranean basin (Cramer et al.,
62 2018); the world's biggest marginal sea which hosts around 480 million people and whose diets are
63 mainly based on fish proteins, with $\frac{1}{4}$ of this seafood coming from aquaculture activities. The
64 Mediterranean accounts for 3.4% of global aquaculture production value, with sea bream and sea bass

65 being the two most produced species followed by Mediterranean mussel and Japanese oyster (FAO
66 2018; STECF 2018; EUROSTAT 2019).

67 Here, we underline the importance of providing species-specific scenario-based maps built on
68 functional traits (FT-DEB) as a baseline to better inform adaptive spatial planning strategies of marine
69 aquaculture systems under increasing water temperature scenarios. This FT-DEB approach (Montalto
70 et al. 2015), has already been shown (Sarà et al., 2018a; Giacoletti et al., 2021; Thomas et al., 2011)
71 to produce spatially contextualized layers that can be used to assess the sustainability of modern
72 aquaculture and recent advances have allowed decision makers to be provided with an overview of
73 local carrying capacity within shellfish aquaculture (Klinger et al., 2017; Lavaud et al. 2020). We
74 produced easy-to-read outcomes based on species-specific modelled performance resulting from the
75 incorporation of future IPCC predicted temperature scenarios (RCP 4.5 and 8.5). We ran a species-
76 specific Dynamic Energy Budget (DEB) mechanistic model for each of our model species by mid-
77 century, then, we mapped functional trait-based outcomes as: *i*) time to reach the commercial size, *ii*)
78 feces produced and *iii*) uneaten food (for the two fish species). A suitability index was designed to
79 distinguish where to locate single and multispecies farms, always maintaining the produced
80 environmental impact below a certain environmentally sustainable threshold. Scenario-based
81 quantitative maps represent a missing layer when informing climate-resilient risk maps, otherwise
82 known as a site-selection exercise. Once aquaculture potential (i.e., if species grow under local
83 environmental conditions) was spatially expressed, the resulting functional trait-based layers were
84 overlapped with layers of existing human activities to extrapolate areas representing the available
85 zones for aquaculture (i.e., where aquaculture can be carried out with no biological limitations and
86 no human activity restrictions) both inshore and offshore.

87

88

Material and Methods

89 With a total surface extension of 159,696 km² the Italian Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) occupies
90 6% of the Mediterranean basin. Italy is a crucial country for the aquaculture sector at both European

91 and Mediterranean level, representing the third biggest European producer of the Gilted seabream
92 *Sparus aurata* (8,700 t, 15.50 EUR/kg) and of the European seabass *Dicentrarchus labrax* (7,039 t,
93 8.02 EUR/kg), the second biggest producer of the Mediterranean mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*
94 (62,502 t, 0.9 EUR/kg) and the penultimate of the Japanese oyster *Crassostrea gigas* (80 t, 6.9
95 EUR/kg, one among the highest in EU; EUMOFA 2019).

96

97 *Modelling approach and related forcing variables.* The Dynamic Energy Budget model selected was
98 based on a generalized, individual-based modelling framework (Dynamic Energy Budget theory;
99 Kooijman, 2010), able to investigate and link different levels of metabolic organization. Using
100 mechanistic rules, the standard DEB model (Sarà et al., 2014) describes the bioenergetics of an
101 organism through the dynamics of three main state variables: structure (V), reserves (E), and maturity
102 (E_H), that track the individual development and are controlled by six energy flows formulated in units
103 of $J d^{-1}$: assimilation flow (\dot{p}_A), mobilization flow (\dot{p}_C), somatic maintenance flow (\dot{p}_S), maturity
104 maintenance flow (\dot{p}_J), growth flow (\dot{p}_G), maturation/reproduction flow (\dot{p}_R) (Sarà et al., 2014; see
105 Figure 1 in Mangano et al. 2020). Here, four model species were used to simulate the growth rate
106 responses to climate change under both the Representative Concentration Pathway IPCC scenarios
107 RCP 4.5 and 8.5 (see Table S1 Supplementary Materials for the full list of DEB parameters used
108 throughout this study). DEB parameters used for three of the four model species - *Dicentrarchus*
109 *labrax*, *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and *Crassostrea gigas* - were collected from Mediterranean case
110 studies (i.e., *D. labrax* from Sarà et al. 2018; *C. gigas* from Sarà et al. 2012; *M. galloprovincialis*
111 from Monaco et al. 2019), and the fourth – *Sparus aurata* – from a Portuguese study (Serpa et al.
112 2013). Our simulations started from a specific seeding volume computed from the corresponding
113 seeding size (L_s , length at seeding) reported for each selected model species (see Table S1
114 Supplementary Materials) using:

115

$$V_s = (L_s * \delta_M)^3$$

116 commonly reported in terms of length for bivalves. Conversely, for fishes it is often given in terms of
117 weight. Hence for modelling purposes the L_s of *S. aurata* was first computed (Giacoletti et al., 2021)
118 by the mean of the length-weight relationship (Gould, 1966):

$$119 \quad W = aL^b$$

120 with W representing the total weight (in grams), L the total length (in centimeters) while a and b were
121 the species-specific intercept and slope of the curve (when the relationship is linearized through the
122 log-transformation). Both a and b parameters were collected from Mediterranean cases studies
123 (Koutrakis and Tsikliras, 2003; Dulčić and Glamuzina, 2006) and used to calculate the L_s
124 corresponding to the seeding size used in Sicilian farms (8.02 cm for 7 g fingerlings; Giacoletti et al.,
125 2021).

126

127 *Forcing variables within the model: temperature and food.* The connection between body
128 temperature, usually approximated in ectotherms by mean seawater temperature, and metabolism is
129 well-captured by the Arrhenius relationship (Kooijman, 2010; Arrhenius, 1889). Metabolic rates of
130 all living organisms mainly depend on body temperature, but also the density of food available in the
131 environment. Both temperature and food, the main driving variables within mechanistic models,
132 assume an important role in determining species' persistence over time (Montalto et al., 2014), and
133 allow DEB models to predict the most important individual life history traits (Pecquerie et al., 2011;
134 Sarà et al., 2011; Mangano et al., 2020). Daily Sea Surface Temperatures (SST; spatial resolution 0.1
135 degree; [c.a. 11 km]) and Chlorophyll-a (CHL-a; spatial resolution 0.1 degree; [c.a. 11 km]) relative
136 to the RCP 4.5 and 8.5 IPCC scenarios were downloaded (Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory
137 Coastal Ocean Modelling System [POLCOM] containing the outputs of regionally downscaled
138 projections for European seas generated using coupled European Regional Seas Ecosystem Model
139 [ERSEM] 15.06 hydrodynamic-biogeochemical models - as part of CERES and TAPAS 2017
140 projects; Butenschön et al., 2016) and divided into five-time intervals of four years each (2007-2010;
141 2017-2020; 2027-2030; 2037-2040; 2047-2050). The time interval 2007-2010 has been selected as a

142 present and past reference period against which the model outputs obtained on the future time
143 intervals could be compared. SST and CHL-a daily data in NetCDF format were transformed in
144 comma-separated values (CSV) and each datum was then repeated twenty-four times to allow
145 simulation on hourly time-steps for a 4-year period (Sarà et al., 2018a; Mangano et al., 2019). SST
146 and CHL-a datasets were then restricted by depth from 0 to 100 and from 100 to 200 meters below
147 sea level, as identified via the EMODnet bathymetry data (<http://www.emodnet-hydrography.eu/>),
148 and further confined to the Italian EEZ (Flanders Marine Institute, 2014). Two vector grid feature
149 classes were generated (pixel of 0.1° x 0.1° [c.a. 121 km²]), of 660 pixels (covering a total surface of
150 79,860 km²) relative to the 0-100m bathymetry referred to as inshore, and of 448 pixels (total surface
151 of 54,208 km²) relative to the 100-200m bathymetry referred to as offshore (see Supplementary
152 Materials Figures S1, S2). Food availability is another important driving variable within DEB models.
153 For wild bivalve species food was derived from remote sensing or model data (Mangano et al., 2019)
154 with CHL-a used as a proxy of available food for suspension feeding bivalves (Handå et al., 2011;
155 Lavaud et al., 2014). For cultivated fish species a daily food intake scale, based on the body weight
156 estimated by the DEB model at that specific time, was applied. Food is represented by farmers'
157 common feeding schemes (Hoşsu et al., 2005), thus for *S. aurata* we used data from Sicilian farms
158 (Table S2) and for *D. labrax* we used data from Sarà et al. 2018a (Table S3). The uneaten food was
159 estimated by the difference between the provided and the ingested amount; feces were calculated by
160 summing the hourly release given by:

$$161 \quad IF * (1 - AE)$$

162 where *IF* stands for ingested food and *AE* for the assimilation efficiency of food, until commercial
163 size (Sarà et al., 2018a).

164

165 *Model outcomes synthesis.* The duration of the grow-out phase, in terms of days needed to reach the
166 commercial size (TTCS, Time To Commercial Size; days) was computed (commercial sizes were
167 considered using those recommended by FAO

168 <https://www.fao.org/fishery/en/culturedspecies/search>). We then calculated the potential
169 environmental impact (IMP) of the two fish species fed by humans as the sum of the “Feces” released
170 in the environment (in grams) and the “Uneaten food” dropped just beneath the cages (in grams; only
171 for *D. labrax* and *S. aurata*; model already developed and tested in Giacoletti et al., 2021) assuming
172 these to be the two main recognized sources of impact from cages on the surrounding environment
173 (Kalantzi & Karakassis 2006; Sarà et al., 2007a, b). For unfed (i.e., naturally feeding) bivalve species,
174 we considered only feces as a source of impact (IMP). DEB model outputs were produced for each
175 species at both inshore and offshore spatial extensions, under RCPs 4.5 and 8.5, for all five-time
176 intervals and then spatially contextualized around the Italian EEZ. These two scenarios were chosen
177 as representing, respectively, a moderate carbon concentration still showing a clear climate signal
178 (4.5) and the upper end of plausible carbon concentrations (8.5). Projected global SST temperature
179 rise under RCP 4.5 is approximately 2°C (IPCC 2013), in line with the goal set in the Paris COP
180 Agreement. TTCS values were then plotted against IMP, the mean value of TTCS (MTTCS) and the
181 mean value of IMP (MIMP) were detected and used as reference points for sustainable conditions for
182 each species (i.e., environmental sustainability *sensu* Sarà et al., 2018a). Quadrants around the mean
183 values define four main conditions to which we then assigned a value (Figure 1), respectively: Worst
184 = 0.25 (TTCS \geq MTTCS & IMP \geq MIMP; red color), Bad = 0.5 (TTCS \leq MTTCS & IMP \geq MIMP;
185 orange color), Good = 0.75 (TTCS \geq MTTCS & IMP \leq MIM; yellow color P), Best = 1 (TTCS \leq
186 MTTCS AND & \leq MIMP; green color). Pixels on the border of two conditions were classified
187 considering the value of the nearby pixels. Pixels belonging to the four defined categories of
188 environmental sustainability were then mapped. To check for changes in environmental sustainability
189 between temperature scenarios, the pixels belonging to each category under changing RCP scenarios
190 and time interval for each species at each spatial extension were counted; data were also grouped by
191 Italian regions. To represent only pixels that can be devoted to farming, we removed the pixels already
192 occupied by other human activities and protected areas and habitats (i.e., layers from the World
193 Database on Protected Areas, layers of *Posidonia oceanica* meadows, maërl beds and coralligenous

194 from the Mediterranean Sensitive Habitats, MediSeH project; see Table S4; S5 Supplementary
195 Materials for an exhaustive list of the human use and protected areas and habitat layers applied). We
196 also considered all the buffer areas (Figure S3 Supplementary Materials) required when looking for
197 Allocated Zones for Aquaculture (AZA) in Italian waters (Marino et al., 2020). In absence of layers
198 forecasting the future human use scenarios at sea, we fixed the currently available information and
199 applied it to all the time intervals we considered.

200 A second index was created to explore the opportunity to farm different species in the same spatial
201 pixel, used as a proxy of coexistence in the same aquaculture facilities, providing effective
202 information on the best area to build an aquaculture farming facility for different trophic levels (e.g.,
203 Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture) by respecting a higher environmental sustainability target
204 ($TTCS \leq MTTCS$). For each species a matrix was created by associating values equal to 1 for all
205 those pixels whose TTCS values were lower or equal to MTTCS, and values equal to 0 for all those
206 pixels that did not respect this condition. The species were then considered together, evaluating for
207 each pixel, the mean value (for each time interval, RCP scenario and inshore/offshore spatial
208 extension). The obtained five values (0 = red color, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1 = increasing shadows of blue
209 color) were used to indicate how many species can be farmed in the same aquaculture facility whilst
210 maintaining the environmental sustainability target (respectively none; one species; two species; three
211 species; four species). All spatial analyses were performed using QGIS and R software (R Core Team,
212 2019), and then represented through the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016). A further important
213 advancement of this study is represented by the use of R software together with an adaptation of the
214 R code made available by Monaco et al. (2019) that solves the computational effort needed to run the
215 DEB model with high resolution and site-specific data, representing a strong improvement from
216 simulations performed using daily SST values of each SATR (“Similar Average Temperature
217 Regions” in Sarà et al. 2018a).

218 The three outputs produced by each species-specific DEB model under the different environmental
219 scenarios (inshore/offshore, RCP 4.5/RCP 8.5) generated scenario based quantitative outputs for each

220 period of: days needed to reach the commercial size (Time To Commercial Size, TTCS; Figures S4 -
221 S11 Supplementary Materials), uneaten food for the two fish species fed by humans (Figures S12 -
222 S15 Supplementary Materials) and produced feces for the four model species (Figures S16 - S23
223 Supplementary Materials). Pixels already occupied by human activities layers and the main protected
224 areas and habitats layers (Tables S4, S5; Figure S3 Supplementary Materials) were reported in black.
225 Outcomes of the models were then combined to create an environmental suitability index, by plotting
226 TTCS against IMP values and looking at the mean values (MTTCS and MIMP, Figure 1; Figures S24
227 - S27 Supplementary Materials) and used as reference point of a sustainable environmental condition.

228

229

Results

230 By plotting Italian EEZ Sea Surface Temperature (SST) values from 2007 to 2050 a clear increasing
231 temperature trend of more than +1.5 °C by 2050 was highlighted for both 4.5 and 8.5 RCP scenarios,
232 with the warmest average values predicted under the RCP 8.5 (Figure 2, S1) scenario. Chlorophyll-a
233 showed a less steady increase and a more stable trend with the lower values recorded under the 8.5
234 RCP scenario, and the highest values recorded for the 2035 - 2043 time-interval and 4.5 scenario
235 (Figure 2; S2).

236 The number of free pixels along the Italian Exclusive Economic Zone and *per* each condition of
237 environmental sustainability index (critical trade-offs between environmental costs, IMP and benefits
238 TTCS), *per* each species, RCP scenarios, time intervals and considered spatial extension are reported
239 in Figure 3 (detailed scenario-based quantitative maps *per* each species, scenarios and time interval
240 are also reported in Supplementary Materials Figures S28 - S35). An increasing pattern of the “Best”
241 condition (i.e., green color) was highlighted for the Seabream in the future, under both scenarios, with
242 the highest percentage of surface experiencing this predicted condition for the 2027 – 2030 time
243 interval under 8.5 RCP scenario and inshore (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of pixels 81). The
244 highest number of pixels experiencing the “Worst” condition (i.e., red color) was predicted for the
245 2017 – 2020 time interval under the 8.5 RCP scenario, inshore (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of

246 pixels 83). A stable pixel pattern for the “Best” condition was predicted for the European seabass in
247 the future, under both scenarios, with the highest percentage of surface predicted to experience this
248 condition during the 2047 – 2050 time-interval, under the 8.5 RCP scenario and inshore (Figure 3;
249 Table S6, Max number of pixels 286). The highest number of pixels experiencing the “Worst”
250 conditions were predicted for the 2017 – 2020 time-interval under the 8.5 RCP scenario, offshore
251 (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of pixels 159). The bivalve *M. galloprovincialis* showed a stable
252 pattern of “Best” condition pixel into the future under the 4.5 scenario and a reduction under the 8.5
253 scenario (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of pixels 152). The “Worst” condition predicted for *M.*
254 *galloprovincialis* was recorded for the 2027 – 2030 time-interval under 4.5 RCP scenario, inshore
255 (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of pixels 264). The Japanese oyster showed a stable number of
256 “Best” pixels into the future under both scenarios (Figure 3; Table S6, Max number of pixels 297).
257 Increasing trends were shown offshore for all four species (Figure 3, Table S6).
258 To facilitate a regional visualization of the mechanistic-based outcomes, the results were reported for
259 each Italian region with a coastline (Table S7), once again by considering only the free pixels. Figure
260 4 specifically represents the time-interval 2027-2030 with differences reported per inshore and
261 offshore spatial extensions for each species. Our modelling predicted the largest number of “Best”
262 and “Good” pixels along inshore Abruzzo and Emilia Romagna for *S. aurata*; inshore of Apulia,
263 Lazio, Sardinia and Sicily and offshore Campania, Sardinia and Sicily for *D. labrax*; inshore Marche
264 and offshore Apulia for *M. galloprovincialis*; inshore Molise and Veneto, inshore and offshore
265 Abruzzo, and offshore Tuscany (Figure 4; Table S7).
266 When looking at the four species in combination the number of pixels that can host the maximum
267 combination of four species (1, dark blue; Figure 5; Table S8) will increase with time (2031 - 2040
268 and 2047 - 2050 respectively 40 and 35 pixels, inshore) with the highest numbers offshore (2047 -
269 2050 213 pixels). Under both scenarios 4.5 and 8.5 - both inshore and offshore - the combination of
270 two species (0.5; Figure 5; Table S8) under best conditions is the most represented across the Italian
271 EEZ followed by one, three and four species (respectively 0.25, 0.75 and 1; Figure 5; Table S8). The

272 number of pixels where no species reach the best conditions (red color value 0; Figure 5; Table S8) –
273 on average across the 4-time intervals – is stable both inshore and offshore under both scenarios.
274 Looking on the regional scale for the 2027 – 2030 time interval, the combination of four species under
275 best conditions will be achieved for Apulia, Lazio and Tuscany offshore only and under both
276 scenarios, by Campania offshore only and under scenario 4.5, Sardinia inshore only and under
277 scenario 8.5; Sicily inshore and offshore under scenario 8.5 (Figure 5; Table S9). The combination of
278 two species under best conditions will be possible for Abruzzo, Apulia, Calabria, Campania, Lazio,
279 Liguria, Marche, Molise, Sardinia, Sicily and Tuscany both inshore and offshore under both
280 scenarios, Emilia Romagna and Friuli Venezia Giulia and Veneto will achieve it only inshore, under
281 both scenarios (Figure 5; Table S9). The number of pixels where no species will reach the best
282 conditions have been predicted, respectively: inshore, under both considered scenarios, in Apulia,
283 Lazio and Sicily; inshore, under scenario 4.5 in Tuscany; offshore under scenario 4.5 in Abruzzo and
284 Emilia Romagna; inshore, under scenario 8.5 in Calabria; inshore and offshore, under scenario 4.5 in
285 Marche (Figure 5; Table S9).

286

287

Discussion

288 Managing aquaculture resources in the attempt to preserve both ecosystems and the related goods and
289 services has been already recognized as a main challenge of the Anthropocene (He et al., 2019;
290 Luypaert et al., 2020). Stakeholders should address their investment to adapt to local changing
291 conditions, adopt effective settings, including newer and safer technologies (e.g., engineering
292 technology for farming seafood in the open ocean; Langan et al., 2012). Policy decision-makers
293 should invest more in capacity building and food security programs and strategies (e.g., training and
294 recruitment of new staff, access to viable broodstock, employment of selective breeding programs;
295 Leung et al., 2007; Klinger et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2019). Interestingly the approach applied here
296 highlights the general strength of using models when preparing climate resilience, and adaptive
297 marine spatial plans, as there is the possibility to simulate species functioning in response to a range

298 of alternative global warming scenarios allowing the most appropriate and cost-effective development
299 options for an area to be identified. In this regard, the rapid evolution of *in situ* data collection,
300 particularly using new technology such as real-time sensors that monitor daily conditions on farming
301 sites (e.g., sea temperature and dissolved oxygen variability) can be used to feed these models
302 increasing the accuracy of the outcomes, as well as the data collected via sensors which can allow for
303 the creation of large datasets with long time-series, that could be useful for model validation.

304

305 Our approach, and its outcomes, may represent a proactive - and easy to read tool - when engaging
306 with stakeholders and policy decision-makers. Our spatial analysis can inform the participatory
307 planning process by facilitating stakeholder engagement, an essential component throughout the
308 broader spatial planning process. Similarly, our species-specific scenario-based maps can provide
309 valuable decision support for aquaculture planning and licensing, by integrating existing decision-
310 support tools, from simple spreadsheets and checklists to complex computationally intensive models
311 (Falconer et al., 2022). It offers promise to strengthen the dialogue in the context of marine policy,
312 maritime spatial planning, future scientific research and farming practice development. To
313 disentangle species-specific climate resilience and vulnerability patterns may help design more
314 effective and successful adaptation strategies which are crucial to foster the blue economy sector - of
315 which aquaculture represents a main component - and support the Blue Growth Initiative from local
316 to global scale. This is crucial in a context of resilience building of the sector strongly affected by the
317 COVID-19 crisis and disruption (Sarà et al., 2021; Love et al., 2021) inside the view of the
318 “collaborative, multisectoral, and transdisciplinary” One Health approach (Jamwal and Phulia, 2021).

319

320 Given its central position in the Mediterranean basin, its highly-recognized role among countries
321 leading the aquaculture sector worldwide and thanks to the long latitudinal extension (almost 8,000
322 km - the longest coastline extension in the Mediterranean Sea), the Italian peninsula is a perfect area
323 to test how to disentangle the species-specific responses to regional climate changing scenarios.

324 Italian waters are among the most crowded seas in the world, thereby the Italian Exclusive Economic
325 Zone represents a perfect case study to explore how to tailor human activities at sea that helps avoid
326 or reduces potential conflicts. The lessons learned could be applied to all countries facing difficulties
327 finding the required space to allocate (or relocate) human activities. Additionally, Italy is a country
328 where the access to space has been perceived as a major weakness, specifically there is a lack of
329 suitable space to enlarge or establish new farms and there is difficulty to obtain permits (Avdelas et
330 al., 2021). Thus, by mapping the free pixels along the Italian Exclusive Economic Zone for each
331 species as a function of RCP scenarios, time intervals, both inshore and offshore, we could visualize
332 the spatial extension and future patterns (increasing and decreasing) of the considered aquaculture
333 environmental sustainability index. Our approach highlighted a general increasing performance for
334 seabream and seabass in the future and a slightly declining performance for mussels and oysters. The
335 investigation at the regional scale permitted the environmental sustainability index to be localized
336 and represented in a cumulative way by looking at the combination of the number of species that can
337 be farmed *per* unit of space by respecting higher levels of environmental sustainability.

338

339 Our approach allowed a high spatial resolution and functional resolution (based on mechanistic
340 species-specific model outcomes) to be maintained providing salient and credible information that is
341 useful to proactively inform more effective adaptive farming strategies as well as site selection for
342 farms, aspects of crucial importance when dealing with species of high economic value such as the
343 four model species in this study (Gentry et al., 2017; Froehlich et al., 2018; Sarà et al., 2018a;
344 Giacoletti et al., 2021). The ability to specifically predict the potential impact (i.e., IMP, feces /
345 uneaten food) of each farmed species on the surrounding area is particularly useful for planning and
346 licensing decisions when coupled with waste dispersion models (Sarà et al. 2018b) and can be used
347 to determine acceptable production levels. Our outputs may be integrated into bioeconomic models
348 and used to develop trade-off analysis and to reduce conflicts, environmental impacts and promote
349 the sustainable use of marine ecosystems (Lester et al., 2018). Promising trends for all four species

350 were shown in the offshore area of the Italian EEZ for the future years (e.g., 2027-2030 *D. labrax*
351 offshore of Campania, Sardinia and Sicily and *M. galloprovincialis* offshore of Apulia) and also for
352 the combination of farmed species (with differences between regions) which could further incentivize
353 the interest of stakeholders and policy makers in the expansion of offshore aquaculture (e.g., to search
354 for European/national/local economic resources to finance offshore technologies
355 deployment/testing). This latter spatial explicit information can be used as a measure of future
356 potential diversification power. This is crucial for the long-term performance and viability of the
357 aquaculture sector with respect to sustaining food production (both under economic and social-
358 ecological perspectives) and to increase resilience against changing environmental conditions
359 (Metian et al., 2020). For a decade, spatial diversification (i.e., increasing the number of farmed
360 species) was advocated as the main path for achieving sustainable development for future aquaculture
361 at both regional and country level (Walker et al., 2004; FAO, 2016). Additionally, selective
362 environment specific breeding programs (Klinger et al., 2017 and references therein) of culture
363 organisms, as well as the seeding size selection (Giacoletti et al., 2021), represent another exploitable
364 tool that can be promoted to improve the profitability of the sector by compensating for growth losses
365 in areas that reported lowest environmental sustainability index values. The development of effective
366 breeding and seeding selective programs will require an increase in capital and extension of the
367 financial assistance provided to farmers at regional level across the Italian peninsula. In this regard
368 our high-resolution maps of overlapped environmental sustainability index for the four model species
369 (and their combination) represents a useful resource for managers and policymakers and being
370 scenario based, allows the potential future evolution of the industry to be better understood and thus
371 supports plans for future businesses and will help set policies to reach the long-term goal of increased
372 environmentally sustainable food security.

373

374 Offshore aquaculture offers promise in minimizing the ecological risk of aquaculture development
375 (e.g., cages based away from essential habitats; Froehlich et al., 2017; Mengual et al., 2021) but it

376 still in its infancy characterized by a lack of an adequate planning framework (Gentry et al., 2017b;
377 Falconer et al., 2022). In this context, the integration of our findings into a modelling effort designed
378 to understand the interactions with the surrounding environment and that incorporates robust
379 economic and political factors would help determine the future national production potential of this
380 sector. Producing species-specific scenario-based maps up to the offshore spatial extension allowed
381 us to provide, to the best of our knowledge, the first models for these four species at this spatial
382 resolution and extension, providing a novel baseline for the future extension of the sector as well as
383 for the co-development of the sector with other offshore industries that already exist and/or future
384 offshore installations (e.g., offshore wind farms, mothballed oil platforms; Kaiser et al., 2010). This
385 knowledge can be exploited into the future and used as a base-layer that can be integrated with other
386 site-specific information such as: current velocity, frequency of storms, distance from onshore
387 facilities, navigation hazards, fishing grounds, cost associated to system installation, maintenance and
388 endurance among the others when considering the location, design and budget for new farming sites
389 (FAO, 2013; Gentry et al., 2017b).

390

391 The modelled species-specific scenario-based maps allowed us to forecast the four target species'
392 production potential in an Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture context. Despite IMTA being
393 considered as an option for sustainable aquaculture development (Troell et al., 2009), its development
394 in several countries has been hindered by poor or absent licensing and regulation systems (Falconer
395 et al., 2022). Our findings can facilitate the dialogue among parties for the creation of economic and
396 environmental feasibility studies, as well as licensing and regulatory systems in national and regional
397 contexts.

398

399 *Possible effects of model limitations*

400 Apart from the common limitation of mechanistic modelling (e.g., time consuming, too data-hungry
401 etc.), once the DEB species models are calibrated, validated, and tested for skill and stationarity

402 (Helmuth et al., 2014), there are really few limitations preventing the use at large scale to explore
403 performances of cultivated species in every realm (marine and freshwater). The initial effort for DEB
404 species parametrization (i.e., to set boundaries of theoretical species functioning) and calibration is
405 certainly large and time-consuming (from 1 month to 6 months as a function of the zero-variate and
406 univariate data availability across the current literature), but once done the mechanistic power of DEB
407 modelling is high, allowing growth performance to be explored at fine spatial and temporal resolution.
408 Limitations for current spatial resolution: the $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ (c.a. 11 x 11 km) scale is small enough to
409 give an overview of change for different Italian regions, but it may lack some needed spatial detail
410 for example local information such as individual bays. Limitations for current temporal resolution:
411 predictions about future climatic trends of course carry within them an intrinsic bias given the nature
412 of modelling environmental data into the future that require a fine temporal modelling-resolution (e.g.
413 1-hour) to generate predictions as close as possible to those generated by environmentally-measured
414 data (Montalto et al., 2014). To compare the future predictions generated, we considered the 2007-
415 2020 time period as a present and past reference period (even if it does not stand for an accurate
416 representation of present and past conditions) vs. selected multiple scenarios (*sensu* Thomas and
417 Bacher, 2018).

418 The DEB network is now well-deployed around the world and, compared to only 5-10 years ago,
419 there is sufficient and well dispersed expertise that facilitates access to this modelling by many
420 scientists. This can facilitate the use of mechanistic modelling worldwide and under the whole array
421 of possible environmental conditions and assist stakeholders and decision makers to solve local
422 spatial issues and conflicts. Thus, the major limitation is no longer the DEB but more likely the
423 availability of more accurate scenarios of human uses along all the coastlines of the world's oceans.
424 Once more accurate scenarios of human use are available both for the Mediterranean Sea and for
425 other seas (i.e., at the highest spatial-temporal resolution), it would be easy to increase the resolution
426 of the tailoring exercise that up to now – in the absence of high-resolution data – assumes that the use
427 at sea and the protection levels will remain the same. In this context, our species-specific scenario-

428 based maps can be integrated into human use sensitivity analysis scenarios to simulate increase and/or
429 decrease of human use per each Italian region and at the regional scale based on future development
430 scenarios. This predictive capacity could then be coupled with regional monitoring, production and
431 economic income data per region and per species, once these data are available.

432 The model does not take into account all the secondary changes related to climate change -
433 specifically increasing temperatures – and all the potential local acting drivers of change that can
434 affect growth and production (e.g., dissolved oxygen concentrations, eutrophication, harmful algal
435 blooms, storminess, acidification, spread of pathogens and disease, molluscs' seed mortalities) that
436 in a multiple stressors context may affect species growth and farm productivity (Sarà et al., 2018b).
437 Similarly multiple stressors frameworks must be integrated into modelling exercises (e.g., by
438 increasing the complexity of the approach discussed here) considering interaction among multiple
439 stressors (e.g., changes in oceanic circulation and mixing, eutrophication, oceanic acidification,
440 oceanic deoxygenation, coastal hypoxia, and pollution; Sarà et al. 2018b). Additionally, the complex
441 interactions of stressors affecting both inshore and offshore aquaculture, at different temporal and
442 spatial scales, must be considered in the spatial planning and design of future sustainable aquaculture
443 development.

444

445 **References**

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634 **Figure captions**

635 **Figure 1 Applied framework to detect the environmental sustainability index** resulting from
636 plotting the duration of the grow-out phase, in terms of days needed to reach the commercial size,
637 Time To Commercial Size; (TTCS, days) against potential impact values (IMP values, in terms of
638 uneaten food + feces for the two fish species fed by humans and feces only for the unfed bivalves,
639 grams). Once detected the mean values of both TTCS and IMP (MTTCS and MIMP) were used as
640 reference points of sustainable condition (environmental sustainability *sensu* Sarà et al. 2018a) and
641 the four quadrants around the mean values defining four main conditions to which we then assigned
642 a value, respectively: Worst, (red color) Bad (orange color), Good (yellow color) and Best (green
643 color).

644
645 **Figure 2 Temporal trend of both Sea Surface Temperatures and Chlorophyll-a** (respectively
646 SST; upper graph and CHL-a; lower graph) relative to the RCP 4.5 and 8.5 IPCC scenarios (blue and
647 red lines respectively). Data were downloaded and divided into five-time intervals of five years each
648 (2007-2010; 2017-2020; 2027-2030; 2037-2040; 2047-2050). Data downloaded from POLCOM -
649 Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory Coastal Ocean Modelling System containing the outputs of
650 regionally downscaled projections for European seas generated using coupled ERSEM - European
651 Regional Seas Ecosystem Model 15.06 hydrodynamic-biogeochemical models.

652
653 **Figure 3 Trends of the number of pixels per condition of environmental sustainability index**
654 (Worst = red color; Bad = orange color; Good = yellow color; Best = green color). Data were reported
655 per single species, at both RCP 4.5 and 8.5 scenarios for each of the five-time intervals (2007-2010;
656 2017-2020; 2027-2030; 2037-2040; 2047-2050). The areas occupied by human activities and the
657 main protected areas and habitats (see Supplementary materials Figure S3 and Table S4, S5 for more
658 details) were excluded.

659
660 **Figure 4. Number of pixels per condition of environmental sustainability index at each region**
661 **along the Italian Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ);** Worst = red color; Bad = orange color; Good =
662 yellow color; Best = green color. Areas occupied by human activities and the main protected areas
663 and habitats (see Supplementary materials Figure S3 and Table S4, S5 for more details) were
664 excluded. Data were reported per single species (*Sparus aurata*, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, *Mytilus*
665 *galloprovincialis*, *Crassostrea gigas*), at both RCP 4.5 and 8.5 scenarios for the 2027–2030-time
666 interval. Numbers correspond to an Italian region: 1- Abruzzo, 2 – Apulia, 3 – Basilicata, 4 – Calabria,
667 5 – Campania, 6 – Emilia Romagna, 7 – Friuli Venezia Giulia, 8 – Lazio, 9 – Liguria, 10 – Marche,
668 11 – Molise, 12 – Sardinia, 13 – Sicily, 14 – Tuscany, 15 – Veneto.

669
670 **Figure 5. Overlapped environmental sustainability index.** From the top to the bottom line the five-
671 time intervals considered, respectively 2007-2010, 2017-2020, 2027-2030, 2037-2040, 2047-2050.
672 Respectively, the couple of maps on the left side represent the scenarios comparison between RCPs
673 4.5 and 8.5. The inshore and offshore areas are divided by a grey line. Maps were performed using
674 QGIS; black pixels represent the areas occupied by human activities layers and the main protected
675 areas and habitats layers. The obtained four values (0 = red colour, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1 = increasing
676 shades of blue colour) were used to indicate how many species can be farmed in the same aquaculture
677 facility maintaining the environmental sustainability target (respectively 0 = none; 0.25 = one species;
678 0.5 = two species; 0.75 = three species; 1 = four species).

679

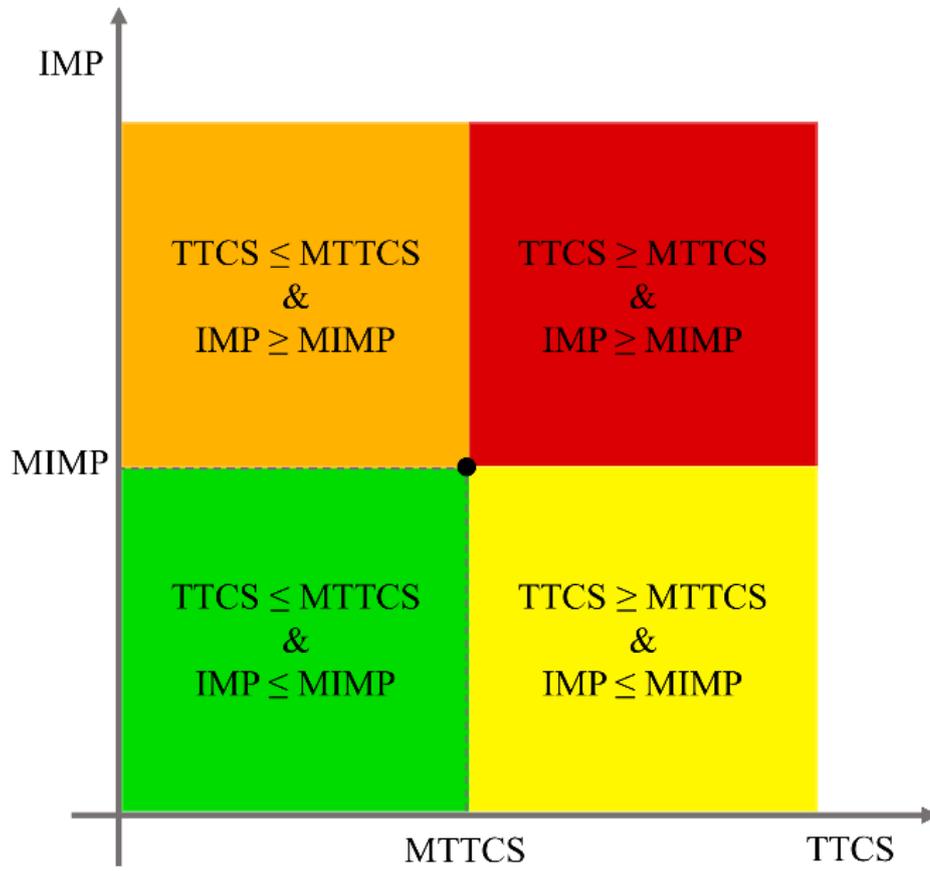


Figure 1.

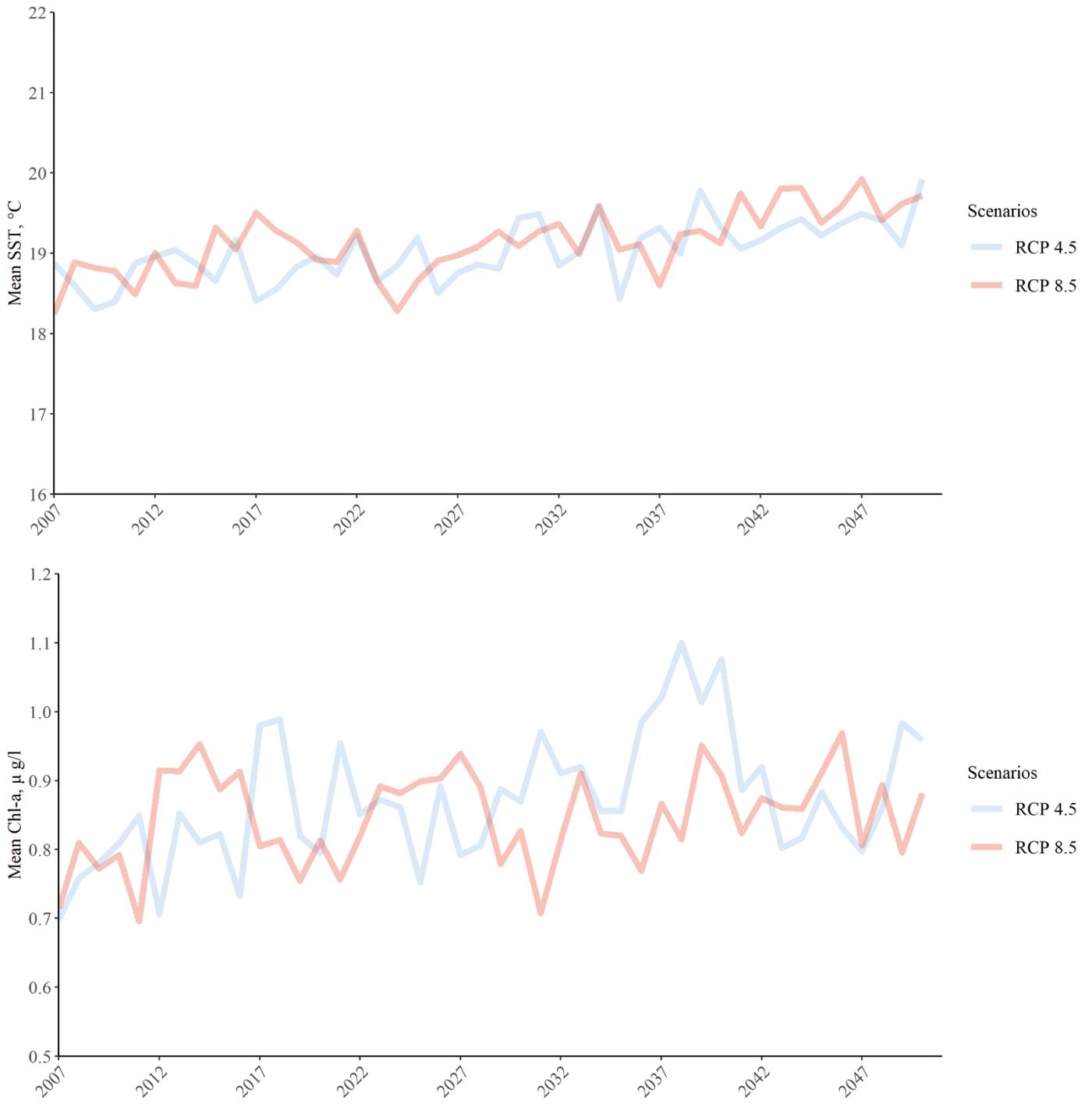


Figure 2.

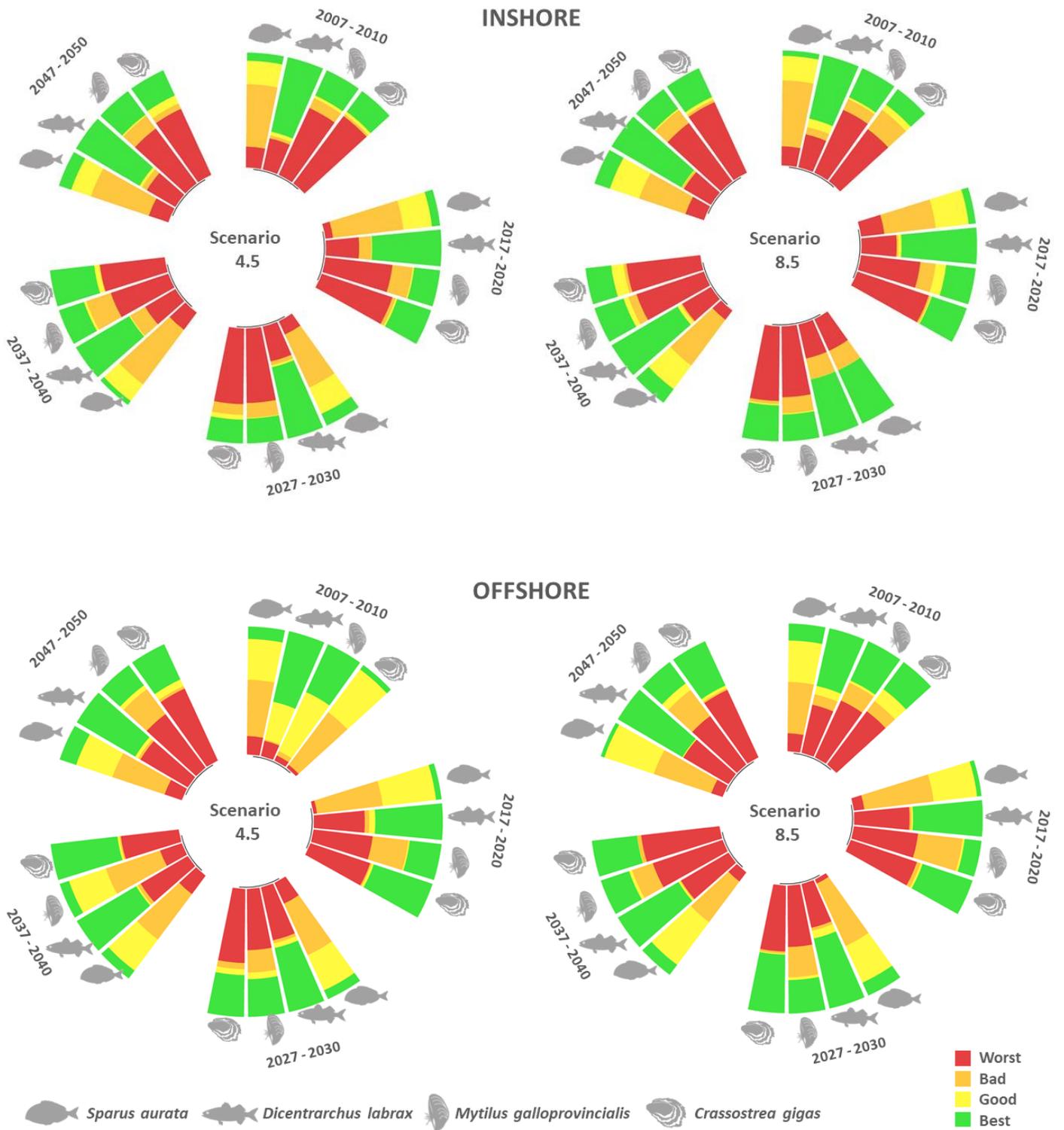


Figure 3.

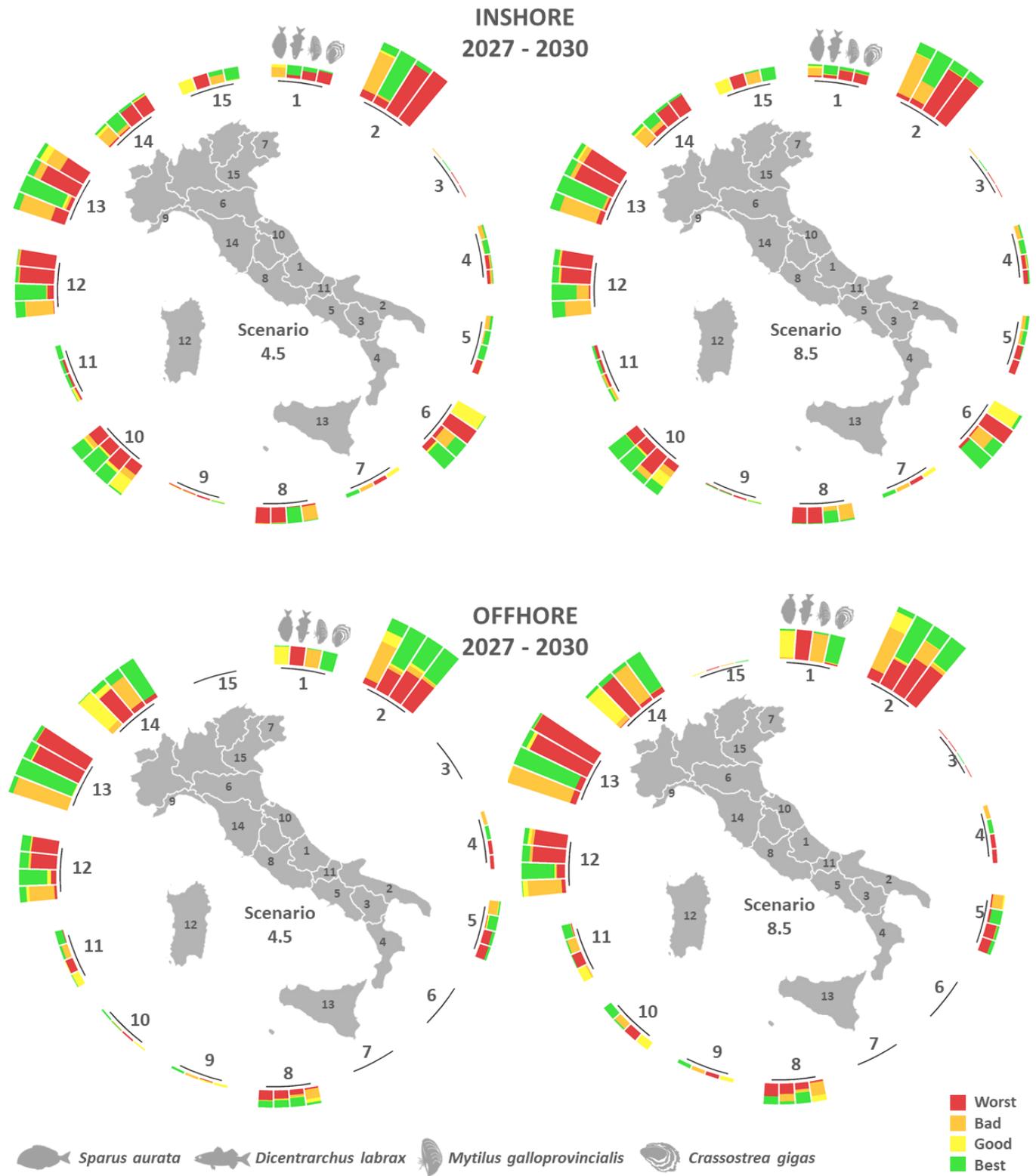
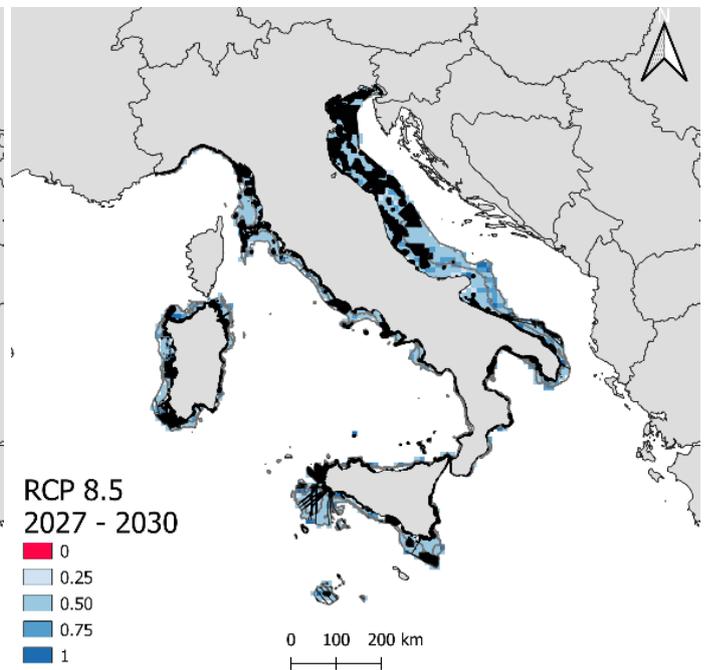
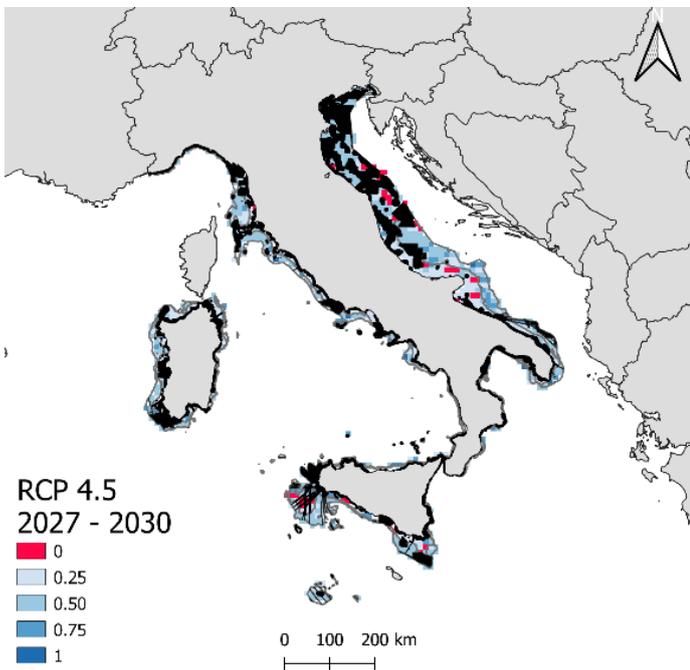
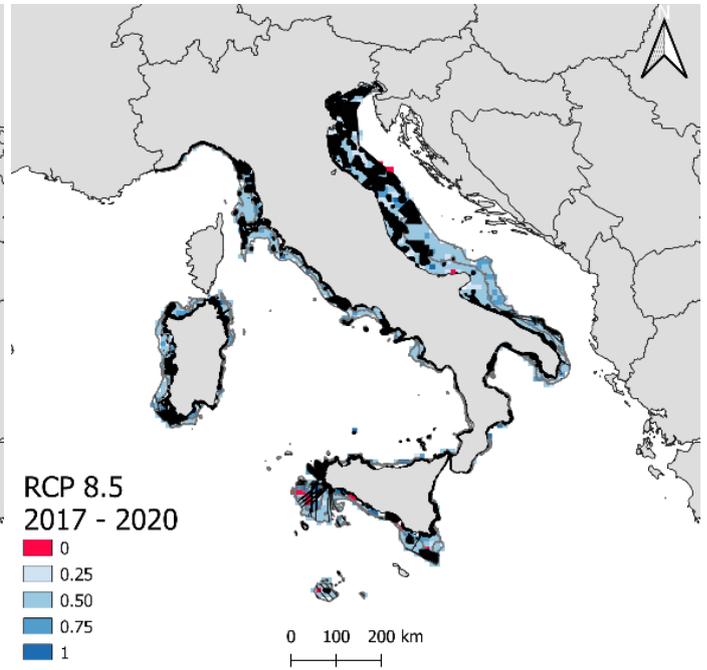
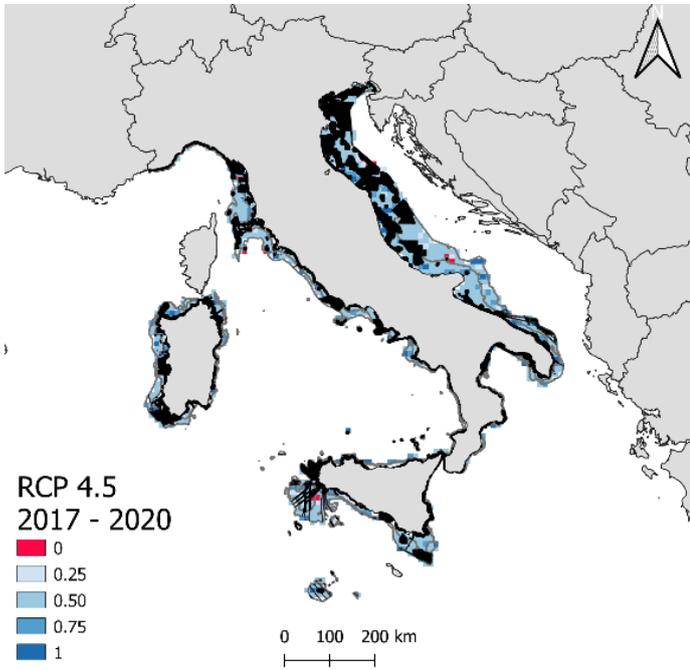
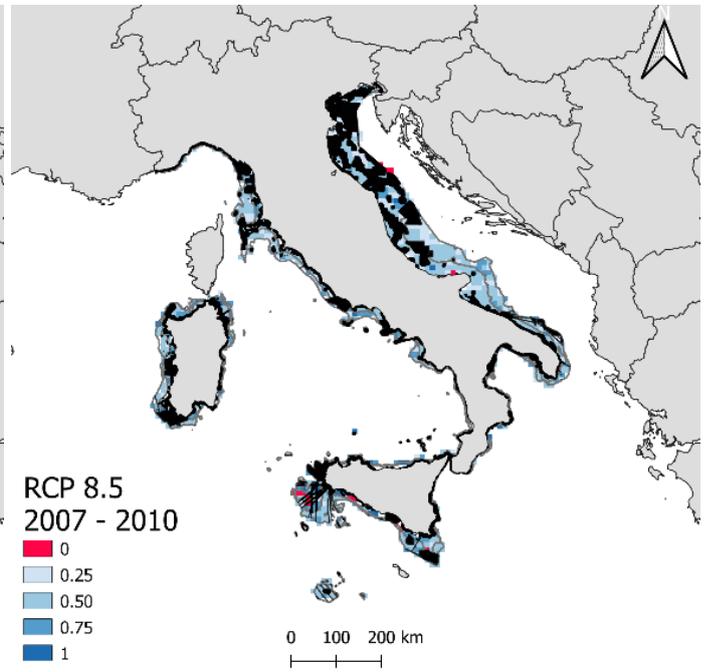
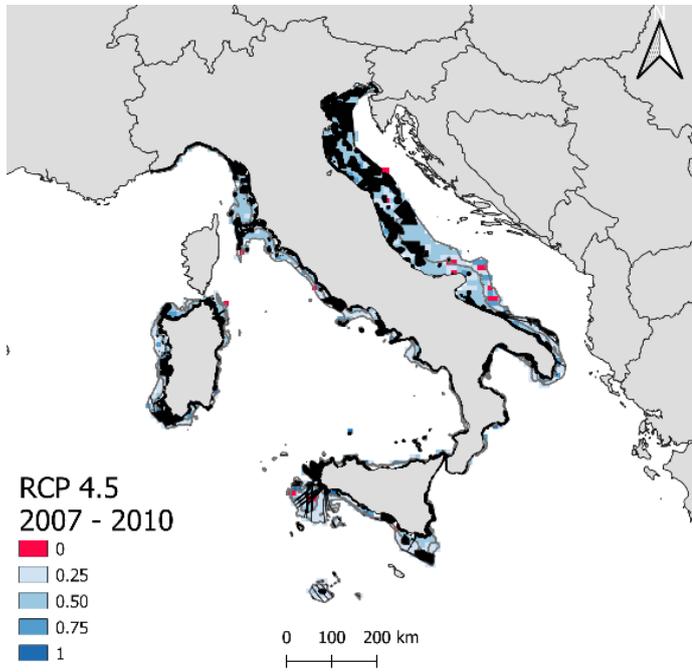


Figure 4.



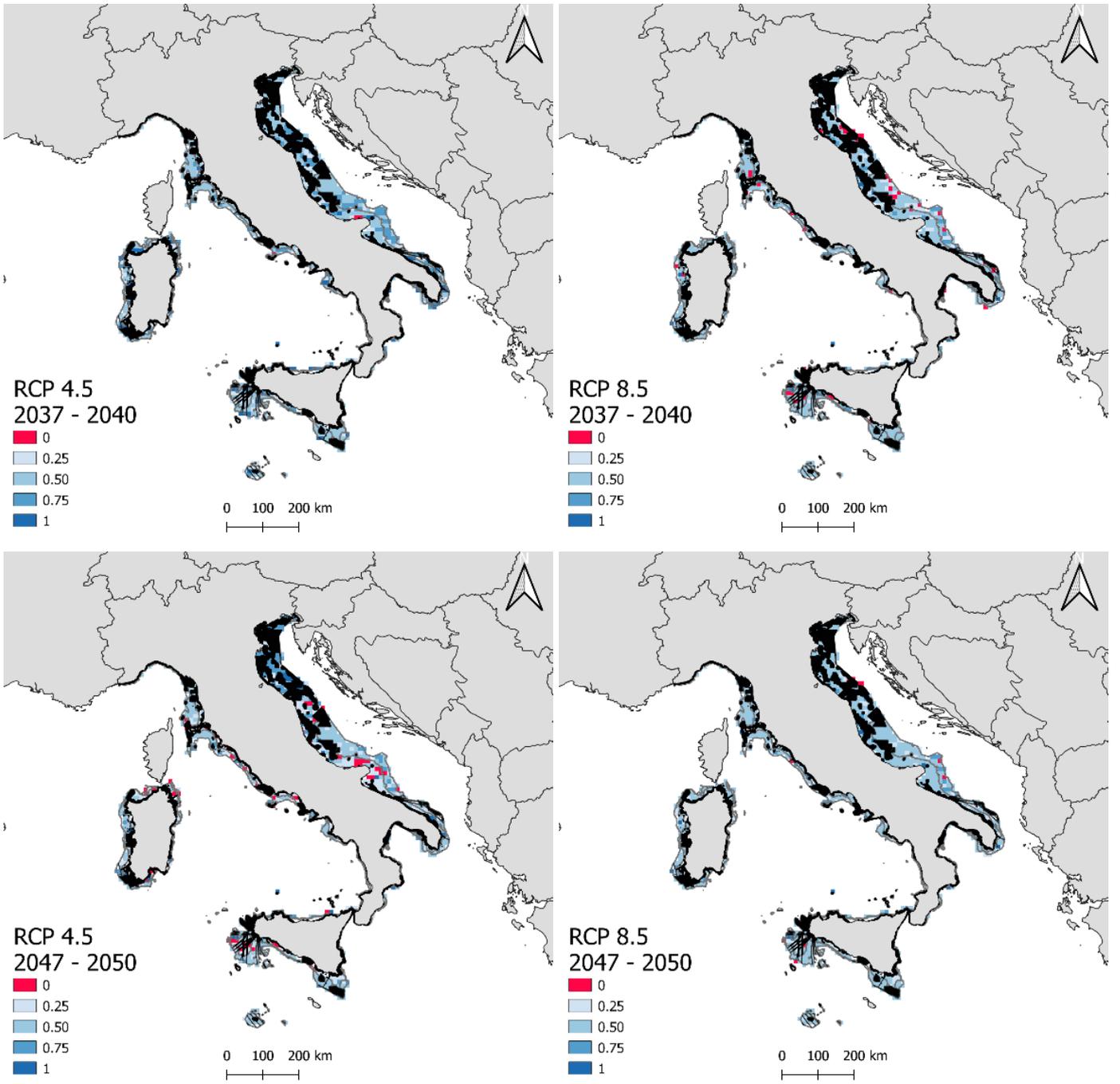


Figure 5.