



de Roos, B., Roos, N., Mamun, A.-A., Ahmed, T., Sneddon, A. A., Murray, F., Grieve, E. and Little, D. C. (2019) Linking agroecosystems producing farmed seafood with food security and health status to better address the nutritional challenges in Bangladesh. *Public Health Nutrition*, 22(16), pp. 2941-2949. (doi:[10.1017/S1368980019002295](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980019002295))

There may be differences between this version and the published version. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite from it.

<http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/196876/>

Deposited on 29 January 2020

Enlighten – Research publications by members of the University of
Glasgow

<http://eprints.gla.ac.uk>

1 **Linking agroecosystems producing farmed seafood with food security**
2 **and health status to better address the nutritional challenges in**
3 **Bangladesh**

4

5

6 **Abstract**

7

8 Objective: Aquaculture is one of the fastest growing food production sectors in many Low Income
9 and Food Deficit Countries (LIFDCs) with aquatic eco-zones. Yet its specific impact on nutrition
10 and livelihood in local communities, where commercial and/or export-orientated aquaculture
11 activities are developed, is largely unknown.

12 Design: This **narrative and argumentative** review aims to provide an overview of our current
13 understanding of connections between aquaculture agro-ecosystems, local and national fish
14 production, fish consumption patterns and nutrition and health outcomes.

15 Results: The agro-ecological dynamic in a coastal-estuarine zone, where the aquatic environment
16 ranges from fully saline to freshwater, is complex, with seasonal and annual fluctuations in
17 freshwater supply creating a variable salinity gradient which impacts on aquatic food production,
18 and on food production more generally. The local communities living in these dynamic aquatic
19 eco-zones are vulnerable to poverty, poor diet and health, whilst these ecosystems produce highly
20 valuable and nutritious aquatic foods. Policies addressing the specific challenges of risk
21 management of these communities is limited by the sectoral separation of aquatic food production
22 – the fisheries and aquaculture sector, the broader food sector - and public health institutions.

23 Conclusion: Here we provide an argument for the integration of these factors to improve
24 aquaculture value chains to better address the nutritional challenges in Bangladesh.

25

26 **Keywords**: agrosystems, aquaculture, LIFDC, food security, nutritional status, Bangladesh

27 **Introduction – the role of aquaculture production systems in food security and human** 28 **health**

29
30 Aquaculture represents a fast growing food production sector in many Low Income and Food Deficit
31 Countries (LIFDCs). **In certain southeast and south Asian countries, like Bangladesh and Vietnam, the**
32 **contribution of aquaculture to gross domestic product (GDP) is now over 2.5%, indicating that**
33 **aquaculture is an important contributor to the countries' economy performance** [1,2]. In the ten leading
34 aquaculture countries in the Global South, farmed fish is increasingly available and accessible to
35 poor urban and rural consumers in these markets [3]. Yet the specific impacts of commercial
36 aquaculture on food security, nutritional status and livelihood in local communities where it is located
37 are poorly understood. On a global scale, the importance of aquaculture in enhancing the reliance of
38 the world food supply has been questioned [4], and aquatic products have often remain neglected in
39 food security analyses, despite its important role in world trade, human nutrition and support for
40 livelihoods [5]. Indeed, whilst its role in securing livelihoods of poor households through
41 employment in fishery and aquaculture supply and value chains is well established [6,7], the
42 contributions of fish to food security, but also to nutritional status as a consequence of increased
43 fish consumption, has been largely ignored in international debate. A recent review found that fish
44 consumption was absent from strategies for reduction of micronutrient deficiency [8]. The
45 disconnect between nutrition and seafood continues - indeed, the recent Global Nutrition Report
46 makes no mention of the role of seafood in human diets because the Sustainable Development
47 Goal most linked to aquaculture (SDG14, Life under the water) has no 'nutritionally relevant'
48 indicators [9]. The real importance of fish consumption occurs in LIFDC; in 2010, of the 30
49 countries where fish contribute more than one third of the total animal protein intake, 22 were
50 LIFDCs [10].

51
52 The evidence that emergent commercial aquaculture in LIFDCs has had important effects on local
53 livelihoods and the environment has not been matched with detailed studies of its direct impacts on
54 peoples' nutritional status, health and well-being [11]. A review of the literature on the relationship
55 between aquaculture and poverty, food security, food production sustainability and gender equality
56 found that, although there were a number of studies identifying income benefits, these analyses were
57 less relevant for consumption in poor households [12]. Recently, the impacts of deteriorating marine fish
58 catches on human health was modelled using the decline in intake of critical nutrients as indicators [13].
59 However, this global model was limited to marine fisheries and cannot make predictions for highly
60 complex agro-ecological food systems characterising many LIFDCs. **This study reviews our current**

61 understanding of connections between aquaculture agro-ecosystems, fish production and consumption
62 patterns in relation to nutrition and health outcomes, and discusses how integration of such factors may
63 improve impact on food security, nutritional status and well-being, in Bangladesh.

64

65

66 **Methods**

67

68 Here we present a narrative review discussing evidence from interdisciplinary research fields
69 including agroecosystems producing farmed seafood, food security and nutritional status. The
70 review was conducted by an interdisciplinary group of authors. This review contains
71 argumentative elements to explore how integration of such interdisciplinary factors could improve
72 future impact on food security, nutritional status and well-being in Bangladesh.

73

74

75 **Aquaculture production systems in Bangladesh**

76

77 *The ecosystems*

78 The geographical characterisation of Southeast and South Asian countries is diverse, and
79 aquaculture systems vary according to position - coastal or inland - and salinity gradient.
80 In Bangladesh, the agro-ecological dynamics of aquaculture are complex in a coastal zone ranging
81 from saline to freshwater aquatic environments, with seasonal and annual fluctuations in freshwater
82 availability. The variable salinity gradients impact on aquaculture specifically, and on food
83 production more generally [14]. Local adaptation and risk management in terms of strategic cropping
84 of rice and vegetables versus production of shrimp and finfish are common as people respond to
85 changes to water regimes. For example, export-orientated shrimp aquaculture, that has developed
86 to dominate land-use in estuarine flood plains of many coastal LIFDCs, causes a range of impacts
87 on local livelihoods. Pressures from a growing human population and the quest for economic
88 benefit are now transforming marginal agro-ecosystems in LIFDCs, including coastal wetlands that
89 are vulnerable to climate change and salinization [14]. The livelihoods of the rural poor are
90 increasingly dependent on alternative land use strategies and aquaculture has often become a key
91 component of food production [7], mostly alongside continued exploitation of unstocked aquatic
92 animals [15]. The impacts of such changes are not limited to the producers, or even producer

93 communities themselves, as the poor are often intrinsic members of associated value chains and/ or
94 as consumers throughout a much broader geography [16]. Key drivers to this dynamic are both the
95 declining harvests of wild aquatic stocks and growth in demand driven by increasing, often urban,
96 populations consuming more nutritious diets [17,18].

98 *Aquaculture in food systems*

99 After three decades of sustained growth, aquaculture now accounts for 53% of reported fish
100 production [19], although pathways to consumption are less well understood. Farmed seafood now
101 contributes to nearly 50% of total direct human consumption globally, but in some countries such
102 as Bangladesh, its rise has been comparatively more important [20], given the context of fish being
103 the most accessible and also preferred choice of animal sourced foods. On the global level,
104 significant diversity in consumption levels of seafood (total and as % of animal-sourced protein)
105 and spatial importance of aquaculture production (as the contribution to gross domestic product)
106 suggest some important mismatches. Indeed, although high consumption levels are met by high
107 production in in Southeast and South Asia, demand for fish as a source of animal protein in West
108 and Central Africa cannot be met by current levels of indigenous aquaculture, despite years of
109 sector growth [5]. Moreover, on the local level, access of vulnerable individuals to farmed seafood
110 within the community or even within the household is influenced by a range of social and individual
111 factors.

113 *Role of aquaculture in the sustainable development of Bangladesh*

114 The challenge to meeting the sustainable agenda of the UN in Bangladesh is immense and linked
115 to its poverty and estuarine environment [21]. The positive economic growth of Bangladesh in
116 recent years has been based largely on the rise of ‘non-traditional exports’, garments and the
117 mainly farmed shrimp and prawn [22]. Aquaculture, mainly practiced in southern coastal areas, has
118 grown to constitute around 60% of primary product exports, but has given rise to considerable
119 criticism on environmental and social grounds [23]. The well-publicised negative consequences of
120 shrimp culture [23] include impacts related to general salinization of the environment, which can
121 reduce terrestrial diversity, and possibly impoverish local diets and negatively impact on
122 community social welfare. On the other hand, however, it has also been found that aquatic
123 diversity can be enhanced in such environments, and a wide range of naturally-recruiting ‘co-
124 products’ of indigenous fish are harvested from the commercial ponds, destined for local
125 consumption [14]. This appears to be particularly the case in extensive and semi-intensive

126 production systems characteristic of Bangladesh. We recently showed that small homestead
127 ponds, raising both fish and vegetables, can contribute to a wider food supply, reduced poverty
128 and enhanced food security, which would be especially critical for food-vulnerable rural
129 households compared with peri-urban households, and which would be most important during
130 the lower income months [24]. But the role of aquaculture located in different agroecosystems
131 also needs to be assessed. Recent research found that the hydrological forces in Southwest
132 Bangladesh are actively displacing a zone of transition between fresh and brackish water
133 southward despite a countervailing trend of rising sea level. Thus, the agro- and aquaculture
134 systems in such a highly dynamic environments are continually being adapted to both
135 environmental and market factors [14].

136
137 *Role of aquaculture in economic development and poverty reduction*
138 Previous attempts to explore the associations between commercial aquaculture and poverty as a
139 measure of its impact on economic development have mainly focussed on the direct and indirect
140 contribution to poverty reduction for the poor entering into paid employment [25]. A study in the
141 Philippines used Gini decomposition of income due to employment generation and showed that
142 commercial shrimp culture reduced economic inequality in several coastal villages [26]. The
143 contribution of aquaculture to poverty reduction has been related to both the direct and indirect
144 contributions of increased income and consumption in Bangladesh [11,16]. There is a lack of
145 empirical studies that show the impact of indirect consumption through increased availability of
146 fish in the markets and increased accessibility of fish due to reduced price. Household income and
147 expenditure survey data can be used to demonstrate if aquaculture is “pro-poor”, where pro-poor
148 aquaculture growth is defined as the “quantity of fish eaten by poor consumers increases by a
149 greater amount than the quantity of fish eaten by non-poor consumers” [11]. Better information on
150 the specific nutritional, health and well-being outcomes that are related to changes in the
151 ‘foodscape’ around aquaculture production, especially for the most vulnerable groups such as
152 adolescent females, are required to inform future policy support for further transformation of rural
153 landscapes and the livelihoods they support.

154

155 **Fish consumption and health outcomes in Bangladesh**

156

157 *Fish consumption in Bangladesh*

158 Fish consumption across Bangladesh is not well documented – the most recent and representative
159 data evaluate fish consumption patterns based on 24-hour recall data collected as part of the

160 Bangladesh Integrated Household Survey (BIHS) between October 2011 and March 2012 [27]. The
161 average intake of fish (fresh fish and dried fish converted to fresh weight) was 67 and 75 grams
162 per person per day for adult women and men, respectively, across all wealth groups. Fish
163 consumption amongst the poorest quintile wealth group was about half this amount, 35 versus 78
164 grams per person per day for adult women. Less than half of the children under the age of 2 years
165 had been fed animal-source food the previous day, and the portions sizes were very small, despite
166 the mothers' awareness of the importance of feeding their children fish or other animal-source
167 food [27]. However, the period covered in this study includes the peak season for fish supply in
168 Bangladesh, and therefore average fish consumption figures across the year may be lower.

169
170 **In food system analysis, it is important that the relationship between fish intake and fish supply**
171 **can be evaluated.** Food balance sheets from the United Nations' Food and Agriculture
172 Organization Statistical Database (FAOSTAT), providing data on quantities of food available to
173 consumers based on production and trade between 2009-2011 [28], have shown the unique
174 importance of fish **availability** in the food system in Bangladesh amongst 5 fish producing Asian
175 LIFDCs countries, including China and India (Figure 1). While the total **available** food supply in
176 terms of dietary energy per capita is relatively comparable between the 5 countries (A), in
177 Bangladesh, the supply of animal-based foods (meat, egg, milk and seafoods) contributes
178 significantly less to total **available** dietary energy (B, D), fat (E) and protein (F) compared with
179 **availability** in the other countries. On the contrary, the contribution of animal-based food from fish
180 and seafood (C, G-I), and particularly freshwater fish (J-L), to dietary energy, fat and protein
181 intakes is amongst the highest across the countries investigated. The food system in Bangladesh is
182 characterized by a generally sufficient – not alarming – per capita total supply of dietary energy
183 and protein, but very low supply of fat and a very low total supply of animal-source food [28].
184 However, despite the very low availability of fat, **a previous study also deriving data from**
185 **FAOSTAT** showed that Bangladesh did **appear to** have a relatively good supply of **total n-3**
186 **PUFA compared to other LIFDCs** [29]. In this context, the contribution from fish and seafood is
187 significant, and therefore, any changes to the supply and accessibility of aquatic foods will impact
188 on the dietary quality of the population.

189

190 *Fish consumption and health outcomes*

191 **Consumption of seafood may be able to alleviate the often multiple micronutrient deficiencies**
192 **that are highly prevalent in the Bangladeshi population** [21]. In this country, fish is the most
193 **important nutrient-rich food in the diet across population groups and ages, being a valuable**

194 contributor to the reference nutrient intakes for a range of micronutrients, in addition to being an
195 important source of protein and energy [30]. Indeed, promotion of the consumption of mola
196 carplet, a small indigenous fish high in vitamin A, appears a cost-effective approach increase
197 vitamin A intake, reduce the prevalence of inadequate vitamin A intake and generally reduce the
198 burden of micronutrient malnutrition in Bangladesh [31]. Furthermore, dietary LC n-3 PUFA
199 from fish have well documented positive impacts on the brain development of infants and
200 children [32]. In relation to this, it has been observed that birth weight and head circumference of
201 babies at birth have been positively associated with seafood consumption in Norwegian mothers
202 [33].

203
204 Between 1991 and 2010, fish consumption has increased by 30%, and, with fish being the major
205 protein source of a typical Bangladeshi diet consisting of polished rice, fish and vegetables, this
206 has also led to significant increases in average energy, protein and fat intake from fish, both
207 nationally and for all poverty groups [30]. However, whilst protein levels vary little,
208 micronutrient levels do vary across fish species [34] and, more generally, the nutritional quality
209 of farmed species is known to be decreased for some species due to global changes in fish feed
210 composition [35-37]. This may have contributed, for example, to a significant decrease in iron and
211 calcium intakes from fish in the general Bangladeshi population, despite an increase in fish
212 consumption in the past 20 years [30]. The impact of seafood consumption in populations in
213 LIFDCs is, however, blurred by the multiple health impacts of poor living conditions, such as a
214 high infectious disease burden and generally poor nutritional quality of diets. Whilst there exists
215 a positive correlation between fish and seafood supply and male height (with low height being
216 an indicator of stunted growth in early life) in Europe, this correlation is negative for fish and
217 seafood supply, especially freshwater fish supply, and male height in populations in Asia and
218 Africa [38]. This may indicate a higher dependency on fish, particularly freshwater fish, in
219 LIFDC populations compared to high-income countries.

220
221 It was recently reported that obesity, hyperglycaemia and raised blood pressure are important but
222 unrecognised health threats in rural Bangladesh, indicating a need for new treatment strategies to
223 preventing the growing burden of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) like diabetes and
224 cardiovascular disease [39]. Indeed, low-income and middle-income countries like Bangladesh
225 suffer the largest burden of morbidity and mortality due to NCDs [40]. Therefore, the inverse
226 relationship between fish consumption and risk for coronary heart disease and stroke, as
227 established in two recent meta-analyses in mostly Western populations [41,42], may become

228 increasingly relevant for the treatment and prevention of NCDs in LIFDCs such as Bangladesh.

229

230

231 **Linking aquaculture agro-ecosystems with nutritional health outcomes to address the** 232 **nutritional challenges in Bangladesh**

233

234 *Current nutritional and health challenges in Bangladesh*

235 Bangladesh has one of the worst rates of malnutrition in the world – 36% of children under 5 are
236 stunted, 33% of children under 5 are underweight and millions of people have micronutrient
237 deficiencies [43]. Deficiencies in folate, zinc, vitamins A, B₆, B₁₂, C, E and riboflavin, mainly
238 resulting from inadequate dietary intake of animal source foods, fruit and vegetables, are highly
239 prevalent and may occur concurrently among pregnant women [44], albeit that the prevalence of
240 iron deficiency is low, contrary to the widely held assumption, possibly as a result of high levels of
241 iron in groundwater [45]. Multiple nutrient deficiencies are generally observed in populations with
242 low socioeconomic status [46]. However, despite many challenges, Bangladesh has made
243 improvements in the health outcomes of its children. Stunting in children under 5 has declined by
244 nearly 1.4 % a year between 1997 and 2011, with the key drivers for this change being
245 multidimensional: improvements in parental education, household assets, sanitation and health care
246 use, for example [47]. The WHO currently recommends iron and folic acid supplementation for pregnant
247 women to prevent maternal anaemia, puerperal sepsis, low birth weight, and preterm birth, and this is also
248 implemented in Bangladesh. However, iron-folic acid supplementation often starts too late in the
249 pregnancy to have impact on maternal nutrition and birth outcome. This supports the case for public
250 health interventions to include nutritional interventions in addition to supplement regimes to improve
251 nutritional status and thereby maternal and child health outcomes. Indeed, it has been argued, for
252 example, that zinc bio-fortification of rice has the potential to markedly improve zinc adequacy in
253 diets in rural Bangladeshi populations [48]. Moreover, a recent systematic review concluded that
254 dietary interventions and fortified food products were effective in increasing birth weight and reducing
255 the incidence of low birth weight [49].

256

257 Increasingly we acknowledge that improvements in nutritional and health status on the individual,
258 local and national level depend on a complex network of interacting factors that drive food
259 production, food availability and dietary intake, and by linking these we may be able to better
260 address the nutritional challenges in Bangladesh (Figure 2). Currently, policies addressing the
261 specific challenges of risk management of these communities are characterised by the sectoral

262 separation of aquatic food production – the fisheries and aquaculture sector and the broader food
263 sector - and public health institutions. Indeed, a succession of national policies have acknowledged
264 the importance of food security at the national, household and individual level in the agro-based
265 economy of Bangladesh, stressing the importance of increasing production and processing in the
266 fisheries sub-sectors in an environment-friendly and sustainable manner, without addressing the
267 impact on human diet and health outcomes [50-52]. Likewise, several national policies have set out
268 strategies to improve the overall health, nutritional status, survival, growth, development and
269 productivity of the population by preventing and alleviating micronutrient deficiencies, as well as
270 ensuring quality and equitable healthcare for all citizens of Bangladesh by gradually achieving
271 Universal Health Coverage, without addressing the impact of food production and distribution
272 [53,54]. It is therefore difficult to assess how government policies on fish production impact on
273 nutritional status human health, and vice versa, in Bangladesh.

274
275 *Cultural factors affecting dietary intake, nutritional status and health in Bangladesh*
276 One main problem with linking factors like dietary intake, nutritional status and health (Figure 2)
277 is that for the measurement of dietary intake, data are commonly collected at the household level.
278 However, in Bangladesh, differential access to food within households, with a tendency of dis-
279 favouring females, is a cultural norm [7]. This means that dietary intake data may not necessarily
280 align with nutritional status and health outcomes, especially in adolescent girls and young
281 women. Adolescent girls represent a vulnerable group in Bangladesh. They have lower access to
282 food but at the same time have higher nutritional requirements: for their own growth, as well as
283 – in case of early marriage and motherhood - for the inter-uterus growth of the child, and for
284 breastfeeding the infant – the critical ‘1000 days’ [55]. Indeed, in Bangladesh, for example, almost
285 30% of adolescent girls are married before 14 years of age, with almost 60% married by the age of
286 16; the country has been ranked third in the prevalence of child marriage globally [56]. Greater
287 female autonomy, which has been found to confer improved food and resource allocation within the
288 family, has been strongly linked to female employment, especially outside the home [57]. Given the
289 large increase in female employment related to export-led processing of farmed seafood, a value
290 chain approach, in which employment within entities involved in the forward and backward trade
291 linkages with production are assessed, is critical to understanding the interactions of nutrition and
292 health outcomes.

293

294 *Aquaculture production factors affecting nutritional and health status*

295 It is currently unclear how exactly aquaculture production systems contribute to the population

296 and individual health, and how this relationship may be affected by food availability, dietary
297 intakes and nutritional status on the local level (Figure 2). Global Value Chain (GVC) frameworks
298 containing information on product, process, functional and interchain categories [58-60]
299 acknowledge the growing link between intensifying aquaculture in LIFDCs to global markets [9].
300 However typically, such frameworks do not include value add-ons such as food security,
301 nutritional status, health and well-being outcomes. Despite the apparent lack of systematic
302 approaches and methodologies to assess impact on health and related quality of life [61], these are
303 necessary to create a better understanding of impacts of access to aquatic foods on health and
304 nutrition – resulting in the development of more integrated policy models to evaluate the
305 effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of interventions on lifetime health outcomes [62], as well as
306 informing policy decisions for practice in the development of farmed aquatic systems. Analysis of
307 global patterns in seafood reliance, malnutrition level and economic prospects have already indicated
308 that island nations in Southeast Asia have the best opportunities for the farming of marine species [63].
309 However, frameworks and metrics for the linkages between terrestrial agroecosystems and
310 nutritional and health outcomes, including Bangladesh, highlight the need for more research on in-
311 country specific settings including dietary diversity and the role of women in food production and
312 distribution [64]. Furthermore, the very specific complexity of the dynamic coastal ecosystems with
313 fluctuating salinity, and the dependency of local communities on aquatic food resources, remain to
314 be conceptualized for the aquaculture/fisheries and health sector. Monitoring of the consequences
315 of natural and man-made developments in these extremely dynamic agro-ecological systems will be
316 necessary to provide information on the nutritional, health and well-being outcomes of local residents
317 that are related to the value chain and changes in the ‘foodscape’ relating to aquaculture production.

318

319 **Conclusion**

320

321 Establishing the relationships between aquaculture agro-ecosystems producing nutritious foods,
322 and its impact on the health and nutritional status of local communities living in such dynamic
323 aquatic eco-zones, is currently challenging for various reasons. These include the complex
324 ecological dynamics of seasonal and annual fluctuations in freshwater supply and variable salinity
325 gradients in aquatic environments, which is especially relevant for a country like Bangladesh. It
326 also includes difficulties with the accurate assessment of fish consumption, and how this relates to
327 individual health outcomes, as this relationship can be confounded by many factors, including the
328 health impacts of poor living conditions, such as the high prevalence of infectious diseases
329 generally poor nutritional quality of diets. Access to and availability of fish is another factor to

330 consider, including geographical locations, access to global and local markets, and household
331 income. Populations in LIFDCs are more dependent on fish, particularly freshwater fish, to ensure
332 sufficient intake of energy, protein and fat, and fish consumption may affect also growth and
333 micronutrient status. Therefore, it is important that Global Value Chain (GVC) frameworks, which
334 are currently mostly focussing on product, process, functional and interchain categories, include
335 factors such as food security, nutritional status, health and well-being outcomes in the future. This
336 will provide a better understanding of impacts of access to aquatic foods on health, resulting in a
337 more integrated and relevant policies and practices when further developing farmed aquatic
338 systems.

For Peer Review

339 **References**

340

341 [1] Little DC, Newton RW and Beveridge MCM (2016) Aquaculture: a rapidly growing and
342 significant source of sustainable food? Status, transitions and potential. *Proceedings of the*
343 *Nutrition Society* 75, 274–286.

344 [2] Cai JN, Huang H and Leung PS (2019) Understanding and measuring the contribution of
345 aquaculture and fisheries to gross domestic product (GDP). *FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture*
346 *Technical Paper No. 606*. Rome, FAO. <http://www.fao.org/3/CA3200EN/ca3200en.pdf>

347 [3] Belton B, Bush S and Little DC (2018) Not just for the wealthy: Transforming farmed fish
348 consumption in the Global South. *Global Food Security* 16, 85-92.

349 [4] Troell M, Naylor RL, Metian M, *et al.* (2014) Does aquaculture add resilience to the global
350 food system? *PNAS* 111, 13257-13263.

351 [5] Little DC, Newton RW, Beveridge MCM (2016) Aquaculture: a rapidly growing and
352 significant source of sustainable food? Status, transitions and potential. *Proc Nutr Soc* 75,
353 274-286.

354 [6] Allison EH (2011) Aquaculture, fisheries, poverty and food security. Penang, Malaysia. The
355 WorldFish Center, 60pp. WorldFish Center Working Paper. p2011-2065.

356 [7] Béne C, Arthur R, Norbury H, *et al.* (2016) Contribution of fisheries and aquaculture to food
357 security and poverty reduction: assessing the current evidence. *World Development* 79, 177-
358 196.

359 [8] Allison EH, Delaporte A, Hellebrandt de Silva D (2013) Integrating fisheries management
360 and aquaculture development with food security and livelihoods for the poor. Report
361 submitted to the Rockefeller Foundation. Norwich: School of International Development,
362 University of East Anglia.

363 [9] Little DC, Young JA, Zhang W, *et al.* (2018) Sustainable intensification of aquaculture value
364 chains between Asia and Europe: a framework for understanding impacts and challenges.
365 *Aquaculture* 493, 338-354.

366 [10] Kawarazuka N, Béné C (2010) Linking small-scale fisheries and aquaculture to household
367 nutritional security: an overview. *Food Security* 2, 343–357.

368 [11] Toufique KA, Belton B (2014) Is Aquaculture Pro-Poor? Empirical Evidence of Impacts on
369 Fish Consumption in Bangladesh. *World Development* 64, 609–620.

370 [12] Burns TE, Wade J, Stephen C, *et al.* (2014) A scoping analysis of peer-reviewed literature
371 about linkages between aquaculture and determinants of human health. *EcoHealth* 11, 227–
372 240.

- 373 [13] Golden C, Allison EH, Cheung WWL, et al. (2016) Fall in fish catch threatens human health.
374 Nature, 534, 317-320.
- 375 [14] Faruque G, Hayat Sarwer R, Karim M, et al. (2016) The evolution of aquatic agricultural
376 systems in Southwest Bangladesh in response to salinity and other drivers of change.
377 *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability* 15:185-207.
- 378 [15] Amilhat E, Lorenzen K, Morales EJ, et al. (2010) Fisheries production in Southeast Asian
379 farmer managed aquatic systems (FMAS) II. Management impacts on diversity and
380 productivity of aquatic resources. *Aquaculture* 298, 57-63.
- 381 [16] Mialhe F, Morales E, Dubuisson-Quellier S, et al. (2018) Global standardization and local
382 complexity. A case study of an aquaculture system in Pampanga delta, Philippines.
383 *Aquaculture* 493, 365-375.
- 384 [17] Bunting X, Stuart W, Little DC (2015) Urban aquaculture for resilient food systems. P312-
385 335. In: de Zeeuw, Henk and Drechsel, Pay (Eds) Cities and Agriculture Developing
386 Resilient Urban Food Systems. Earthscan Food and Agriculture . Taylor & Francis. ISBN
387 978-1-13-886058-2.
- 388 [18] HLPE (2014). Sustainable fisheries and aquaculture for food security and nutrition. A report
389 by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on
390 World Food Security. FAO Rome.
- 391 [19] FAO (2016) The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2016. Contributing to Food
392 security and nutrition for all. FAO Rome. 190 pp.
- 393 [20] Belton B, Thilsted SH (2014) Fisheries in transition: Food and nutrition security implications
394 for the global South. *Global Food Security* 3, 59-66.
- 395 [21] Sack DA (2008) Achieving the Millennium Development Goals for Health and Nutrition in
396 Bangladesh: Key Issues and Interventions—An Introduction. *J Health Population Nutr* 26,
397 253-260.
- 398 [22] Lewis, D.J. (2011) Bangladesh: Politics, Economy and Civil Society. Cambridge University
399 Press 248pp.
- 400 [23] Stonich SC, Bailey C (2000) Resisting the blue revolution: contending coalitions surrounding
401 industrial shrimp farming. *Hum Organ* 59, 23–36.
- 402 [24] Karim M, Little D (2018) The impacts of integrated homestead pond-dyke systems in relation
403 to production, consumption and seasonality in central north Bangladesh. *Aquaculture*
404 *research* 49:313–334.
- 405 [25] Belton B, Little DC (2011) Immanent and Interventionist Inland Asian Aquaculture
406 Development and its Outcomes. *Development Policy Review* 29, 459-484.

- 407 [26] Xavier Irz, James R. Stevenson, Arnold Tanoy, *et al.* (2007) The Equity and Poverty Impacts
408 of Aquaculture: Insights from the Philippines. *Development Policy Review* 25, 495-516.
- 409 [27] Bogard JR, Marks GC, Mamun A, *et al.* (2017) Non-farmed fish contribute to greater
410 micronutrient intakes than farmed fish: results from an intra-household survey in rural
411 Bangladesh. *Public Health Nutrition* 20, 702-711.
- 412 [28] AFSPAN (2014) Final workshop report: Aquaculture for Food Security, Poverty Alleviation
413 and Nutrition (AFSPAN). Available from [http://www.afspan.eu/publications/reports/afspan-](http://www.afspan.eu/publications/reports/afspan-final-project-workshop-report.pdf)
414 [final-project-workshop-report.pdf](http://www.afspan.eu/publications/reports/afspan-final-project-workshop-report.pdf)
- 415 [29] Michaelsen KF, Dewey KG, Perez-Exposito AB, *et al.* (2011) Food sources and intake of n-6
416 and n-3 fatty acids in low income countries with emphasis on infants, young children (6-24
417 months), and pregnant and lactating women. *Matern Child Nutr* 7:S124-140.
- 418 [30] Bogard JR, Farook S, Marks GC, *et al.* (2017) Higher fish but lower micronutrient intakes:
419 Temporal changes in fish consumption from capture fisheries and aquaculture in Bangladesh.
420 *PLoS One*, 6, 12(4):e0175098.
- 421 [31] Fiedler JL, Lividini K, Drummond E, *et al.* (2016) Strengthening the contribution of
422 aquaculture to food and nutrition security: The potential of vitamin A-rich, small fish in
423 Bangladesh. *Aquaculture* 452, 291-303.
- 424 [32] Lauritzen L, Hansen HS, Jorgensen MH, *et al.* (2001) The essentiality of long chain n-3 fatty
425 acids in relation to development and function of the brain and retina. *Prog Lipid Res* 40, 1-94.
- 426 [33] Brantsæter AL, Birgisdottir BE, Meltzer HM, *et al.* (2012) Maternal seafood consumption
427 and infant birth weight, length and head circumference in the Norwegian Mother and Child
428 Cohort Study. *British Journal of Nutrition* 107, 436-444.
- 429 [34] Roos N, Wahab MA, Chamnan C, *et al.* (2007) The role of fish in food-based strategies to
430 combat vitamin A and mineral deficiencies in developing countries. *J Nutr* 137, 1106-1109.
- 431 [35] Bogard JR, Thilsted SH, Marks GC, *et al.* (2015) Nutrient composition of important fish
432 species in Bangladesh and potential contribution to recommended nutrient intakes. *J Food*
433 *Comp Anal*, 42, 120-33.
- 434 [36] de Roos B, Sneddon AA, Sprague M, *et al.* (2017) The potential impact of compositional
435 changes in farmed fish on its health-giving properties: is it time to reconsider current dietary
436 recommendations? *Public Health Nutr*, 24, 1-8.
- 437 [37] Roos N, Wahab MA, Hossain MA, *et al.* (2007) Linking human nutrition and fisheries:
438 incorporating micronutrient-dense, small indigenous fish species in carp polyculture
439 production in Bangladesh. *Food Nutr Bulletin* 28, S280-293.
- 440 [38] Grasgruber P, Sebera M, Hrazdira E, *et al.* (2016) Major correlates of male height: A study of

- 441 105 countries. *Econ Hum Biol* 21, 172-195.
- 442 [39] Fottrell E, Ahmed N, Kumer Shaha S *et al.* (2018) Distribution of diabetes, hypertension and
443 non-communicable disease risk factors among adults in rural Bangladesh: a cross-sectional
444 survey. *BMJ Glob Health* 3:e000787.
- 445 [40] World Health Organisation. 2015. Non-communicable diseases fact sheet. Secondary non-
446 communicable diseases fact sheet. Available from:
447 <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs355/en/>
- 448 [41] Zheng, J, Huang, T, Yu, Y *et al.* (2012) Fish consumption and CHD mortality: an updated
449 meta-analysis of seventeen cohort studies. *Public Health Nutr* 15, 725–737.
- 450 [42] Xun, P, Qin, B, Song, Y *et al.* (2012) Fish consumption and risk of stroke and its subtypes:
451 accumulative evidence from a meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 66,
452 1199–1207.
- 453 [43] icddr, UNICEF, GAIN, IPHN. National micronutrient status survey 2011-2012. Dhaka,
454 icddr b (2013).
- 455 [44] Black RE, Allen LH, Bhutta ZA, *et al.* (2008) Maternal and child undernutrition: global and
456 regional exposures and health consequences. *Lancet* 371, 243-60.
- 457 [45] Rahman S, Ahmed T, Rahman AS, *et al.* (2016) Determinants of iron status and Hb in the
458 Bangladesh population: the role of groundwater iron. *Public Health Nutr.* 19, 1862-74.
- 459 [46] Arsenault JE, Yakes EA, Islam MM, *et al.* (2013) Very Low Adequacy of Micronutrient
460 Intakes by Young Children and Women in Rural Bangladesh Is Primarily Explained by Low
461 Food Intake and Limited Diversity. *Journal of Nutrition* 143:197–203.
- 462 [47] WHO (2005) Nutrition in Adolescence – Issues and Challenges for the Health Sector. WHO
463 discussion papers on adolescence Nutrition in adolescence: issues and challenges for the
464 health sector: issues in adolescent health and development. ISBN 92 4 159366 0.
- 465 [48] Arsenault JE, Yakes EA, Hossain MB, *et al.* (2010) The current high prevalence of dietary
466 zinc inadequacy among children and women in rural Bangladesh could be substantially
467 ameliorated by zinc biofortification of rice. *J Nutr* 140, 1683-90.
- 468 [49] Gresham E, Bisquera A, Byles JE, *et al.* (2016) Effects of dietary interventions on pregnancy
469 outcomes: a systematic review and meta- analysis. *Maternal and Child Nutrition* 12, 5-23.
- 470 [50] National Food Policy 2006. Ministry of Food and Disaster Management. Bangladesh.
471 [[https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202006%20National%20food](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202006%20National%20food%20policy.pdf)
472 [%20policy.pdf](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202006%20National%20food%20policy.pdf)].
- 473 [51] Bangladesh Country Investment Plan. A road map towards investment in agriculture, food
474 security and nutrition. Government of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh. 2011.

- 475 <https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202011%20Bangladesh%20C>
476 [ountry%20Investment%20Plan.pdf](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202011%20Bangladesh%20C)
- 477 [52] Bangladesh Delta Plan 2100. Draft. Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh,
478 Bangladesh Planning Commission, General Economics Division. 2017.
479 [http://www.lged.gov.bd/UploadedDocument/UnitPublication/17/624/Bangladesh%20Delta%](http://www.lged.gov.bd/UploadedDocument/UnitPublication/17/624/Bangladesh%20Delta%20Plan%202100%20Draft%20Report.pdf)
480 [20Plan%202100%20Draft%20Report.pdf](http://www.lged.gov.bd/UploadedDocument/UnitPublication/17/624/Bangladesh%20Delta%20Plan%202100%20Draft%20Report.pdf).
- 481 [53] National Strategy on the Prevention and Control of Micronutrient Deficiencies Bangladesh
482 (2015-2024). Institute of Public Health Nutrition. Directorate General of Health Services,
483 Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh.
484 2015.
485 [https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202015%20National%20Strat](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202015%20National%20Strategy%20on%20prevention%20and%20control%20of%20micronutrient%20deficiency.pdf)
486 [egy%20on%20prevention%20and%20control%20of%20micronutrient%20deficiency.pdf](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202015%20National%20Strategy%20on%20prevention%20and%20control%20of%20micronutrient%20deficiency.pdf).
- 487 [54] Health, Nutrition and Population Strategic Investment Plan 2016-2021. Planning wing,
488 Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh.
489 2016.
490 [https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202016%20Health%20Nutriti](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202016%20Health%20Nutrition%20and%20Population%20Strategic%20Investment%20Plan.pdf)
491 [on%20and%20Population%20Strategic%20Investment%20Plan.pdf](https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/BGD%202016%20Health%20Nutrition%20and%20Population%20Strategic%20Investment%20Plan.pdf).
- 492 [55] WHO (2013) Essential Nutrition Actions. Improving maternal, newborn, infant and young
493 child health and nutrition.
494 https://www.who.int/nutrition/publications/infantfeeding/essential_nutrition_actions/en/
- 495 [56] Kamal SMM (2010) Pakistan Journal of Women's Studies: Alam-e-Niswan, 17, 37-57,
496 ISSN: 1024-1256.
- 497 [57] Anderson S, Eswaran M (2009) What determines female autonomy? Evidence from
498 Bangladesh. *Journal of Development Economics* 90, 179–191.
- 499 [58] Blazek J (2015) Towards a typology of repositioning strategies of GVC/GPN suppliers, the
500 case of functional upgrading and downgrading. *Journal of Economic Geography* 16(4):1-21
- 501 [59] Kelling (2012) Knowledge is Power: A Market Orientation Approach to Global Value
502 Analysis of Aquaculture: Two Cases Linking Southeast Asia and the EU. PhD Thesis.
503 University of Stirling.
- 504 [60] Gereffi G, Fernandez-Stark K (2011) Global Value Chain Analysis: A Primer. Centre on
505 Globalisation, Governance & competitiveness (CGGC), Duke University. 40pp.
506 http://www.cggc.duke.edu/pdfs/2011-05-31_GVC_analysis_a_primer.pdf
- 507 [61] Gyles CL, Lenoir-Wijnkoop I, Carlberg JG, *et al.* (2012) Health economics and nutrition: a
508 review of published evidence. *Nutrition Reviews*, 70: 693–708.

- 509 [62] Lewsey JD, Lawson DK, Ford I, *et al.* (2014) A cardiovascular disease policy model that
510 predicts life expectancy taking into account socioeconomic deprivation. *Heart* 101, 201-208.
- 511 [63] Liu OR, Molina R, Wilson M, *et al.* (2018) Global opportunities for mariculture development
512 to promote human nutrition. *PeerJ* 6, e4733.
- 513 [64] Yosef S, Jones AD, Chakraborty B, *et al.* (2015) Agricultural and Nutrition in Bangladesh:
514 Mapping evidence to Pathways. *Food and Nutrition Bulletin* 36, 387-404.

For Peer Review

515 **Figure legends**

516

517 **Figure 1.** Quantities of foods and nutrients available to consumers based on production and trade.

518 Data obtained from food balance sheets from the United Nations' Food and Agriculture

519 Organization Statistical Database (FAOSTAT) 2009-2011 ^[28]. Panels A, B, D, E, F: availability

520 of animal-based foods and nutrients; panels C, G, H, I: availability of animal-based food and

521 nutrients from fish and seafood; panels J, K, L: availability of animal-based food and nutrients

522 from freshwater fish.

523

524 **Figure 2.** Schematic interpretation of links between aquaculture production systems, food

525 availability, dietary intakes, nutritional status and individual health.

Figure 1

Public Health Nutrition

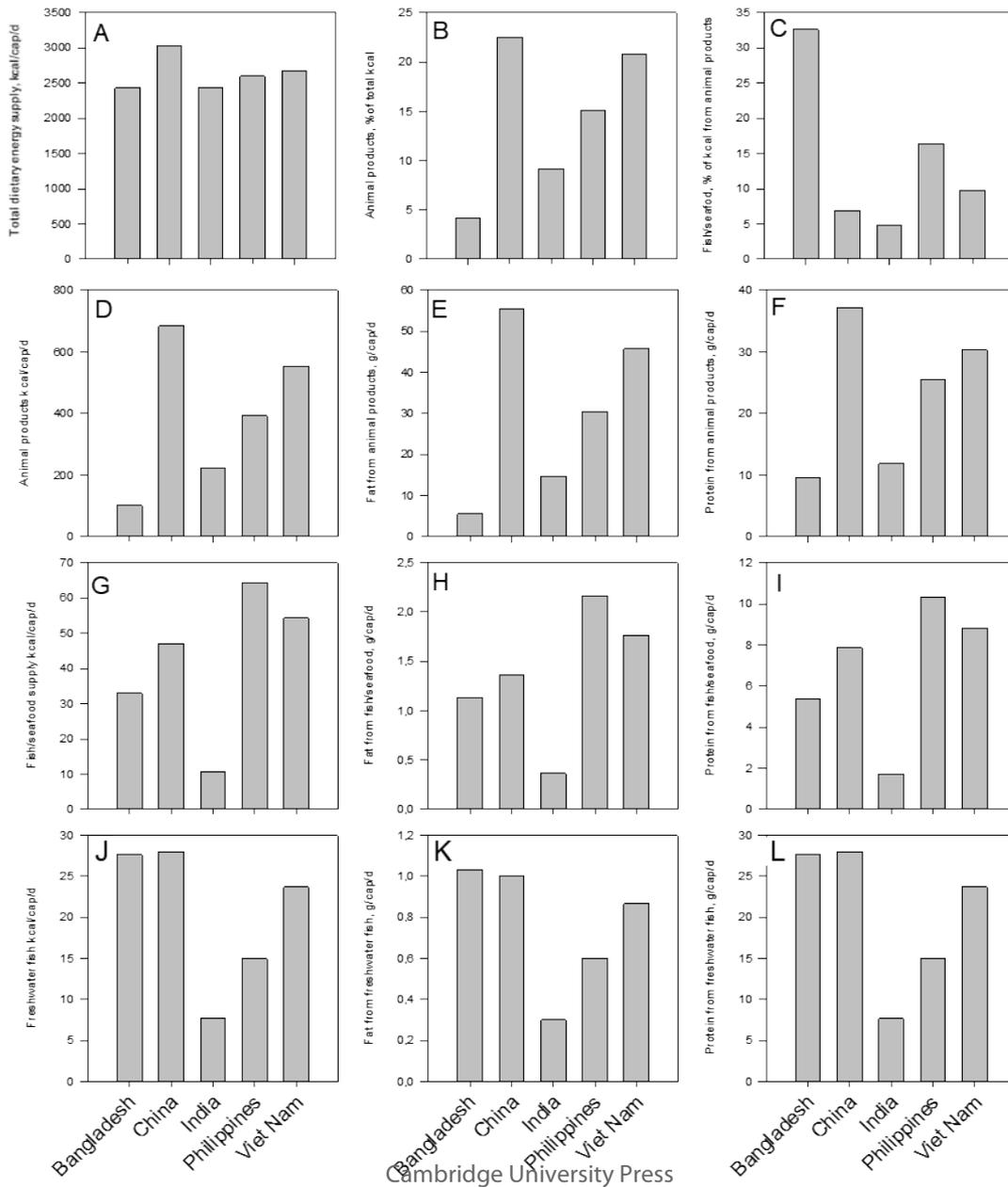


Figure 2

