Comparative analysis of the environmental costs of fish farming and crop production in arid areas

Randall E. Brummett¹

WorldFish Center, Humid Forest Ecoregional Center, Cameroon

Brummett, R.E. 2007. Comparative analysis of the environmental costs of fish farming and crop production in arid areas. In D.M. Bartley, C. Brugère, D. Soto, P. Gerber and B. Harvey (eds). Comparative assessment of the environmental costs of aquaculture and other food production sectors: methods for meaningful comparisons. FAO/WFT Expert Workshop. 24-28 April 2006, Vancouver, Canada. FAO Fisheries Proceedings. No. 10. Rome, FAO. 2007. pp. 221–228

ABSTRACT

Using published data, 20 crop and 19 fish production systems were compared for efficiency of water and nutrient (nitrogen) use. In agriculture, rain-fed cassava was most efficient, followed by rain-fed beans, pivot-irrigated maize and rain-fed wheat. Intensive vegetable production uses water most efficiently to produce edible dry matter. Maize, wheat and crop legumes are most efficient at producing protein. Cassava produces energy most efficiently. For aquaculture, sharp-tooth catfish in fed raceway-ponds are most efficient, followed by tilapia in fed cages and tilapia in sewage-fed ponds. Herbivorous and omnivorous fish are more efficient to produce than carnivores. Aquaculture is of comparable efficiency to crop production only in terms of edible dry matter output per cubic meter of water and crude protein production per kilogram of nitrogen. Aquaculture in arid areas is of comparable efficiency with agriculture only when it is highly intensive and/or strongly integrated with other farm enterprises.

INTRODUCTION

The global natural resource base is increasingly under pressure from the food needs and demands for economic growth of expanding human populations. In addition, increasing competition in local, regional and international markets is forcing commercial farmers to reduce production costs while increasing outputs. Together, these factors are driving a global interest in more efficient food production systems.

The importance of improving management of natural resources requires that we find a proportionately robust and straightforward means of measuring the efficiency of farming systems. For most farming businesses, efficiency is measured in economic terms; that is, the amount of money spent on a farming activity (including costs of inputs, labour, management, opportunities on land and capital, etc.) is compared to the amount earned through the sale of produce. In biophysical terms, however, efficiency

¹ r.brummett@cgiar.org

is measured by the amount of water, carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus and energy that a farming system uses to grow food and process waste materials, compared to the weight of food produced. These two sets of criteria may yield very different estimates of efficiency.

When markets are efficient estimators of real prices for inputs, outputs and environmental goods and services, economic efficiency can approximate biophysical efficiency. However, this is seldom the case. Most farming systems especially neglect the costs of many environmental goods and services in their calculation of the bottom line (Berg *et al.*, 1996; Kautsky *et al.*, 1997). These costs may include:

- oxygen requirements for decomposition of organic wastes;
- assimilation of fertilizer runoff, especially phosphorus and nitrogen;
- ecological impacts of pesticides and herbicides;
- human health consequences of antibiotic use in animal feeds;
- production of CO₂:
- land and natural resources required for feed production;
- biodiversity trade-offs in land and water allocation; and
- negative environmental impacts of introduced alien or genetically modified organisms.

Measuring "efficiency" as a proxy for sustainability may consequently be easier if one looks at the biophysical materials that flow in and out of farming and other natural resource management systems. However, this "materials flow" approach may easily be confounded by the large number of environmental and production system variables that characterize modern farming, including:

- soil (composition, structure, slope);
- solar radiation (intensity, periodicity);
- temperature (extremes, duration);
- wind (direction, intensity, frequency);
- evaporation rate;
- rainfall (timing, intensity, amount);
- water quantity and quality;
- fallowing, crop rotation, intercropping;
- variety or genetic strain; and
- production cycles per year.

The time of cropping, for example, depends upon a number of variables, some of which are more important in certain crops than others (e.g., photoperiod, ambient temperature, timing of rainfall, media type in greenhouses). In addition, a number of crops are rotated or intercropped, making generalizations risky. An example from fish farming is polyculture, in which a mixture of species is grown together at rates determined empirically to conform to the size of the various feeding niches available in the pond. There is no obvious way to correct for so many variables over all crops at all latitudes in which the arid zones are located, so a few critical indicators are needed.

Given the availability of published data, I attempted to find common factors that could be used to compare the wide range of farming systems that need to be looked at. Six key parameters were identified:

- edible or usable dry matter produced per unit of water used
- edible or usable dry matter produced per unit of unit of nitrogen used;
- crude protein produced per unit of water used;
- crude protein produced per unit of nitrogen used;
- digestible energy produced per unit of water used; and
- digestible energy produced per unit of nitrogen used.

The balance of this paper will focus on these six parameters and attempt to relate them to the relative efficiency of various food production systems. The overall aim is to provide a practical means of comparing the efficiency and environmental costs of aquaculture and crop production, with a focus on species cultivated in arid areas.

In terms of nutrient inputs, fish are generally the most efficient animals to produce (Olah and Sinha, 1986). As poikilotherms, fish do not use energy to heat their bodies. Since they excrete ammonia, fish use minimal energy in protein catabolism and excretion (Goldstein and Forster, 1970). Also, because they are generally neutrally buoyant, fish do not need heavy bones (Tucker, 1969). Channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*), for example, gain 0.85 g of weight for every gram of feed consumed, compared to 0.48 g in chickens, the present most efficiently farmed warm-blooded animal, and 0.13 in beef cattle (NRC, 1983, Lovell, 1989). In terms of consumptive water use, fish use no more, and in many cases less, than do other animals (Brummett 1997).

For plant crops, with which fish production competes both for nutrient inputs and for fresh water, the situation is less clear. This review is aimed at illuminating the differences in biophysical efficiency of fish farming as compared to crop production in dryer parts of the world, where water and other critical inputs are often in short supply. The main comparators used for inputs are water and nitrogen; for outputs, dry matter of human food, crude protein and energy are used.

EFFICIENCY AND ENVIRONMENTAL COSTS OF CROP PRODUCTION

Agriculture is highly variable in its scale and intensity, making generalizations difficult. Very small-scale, artisanal systems often use no fertilizers or irrigation, resulting in minimal production and generally low efficiency. Larger-scale systems rely on more inputs, but produce disproportionately more outputs per unit of input, thus making them more efficient. Also, larger-scale cropping systems are more uniform throughout the world, facilitating generalization. These more efficient, larger-scale systems are thus used for purposes of comparing crop agriculture with aquaculture.

Table 1 shows the amounts of water and nitrogen necessary to achieve average yields from a representative variety of dry zone crops produced under a range of irrigation and input regimes. Table 2 shows the estimated efficiency of production in terms of water and nitrogen use per kg of edible dry matter, kg of crude protein and kcal of digestible energy available to humans. In terms of edible dry matter output per unit of water, drip-irrigated cucumber is the most efficient, followed by drip-irrigated tomato and furrow-irrigated onion. Per unit of nitrogen, rain-fed cassava, rain-fed wheat and pivot-irrigated sorghum are the most efficient. In terms of crude protein production per unit of water consumed, pivot-irrigated maize ranks highest, followed by rain-fed beans and rain-fed soya bean, while in terms of nitrogen, rain-fed beans are better than pivot-irrigated maize which in turn is better than rain-fed wheat. In terms of digestible energy per unit of water, rain-fed cassava, pivot-irrigated maize and rain-fed beans seem most efficient; in terms of nitrogen, rain-fed cassava, rain-fed wheat and rain-fed beans are the best.

The crops most frequently in the top three for each category are rain-fed beans (four times), rain-fed cassava (three times) and pivot irrigated maize (three times). With a simple proportional weighting index (three points for first place, two for second and one for third), rain-fed cassava might be considered the most efficient overall with nine points, rain-fed beans and pivot-irrigated maize tie for second with seven points and rain-fed wheat comes third with five points.

In general, intensive vegetable production, especially in greenhouses with drip irrigation, are the most efficient way to use water to produce edible dry matter. Maize, wheat and crop legumes (beans and soya bean) are most efficient at producing protein. Cassava is by far the most efficient crop in terms of energy production.

EFFICIENCY AND ENVIRONMENTAL COSTS OF AQUACULTURE

Fish production systems are different from agriculture systems in that the water necessary to fuel the system is not completely consumed. Consumption is highest

TABLE 1
Water and nitrogen inputs compared to outputs of dry matter, crude protein and energy, under various production systems for representative row crops produced in dry areas. Values are based on reported use in larger-scale commercial farming systems (generally >50 ha) except for pearl millet, which is almost exclusively a smallholder crop. Data from: NRC (1983); ARNAB (1989); Göhl (1992); Adeola, King and Lawrence (1996); Martin, Slack and Pegelow (1999); Cavero et al. (2001); Raemaekers (2001); Broner and Schneekloth (2003); Fasuyi and Aletor (2005)

		Inputs			Outputs			
Production System		Water (m³/m²)	Nitrogen (g/m²)	Edible yield (kg/m²)	Edible dry matter (percent)	Crude protein (percent)	Digestible energy (Kcal/kg)	
Pearl millet (Pennisetum glaucum)	Rainfed	0.5	1.6	0.05	92	11.0	3 400	
Maize – (Zea mays)* –	Rainfed	0.66	15.0	0.12	89	9.6	3 800	
	Furrow irrigated	1.2	15.0	0.36	89	9.6	3 800	
	Pivot irrigated	0.83	15.0	0.6	89	27	3 800	
Rice (Oryza sativa)	Flooded	1.5	20.0-60.0	0.9	89	7.9	2 600	
	Upland	1.0	5.0-10.0	0.2	89	7.9	2 600	
Sorghum – (Sorghum bicolour) –	Rainfed	0.8	2.4	0.2	90	13	3 300	
	Furrow irrigated	1.3	13.4	0.6	90	13	3 300	
	Pivot irrigated	1.2	11.9	0.7	90	13	3 300	
Wheat (<i>Triticum</i> spp.)	Rainfed	0.5	0.9	0.07	88	13	3 400	
	Furrow irrigated	0.9	18.0	0.6	88	13	3 400	
Cassava (Manihot esculenta)	Rainfed	1.25	4.4	2.2	39	1.2	11 000	
Beans (Phaseolus vulgaris)	Rainfed	0.7	7.0	0.4	90	22.6	3 470	
Soya bean (Glycine max)	Rainfed	0.85	20.0	0.25	90	40	1 390	
Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Greenhouse (drip irrigation)	0.2	13.1	7.9	3.8	0.6	120	
Tomato (Lycopersicon esculentum)	Greenhouse (drip irrigation)	1.6	104.0	34.6	6.2	1.2	200	
	Furrow irrigated	3.6	9.0	3.0	6.2	1.2	200	
Onion (<i>Allium cepa</i>)	Furrow irrigated	0.5	10.2	2.4	19.7	1.6	380	
Citrus (Citrus spp.)	Furrow irrigated	1.8	4.2	3.0	~35percent juice	<1percent	35 000	
Groundnut (Arachis hypogaea)	Rainfed	0.6	<2.0	0.084	91	22	2 600	

^{*} Refers to grain maize, which is more commonly produced in less developed countries than sweet corn.

in earthen ponds where seepage and evaporation can sometimes be considerable, especially in hot, dry, windy areas. Flow-through raceways must pass large quantities of water through the production unit, but the quality of water released from these systems is good and readily available for other uses, especially crop irrigation. Cages and recirculating systems consume virtually no water. Fish average about 76 percent water and this value was used as the consumptive use for those systems where water was not consumed by the production system (Lovell, 1989). For systems receiving pelleted feeds, the water requirements of the crops grown to produce those feeds is added to the amount used during the culture cycle (Piemental *et al.*, 1997).

While the proximate analysis of fish is dependant upon the feed or fertilizer used in the system, the composition of fish flesh in terms of protein and energy varies within a relatively narrow range compared to plant crops. For purposes of this paper, an average crude protein value of 18.7 percent and energy value of 300 kcal/kg, calculated on the basis of proximate analyses of 77 fish species, were used (Herzberg and Pasteur, 1981; Hepher, 1988; Tidwell *et al.*, 2000; Garduño-Lugo *et al.*, 2003).

Table 3 shows output of dry matter in terms of water and nitrogen inputs for a variety of fish species and production systems. Table 4 shows the efficiencies of various fish production systems. In terms of edible dry matter per m³ of water, fed carp polyculture

TABLE 2
Efficiency of various crop production systems as measured by edible output, crude protein production, and digestible energy

Culture species	Production	Edible output (kg dry matter)		Crude pro (kg)	otein	Digestible energy (kcal)	
•	system	per m³ water	per kg N	per I water	per kg N	per m³ water	per kg N
Pearl millet (Pennisetum glaucum)	Rainfed	0.09	28.75	10.12	3.16	313	97 750
	Rainfed	0.16	7.12	15.53	0.68	615	27056
Maize (Zea mays)*	Pivot Irrigated	0.65	35.60	174.76	9.61	2460	13 5280
(Zea mays)	Furrow Irrigated	0.27	21.36	25.63	2.05	(kca per m³ water 313 615 2460 1015 1388 463 743 1733 1371 419 1995 7550 1785 368 180 268 10 359 204	81 168
Rice	Flooded	0.53	20.03	42.19	1.58	1388	52 065
(Oryza sativa)	Upland	0.18	23.73	14.06	1.87	463	61 707
	Rainfed	0.23	36.00	24.75	3.96	743	118 800
Sorghum bicolour) -	Pivot Irrigated	0.53	52.94	68.25	6.88	1733	174 706
(30) grium bicolour)	Furrow Irrigated	0.42	40.30	45.64	4.43	1371	132 985
Wheat	Rainfed	0.12	68.44	16.02	8.90	419	232 711
(Triticum spp.)	Furrow Irrigated	0.59	29.33	76.27	3.81	1995	99 733
Cassava (Manihot esculenta)	Rainfed	0.69	195.00	8.24	2.34	7550	2 145 000
Beans (Phaseolus vulgaris)	Rainfed	0.51	51.43	116.23	11.62	1785	178 457
Soya bean (<i>Glycine max</i>)	Rainfed	0.26	11.25	105.88	4.50	368	15 638
Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Greenhouse (Drip Irrigated)	1.50	22.92	9.01	0.14	180	2 750
Tomato (Lycopersicon	Greenhouse (Drip Irrigated)	1.34	20.63	16.09	0.25	268	4 125
esculentum)	Furrow Irrigated	0.05	20.67	0.62	0.25	10	4 133
Onion (<i>Allium cepa</i>)	Furrow Irrigated	0.95	46.35	15.13	0.74	359	17 614
Citrus (Citrus spp.)	Furrow Irrigated	0.01	2.50	0.00	0.00	204	87 500
Groundnut (<i>Arachis hypogaea</i>)	Rainfed	0.13	38.22	28.03	8.41	331	99 372

TABLE 3
Water and nitrogen inputs and average outputs of dry matter under a variety of production systems for representative fish species produced in dry areas. Values are based on reported use in larger-scale commercial farming systems (generally >100 tonnes per annum) except for fertilized pond tilapia, which is almost exclusively a smallholder crop. Data from: Little and Muir (1987); Hepher (1988); Lovell (1989); Phillips, Beveridge and Clarke (1991); Brummett and Noble (1995); Jarboe and Grant 1996; Mahboob, Sheri and Raza (1996); Brummett (1997); Hecht (1997); Hertrampf and Piedad-Pascual (2000); Boyd (2005)

Culture species	Production system	Consumptive water use (m³/tonne)	Nitrogen (g/m³)	Average yield (kg/m³)
	Fertilized ponds	2 000	7	0.14
	Sewage-fed ponds	1 750	20	0.68
Tilapia	Fed ponds	2 800	12	0.25
(Oreochromis spp.)	Fed aerated ponds	21 000	84	1.7
	Fed cages	760	3 400	50
	Fed biofilters	906	2 000	25
Common Carp	Fed ponds	4 032	360	0.6
(Cyprinus carpio)	Fed raceways	740 000	11.5	0.14
Sharptooth Catfish (Clarias gariepinus)	Fed raceway Ponds	93 000	6	4.0
	Fed raceways	3 600	18 400	400
	Fed ponds	2 882	37	0.42
Channel Catfish	Fed aerated ponds	4 032	53	0.6
(Ictalurus punctatus)	Fed ponds with water reuse	3 350	37	0.42
	Fed biofilters	908	2 800	26
Rainbow Trout	Fed raceways	252 000	6 700	35
(Oncorhynchus mykkis)	Fed raceways with water reuse	63 000	6 700	35
Carp Polyculture	Fertilized pond	12 000	56	0.3
(Hypothalmichthys molitrix, Aristichthys nobilis, Ctenopharyngodon idella)	Fed pond	5 000	168	0.9
	Fed, aerated pond	2 250	200	2.0

Culture species	Production system	Edible output (kg dry matter)		Crude protein (kg)		Digestible energy* (kcal)	
Culture species	Production system	per m³ water	per kg N	per l water	per kg N		per kg N
	Fertilized ponds	0.1200	0.0048	0.0224	0.90	360.0	14 400
	Sewage-fed ponds	0.1371	0.0082	0.0256	1.53	411.4	24 480
Tilapia	Fed ponds	0.0857	0.0050	0.0160	0.94	257.1	15 000
(Oreochromis spp.)	Fed aerated ponds	0.0114	0.0049	0.0021	0.91	34.3	14 570
	Fed cages	0.3158	0.0030 0.0495 0.56 794.7 9 000 0.0004 0.0111 0.07 178.6 1 200 0.0029 0.0001 0.55 1.0 8 770	10 590			
	Fed biofilters	0.2649	0.0030	0.0495	0.56	(kcal) g N	9 000
Common Carp	Fed ponds	0.0595	0.0004	0.0111	0.07	178.6	1 200
(Cyprinus carpio)	Fed eaceways	0.0003	0.0029	0.0001	0.55	1.0	8 770
Sharptooth Catfish	Fed raceway ponds	0.0026	0.1600	0.0005	29.92	7.7	480 000
(Clarias gariepinus)	Fed raceways	0.0667	0.0052	0.0125	0.98	200.0	15 650
	Fed ponds	0.0833	0.0027	0.0156	0.51	200.0 249.8	8 170
Channel Catfish	Fed aerated ponds	0.0595	0.0027	0.0111	0.51	178.6	8 150
(Ictalurus punctatus)	Fed ponds; water reuse	0.0716	0.0027	0.0134	0.51	214.9	8 170
	Fed biofilters	0.2643	0.0022	0.0494	0.42	Per m³ water 0 360.0 3 411.4 4 257.1 1 34.3 5 947.4 6 794.7 7 178.6 5 1.0 2 7.7 8 200.0 1 249.8 1 178.6 1 214.9 2 793.0 3 2.9 3 11.4 4 60.0 4 144.0	6 690
Rainbow Trout	Fed raceways	0.0010	0.0013	0.0002	0.23	2.9	3 760
(Oncorhynchus mykkis)	Fed raceways; water reuse	0.0038	0.0013	0.0007	0.23	11.4	3 760
Carp Polyculture	Fertilized pond	0.0200	0.0013	0.0037	0.24	60.0	3 860
(Hypothalmichthys molitrix, Aristichthys nobilis, Ctenopharyngodon idella)	Fed pond	0.480	0.0013	0.0090	0.24	144.0	3 860
	Fed, aerated pond	0.1067	0.0024	0.0199	0.45	320.0	7 200

TABLE 4
Efficiency of various fish production systems as measured by edible output, crude protein production, and digestible energy

in ponds ranks highest, followed by tilapia in cages and biofilter systems. In terms of nitrogen used, sharptooth catfish in fed raceway ponds did the best, followed by tilapia in sewage-fed ponds and sharptooth catfish in fed raceways. In terms of crude protein production per m³ of water, tilapia in fed cages were the best, followed by tilapia in fed biofilter systems and channel catfish in fed biofilter systems, while in terms of nitrogen inputs, fed sharptooth catfish in raceway ponds were the most efficient, followed by sewage-fed tilapia ponds and sharptooth catfish in fed raceways. For digestible energy produced per m³ of water, tilapia in fed cages and biofilter systems were the most efficient, followed by channel catfish in fed biofilter systems; in terms of nitrogen inputs, sharptooth catfish in fed raceway ponds was number one, followed by sewage-fed tilapia ponds and fed sharptooth catfish raceways.

Using the evaluation system described above for crop systems, tilapia in sewage-fed ponds, cages and fed biofilter systems and sharptooth catfish in fed raceway ponds and fed raceways were each most efficient in three of the six categories. Overall, sharptooth catfish produced in fed raceway-ponds are most efficient with nine points. Tilapia in fed cages were second best with eight points, while tilapia in sewage-fed ponds came third with six points.

Except for the generally low-intensity production of carp polycultures, herbivorous (tilapia) and omnivorous (sharptooth catfish) species were more efficient to produce than were carnivores (channel catfish, rainbow trout).

COMPARING EFFICIENCY OF CROP PRODUCTION AND AQUACULTURE

Aquaculture is of comparable efficiency to crop production only in terms of edible dry matter output per cubic meter of water and crude protein production per kg of nitrogen. Only sharptooth catfish in fed raceway ponds exceeded crop production in any of the efficiency criteria. From these data, aquaculture in arid areas will be more efficient than agriculture only when it is highly intensive and/or strongly integrated with other farm enterprises so that the costs of nutrients and water can be amortized over multiple production units.

^{*} These figures have been amended by the author after first printing and an errata is being provided for the printed version

Using the logic of Yong-Sulem and Brummett (2006), edible yield per unit area can be considered a fair estimator of farming system intensity. Regression of yield per unit area (leaving out the very high values of 34.6 kg/m^2 for greenhouse tomatoes and 400 kg/m³ for raceway sharptooth catfish) against the six pooled efficiency criteria showed a strong positive correlation between intensity and efficiency. The relationship for crops (B = 0.669, adjusted r^2 = 0.42, p < 0.002) was stronger than for fish (B = 0.493, adjusted r^2 = 0.20, p < 0.038). Although difficult to quantify, aquaculture efficiency was also closely related to the level of integration with other enterprises, reflecting the ability of fish production systems to take advantage of nutrients recycled from agriculture (or from humans, in the case of sewage-fed tilapia ponds) and for water from fish facilities to be recycled to other uses.

The high degree of variability within and among farming systems renders a precise estimate of efficiency extremely difficult to achieve and probably of limited use, in light of the over-riding importance of economic profitability and diversity in the selection of species and farming systems. Nevertheless, observed trends towards water recirculation and intensified production systems in the aquaculture industry closely parallel their relative efficiency in terms of water and nitrogen transformation.

REFERENCES

- Adeola, O., King, D. & Lawrence, B.V. 1996. Evaluation of pearl millet for swine and ducks. In J. Janick (ed.) *Progress in New Crops*, ASHS Press, Alexandria, Virginia. pp. 177-182.
- ARNAB (African Research Network for Agricultural By-products). 1989. Overcoming constraints to the efficient utilization of agricultural by products as animal feed. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Workshop held at the Institute of Animal Research, Mankon Station, Bamenda, Cameroun, 20-27 October 1987. ARNAB, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Berg, H., Michélsen, P., Troell, M., Folke, C. & Kautsky, N. 1996. Managing aquaculture for sustainability in tropical Lake Kariba, Zimbabwe. *Ecological Economics* 18:141-159.
- Bosworth, B.G. & Wolters, W.R. 2001. Evaluation of bioelectric impedance to predict carcass yield, carcass composition and fillet composition in farm-raised catfish. *Journal of the World Aquaculture Society* 32(1):72-78.
- Boyd, C. 2005. Water use in aquaculture. World Aquaculture 36:12-15+70.
- Broner, I. & Schneekloth, J. 2000. Seasonal water needs and opportunities for limited irrigation for Colorado crops. Colorado State University Publication: http://www.ext.colostate.edu/pubs/crops/04718.html.
- Brummett, R.E. 1997. Farming fish to save water. *Bioscience* 47: 402.
- Brummett, R.E. & Noble, R.P. 1995. Aquaculture for African smallholders. ICLARM Tech. Rep. 46. WorldFish Center, Penang, Malaysia.
- Cavero, J., Playán, E., Zapata N. & Faci. J.M. 2001. Simulation of maize grain yield variability with a surface irrigated field. *Agronomy Journal* 93: 773-782.
- Fasuyi, A.O. & Aletor, V.A. 2005. Varietal composition and functional properties of cassava (*Manihot esculenta*, Cranzt) leaf meal and leaf protein concentrates. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition* 4:43-49.
- Garduño-Lugo, M., Granados-Alvarez, I., Olvera-Novoa, M.A. & Muñoz-Córdova, G. 2003. Comparison of growth, fillet yield and proximate composition between Stirling Nile tilapia (wild type) (*Oreochromis niloticus*, L.) and red hybrid tilapia (Florida red tilapia x Stirling red O. niloticus) males. *Aquaculture Research*, 34: 1023-1028.
- Göhl, B. 1992. Tropical Feeds 3.0. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.
- Goldstein, L. & Forster, R.P. 1970. Nitrogen metabolism in fishes. In: J.W. Campbell (ed.) Comparative Biochemistry of Nitrogen Metabolism Vol. 2: the vertebrates. Academic Press, New York. pp. 495-518.

- Hecht, T. 1997. A review of the development of clariid catfish culture in southern Africa. Report of the Technical Consultation on Species for Small Reservoir Fisheries and Aquaculture in Southern Africa, ALCOM Report 19, Food & Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Harare, Zimbabwe.
- **Hepher, B.** 1988. *Nutrition of pond fishes.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom.
- Hertrampf, J.W. & Piedad-Pascual, F. 2000. *Handbook on ingredients for aquaculture feeds*. Kluwer Academic, Doirdrecht, The Netherlands.
- Herzberg, A. & Pasteur R. 1981. Proximae composition and preliminary data on freshness determination of silver carp (*Hypothalmichthys molitrix*). *Bamidgeh* 33: 87-99.
- Jarboe, H.H. & Grant, W.J. 1996. Effects of feeding time and frequency on growth of channel catfish *Ictalurus punctatus* in closed recirculating raceway systems. *Journal of the* World Aquaculture Society, 27: 235-239.
- Kautsky, N., Berg, H., Folke, C., Larsson, J. & Troell, M. 1997. Ecological footprint assessment of resource use and development in shrimp and tilapia aquaculture. *Aquaculture Research*, 28: 753-766.
- Little, D. & Muir, J. 1987. A guide to integrated warm water aquaculture. Institute of Aquaculture, University of Stirling, Scotland, United Kingdom.
- Lovell, T. 1989. Nutrition and feeding of fish. AVI, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.
- Mahboob, A., Sheri, A.N. & Raza, S.H. 1996. Proximate composition of major, common and some Chinese carps as influenced by pond fertilization and feed supplementation in composite culture systems. *Journal of Aquaculture in the Tropics*, 11:277-284.
- Martin, E.C., Slack, D.C. & Pegelow, E.J. 1999. Water use in vegetables: dry bulb onions. University of Arizona Publications: http://ag.arizona.edu/pubs/water/az1131/.
- NRC. 1983. Nutrient requirements of warmwater fishes and shellfishes (Revised Edition), National Research Council, National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- Olah, J. & Sinha, V.R. P. 1986. Energy costs in carp farming systems. NACA/WP/86/35 Network of Aquaculture Centres in Asia, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Phillips, M.J., Beveridge, M.C.M. & Clarke, R.M. 1991. Impact of aquaculture on water resources. In D.R. Brune, & J.R.Tomasso (eds) Aquaculture and Water Quality. Advances in World Aquaculture 3. World Aquaculture Society, Baton Rouge, LA, United States of America.
- Piemental, D., Houser, J., Preiss, E., White, O., Fang, H., Mesnick, L., Barsky, T., Tariche, S., Schreck, J. & Alpert, S. 1997. Water resources: agriculture, the environment and society. *Bioscience*, 47: 97-106.
- Raemaekers, R.H. (ed.) 2001. Crop production in tropical Africa. DGIC, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, External Trade & International Cooperation, Brussels, Belgium.
- Tidwell, J.H., Coyle, S.D., Van Arnum, A., Weibel C. & Harkins. S. 2000. Growth, survival and body composition of cage-cultured Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) fed pelleted and unpelleted distillers grains with solubles in polyculture with freshwater prawn *Macrobrachium rosenbergii*. *Journal of the World Aquaculture Society*, 31: 627-631.
- Tucker, V.A. 1969. The energetics of bird flight. Scientific American, 200: 70-80.
- Yong-Sulem, S. & Brummett, R.E. 2006. Intensity and profitability of *Clarias gariepinus* nursing systems in peri-urban Yaoundé, Cameroon. *Aquaculture Research*, 37: 601-605.