



SEAWEED: THE BLUE CROP FOR FOOD SECURITY AS MITIGATION MEASURE TO CLIMATE CHANGE

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Abstract

With the ever-increasing demand for global food production, it has become a challenge for human food security in the changing *era* of climate change. The present study was undertaken to understand the biochemical composition of three selected seaweeds viz., *Caulerpa racemosa* (Chlorophyta), *Gracilaria corticata* (Rhodophyta) and *Padina tetraströmatica* (Phaeophyta) along with the physico-chemical parameters of seawater from September, 2015 to August, 2016 in Visakhapatnam coast of Andhra Pradesh. Highest protein, lipid and carbohydrate was recorded in *P. tetraströmatica* ($25.81 \pm 0.87\%$), *G. corticata* ($10.50 \pm 0.45\%$) and *G. corticata* ($65.32 \pm 2.78\%$) respectively. A significant difference between seasons and stations were observed as revealed through ANOVA analysis. Interrelationship between the physico-chemical and biochemical parameters reveals that seawater chemistry has played a significant role in the growth and sustenance of the species. The present research programme points to the importance of consuming seaweeds as an important food supplement of the coastal population.

Key words: *Caulerpa racemose*, *Gracilaria corticata*, *Padina tetraströmatica*, Physico-chemical parameters, Proximate composition.

Introduction

Seaweed aquaculture has been sustainably made viable on a commercial basis to improve the livelihood of the coastal populations in several countries like Philippines, Indonesia, Tanzania including India (Valderrama, 2012) India has a long coastline of 7500 km (Rao and Sharma, 1995) and hence has immense potentiality for seaweed culture. In India about 58,715 tones wet weight of seaweed resources are available and about 7500 tones wet weight is found in Andhra Pradesh (Reddy *et al.*, 2014). Seafood has been thought to be the future prospects in the changing climate scenario. In order to meet the food deficiency of coastal population, resilient strategies are being developed to improve the livelihood of the coastal population and hence seaweed farming has taken a lead role in this perspective.

According to IPCC, (2007) larger scale effect on food security will be a need and hence adaption strategies are to be developed in order to meet the challenges of impact of climate on agriculture and other sectors. This blue crop has immense potentiality for its culture and can

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produce 50 to 70% food by 2050. Seaweed is known to be harvested for the preparation of agar, carrageenan and alginate and also a source of bio-ethanol production. Algae also provide the bulk of the earth's oxygen supply through photosynthesis. Seaweeds make a substantial contribution to marine primary production and provide habitat for near-shore benthic communities (Mann, 1973). Apart from acting as a good sink of CO₂ for biomass enhancement, they can also be utilized as a food supplement in the changing *era* of climate change. Even where food production is a crisis in coastal areas, seaweed farming can substantially benefit in meeting the protein deficiencies of pregnant mothers and as well as for the malnutrition population. According to IPCC, (2014) human system adaptation to a natural system can facilitate the effect of changing the climate.

Seaweeds are one of the most important marine renewable and valuable living resources and could be termed "futuristically promising plants of the oceans", with an immense economical and commercial value (Chapman and Chapman, 1980). The exploitation of marine algae for nutritional purposes is primarily based on the biochemical constituents (Parekh and Chauhan, 1982).

The seaweeds show great variation in the nutrient contents from species to species, level of maturity, their geographical distribution and environmental conditions like seawater temperature, salinity, light and nutrients (Dawes, 1998). Generally, green and red seaweeds contain higher protein contents (10-30% of dry weight) than brown seaweeds (5-15% of dry weight). The lipid content of seaweeds accounts for 1-6% of dry weight and provides a low amount of energy (Ruperez, 2002). However, very few studies have been done on biochemical components such as protein, carbohydrate, lipid, etc from seaweeds occurring along the coastal waters of Visakhapatnam (Sarojini and Subbarangaiah, 1999) and there is no published data on biochemical composition of seaweeds after 2004 Tsunami along the coastal waters of Visakhapatnam.

On this background, the present paper aims to monitor the proximate composition of seaweeds (green,

red and brown) from Visakhapatnam coast of Andhra Pradesh, India as a potential measure to meet the food deficiency of the coastal population of India in the changing climatic scenario, which is approximately 1.28 billion (www.indiaonlineages.com).

Material and Methods

Study site

The study of three marine seaweeds (otherwise termed as macro-algae) namely *Caulerpa recemosa* (Chlorophyta), *Gracilaria corticata* (Rhodophyta) and *Padina tetrastratica* (Phaeophyta) were carried out in two selected stations *viz.*, station-1 Vuda Park (17°43'26.759"N, 83°20'22"E) and station-2 Tenneti Park (17°44'50.207"N, 83°20'59.2434"E) in the Visakhapatnam coast of Andhra Pradesh on the east coast of India (Fig. 1). This coast is rich for marine intertidal biota (Lakshmi

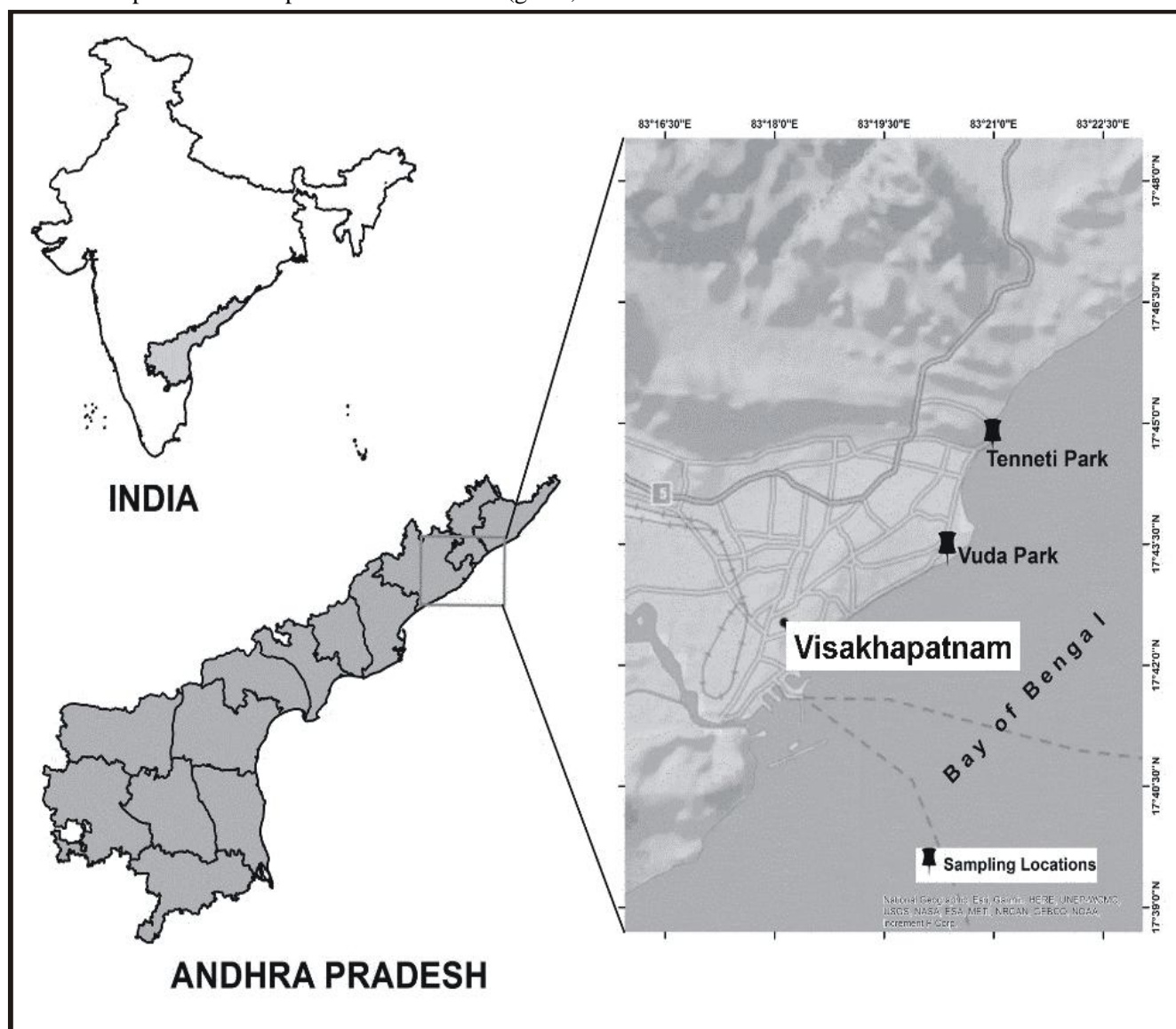


Fig. 1: Sampling station at Visakhapatnam coast of Andhra Pradesh, India.

Table 1: Seasonal variation in physico-chemical parameter of seawater at the selected stations.

Parameters	Stations	Pre-monsoon	Monsoon	Post-monsoon	Mean	Prescribed standards for coastal waters
Temperature (°C)	Vuda Park (Station 1)	28.60±0.16	28.32±0.12	27.71±0.22	28.21±0.17	26-30°C*
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	27.85±0.14	27.10±0.12	26.83±0.12	27.26±0.13	
pH value	Vuda Park (Station 1)	7.91±0.12	7.71±0.13	7.80±0.11	7.81±0.12	6.5-8.5*
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	8.12±0.12	7.93±0.12	8.10±0.11	8.05±0.12	
Salinity (psu)	Vuda Park (Station 1)	28.08±0.12	26.12±0.13	27.56±0.12	27.25±0.12	ND
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	26.22±0.11	25.13±0.12	25.62±0.12	25.66±0.12	
Nitrate (mg l ⁻¹)	Vuda Park (Station 1)	0.054±0.01	0.078±0.01	0.069±0.01	0.067±0.02	0.01-0.06 mg l ⁻¹ **
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	0.038±0.01	0.047±0.01	0.033±0.002	0.039±0.01	
Phosphate (mg l ⁻¹)	Vuda Park (Station 1)	0.018±0.001	0.019±0.001	0.016±0.002	0.018±0.001	0.001-0.01 mg l ⁻¹ **
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	0.010±0.001	0.014±0.001	0.008±0.001	0.011±0.001	
Silicate (mg l ⁻¹)	Vuda Park (Station 1)	0.084±0.01	0.117±0.01	0.110±0.02	0.104±0.01	2.8 mg l ⁻¹ (avg)**
	Tenneti Park (Station 2)	0.078±0.01	0.114±0.01	0.098±0.03	0.097±0.01	
*Water quality standards for coastal waters marine outfalls (1986); **South African water quality guidelines for coastal marine waters (1996); ND: not detected						

and Rao, 2009). The stations provide a very good habitat for seaweed growth, because of the presence of large rocks in the sandy shore.

Sample collection and analysis

Seaweed samples were collected from September, 2015 to August, 2016 from the study sites by placing 5 random quadrants of 0.25 m². The seaweeds were scrapped off the rock including as much of the holdfast as possible (Gillespi and Critchley, 1997). The species were identified as per the standard taxonomic keys (Rao and Sreeramulu, 1964). The collected samples were analysed for biochemical parameters (protein, carbohydrate and lipid) as per standard literature (Lowry, 1951; Sadasivan and Manickam, 2007; AOAC, 2005). Simultaneous analysis of seawater was also done during low tide for surface water temperature, pH, salinity, nitrate, phosphate and silicate respectively as per standard methodologies outlines by Strickland and Parsons, (1972) and APHA, (2005). All analyses were done seasonally (pre-monsoon, monsoon and post-monsoon) to understand the variation in selected physico-chemical and biochemical parameters.

Statistical analysis

All values for physico-chemical and biochemical parameters were expressed in terms of mean±standard deviation. Pearson's correlation coefficient and ANOVA were carried out using SPSS 13.1 to find the interrelationship between the parameters and their differences with respect to the selected stations.

Results and Discussion

Variation in physico-chemical parameters of seawater

The seawater sampled from the study area showed a temperature variation from 26.83 ± 0.12°C in station 2 during post-monsoon to 28.60 ± 0.16°C in station 1 during pre-monsoon, pH ranged from 7.71 ± 0.13 in station 1 during monsoon to 8.12 ± 0.12 in station 2 during pre-monsoon, salinity ranged between 25.13 ± 0.12 psu at station 2 during monsoon to 28.08 ± 0.12 psu at station 1 during pre-monsoon, nitrate values ranged from 0.033 ± 0.002 mg l⁻¹ in station 2 during post-monsoon to 0.078 ± 0.01 mg l⁻¹ in station 1 during monsoon, phosphate values ranged from 0.008 ± 0.001 mg l⁻¹ in station 2 during post-monsoon to 0.019 ± 0.001 mg l⁻¹ in station 1 during monsoon and silicate values ranged from 0.078 ± 0.01 mg l⁻¹ in station 2 during pre-monsoon to 0.12 ± 0.01 mg l⁻¹ in station 1 during monsoon respectively. The results of the selected parameters showed that nitrate and phosphate concentration at station 1 is at the borderline as per South Africa Water Quality Guidelines for Coastal Marine Water, (1996) permissible level is concerned (Table 1). This is because of the excess amount of tourist pressure and effluent discharge of the city at station 1. Low pH at station 1 may be due to the fact that higher bacteria load caused due to anthropogenic pollution, although an excessive amount of nutrients in the water has led to the increased biomass of the seaweed. Such observations are also being supported by earlier workers (Archana and Babu, 2013). This shows that the present physico-chemical parameters of ambient media are well suited for the growth of seaweeds. The spatio-temporal analysis of the selected parameters also showed significant variation between stations which proves the stations are distinctly different from each other although located in the same geographical locale and hence the

seasonal difference is not pronounced. The significant variation of silicate with respect to seasons may be due to the fact of the precipitation and huge efflux from the adjacent city as well as the churning action of the water which has led to the changing silicate concentrations with respect to seasons. However vice-versa in the case of silicate with respect to stations (Table 2). Owing to the similar water quality of the area, the profuse growth of seaweed is possible.

Variation in biochemical parameters of seaweeds

Seaweeds collected from 0.25 m² quadrates were monitored for biomass estimation which showed the range from 1.76 ± 0.12 g m⁻² in *P. tetrastromatica* at station 2 during pre-monsoon to 8.12 ± 0.51 in *C. racemosa* at station 1 during monsoon (Fig. 2). The sea surface temperature and salinity showed insignificant relationship ($r_{temp \times biomass} = 0.286, 0.336, 0.022, p = IS$; $r_{sal \times biomass} = 0.155, 0.179, -0.375, p = IS$) with respect to biomass owing to the adaptability of selected species to the tropical climate of India (Glenn *et al.*, 1999) (Fig. 3). pH showed significantly negative relationship ($r_{pH \times biomass} = -0.973, -0.962, -0.750, p < 0.01$) whereas nitrate, phosphate and silicate have shown a significant positive relationship at 1% level of significance ($r_{NO_3 \times biomass} = 0.927, 0.945, 0.650, p < 0.01$; $r_{PO_4 \times biomass} = 0.795, 0.766, 0.560, p < 0.01$; $r_{SiO_3 \times biomass} = 0.841, 0.794, 0.900, p < 0.01$) with respect to all the selected species *viz.*, *C. racemosa*, *G. corticata* and *P. tetrastromatica* (Fig. 3).

Table 2: Spatio-temporal variations.

Physico-chemical parameters of seawater at the selected stations	Parameters	Variables	F _{cal}	F _{crit}			
	Biochemical parameters of selected seaweeds	Temperature (°C)	Between seasons	15.51	19		
Between stations			45.96	18.51			
pH value		Between seasons	16.20	19			
		Between stations	73	18.51			
Salinity (psu)		Between seasons	8.57	19			
		Between stations	27.54	18.51			
Nitrate (mg l ⁻¹)		Between seasons	2.64	19			
		Between stations	21.19	18.51			
Phosphate (mg l ⁻¹)		Between seasons	6.77	19			
		Between stations	49	18.51			
Silicate (mg l ⁻¹)		Between seasons	58.77	19			
		Between stations	7	18.51			
Species		Variables	F _{cal}				F _{crit}
			Biomass (g m ⁻²)	Protein (%)	Carbohydrate (%)	Lipid (%)	
<i>G. corticata</i>	Between Stations	42.81	48.94	45.99	31.79	18.51	
	Between Seasons	15.82	23.55	30.63	28.03	19	
<i>C. racemosa</i>	Between Stations	30.55	5.67	68.17	19.89	18.51	
	Between Seasons	14.44	11.90	139.38	14.31	19	
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	Between Stations	194.63	39.62	22.22	4.66	18.51	
	Between Seasons	1202.13	30.63	6.35	1.35	19	

Protein percentage calculated seasonally for the 3 species showed variation from 18.91 ± 0.50% in *G. corticata* at station 2 during pre-monsoon to 25.81 ± 0.87% in *P. tetrastromatica* at station 1 during monsoon (Fig. 2). Insignificant negative correlation of protein was found with respect to surface water temperature and salinity ($r_{temp \times protein} = -0.035, 0.374, 0.235, p = IS$; $r_{sal \times protein} = -0.145, 0.103, 0.037, p = IS$) in all the selected species, which proved that temperature and salinity has insignificant role in protein synthesis of all the selected species throughout the year. Similar observations were also noted by Kim *et al.*, (2007) while working in Cobscook Bay, Maine, USA (Fig. 2). pH showed a significantly negative relationship with protein showing the decrease in protein synthesis by seaweeds with increasing acidity (Bui *et al.*, 2018) (Fig. 3). With respect to nitrate, phosphate and silicate protein has shown significant positive relationship at 1% level significance ($r_{NO_3 \times protein} = 0.754, 0.939, 0.868, p < 0.01$; $r_{PO_4 \times protein} = 0.585, 0.806, 0.787, p < 0.01$; $r_{SiO_3 \times protein} = 0.967, 0.799, 0.876, p < 0.01$) for all the species (Fig. 3). This can be explained as to more anthropogenic waste in station 1 hence, an excess amount of nitrate is recorded in station 1. Since nitrate is an important constituent of protein, hence it is heavily absorbed by the seaweeds. Therefore, station 2 is devoid of anthropogenic pressure hence available nitrate is less owing to the maximum level of absorption by seaweeds, where *G. corticata* species has been found to be a more efficient absorber of NO₃ (Fig. 3).

Similar result on high protein percentage in seaweed during monsoon has also been documented by earlier workers (Dhargalkar *et al.*, 1980; Banerjee *et al.*, 2009).

Carbohydrate which is stored glucose of plants varied from 49.34 ± 0.33% in *C. racemosa* at station 2 during monsoon to 65.32 ± 2.78% in *G. corticata* at station 1 during pre-monsoon respectively (Fig. 2). Carbohydrate synthesis was totally based on temperature, pH and salinity

parameters along with nutrient nitrate and silicate for both seasons and stations, respectively. Hence, carbohydrate concentration was found to higher in pre-monsoon season in all three seaweeds. The high carbohydrate content in *G. corticata* may be due to higher phycollids in their cell wall (Dhargalkar *et al.*, 1980). As per Haroon *et al.*, (2000), a relatively higher proportion of carbohydrate was recorded in red seaweed as has also been documented in the present study (Fig. 2). Significant positive correlation has been found between the surface temperature and salinity with carbohydrate concentrations in the selected seaweeds ($r_{\text{temp} \times \text{carbohydrate}} = 0.694, 0.693, 0.721, p < 0.01$; $r_{\text{sal} \times \text{carbohydrate}} = 0.871, 0.931, 0.991, p < 0.01$) including phosphate in case of *P. tetrastromatica* (Banerjee *et al.*, 2009). pH, nitrate and phosphate have shown insignificant

relationship in case of *C. racemosa* and *G. corticata* excepting nitrate and phosphate ($r_{\text{NO}_3 \times \text{carbohydrate}} = 0.011, 0.335, 0.441, p = \text{IS}$; $r_{\text{PO}_4 \times \text{carbohydrate}} = 0.224, 0.354, 0.528, p = \text{IS}, p < 0.05$) in *P. tetrastromatica* at 5% level of significance. (Pramanick *et al.*, 2016) (Fig. 3).

A similar trend of lipid was also found in the studied species where the values ranged from $4.54 \pm 0.24\%$ in *P. tetrastromatica* at station 2 during pre-monsoon to $10.50 \pm 0.45\%$ in *G. corticata* at station 1 during post monsoon (Fig. 2). Lipid content showed a trend of post-monsoon > monsoon > pre-monsoon, due to the fact that the increase in heat during pre-monsoon liquefies the stored lipid content. *P. tetrastromatica* showed low lipid content in comparison to the other 2 species as has also been recorded from Visakhapatnam coast by Sarojini and

Table 3: Proximate chemical composition of different *Caulerpa* sp., *Gracilaria* sp. and *Padina* sp. reported by various authors (Values are given as percent of dry matter).

Species name	Biomass(g m ⁻²)	Protein (%)	Carbohydrate (%)	Lipid (%)	Season	Country
<i>C. racemosa</i>	8.12 ± 0.13	23.79 ± 0.12	53.73 ± 0.13	9.68 ± 0.13	AC	India
<i>C. cupressoides</i>	ND	3.9	4.9	7.9	AC	France
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	1.9	2.0	2.8		
<i>C. sertularioides</i>	ND	3.2	4.4	10.1		
<i>C. lentillifera</i>	ND	12.49 ± 0.3	59.27 ± 1.54	0.86 ± 0.10	Summer	Thailand
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	19.72 ± 0.77	48.97 ± 1.22	7.65 ± 1.19	AC	Bangladesh
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	38.48 ± 1.21	64.41 ± 1.54	16.50 ± 0.57	AC	India (A.P)
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	5.17 ± 0.06	ND	ND	Rainy	Kenya
<i>C. scapelliformis</i>	ND	18.05 ± 0.08	ND	ND		
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	10.53	20.92	3.72	AC	Pakistan
<i>C. taxifolia</i>	ND	0.1	0.3	0.32	Winter	India (A.P)
<i>C. sertularioides</i>	ND	12.3	23.5	2.8	AC	Persian Gulf
<i>C. lentillifera</i>	ND	ND	53.08 ± 0.10	ND	AC	Malaysia
<i>C. serrulata</i>	ND	14.5 ± 0.006	45.6 ± 0.003	4.24 ± 0.003	Winter	Egypt
<i>C. lentillifera</i>	ND	6.6	12.8	2.7	Winter	Australia
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	6.9	14.4	4.4		
<i>C. racemosa</i>	ND	3.98 ± 0.22	3.60 ± 0.28	ND	Spring	Mexico
<i>C. taxifolia</i>	ND	9.75	14.00	9.00	AC	Pakistan
<i>G. corticata</i>	7.81 ± 0.15	24.47 ± 0.41	65.32 ± 0.32	10.50 ± 0.21	AC	India
<i>G. bursa pastoris</i>	ND	15.9 ± 0.61	ND	1.87 ± 0.66	Winter	Turkey
<i>G. gracilis</i>	ND	15.9 ± 0.14	ND	1.95 ± 0.54		
<i>G. edulis</i>	ND	16.6 ± 0.5	45.8 ± 2.2	2.6 ± 0.4	Summer	India (T.N)
<i>G. arcuata</i>	ND	13.79 ± 0.31	ND	ND	Rainy	Kenya
<i>G. salicornia</i>	ND	9.55 ± 0.71	ND	ND		
<i>G. corticata</i>	ND	19.99 ± 1.54	67.75 ± 1.72	5.94 ± 0.64	AC	India (A.P)
<i>G. gracilis</i>	ND	20	88	ND	Winter	Argentina
<i>G. compressa</i>	ND	ND	11.62	ND	AC	Egypt
<i>G. verucosa</i>	ND	ND	11.15	ND		
<i>G. corticata</i>	ND	10.9	41.72	16.0	AC	Persian Gulf
<i>G. fisheri</i>	ND	11.6 ± 1.1	ND	2.7 ± 0.6	Summer	Thailand
<i>G. corticata</i>	ND	ND	43.0 ± 5.58	1.8 ± 0.48	AC	Iran
<i>G. verrucosa</i>	ND	ND	74.11 ± 0.77	ND	AC	Malaysia
<i>G. verrucosa</i>	ND	19.34 ± 21.22	ND	1.72 ± 3.60	Winter	Turkey

Table 3 Continue ...

Continue table 3 ...

<i>G. cervicornis</i>	16.92 ± 6.05	19.70 ± 2.70	63.13 ± 3.50	0.43 ± 0.56	AC	Brazil
<i>G. changgi</i>	ND	6.9	ND	3.3	AC	Malaysia
<i>G. cornea</i>	ND	5.47 ± 0.14	36.29 ± 0.44	ND	Spring	Mexico
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	3.92 ± 0.13	25.81 ± 0.43	57.97 ± 0.12	7.43 ± 0.12	AC	India (A.P)
<i>P. gymnospora</i>	ND	17.32	29.85	1.5	AC	India (T.N.)
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	ND	15.77	27.34	2.55		
<i>P. cfsanctae-crucis</i>	ND	8.2	3.1	3.6	AC	France
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	ND	7.62 ± 0.38	ND	ND	Rainy	Kenya
<i>P. pavonia</i>	ND	8.35 ± 0.02	90.50 ± 0.25	0.006 ± 0.0003	AC	Egypt
<i>P. pavonia</i>	ND	8.86	ND	3.87	AC	Turkey
<i>P. pavonia</i>	340	ND	32.36	ND	Winter	Pakistan
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	345	ND	33.01	ND		
<i>P. gymnospora</i>	ND	ND	26.86 ± 0.17	ND	AC	Malaysia
<i>P. tetrastromatica</i>	ND	3.873 ± 0.009	15.54 ± 0.003	3.92 ± 0.009	Winter	Egypt
<i>P. gymnospora</i>	ND	9.86 ± 0.31	1.86 ± 0.05	ND	Spring	Mexico
<i>P. pavonia</i>	ND	7.00	33.20	4.40	AC	Pakistan
<i>P. vickersiae</i>	ND	18.62	ND	1.43	AC	Saudi Arabia
2002 Joint WHO/FAO Expert Consultation Recommendations	ND	10-15	55-75	2.5-3.5		

AC: Annual Cycle, A.P: Andhra Pradesh, T.N: Tamil Nadu, ND: not determined

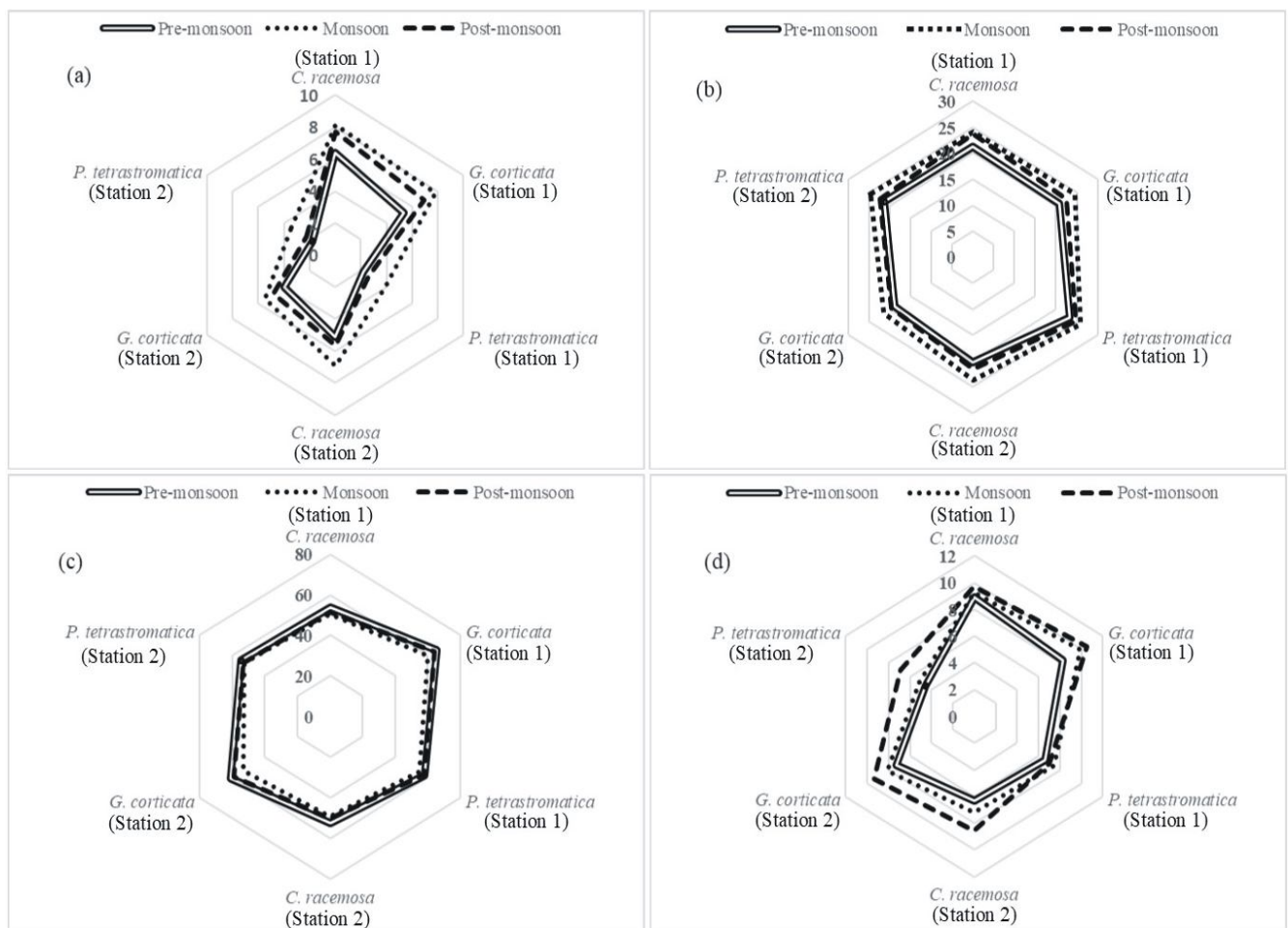


Fig. 2: Variation in biochemical composition (a) Biomass (g m⁻²), (b) Protein (%), (c) Carbohydrate (%), (d) Lipid (%) of selected species at the selected stations.

Subbarangaiah, (1999). India being a tropical country, the impact of temperature and salinity has not shown a significant effect on the lipid synthesis of the selected seaweeds (Pramanick *et al.*, 2016). pH showed a significantly negative correlation ($r_{pH \times lipid} = -0.708, -0.661, -0.619, p < 0.01$ with all the selected seaweeds respectively because with increasing pH concentrations in the seawater, the lipid synthesis will decrease and vice-versa (Qiu *et al.*, 2017). Significant positive relationship of nitrate, phosphate, silicate ($r_{NO_3 \times lipid} = 0.689, 0.656, 0.604, p < 0.01; r_{PO_4 \times lipid} = 0.583, 0.360, 0.459, p < 0.01,$

$p = IS, p < 0.05; r_{SiO_3 \times lipid} = 0.458, 0.673, 0.451, p < 0.05, p = 0.01$). Such effects have also been documented by Marinho-Soriano *et al.*, 2006.

ANOVA result reflects pronounced variation between stations and seasons excepting protein in *C. racemosa* and lipid in *P. tetrastromatica* and for seasons, biomass of *P. tetrastromatica*, protein of *C. racemosa*, carbohydrate of *P. tetrastromatica* and lipid of *C. racemosa* and *P. tetrastromatica* (Table 2).

Looking at the values of protein, lipid and carbohydrate of the three selected species and comparing

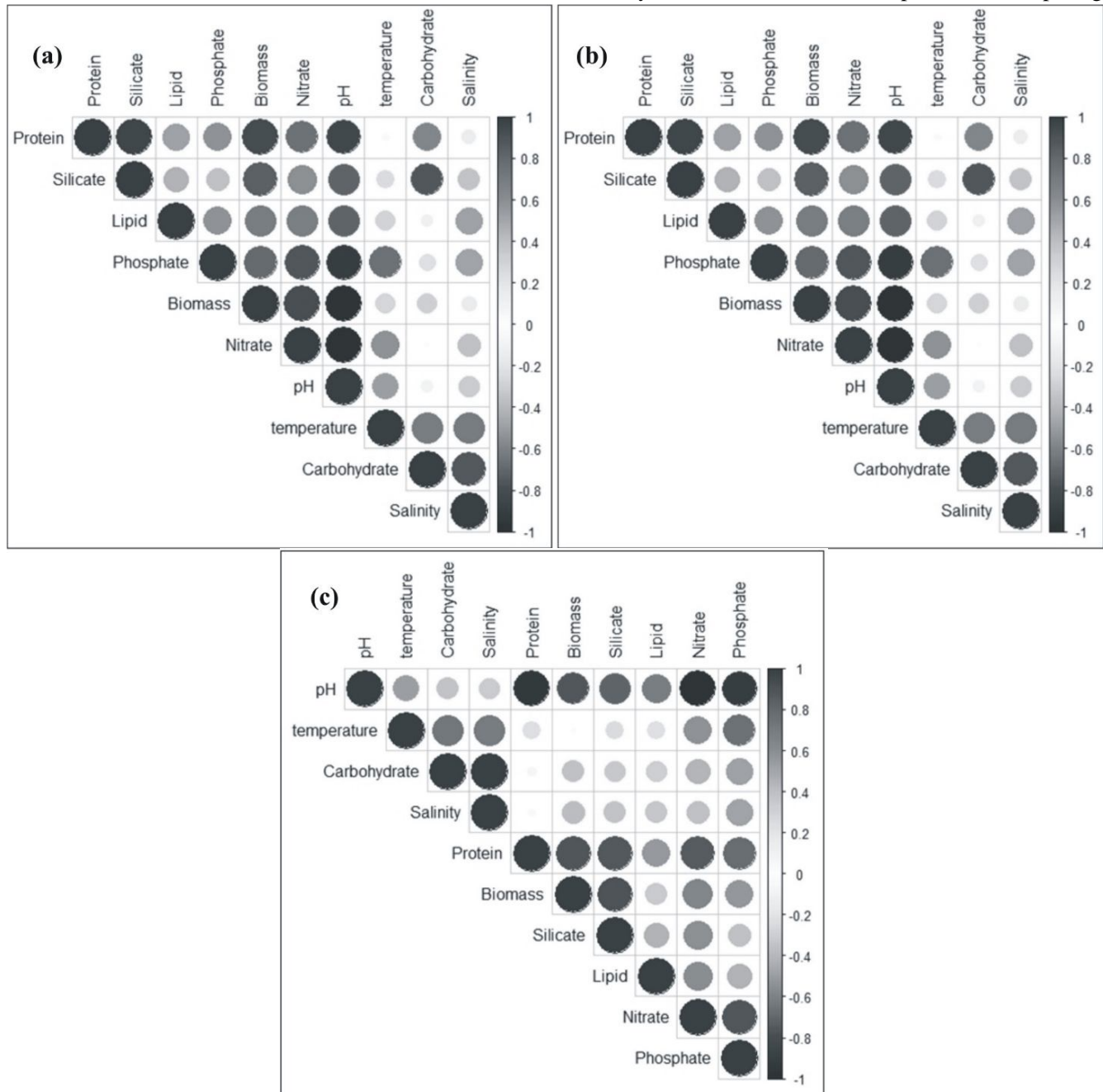


Fig. 3: Interrelationship between physico-chemical parameters and biochemical parameters of selected seaweeds (a) *Caulerpa racemosa*, (b) *Gracilaria corticata*, (c) *Padina tetrastromatica*.

them with the values of the other parts of the world the values are almost in range as per the works cited in table 3. Comparing the other works of literature of the world, the protein content of *P. tetrastromatica* in our study was higher (Table 3). As per WHO/FAO, (2002) protein and lipid content in our study were found to be quite higher which speaks of the potentiality of using these seaweeds as a protein supplement in food.

As per FAO, (2016) the annual production of seaweed is 27.3 million tons in 2014 with a growth rate of 8% per year. This comprises of 27% of total marine aquaculture production. The study suggests that culturing these species in the coastal zone of India can help in further expansion of the seaweed industry and development of skilled labour force which will increase the suitable areas of farming. The emergence of this “Blue Crop” will help in the expansion of the blue industry (Mazarrasa *et al.*, 2014). Hence compensating the farmers and encouraging them in seaweed production will help in climate change mitigation and adaptation for increased food security.

Conclusion

The results of the present research speak of taking a stepwise approach to establish the high value of seaweed and flourishing it as a blue crop in the coastal zone of India. In addition, the placement of seaweed farms needs consideration of the habitat requirement (Kerrison *et al.*, 2015) as well as optimizing the quality of crops for targeted use (Bruhn *et al.*, 2016). Because of the low investment and ample amount of coastal waters in India seaweed aquaculture can give a sound strategy to meet the food security problems in the near future and help in mitigating the problems of climate change.

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