



HAL
open science

Effects of shading, fertilization and snail grazing on the productivity of the water fern *Azolla filiculoides* for tropical freshwater aquaculture

Simon Pouil, Reza Samsudin, Jacques Slembrouck, Ahmad Sihabuddin, Gusnia Sundari, Khazaidan Khazaidan, Anang Hari Kristanto, Brata Pantjara, Domenico Caruso

► To cite this version:

Simon Pouil, Reza Samsudin, Jacques Slembrouck, Ahmad Sihabuddin, Gusnia Sundari, et al.. Effects of shading, fertilization and snail grazing on the productivity of the water fern *Azolla filiculoides* for tropical freshwater aquaculture. *Aquatic Botany*, 2020, 160 (4), pp.103150. 10.1016/j.aquabot.2019.103150 . hal-03163380

HAL Id: hal-03163380

<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-03163380v1>

Submitted on 21 Dec 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

1 **Effects of shading, fertilization and snail grazing on the productivity of the**
2 **water fern *Azolla filiculoides* for tropical freshwater aquaculture**

3
4 Simon Pouil^{a*}, Reza Samsudin^b, Jacques Slembrouck^a, Ahmad Sihabuddin^c, Gusnia Sundari^c,
5 Khazaidan Khazaidan^b, Anang Hari Kristanto^b, Brata Pantjara^b, Domenico Caruso^a

6

7 ^a ISEM, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, IRD, EPHE, Montpellier, France

8 ^b RIFAFE, Bogor, Indonesia

9 ^c IRD, Jakarta, Indonesia

10

11 * Corresponding author: Simon Pouil
12 ISEM
13 Université de Montpellier, Place Eugène Bataillon
14 Montpellier Cedex 05, France
15 E-mail: simon.pouil1@gmail.com

16 **Abstract:**

17 Water ferns (*Azolla* spp.) are among the main important floating macrophytes used for
18 feeding farmed animals such as fish, because they have high growth potential and high
19 protein content. Nevertheless, their use as feed requires sustainable mass production, which
20 can be difficult to maintain in field conditions. We performed a first experiment to assess the
21 effects of shading and fertilization levels on the growth of *Azolla filiculoides* with
22 complementary information regarding the morphology and the chemical composition of the
23 plant cultivated under the different experimental conditions. Plants were cultivated in floating
24 50-L plastic drums at three fertilization levels (“no”, “low” and “high”) using an inorganic
25 multi-nutrient fertilizer rich in P (NPK = 1:2:1) and maintained under full natural light or
26 shaded by one of two different types of shading materials, transparent polyethylene sheet and
27 60% shade net, respectively. A second experiment was carried out to evaluate the effects of
28 grazing by the invasive golden apple snail *Pomacea canaliculata* on *A. filiculoides* previously
29 cultivated without addition of fertilizer (treatment “n”) or in high fertilizer concentrations
30 (treatment “high”). Fertilization levels and shading materials significantly affected the growth
31 of *Azolla*. The highest productivity was reached using the highest fertilization level under
32 direct sunlight. *Azolla* produced in these culture conditions was preferentially grazed by snails
33 compared to *Azolla* cultivated without added fertilizer. Based on these findings, we make
34 recommendations regarding the best culture conditions for *A. filiculoides* in ponds for its use
35 as sustainable fish feed.

36

37 Keywords: Aquaculture, Floating macrophytes, Light, Nutrients, Productivity, Grazing

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Water fern species (*Azolla* spp.) are considered as the most economically important floating
40 aquatic macrophytes in the world (Brouwer et al., 2014; Kollah et al., 2016). *Azolla* spp. are
41 among the fastest growing plants and can reach very high growth rates via asexual
42 reproduction with a doubling time of only 2-5 days (Wagner, 1997; Sadeghi et al., 2013).
43 These aquatic fern species are native to Central and South America and western North
44 America (Sadeghi et al., 2013). Nevertheless, *Azolla* spp. are nowadays widely established in
45 freshwater ecosystems of temperate and tropical regions all over the world (Sadeghi et al.,
46 2013), demonstrating high adaptability to various environmental conditions. This excellent
47 adaptability is explained by specific physiological characteristics.

48 Due to their symbiosis with nitrogen (N)-fixing microorganisms (diazotroph cyanobacteria
49 *Nostoc* (ex. *Anabaena*) *azollae*; Kahindi et al., 1997), *Azolla* growth is vigorous even in
50 natural N-limited conditions (Brouwer et al., 2017). Physiologically, the *Azolla-Nostoc*
51 complex is outstanding, because it can fix N at substantial rates - approximately the double of
52 *Rhizobia* living in the root nodules of soybean (Hung et al., 2013; Brouwer et al., 2017). The
53 two symbiotic organisms' light-harvesting pigments are complementary and can capture a
54 wide range of wavelengths of light (Wagner, 1997). These specific characteristics make
55 *Azolla* spp. very suitable for many uses in agriculture and aquaculture (Pabby et al., 2004;
56 Sithara and Kamalaveni, 2008; Kollah et al., 2016).

57 Beyond its high productivity, and according to the environmental conditions, *Azolla* spp. can
58 reach high protein contents (15-40% of its dry weight; Brouwer et al., 2018; Feedipedia,
59 2018; Slembrouck et al., 2018) and can therefore be a valuable alternative to costly fish meal
60 and soybean, especially in pond aquaculture systems (Datta, 2011; Gangadhar et al., 2015;
61 Das et al., 2018). *Azolla* may represent a valuable resource to meet the current challenge for
62 aquaculture: improvement in production to match the growing demand for aquatic products

63 and in a sustainable manner. Thus, experiments carried out on many herbivorous or
64 omnivorous fish species have shown that reasonable inclusion rates (usually not exceeding
65 30%, Abdel-Tawwab, 2008; Datta, 2011; Das et al., 2018) of *Azolla* (fresh or dry form) in the
66 fish diet reduce production costs without affecting growth (for review, see Mosha, 2018).
67 However, this use requires continuous mass production, which is generally not yet common
68 on a large scale (Brouwer et al., 2018). Although, *Azolla* species have undeniable growth
69 capacities, many factors can affect the mass production of these macrophytes.

70 Nutrient availability is often considered as the main bottleneck in the production of *Azolla*.
71 Phosphorus (P) is a major nutrient limiting the growth of *Azolla* spp., as in many other
72 photoautotrophic aquatic organisms (Sadeghi et al., 2013; Temmink et al., 2018), because the
73 N₂-fixation rates are ensured by symbionts (Cary and Weerts, 1992; Kushari and Watanabe,
74 1991). In experimental conditions, 2 to 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ P are reported for the sustainable growth
75 of *Azolla* (Subudhi and Watanabe, 1981; Kitoh and Shiomi, 1991; Temmink et al., 2018), but
76 field observations suggest that higher concentrations are necessary (10 to 33 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$,
77 Sadeghi et al., 2013). Based on this information, P may be limiting for *Azolla* production even
78 in fertilized ponds used for fish production, where P concentrations are usually between 1-17
79 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Green and Boyd, 1995; Pengseng and Boyd, 2011; Pouil et al., 2019). In addition,
80 temperature and light intensity are important climate variables determining *Azolla* growth
81 rates in the field (Sadeghi et al., 2013). Although different *Azolla* species or strains have
82 different temperature sensitivities (Uheda et al., 1999), the optimum temperature range for
83 *Azolla* growth is about 18-26°C (Sherief and James 1994; Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009).
84 Furthermore, high temperatures (>35°C) are known to inhibit *Azolla* growth (Sadeghi et al.,
85 2013). Light intensity affects *Azolla* photosynthetic activity, growth and N₂ fixation
86 (Watanabe, 1982; Pabby et al., 2003; Sagedhi et al., 2013). Although several experimental
87 studies showed a decrease of *Azolla* biomass under shading conditions (i.e. plants received 30

88 to 60% of full sunlight, Cary and Weerts, 1992; Abduh et al., 2017), slight shade (25-50% of
89 full sunlight) can benefit *Azolla* mass production (Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009). However,
90 field investigations are missing to support this statement. In addition, light interacts with
91 temperature in influencing the growth of *Azolla* species (Janes, 1998). Despite knowledge
92 mainly gained through laboratory experiments, only few studies investigated the productivity
93 of *Azolla* under field conditions (e.g. Brouwer et al., 2018).

94 The growth of *Azolla* can also be negatively affected by biological factors. Arthropods such
95 as Lepidoptera and Diptera, or crustaceans and gastropods can affect the growth of *Azolla* by
96 grazing (Sadeghi et al., 2013). The golden apple snail *Pomacea canaliculata* is a freshwater
97 gastropod, native to South America that has become a serious pest in Asian agriculture and is
98 included in the world's 100 worst invasive alien species (Lowe et al., 2000). These snails,
99 present in aquaculture ponds, are herbivorous and can feed on floating macrophytes such as
100 *Azolla* (Cruz et al., 2015). Golden apple snails have a strong negative effect on the biomass of
101 all macrophyte species in Asian wetlands (Carlsson and Brönmark, 2006) but, to our
102 knowledge, the potential effects of these snails on the production of *Azolla* in the field have
103 not been investigated.

104 We aimed to promote culture of *Azolla* in fish ponds as a potential alternative source of feed
105 for freshwater fish. Thus, the objectives of this study were to assess the combined effects of
106 fertilization levels and shading, considered among the main parameters for plant production,
107 on (1) productivity of *Azolla filiculoides* in a fish pond setting with complementary
108 information on chemical composition and morphology, and (2) on the grazing of *Azolla*
109 cultivated in two fertilizer conditions by the invasive golden apple snail *P. canaliculata*. We
110 hypothesized that the use of shading should support mass production of *Azolla* in fish ponds
111 by maintaining favourable light and temperature conditions while snails should cause non-
112 negligible losses of plant production.

113 2. Materials and Methods

114 2.1. Experiment 1: Effects of shading materials and fertilization on *Azolla* production

115 A six-week field experiment was carried out to assess the response of *A. filiculoides* to several
116 culture conditions (3 fertilization levels x 3 light level conditions). The experiment was
117 performed from August to September 2018 during the dry season in an artificial pond (400
118 m², depth 0.50 m) without fish. The pond was located in a fish farm of the village of Babakan
119 (6°28'S; 106°42'E; altitude 125 m), district Bogor, West Java, Indonesia. The experimental
120 block design consisted of 27 plastic half drums (cut lengthwise; water volume: 50 L, water
121 depth: 0.25 m, surface: 0.5 m²), oriented east-west, partially immersed in the pond and
122 maintained in place with bamboo poles. Nine of these drums were covered by a 60% shade
123 net, nine by a transparent polyethylene sheet, and nine were exposed to direct sunlight without
124 any cover (control condition). Light intensity, water and air temperature were recorded
125 continuously throughout the experiment using data loggers (HOBO Pendant
126 Temperature/Light and HOBO Water Temperature Pro v2). Data loggers were placed in three
127 drums per light condition at 10 cm depth for water temperature and at 5 cm above the water
128 surface for air temperature and light intensity measurements.

129 The use of these low-cost and locally available shading materials resulted in a gradient of
130 shading between the different experimental conditions. Thus, *Azolla* cultivated under the
131 shade net and the transparent polyethylene sheet received 57% and 10% less light respectively
132 compared to the plants exposed to direct sunlight (Table 1). The nine drums of each condition
133 were filled with water from the pond (N: 33.5 ± 15.0 µmol L⁻¹, P: 5.8 ± 3.6 µmol L⁻¹, K: 31.7
134 ± 30.4 µmol L⁻¹). Commercial aqueous solutions of inorganic multi-nutrient fertilizer
135 (Rosasol[®]-P hydroponic fertilizer with an NPK ratio of 1:2:1, see Table S1 for composition)
136 was used as nutrients source. Since P is the most limiting nutrient for *Azolla* growth, fertilizer
137 was added to obtain concentrations of 2 µmol L⁻¹ of P (i.e., 3.2 and 1.5 µmol L⁻¹ of N and K

138 respectively; treatment “low”) and 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of P (i.e., 16 and 7.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of N and K
139 respectively; treatment “high”). The third series of drums was maintained without fertilizer
140 and served as the control (treatment “no”). Each condition was triplicated.

141 Before starting the experiment, *A. filiculoides* maintained in an aquaculture pond was
142 acclimated to experimental conditions by inoculating 50 g fresh weight (FW) into the 50 L
143 drums (i.e. 100 g FW m^{-2} and surface cover of ~20%). Plants were acclimated for 11 days
144 without harvesting to minimize P history effects (Temmink et al., 2018). During the
145 experiment, water in drums was changed 6 times per week. *Azolla* biomass was transferred in
146 a net and drum walls were cleaned during the water change. Fertilizer addition to the fresh
147 pond water was according to treatment, as described above. In order to check nutrient
148 concentrations, two times per week, water was sampled 30 min after the fertilizer addition
149 (300 mL per drum) and the operation was renewed the next day (i.e. 24 hours later) just
150 before to change again the water. This procedure allowed to keep nutrient concentrations in
151 water as constant as possible (at least 70% of N, P and K remained in the water after 24 h
152 whatever the experimental condition). Before adding fertilizer, water measurements were
153 performed in each drum (08:00-10:00 AM, two times per week) to determine pH, dissolved
154 oxygen (DO, mg L^{-1}), temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), and total dissolved solid matter (TDS, mg L^{-1})
155 using a multi-parameter probe (HI 9829 Hanna).

156 Total plant biomass in each drum was determined at the beginning and at the end of the 11-d
157 acclimation period and then one time per week during the 6-week experiment. Samples were
158 rinsed, carefully drained and weighed ($\pm 0.1\text{g}$). After FW determination, a 50 g sample (100 g
159 FW m^{-2}) of *A. filiculoides* was returned into its original drum to avoid too high surface
160 densities. Productivity (expressed as g FW $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) was calculated as the total amount of
161 *Azolla* harvested in each drum minus the initial seeding (50 g FW per drum). When
162 productivity was negative (i.e. mortality of *Azolla*), plants from different stocks maintained

163 under appropriate fertilizer and shading conditions were used to re-inoculate the drums.
164 Samples from each drum (each 10 g FW) were carefully weighted as described above and
165 were taken to determine dry weight (DW). The remaining samples were stored at -18°C for
166 further analyses.

167

168 **2.2. Experiment 2: Quantification of *Azolla* ingestion by snails**

169 The grazing of the invasive golden apple snail *P. canaliculata* on *Azolla* cultivated outdoors
170 was assessed at two extreme nutrient concentrations (treatments “no” and “high”). The
171 experiment was carried out indoors (light: $<2 \mu\text{mol PAR m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) to prevent autogenic changes
172 *Azolla* biomass (i.e. changes in biomass caused by endogenous factors and not snail grazing).
173 The experimental set-up consisted of thirteen plastic buckets (6 L, 34 cm diameter) covered
174 with a 60% shade net to prevent snails from escaping. Twelve buckets were used to quantify
175 the ingestion of *Azolla* (from the treatments “no” and “high”) by snails (n = 6 per condition)
176 and one basin served as the control, without snails (control). Water temperatures were
177 recorded continuously throughout the experiment using a data logger (HOBO Water
178 Temperature Pro v2) placed at the bottom of the bucket used as the control.

179 Twelve snails (FW: 20.1 ± 3.2 g, shell length: 3.8 ± 0.2 mm, shell width: 2.9 ± 0.2 mm) were
180 randomly placed in the buckets (one snail per bucket) and acclimated for three days to the
181 experimental conditions. Buckets were filled with water from the pond (see Section 1.2.1).
182 During the acclimation period, each snail was fed with 10 g of fresh *Azolla* from treatments
183 “no” and “high”. At the end of the acclimation period, 20 g of fresh *Azolla* coming from
184 treatments “no” or “high” was added to each bucket (n = 6 per treatment). After 24 h, the
185 remaining *Azolla* (i.e. non-ingested) was carefully drained, weighed and dried. The water was
186 changed at the same time. Measurements were repeated for four consecutive days using the
187 same procedure. At the end of the experiment, dry weight (DW) and the flesh-to-total FW

188 ratio of each snail was determined. Thus, daily *Azolla* ingestion was calculated as the
189 difference between quantity of *Azolla* added to the bucket and the quantity remaining (on a
190 DW basis) and expressed as grams (DW) of *Azolla* eaten per gram of snail flesh (DW) per
191 day.

192 The dietary preference of snails (FW: 18.0 ± 2.3 g, shell length: 3.8 ± 0.1 mm, shell width:
193 3.0 ± 0.2 mm) for one of the two *Azolla* growing conditions (treatments “no” and “high”) was
194 also tested through a multiple-choice experiment. A floating plastic separation was placed in
195 three basins each containing one snail and 10 g each of *Azolla* coming from the treatments
196 “no” and “high” were introduced on either side of the plastic separation. As for the previous
197 experiment, another bucket served as the control without snail. After 72 h, the remaining
198 *Azolla* on each side was carefully drained and weighed, and the percentage of ingestion of
199 fresh *Azolla* was calculated.

200

201 **2.3. Sample analysis**

202 Total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN) in water was measured following the Indonesian National
203 Standard (SNI) 06-6989.52-2005 using Macro-Kjeldahl apparatus coupled with titration Total
204 N was then determined as the sum of TKN, NO_3^- -N and NO_2^- -N. Phosphorus (P) in water was
205 determined based on the procedures described in the SNI 06-6989.31-2005 adapted from
206 APHA 4500-PE (APHA, 2005). The chemical composition analyses were performed after the
207 11-d acclimation period ($n = 1$ per condition). Proximate analyses in *Azolla* samples were
208 performed following Cunniff (1999). Moisture was determined by weight loss upon drying at
209 105°C for 24 h. Crude protein was determined using the standard Kjeldahl procedure; lipid
210 content after acid hydrolysis was determined using the Weibull-Stoldt method; crude ash was
211 determined on residue after heating at 550°C for 4-5 h in a muffle furnace. Crude fibre was
212 determined as follows: macrophytes were extracted with 1.25% H_2SO_4 and 1.25% NaOH,

213 dried, weighed, incinerated and reweighed. Gross energy content was calculated using energy
214 value coefficients of 9 kcal for crude fat and 4 kcal for crude protein and carbohydrates. For
215 total P and K determination, plant samples were weighed and digested in nitric acid for 20
216 min at 190°C. Measurements were then performed using an inductively-coupled plasma
217 optical emission spectrometer. Chlorophyll content of *Azolla* was measured after acetone
218 extraction by spectrophotometry. The absorbance was measured at wavelength of 663 nm and
219 645 nm. Calculation of chlorophyll levels was carried out based on Arnon's equation (Arnon,
220 1949).

221

222 **2.4. Data treatment and statistical analysis**

223 Prior to analysis, temperature data recorded in lux were converted to $\mu\text{mol PAR m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ using
224 x54 as conversion factor (Thimijan and Heins, 1982). Because of non-normal distribution of
225 the data, statistical comparisons were done for the environmental parameters (air and water)
226 monitored under the different shading conditions using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis
227 and Siegel and Castellan tests (Siegel and Castellan, 1988).

228 A linear mixed model (LMM) was used to analyse differences in *Azolla* productivity at the
229 nine experimental conditions (3 shading conditions x 3 fertilization levels). Shading materials
230 and fertilizer conditions (with the interaction term) were considered as fixed effects in the
231 model. The individual plastic drums in which *Azolla* grew were considered as random effects.
232 Assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity were checked on residuals of the model.
233 Contrast analysis was then performed as the mean separation procedure with a Bonferroni-
234 corrected p-value (α of $0.05/36 = 0.0014$).

235 Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was then used to test for effects of light and other
236 environmental covariables (air and water temperatures) on the productivity of *Azolla*
237 cultivated at the three fertilization levels ("no", "low" and "high").

238 Quantities of ingested *Azolla* (from treatments “no” and “high”) by snails (expressed as g g⁻¹
239 DW d⁻¹) and feed preferences (i.e. % of ingestion) were statistically compared using the non-
240 parametric Mann-Whitney U test because of the non-normal distribution of the data.

241 The level of significance for ANCOVA and Mann-Whitney U test was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. All
242 statistics were performed using R freeware version 3.3 (R Development Core Team, 2016).
243 Unless otherwise stated, values shown are means \pm SD.

244

245 **3. Results**

246 3.1. Response of *A. filiculoides* to culture conditions

247 In our experiment, depending on the weather and the shading conditions (Table 1), we
248 observed air and water temperatures ranging from 23 to 40°C and light intensity reached
249 peaks of 278 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2).

250 Fertilization levels and shading materials affected the growth of *Azolla* (Fig. 1). Overall, in
251 the absence of added fertilizer, the productivity of *Azolla* was limited to $0.15 \pm 0.73 \text{ g DW m}^{-2}$
252 d^{-1} ($n = 54$) over the experiment and *Azolla* cultures collapsed in 43% of measurements
253 performed (23 out of a total of 54). Conversely, the productivity of *Azolla* cultivated at a
254 higher fertilizer level (treatment “high”) reached $3.80 \pm 1.44 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ($n = 54$) with
255 doubling times of $<1 \text{ d}$ in some cases and no observed production collapse (Fig. 1).

256 Our LMM model indicated that both shading conditions ($p < 0.001$) and fertilizer levels ($p =$
257 0.001) affected the growth of *Azolla*. Significant interactions were found between the shading
258 conditions and the fertilization treatment indicating that the effects of shading conditions are
259 dependent of the fertilization level. Indeed, for the two lowest fertilizer addition treatments
260 (“no” and “low”), productivity of *Azolla* was similar between the three shading conditions (t -
261 ratio = 4.065-0.87, $p = 0.016$ -0.992). Nevertheless, for the treatment “high”, productivity of

262 *Azolla* was significantly lower (t-ratio = 6.521, p = 0.001) under the shade net (in average -
263 39%) and compared to the other shading conditions.

264 ANCOVA performed for the three fertilization levels (“no”, “low” and “high”) revealed that
265 light intensity significantly affected *Azolla* productivity cultivated in the “high” fertilization
266 condition (F = 16.805, p = 0.001) while there were positive significant effects of increasing
267 air temperatures on productivity in the “low” and “high” fertilization conditions (F = 4.904, p
268 = 0.044 and F = 13.422, p = 0.003 respectively) (Fig. 2).

269 We observed that morphology of *A. filiculoides* changed in response to different experimental
270 treatments. Visual aspect indicated that plants from the treatment “no” (no fertilizer added)
271 were smaller and more fragile than those from the “low” and “high” fertilizer treatments
272 (lower breaking strength of the fronds). Furthermore, control plants turned brownish, whereas
273 plants from treatments “low” and “high” stayed green (mg kg⁻¹ FW of chlorophyll
274 respectively, n = 3, Table 2). A slight difference ($\chi^2 = 6.057$, p = 0.045) was observed in the
275 chlorophyll concentrations between the treatments “no” and “low” (343 ± 50 and 383 ± 23
276 mg kg⁻¹ FW of chlorophyll respectively, n = 3) and the treatment “high” (450 ± 17 mg kg⁻¹
277 FW of chlorophyll, n = 3). Although the number of *Azolla* samples analysed was limited by
278 the low productivity in the treatment “no” (n = 1 per condition), the chemical composition
279 analyses indicated that, after the acclimation period, P and K concentrations increased with
280 fertilizer concentrations from 121 to 331 and 616 to 1113 mg kg⁻¹ FW respectively, Table 2.

281

282 **3.2. Impacts of the golden apple snail on *Azolla* production**

283 During the experiments, no biomass change was observed in *Azolla* from both the treatment
284 “no” and the treatment “high” maintained without snail (i.e. control condition). The
285 consumption of *Azolla* by the golden apple snail *P. canaliculata* reached 0.06 ± 0.04 g g⁻¹
286 DW d⁻¹ and 0.17 ± 0.07 g DW g⁻¹ d⁻¹ when snails (n = 6 snails x 4 d) were fed on *Azolla* from

287 the treatment “no” and the treatment “high” respectively ($U = 536$, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 3). These
288 results were confirmed by estimation of the dietary preference of snails between *Azolla* from
289 the treatments “no” and “high”. When snails ($n = 3$) were able to choose between *Azolla* from
290 the two fertilizer conditions, they slightly preferred ($U = 9$, $p = 0.045$) *Azolla* coming from the
291 treatment “high” (79%, 80% and 88% of consumption after 72 h) to *Azolla* from treatment
292 “no” (16%, 21% and 30% of consumption after 72 h).

293

294 **4. Discussion**

295 Some authors found that *Azolla* is able to grow in shade conditions (50% sunlight) and partial
296 shade may favour its growth in field conditions (see for review: Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009)
297 contrasting with other experimental studies. Abduh et al. (2017) highlighted that *Azolla*
298 growth gradually decreased under shading conditions (up to 50% sunlight) while Cary and
299 Weerts (1992) found that biomass yields of plants receiving 30% of greenhouse sunlight were
300 less than one-third those of plants receiving no shading. Nevertheless, comparisons between
301 studies are complex. Indeed, shading materials used are likely to affect not only the intensity
302 but also the spectrum of the light received. Although we did not measure light spectra,
303 another study performed on a large number of shading materials, revealed that the photon
304 irradiance is reduced at wavelengths from 260 to 500 nm (-42% for UVB: 280-315 nm, -30%
305 for UVA: 315-400 nm and -13% for blue: 400-500 nm) by polyethylene sheets (Kotilainen et
306 al., 2018). The same authors found that the light spectrum under 50-70% shade nets remained
307 similar to ambient sunlight spectrum. In this field experiment, we experimentally
308 demonstrated that there is no benefit of using such shading materials for *Azolla* growth in
309 field conditions suggesting that outdoor fish ponds may be an appropriate culture structures
310 for a mass production of *Azolla*.

311 The water fern *A. filiculoides* is known to be sensitive to air temperatures with optimal for
312 growth ranging from 20 to 30°C (Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009; Sadeghi et al., 2013). In our
313 experiment, depending on the weather conditions and the shading materials used (Table 1),
314 we observed air temperatures ranging from 23 to 40°C. As for light intensity, increasing
315 temperatures had a positive effect on *Azolla* productivity, indicating that in our experimental
316 conditions high temperature was not a limiting factor for *Azolla* growth. Our results suggest
317 that light and temperature have positive effects on *Azolla* production within small-scale fish
318 farms in tropical environments.

319 The influences of temperature and light depended on fertilizer concentrations. In the absence
320 of added fertilizer (treatment “no”), light, air and water temperatures had no effect on growth.
321 In this condition, *Azolla* productivity was low and highly variable with regular production
322 collapses. There were significant positive linear relationships between the environmental
323 variables (light, air and water temperatures) and the productivity of *Azolla* cultivated at the
324 high fertilization level (treatment “high”) and, to a lesser extent, for *Azolla* grown at the
325 intermediate fertilizer level (treatment “low”). Based on our results, we estimated, for *Azolla*,
326 cultivated under direct sunlight and high fertilizer addition, yields of 30 ± 9 t DW ha⁻¹ year⁻¹.
327 In the present study, *Azolla* was harvested every week, and a minimum of 100 g m⁻² was
328 maintained in culture. As suggested by Brouwer et al. (2018), regular harvests of *Azolla* can
329 be used to maintain cultures in a linear growth phase and to obtain predictable and high
330 biomass yields. Our results confirm that the biomass production of *Azolla* depends on
331 fertilizer concentrations and presumably by P concentrations because this nutrient is the most
332 limiting in *Azolla* culture (Subudhi and Watanabe, 1981; Kushari and Watanabe, 1991;
333 Temmink et al., 2018). Although production varied with environmental conditions (light and
334 temperature), productivity remained high (median values: 44, 73 and 79 g FW m⁻² d⁻¹ for
335 *Azolla* maintained under a shade net, clear plastic or exposed to direct sunlight, respectively)

336 when plants were cultivated at high fertilizer concentrations (addition of 16, 10 and 7.5 μmol
337 L^{-1} of N, P and K respectively), regardless of the environmental conditions.

338 Here, we used an inorganic multi-nutrient fertilizer rich in P (NPK = 1:2:1, see Table S1).
339 Thus, other important nutrients for *Azolla*, such as iron (Fe), which may be limiting under
340 certain conditions and cause chlorosis (Temmink et al., 2018), were already incorporated in
341 the fertilizer. Although no visible evidence of Fe deficiency has been observed, it is possible
342 that other trace elements like Co, Cu, Mn, Mn and Zn required for *Azolla* growth, particularly
343 in relation with its nitrogen fixation metabolism (Sadeghi et al., 2013) might have been
344 limiting in the experimental condition without fertilizer. The use of multi-nutrient fertilizers
345 mitigated the risk of trace element deficiency. Overall, *Azolla* cultivated under direct sunlight
346 and with a fertilization level equivalent to the “high” condition may presumably generate 6.9
347 ± 2.2 t protein ha^{-1} year $^{-1}$, about three-fold higher than soybean (*Glycine max*) without arable
348 land use (Brouwer et al., 2018).

349 The morphology and chemical composition of *A. filiculoides* also changed in response to
350 different experimental treatments. We observed that plants from the control were smaller and
351 more fragile than those from the intermediate and high fertilizer treatments. Furthermore,
352 control plants turned brownish whereas plants from treatments “low” and “high” stayed
353 green. The chemical composition analyses indicated that P and K concentrations in plants
354 increased with fertilizer concentrations. Similar results were observed for crude protein (from
355 14 to 23% of DW) and energy content (from 8.7 to 10.9 MJ kg^{-1} FW) while the fibre content
356 decreased from 21 to 15% of DW. These findings corroborate observations of Subudhi and
357 Watanabe (1981) on *A. pinnata* who found increased of N (from 2.78 to 4.53 % of DW) and P
358 (from 0.03 to 0.11 % of DW) cultivated with 0, 1 and 2 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of P additions. All together,
359 these results indicate that visual aspect of *Azolla* (size and colour) can be used as an indicator
360 of its health and its nutritional quality.

361 Previous studies have shown that the amino-acid profile of *Azolla* is suitable for fish feed (see
362 for review: Feedipedia, 2018). Given that the fibre content in *Azolla* cultivated under direct
363 sunlight was the lowest that we measured (13% of DW), we also suggest that the
364 recommended culture conditions can also improve the digestibility of *Azolla* for fish (Maina
365 et al., 2002). However, culture conditions (CO₂ concentrations) also affected the total
366 polyphenol content of *Azolla*, thereby affecting digestibility (Browner et al. 2018). In
367 addition, plant-based feed may contain other anti-nutritional factors such as anti-vitamins,
368 phytic acid protease inhibitors and tannins (Dersjant-Li, 2002; Drew et al., 2007). Such
369 factors were not considered in our study and more research is needed to confirm the effects of
370 the culture conditions on the concentrations of these compounds in *Azolla*.

371 Regarding the impacts of the golden apple snail on *Azolla* production, we found that snails
372 were able to ingest daily up to 38% of their body weight (FW) of *Azolla*, with a preference for
373 *Azolla* cultivated in high fertilization level. These results highlight the huge negative impact
374 of the presence of the golden apple snail on *Azolla* productivity. The average biomass of *P.*
375 *canaliculata* has been estimated at 0.07 kg m⁻² (i.e. approx. 3-4 adult individuals m⁻²) in
376 Javanese aquaculture ponds (Pouil et al., 2019) which is in accordance with density observed
377 in Philippines rice paddies (i.e. 1-5 individuals m⁻², Cowie, 2002) although higher densities up
378 to 150 individuals m⁻² have been reported (Halwart, 1994; Schnorbach, 1995). Based on this
379 finding, the yield loss of *Azolla* due to ingestion by snails can reach about 12.3 t DW ha⁻¹
380 year⁻¹ (i.e. 35% of the estimated average yield, see Section 3.2). Further large-scale
381 investigations are needed to confirm our findings.

382 Based on our observations, even maintaining *Azolla* in optimal conditions for production
383 (direct sunlight and addition of fertilizer with high P concentration), does not overcome the
384 risk of drastic drops in yields or even total loss of *Azolla* due to snails. The golden apple snail
385 is able to select among macrophytes and prefers macrophytes species with high N and Ca

386 contents and low C:N ratios (Zhao et al., 2012). These facts may explain the preference of
387 snails for *Azolla* cultivated in optimal culture conditions (i.e. with the highest nutritional
388 content). Considering the high risk represented by snails in the mass culture of *Azolla* in
389 aquaculture ponds, we recommend (1) cultivating *Azolla* in snail-free ponds, (2) installing
390 protections (e.g. wire-mesh grills; Cowie, 2002) in association to snail predator fish such as
391 common carp (Sin, 2006) to prevent access of snails to ponds and/or (3) regularly trapping
392 snails (e.g. using baited traps), which are traditionally used for other purposes, such as feeding
393 poultry or certain fish (Cowie, 2002).

394 The present study demonstrates some important requirements for the mass production of
395 *Azolla* in aquaculture ponds. This aquatic plant crop is potentially useful to improve
396 sustainability of tropical pond aquaculture requiring a limited production surface with only
397 few inputs and no nitrogen fertilizer. Potential yields are very promising compared to
398 terrestrial crops. However, several practices must be optimised, especially regarding
399 fertilization and risk of grazing by snails to maintain yields over time and sustain a mass
400 production.

401

402 **Acknowledgements**

403 We thank the three anonymous reviewers for their very useful comments. This publication is
404 a production of the COFASP ERA-NET project “IMTA-EFFECT” funded by the European
405 Union and French National Research Agency. The authors acknowledge Mr. Mamat Maco,
406 fish farmer from the village of Babakan, for sharing his experience and for his assistance
407 throughout the duration of the observations. Authors also thank laboratory staff from the IPB
408 (Department of Aquaculture, Bogor) and SIG (Saraswanti Indo Genetech, Bogor) laboratories
409 who carried out the nutrient and chlorophyll analysis. This is publication ISEM XXXX-XXX.

410

411 **Conflict of Interest and Ethical statement**

412 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. This article does not contain any
413 studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

414

415 **References**

416 Abdel-Tawwab, M. 2008. The preference of the omnivorous–macrophagous, *Tilapia zillii*
417 (Gervais), to consume a natural free-floating fern, *Azolla pinnata*. J. World Aquacult.
418 Soc. 39(1), 104-112. doi:10.1111/j.1749-7345.2007.00131.x

419 Abduh, M.Y., Ono, J.M., Khairani, M., Manurung, R. 2017. The influence of light intensity
420 on the protein content of *Azolla microphylla* and pre-treatment with *Saccharomyces*
421 *cerevisiae* to increase protein recovery. J. Appl. Sci. Res. 13(8), 16-23.

422 APHA, 2005. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water (21st ed.).
423 American Public Health Association, Washington, DC.

424 Arnon, D.I., 1949. Copper enzymes in isolated chloroplasts. Polyphenoloxidase in *Beta*
425 *vulgaris*. Plant physiol. 24(1), 1-15. doi:10.1104/pp.24.1.1

426 Brouwer, P., Bräutigam, A., Buijs, V.A., Tazelaar, A.O., van der Werf, A., Schlüter, U.,
427 Reichart, G.J., Bolger, A., Usadel, B., Weber, A.P., Schluepmann, H., 2017. Metabolic
428 adaptation, a specialized leaf organ structure and vascular responses to diurnal N₂
429 fixation by *Nostoc azollae* sustain the astonishing productivity of azolla ferns without
430 nitrogen fertilizer. Front. Plant Sci. 8, 442. doi:10.3389/fpls.2017.00442

431 Brouwer, P., Bräutigam, A., Külahoglu C., Tazelaar, A.O.E., Kurz, S., Nierop, K.G.J., van der
432 Werf, A., Weber, A.P.M, Schluepmann, H., 2014. Azolla domestication towards a
433 biobased economy? New Phytol. 202(3), 1069-1082. doi:10.1111/nph.12708

434 Brouwer, P., Schluepmann, H., Nierop, K.G., Elderson, J., Bijl, P.K. van der Meer, I., de
435 Visser, W., Reichart, G.J., Smeekens, S., van der Werf, A., 2018. Growing *Azolla* to

436 produce sustainable protein feed: the effect of differing species and CO₂ concentrations
437 on biomass productivity and chemical composition. J. Sci. Food Agric. 98, 4759-4768.
438 doi:10.1002/jsfa.9016

439 Carlsson, N.O.L., Brönmark, C., 2006. Size-dependent effects of an invasive herbivorous
440 snail (*Pomacea canaliculata*) on macrophytes and periphyton in Asian wetlands.
441 Freshwater Biol. 51(4): 695-704. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2427.2006.01523.x

442 Cary, P.R., Weerts, P.G.J., 1992. Growth and nutrient composition of *Azolla pinnata* R.
443 Brown and *Azolla filiculoides* Lamarck as affected by water temperature, nitrogen and
444 phosphorus supply, light intensity and pH. Aquat. Bot. 43, 163-180. doi:10.1016/0304-
445 3770(92)90041-G

446 Cowie, R.H., 2002. Apple snails (Ampullariidae) as agricultural pests: their biology, impacts
447 and management. In: Barker, G.M. (Eds.), Molluscs as Crop Pests. CABI Publishing,
448 New York, USA, pp. 145-192.

449 Cruz, C., Silva, A.F., Venturini, F.P., Garlich, N., Pitelli, R.L.C.M., Pitelli, R.A., 2015. Food
450 preference and consumption of aquatic macrophytes submerged by snail *Pomacea*
451 *canaliculata*. Planta Daninha 33(3), 433-439. doi:10.1590/S0100-83582015000300006

452 Cunniff, P., 1999. Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International (16th ed.). Association
453 of Official Agricultural Chemists International, Washington, DC.

454 Das, M., Rahim, F.I., Hossain, M.A., 2018. Evaluation of fresh *Azolla pinnata* as a low-cost
455 supplemental feed for Thai silver barb *Barbonymus gonionotus*. Fishes 3(1), 15.
456 doi:10.3390/fishes3010015

457 Datta, S.N., 2011. Culture of *Azolla* and its efficacy in diet of *Labeo rohita*. Aquaculture 310,
458 376-379. doi:10.1016/j.aquaculture.2010.11.008

459 Dersjant-Li, Y., 2002. The use of soy protein in aquafeeds. In : Cruz-Suárez, L.E., Ricque-
460 Marie, D., Tapia-Salazar, M., Gaxiola-Cortés, M. G., Simoes, N. (Eds.), Avances en

461 Nutrición Acuícola. Memorias del VI Simposium Internacional de Nutrición Acuícola,
462 Cancun, Mexico, pp. 554-558.

463 Drew, M.D., Borgeson, T.L., Thiessen, D.L., 2007. A review of processing of feed
464 ingredients to enhance diet digestibility in finfish. *Anim. Feed Sci. Technol.* 138, 118-
465 136. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2007.06.019

466 Feedipedia, 2018. Feedipedia: an on-line encyclopedia of animal feeds.
467 <https://www.feedipedia.org/>

468 Gangadhar, B., Sridhar, N., Saurabh, S., Raghavendra, C.H., Hemaprasanth, K.P., Raghunath,
469 M.R., Jayasankar, P., 2015. Effect of *Azolla*-incorporated diets on the growth and
470 survival of *Labeo fimbriatus* during fry-to-fingerling rearing. *Cogent Food Agric.* 1,
471 1055539. doi:10.1080/23311932.2015.1055539

472 Green, B.W., Boyd, C.E., 1995. Chemical budgets for organically fertilized fish ponds in the
473 dry tropics. *J. World Aquacult. Soc.* 26(3), 284-296. doi:10.1111/j.1749-
474 7345.1995.tb00257.x

475 Halwart, M., 1994. The golden apple snail *Pomacea canaliculata* in Asian rice farming
476 systems: present impact and future threat. *Int. J. Pest Manag.* 40, 199-206.
477 doi:10.1080/09670879409371882

478 Hasan, M.R., Chakrabarti, R. 2009. Use of Algae and Aquatic Macrophytes as Feed in Small-
479 Scale Aquaculture. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Roma,
480 Italy.

481 Hung, N.V.P., Watanabe, S., Ishikawa, S., Ohtake, N., Sueyoshi, K., Sato, T., Ishii, S.,
482 Fujimaki, S., Ohyama, T., 2013. Quantitative analysis of the initial transport of fixed
483 nitrogen in nodulated soybean plants using ¹⁵N as a tracer. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 59(6),
484 888–895. doi:10.1080/00380768.2013.838742

485 Janes, R., 1998. Growth and survival of *Azolla filiculoides* in Britain.1. Vegetative

486 reproduction. *New Phytol.* 138(2), 367-376. doi:10.1046/j.1469-8137.1998.00114.x

487 Kahindi, J.H.P., Woomeer, P., George, T., de Souza Moreira, F.M., Karanja, N.K., Giller, K.
488 E., 1997. Agricultural intensification, soil biodiversity and ecosystem functions in the
489 tropics: the role of nitrogen-fixing bacteria. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 6, 55-76.
490 doi:10.1016/S0929-1393(96)00151-5

491 Kitoh, S., Shiomi, N., 1991. Effect of mineral nutrients and combined nitrogen sources in the
492 medium on growth and nitrogen fixation of the *Azolla-Anabaena* association. *Soil Sci.*
493 *Plant Nutr.* 37(3), 419-426. doi:10.1080/00380768.1991.10415054

494 Kollah, B., Patra, A.K., Mohanty, S.R., 2016. Aquatic *Azolla microphylla*: a perspective
495 paradigm for sustainable agriculture, environment and global climate change. *Environ.*
496 *Sci. Pollut. Res.* 23, 4358-4369. doi:10.1007/s11356-015-5857-9

497 Kotilainen, T., Robson, T.M., Hernández, R., 2018. Light quality characterization under
498 climate screens and shade nets for controlled-environment agriculture. *PloS One*, 13(6),
499 e0199628. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0199628

500 Kushari, D.P., Watanabe, I., 1991. Differential responses of *Azolla* to phosphorus deficiency.
501 *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 37(2), 271-282. doi:10.1080/00380768.1991.10415037

502 Lowe, S., Browne, M., Boudjelas, S., De Poorter, M., 2000. 100 of the World's Worst
503 Invasive Alien Species A Selection from the Global Invasive Species Database.
504 International Union for Conservation of Nature, Auckland, New Zealand.

505 Maina, J.G., Beames, R.M., Higgs, D., Mbugua, P.N., Iwama, G., Kisia, S.M., 2002.
506 Digestibility and feeding value of some feed ingredients fed to tilapia *Oreochromis*
507 *niloticus* (L.). *Aquac. Res.* 33, 853-862. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2109.2002.00725.x

508 Mosha, S.S., 2018. A review on significance of *Azolla* meal as a protein plant source in
509 finfish culture. *J. Aquac. Res. Dev.* 9, 544. doi:10.4172/2155-9546.1000544

510 Pabby, A., Prasanna, R., Singh, P.K., 2003. *Azolla-Anabaena* symbiosis- from traditional

511 agriculture to biotechnology. Indian J. Biotechnol. 2, 26-37.

512 Pabby, A., Prasanna, R., Singh, P.K., 2004. Biological significance of *Azolla* and its
513 utilization in agriculture. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. India Sect. B Biol. Sci. 70, 299-333.

514 Pengseng, P., Boyd, C.E., 2011. Assessment of fertilizer application intervals for giant
515 gourami (*Osphronemus goramy* Lacepede) in ponds. Walailak J. Sci. Tech. 8(1), 33-40.

516 Pouil, S., Samsudin, R., Slembrouck, J., Sihabuddin, A., Sundari, G., Khazaidan, K.,
517 Kristanto, A.H., Pantjara, B., Caruso, D., 2019. Nutrient budgets in a small-scale
518 freshwater fish pond system in Indonesia. Aquaculture 504, 267-274.
519 doi:10.1016/j.aquaculture.2019.01.067

520 R Development Core Team, 2016. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R
521 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

522 Sadeghi, R., Zarkami, R., Sabetraftar, K., Van Damme, P., 2013. A review of some ecological
523 factors affecting the growth of *Azolla* spp. Caspian J. Environ. Sci. 11(1), 65-76.

524 Schnorbach, H.-J., 1995. The golden apple snail (*Pomacea canaliculata* Lamarck), an
525 increasingly important pest in rice, and methods of control with Bayluscid.
526 Pflanzenschutz-Nachrichten Bayer 48, 313-346.

527 Sherief, P.M., James, T., 1994. Nutritive value of the water fern *Azolla* for fish. Fish. Chimes
528 14, 14. doi:10.3382/ps.0570378

529 Siegel S., Castellan N.J., 1988. Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (2nd ed.).
530 McGraw-Hill, N-Y, London.

531 Sin, T.S., 2006. Evaluation of different species of fish for biological control of golden apple
532 snail *Pomacea canaliculata* (Lamarck) in rice. Crop Prot. 25(9), 1004-1012.
533 doi:10.1016/j.cropro.2006.01.012

534 Sithara, K., Kamalaveni, K., 2008. Formulation of low-cost feed using *Azolla* as a protein
535 supplement and its influence on feed utilization in fishes. Current Biotica 2, 212-219.

536 Slembrouck, J., Samsudin, R., Pantjara, B., Sihabuddin, A., Legendre, M., Caruso, D., 2018.
537 Choosing floating macrophytes for ecological intensification of small-scale fish farming
538 in tropical areas: a methodological approach. *Aquat. Living Resour.* 31, 1-9.
539 doi:10.1051/alr/2018017

540 Subudhi, B.P.R., Watanabe, I., 1981. Differential phosphorus requirements of *Azolla* species
541 and strains in phosphorus-limited continuous culture. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 27(2), 237-
542 247. doi:10.1080/00380768.1981.10431275

543 Temmink, R.J.M., Harpenslager, S.F., Smolders, A.J.P., van Dijk, G., Peters R.C.J.K.,
544 Lamers L.P.M., van Kempen, M.M.L., 2018. *Azolla* along a phosphorus gradient:
545 biphasic growth response linked to diazotroph traits and phosphorus-induced iron
546 chlorosis. *Sci. Rep.* 8, 4451. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-22760-5

547 Thimijan, R.W., Heins, R. D., 1982. Photometric, radiometric, and quantum light units of
548 measure: a review of procedures for interconversion. *HortScience* 18, 818-822.

549 Uheda, E., Kitoh, S., Shiomi, N., 1999. Response of six *Azolla* species to transient high
550 temperature stress. *Aquat. Bot.* 64, 87-92. doi:10.1016/S0304-3770(99)00002-9

551 Wagner, G.M., 1997. *Azolla*: A review of its biology and utilization. *Bot. Rev.* 63, 1-26.

552 Watanabe, I., 1982. *Azolla-Anabaena* symbiosis - its physiology and use in tropical
553 agriculture. In: Dommergues, Y.R., Diem, H.G. (Eds), *Microbiology of Tropical Soils*
554 *and Plant Productivity*. Martinus Nijhoff/Dr. W. Junk Publishers, The Hague, Boston,
555 London.

556 Zhao, B., Dai, W., Zhang, J., Cheng, C., Li, G., 2012. Characteristics of feeding preference
557 and nutrients utilization of golden apple snail (*Pomacea canaliculata*) on macrophytes
558 in paddy fields. *Adv. J. Food Sci. Technol.* 4(5), 316-321.

559 **Captions to figures**

560

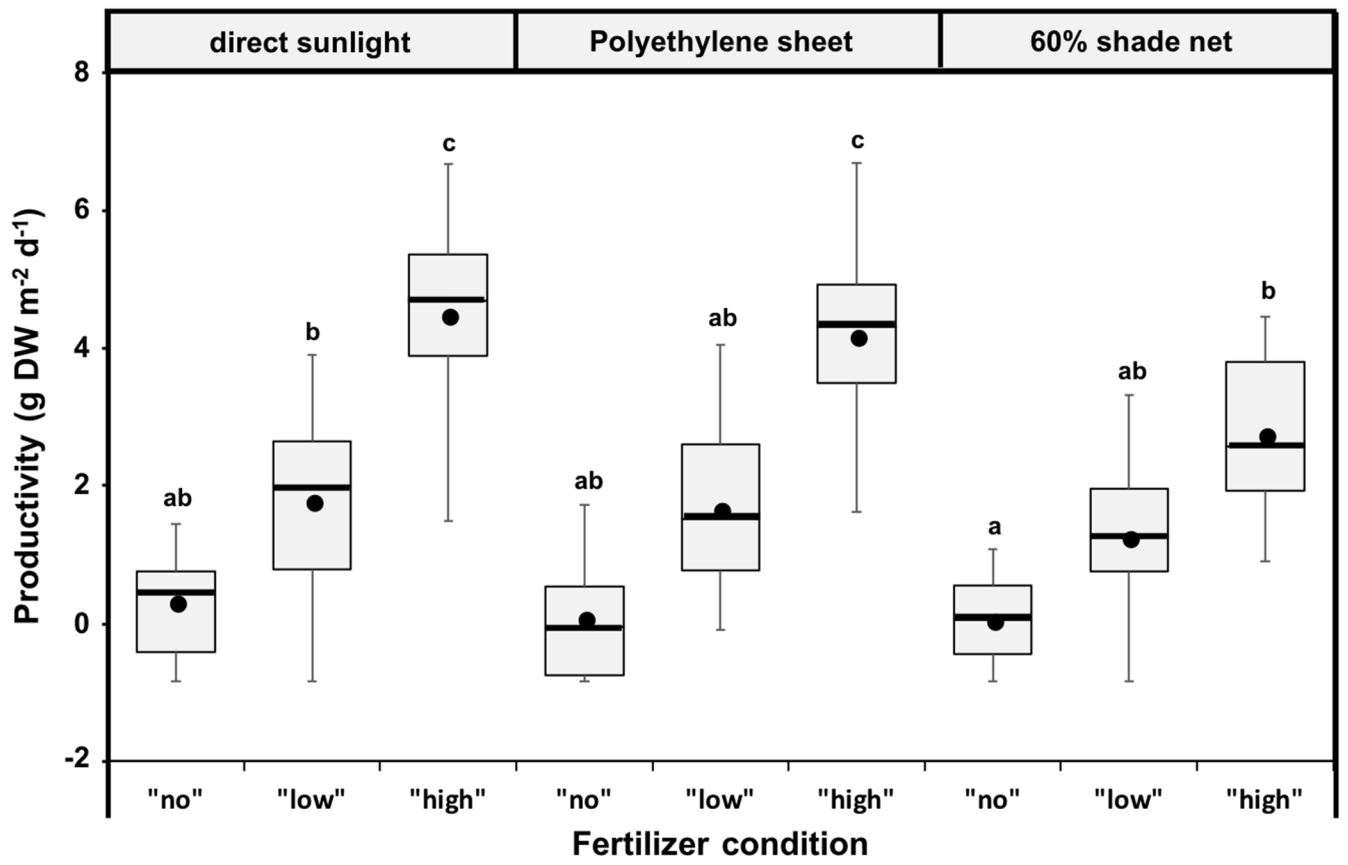
561 Figure 1. Productivity of *Azolla* (g FW m⁻² d⁻¹, n = 3 replicates x 6 weeks = 18 per treatment)
562 cultivated at the three fertilization levels (treatments “no”, “low” and “high”) under three
563 shading conditions: direct sunlight, polyethylene sheet and 60% shade net. Limits of the box
564 indicate the first and the third quartiles. Whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum
565 values, black lines and black dots indicate the median and mean values respectively. Different
566 letters denote significant differences.

567

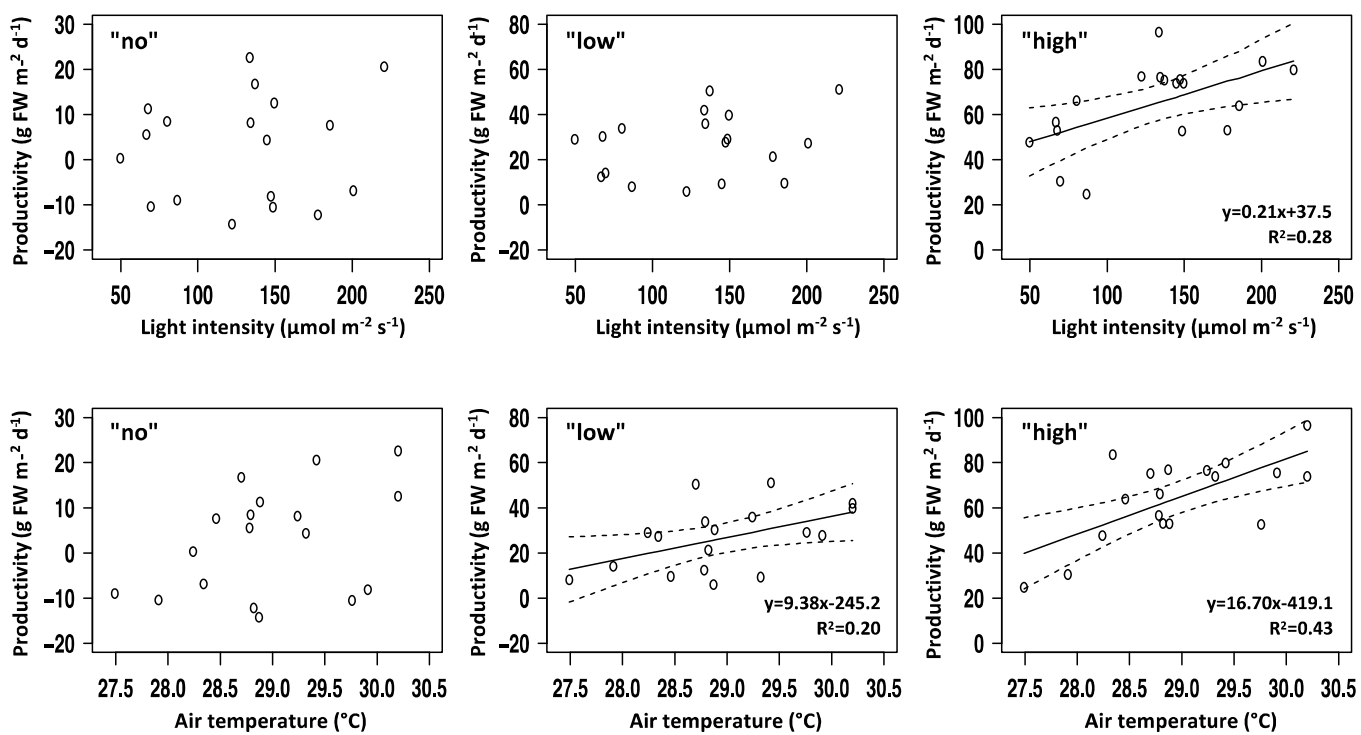
568 Figure 2. Relationships between light intensity (μmol m⁻² s⁻¹), air temperature (°C) and
569 average productivity (g FW m⁻² d⁻¹) of *Azolla* cultivated at the three fertilization levels
570 (treatments “no”, “low” and “high”) under three shading conditions: direct sunlight,
571 polyethylene sheet and 60% shade net. For light intensity and air temperature, data are the
572 average values recorded during the 7 d before harvest. Regression lines are shown in black
573 and the dotted lines indicate the upper and lower 95% confidence levels. Equations,
574 determination coefficients (R²) and significance (p-values) are also given.

575

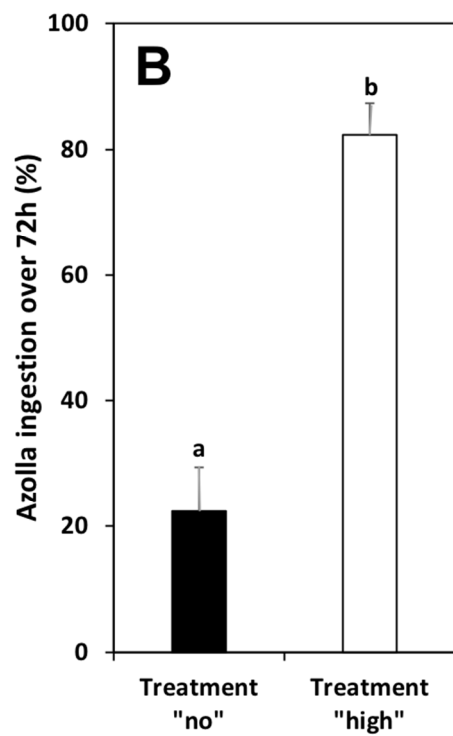
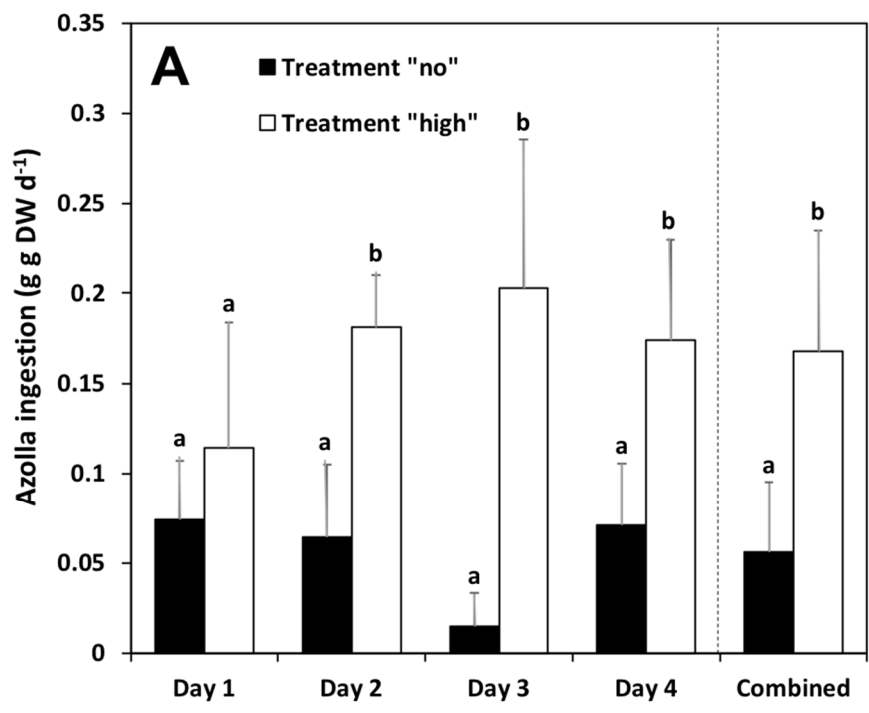
576 Figure 3. Daily ingestion (g g⁻¹ DW d⁻¹, n = 6 per day) of fresh *Azolla* cultivated at
577 fertilization levels (treatments “no” and “high”) by the golden apple snail (A) and feed
578 preference (expressed as percentage of ingestion over 72 h, n = 3) between the two
579 fertilization levels N0 and N2 (B). Data are means ± SD. Letters denote significant
580 differences.



581 Figure 1



582 Figure 2



583 Figure 3

584 Table 1. Summary of the environmental conditions measured throughout the experiment in
 585 the three shading conditions (n = 99 for discrete measurements): direct sunlight, polyethylene
 586 sheet and 60% shade net. Data are means \pm SD. Letters denote significant differences.

Parameters	Shading condition		
	direct sunlight	polyethylene sheet	60% shade net
Continuous records (data loggers)			
Diurnal light intensity ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	359 \pm 403 ^a	324 \pm 288 ^b	153 \pm 133 ^c
Atmospheric temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	33.25 \pm 4.78 ^a	34.66 \pm 5.19 ^b	31.84 \pm 4.03 ^c
Water temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	29.17 \pm 2.65 ^a	29.35 \pm 2.35 ^b	28.72 \pm 1.94 ^c
Discrete measurements (performed between 08:00 and 10:00 AM)			
pH	7.09 \pm 0.19 ^a	7.05 \pm 0.20 ^{ab}	6.99 \pm 0.22 ^b
DO (mg L^{-1})	5.95 \pm 1.02 ^a	5.62 \pm 0.65 ^b	5.22 \pm 0.59 ^b
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-2}$)	74.19 \pm 10.05 ^a	74.48 \pm 10.49 ^a	74.62 \pm 10.29 ^a
TDS (mg L^{-1})	37.08 \pm 5.03 ^a	37.17 \pm 5.18 ^a	37.31 \pm 5.15 ^a

587

588 Table 2. Chemical composition of *Azolla* (n = 1 per experimental treatment) cultivated at the
 589 three fertilization levels (treatments “no”, “low” and “high”) under three shading conditions:
 590 direct sunlight, polyethylene sheet and 60% shade net. Analysis were performed after the 12-d
 591 acclimation period.

	Shading conditions								
	direct sunlight			polyethylene sheet			60% shade net		
Fertilizer condition	“no”	“low”	“high”	“no”	“low”	“high”	“no”	“low”	“high”
Proximate									
Humidity (% FW)	90.41	90.27	89.17	89.68	88.48	87.74	92.66	90.58	89.76
Ash (% DW)	25.00	24.03	24.00	29.46	29.9	25.77	23.61	29.58	26.98
Fibre (% DW)	20.28	16.16	13.00	20.02	15.71	15.02	21.45	18.75	15.06
Lipid (% DW)	1.10	1.08	1.57	0.99	1.27	1.65	0.95	1.62	1.41
NFE* (% DW)	39.96	43.07	38.50	35.44	36.45	35.72	38.49	31.94	34.95
Protein (% DW)	13.66	15.66	22.93	14.09	16.67	21.84	15.50	18.11	21.60
Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹ FW)	9.39	10.24	10.87	8.66	9.37	10.25	9.39	8.99	10.00
Chlorophyll and nutrients									
Chlorophyll (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	290	370	430	350	370	460	390	410	460
K (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	683.7	817.9	947.5	616.2	692.1	949.4	618.5	683.2	1112.8
P (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	121.4	169.3	318.5	129.0	168.8	280.6	131.3	153.7	330.9

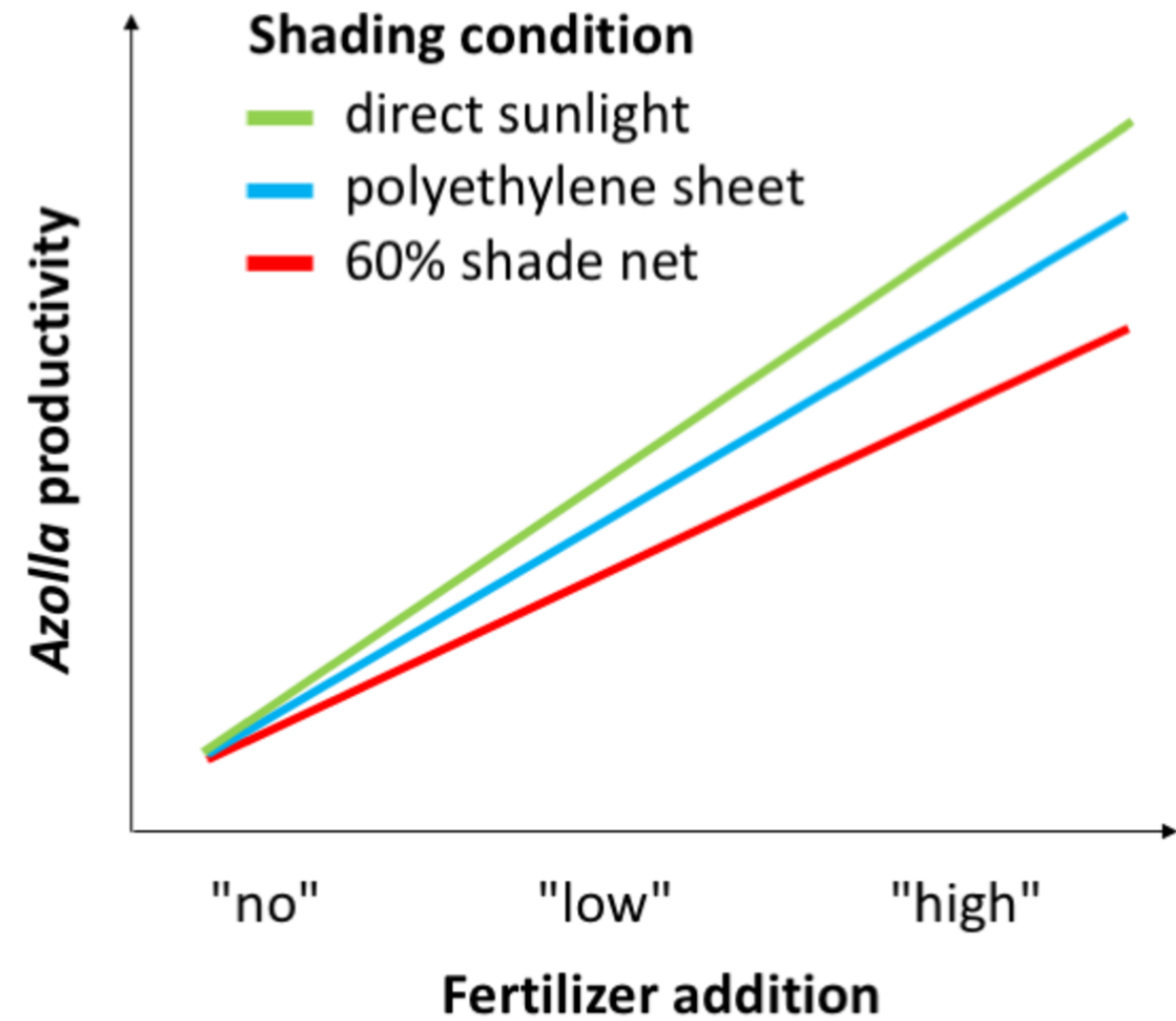
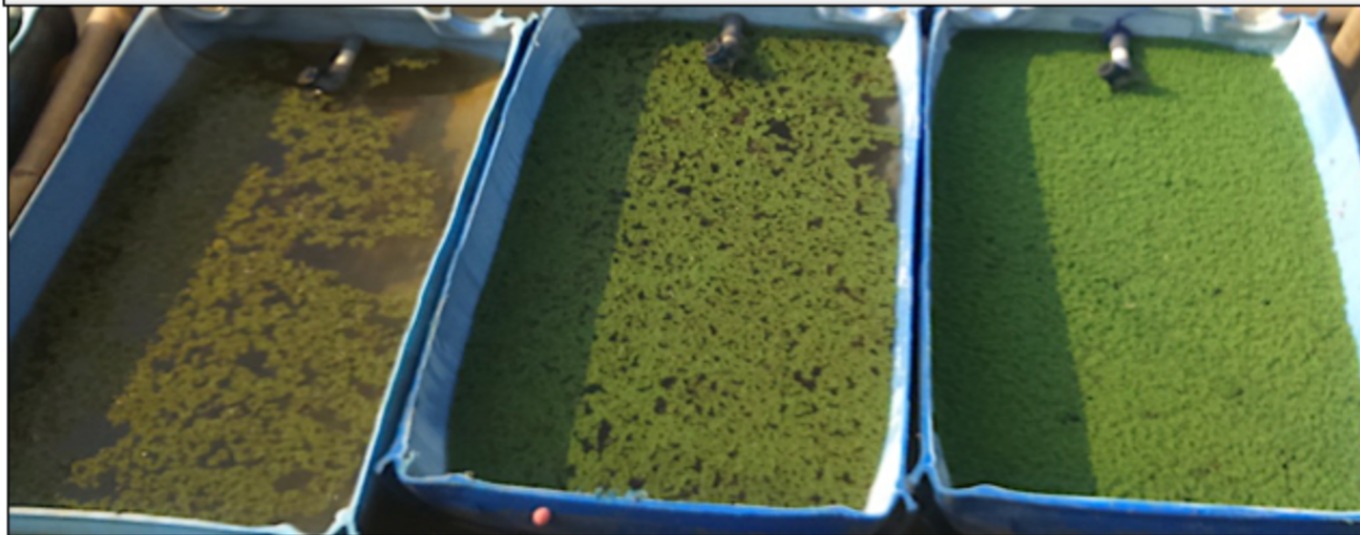
592 * Nitrogen Free Extract.

Experiment 1

3 shading conditions



3 fertilizer levels



Experiment 2

Grazing by the snail *Pomacea canaliculata*

