

1 **The need of decoding life for taking care of biodiversity and the sustainable**
2 **use of nature in the Anthropocene – a Faroese perspective**

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21 **Keywords**

22 Biodiversity; citizen science; conservation; commercial exploitation; ERGA; European
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24 sustainability.

25 **Abstract**

26 Biodiversity is under pressure, mainly due to anthropocentric activities and climate change.
27 At the international policy level, it is now recognised that genetic diversity is an important
28 part of biodiversity. The availability of high-quality reference genomes gives the best basis
29 for using genetics and genetic diversity towards the global aims of (i) protection of species,
30 biodiversity, and nature, and (ii) in management of biodiversity for achieving sustainable
31 harvesting of nature. Protecting biodiversity is a global responsibility, also resting on small
32 nations, like the Faroe Islands. Being in the middle of the North Atlantic Ocean and having
33 large fisheries activity, the nation has a particular responsibility towards maritime matters.
34 We here provide the reasoning behind Genome Atlas of Faroese Ecology (Gen@FarE), a
35 project based on our participation in the European Reference Genome Atlas consortium
36 (ERGA). Gen@FarE has three major aims: (i) To acquire high-quality genomes of all
37 eukaryotic species in the Faroe Islands and Faroese waters. (ii) To establish population
38 genetics for species of commercial or ecological interest. (iii) To establish an information
39 databank for all Faroese species, combined with a citizen science registration database,
40 making it possible for the public to participate in acquiring and maintaining the overview of
41 Faroese species in both terrestrial and marine environments. Altogether, we believe that this
42 will enhance the society's interest in and awareness of biodiversity, thereby protecting the
43 foundations of our lives. Furthermore, the combination of a wide and highly competent
44 ERGA umbrella and more targeted national projects will help fulfilling the formal and moral
45 responsibilities that all nations, also those of limited resources, have in protecting biodiversity
46 and achieving sustainability in harvesting from nature.

47 **Background**

48 The Faroe Islands, and all nations in the world, live from nature. Mankind gets its food and
49 raw materials from nature, directly or indirectly. We are now affecting the Earth so heavily
50 and fundamentally that it is proposed to call the present time the Anthropocene - the
51 geological epoch of human influence [1].

52

53 A well-functioning nature is dependent on intact ecosystems and food webs, which again are
54 intimately linked with biodiversity. The term "biodiversity" includes the full set of all life
55 forms, their variations and functions, and their community structures in the different habitats
56 and ecosystems [2]. The total biodiversity is a composite of several "sub"-diversities, and
57 among them, genetic diversity (additionally, and subject to the definition of choice, diversity
58 in species, ecosystems, functions, and evolution are often included) [2, 3]. It may well be
59 argued that genetic diversity is the foundation for each of the "sub"-diversities, and thereby
60 also the total biodiversity. Biodiversity is central in maintaining ecosystems both locally and
61 globally. However, many species, ecosystems, and even global biodiversity are today
62 threatened by overexploitation, fragmentation of nature, loss of habitats, and climate change
63 [4]. Thus, all aspects of conservation, like protection of species and their genetic diversity,
64 and the protection of the areas and resources that the species depend on, need to be
65 considered to preserve biodiversity, ecosystems and nature as a whole, and at the same time
66 achieve sustainable exploitation to ensure that humans can live in a healthy world in the
67 future [2].

68

69 It is of utmost importance that we, as the main caretaker of the Earth, are aware of the
70 biodiversity and the existing genetic diversity. Within each single species, and within each
71 single individual, the material of inheritance, the genome, is the basis and the main frame for
72 the present diversity and carrying the diversity forward to the future generations. It is also
73 recognized that genetic diversity within a species is pivotal for adaptation in a changing
74 world, which is even more important in times of climate change. Thus, knowing the genome
75 sequences from as many species as possible is central in the understanding and knowledge of
76 the full span of biodiversity. With the strong influence that humans have on the ecosystems
77 and the Earth, we will only be able to maintain the diversity and exploit it in a sustainable
78 way by being aware of it. It is difficult or impossible to take care of the things we do not
79 know. The sustainable utilisation and management of biological resources require a serious

80 effort to establish current status (which is not necessarily the same as the historical status)
81 and monitor future changes of biodiversity in diverse environments.

82

83 We should be fully aware that we presently do not know all species, as new species are
84 discovered every year, even in well-explored areas like Europe [5]. The marine environments
85 are likely to hide many unknown species [6]. Furthermore, we have limited biological
86 knowledge of many of the species we do know, even among species that are commercially
87 exploited, *e.g.*, their full geographical distribution, subpopulations, population dynamics,
88 interactions with other species, the influences of climate change or human harvesting, etc.

89

90 In international policy, **sustainability** and **biodiversity** seriously entered the stage through
91 the UN report "Our Common Future" from 1987 [7] and the Convention on Biological
92 Diversity (CBD) from 1992 [8]. Article 1 of CBD states that "*The objectives ... are... the*
93 *conservation of biological diversity, (and) the sustainable use of its components...*" [8]. The
94 balance of conservation and sustainable use of nature are repeated in several of the
95 subsequent articles of CBD. All parties of the CBD, including the Faroe Islands (through the
96 Kingdom of Denmark), commit to these objectives. CBD is the basis for additional
97 international agreements and protocols, some of which the Faroe Islands have not joined (like
98 the Nagoya protocol and the Aarhus convention). The Kunming-Montreal global diversity
99 framework from December 2022, better known as UN CBD Conference of Parties 15
100 (COP15) [9], underlined the importance of genetics and genetic diversity in biodiversity and
101 sustainability, as reflected in their direct mentioning in two of the four overarching goals:

- 102 • *The **genetic diversity** within populations of wild and domesticated species is*
103 *maintained, safeguarding their adaptive potential.*
- 104 • *The monetary and non-monetary benefits for the utilization of **genetic** resources ...*
105 *are shared fairly and equitably ...*

106 This is also repeated in some of the corresponding 23 targets for the Kunming-Montreal
107 framework:

- 108 • *Target 4: Ensure urgent management actions, to halt human induced extinction of*
109 *known threatened species and for the recovery and conservation of species, in*
110 *particular threatened species, to significantly reduce extinction risk, as well as to*
111 *maintain and restore the **genetic diversity** within and between populations of native,*
112 *wild and domesticated species....*

- 113 • *Target 13: Take effective legal, policy, administrative and capacity-building measures*
114 *at all levels, as appropriate, to ensure the fair and equitable sharing of benefits that*
115 *arise from the utilization of **genetic** resources...*
- 116 • *Target 21: Ensure that the best available data, information and knowledge (this*
117 *undoubtedly include genetic data, information and knowledge; authors' comments),*
118 *are accessible to decision makers, practitioners and the public to guide effective and*
119 *equitable governance, integrated and participatory management of biodiversity, and*
120 *to strengthen communication, awareness-raising, education, monitoring, research*
121 *and knowledge management...*

122

123 Indirectly, having the species' genome assemblies and knowing the genetic diversities will
124 wholeheartedly support the other COP15 overarching goals and targets for the Kunming-
125 Montreal framework that involve sustainability and sustainable management, and the
126 integration of biodiversity into policies, planning and regulations, including the protection of
127 species, habitats, ecosystems and areas, etc. The four overarching goals and the 23 more
128 specified targets can be seen as an extension, elaboration and specification from previous
129 international agreements and protocols. We will here have a main focus on how genomes and
130 the knowledge of genetic diversity can help us in protecting biodiversity and maintaining
131 sustainability to reach different aims and potentials.

132

133 **Genome Atlas of Faroese Ecology (Gen@FarE)**

134 Knowledge of the full genome of each species and the genetic diversity within each species,
135 provide powerful tools to monitor, and through that preserve and manage biodiversity [2, 10].
136 This knowledge can be used in different ways and for different purposes. On the very
137 practical and applied side, management of commercially exploited resources and protection
138 of species and/or habitats, can be much improved by such tools. It will also give us better
139 tools to survey the environment, whether it is for invasive species or population estimates.
140 Equally important, such knowledge is valuable for understanding the diversity of life in all its
141 aspects and functions, and it will undoubtedly initiate further questions and give new avenues
142 to explore (see section *Incidental insights*). But above all, we will understand and know life
143 on Earth in a much more detailed way, helping us to protect and maintain a healthy Earth for
144 mankind and all its fellow beings.

145

146 National and regional initiatives are taking place both in Europe and globally by people and
147 institutions recognising the need for - and the potential of - such knowledge [11-15]. This is a
148 highly international task, where all nations need to contribute and collaborate. We all, as
149 individuals, as industry, as society, as nations, have responsibility for the future of the Earth
150 and its nature, and the politicians and governments must set the frames so this can become
151 possible to achieve. Realising the urgency and needs in protecting biodiversity, and that
152 genomics and genetics are essential tools in achieving this purpose, more than 700 European
153 scientists, some of the present authors among them [16], have gone together to form the
154 European Reference Genome Atlas project (ERGA) [11, 17] as a collaborative and
155 interdisciplinary network. Also small nations, like the Faroe Islands (1 400 km² and 54 000
156 inhabitants), should contribute to this effort, partly as a global and moral obligation, and
157 partly to ensure sustainability in its exploitation of biological resources in accordance with
158 CBD [8]. Utilising the ERGA network and its dedication to a decentralised and equitable
159 biodiversity genomics [18], the present authors have initiated the Genome Atlas of Faroese
160 Ecology (Gen@FarE), and we participate in the ERGA Pilot project [18]. Although being a
161 small nation, the Faroe Islands have a sizable economic zone (274 000 km²) in the middle of
162 the North Atlantic Ocean, and it has large fisheries activity. Thereby the nation has a
163 particular responsibility towards maritime matters. The authors represent Faroese institutions
164 with responsibilities for education, research, monitoring, and dissemination of knowledge
165 within Faroese and North Atlantic biology and biodiversity, and advising the authorities
166 about stock management and nature in general. We jointly see the advantage of increased
167 genomic and genetic knowledge for protecting biodiversity and achieving sustainability in the
168 region.

169

170 The Genome Atlas of Faroese Ecology has three major long-term aims:

- 171 • To establish high-quality genomes of all eukaryotic species in the Faroe Islands and
172 Faroese waters.
- 173 • To establish population genetics for all species that are commercially exploited or are
174 of ecological interest.
- 175 • To establish an information databank for all Faroese species, combined with a citizen
176 science registration database, making it possible for the public to participate in
177 acquiring and maintaining the overview of Faroese species in both terrestrial and
178 marine areas.

179

180 We expect that it will take many years, maybe decades, before having high-quality genome
181 assemblies from all species, despite the expected technological advances and the consorted
182 accumulation of relevant genomes and data from other countries. We are aware that other
183 projects may have more optimistic views on how fast such an aim will be achieved, but a
184 large upscaling of capacities is needed [12, 19]. The urgency of protection and maintaining
185 the biodiversity and ensuring sustainability in the harvesting of nature, requires that it is
186 worked on all three aims in parallel.

187

188 In the long-term process, there are many other direct and indirect aims, some of which we
189 may not yet be aware of, some that are general, and others that are associated with a
190 particular species. In particular, we would like to point out the close link to biomonitoring
191 using metabarcoding (see section *Biodiversity and conservation*), as the product from this
192 project will help closing the lacks and gaps in reference sequence databases due to absence of
193 species or genes, or intraspecies variability in marker genes.

194

195 **Biodiversity and conservation**

196 Of course, partly as a consequence of the CBD, each nation has an added moral responsibility
197 for diversity existing only (or mainly) within their national borders and maritime economical
198 zone. Although there are few known endemic species in the Faroe Islands, it has its share of
199 bird diversity with the world's largest colony of storm petrel (*Hydrobates pelagicus*), one of
200 the last remains of (claimed) wild type rock pigeon (*Columba livia*), and recognized
201 subspecies of several other birds (European starling, *Sturnus vulgaris faroensis*; Eurasian
202 wren, *Troglodytes troglodytes borealis*; common eider, *Somateria mollissima faeroensis*;
203 etc.) (see [20] for more information). However, we will in this paper not focus on this
204 particular part of biodiversity.

205

206 The Red List status is often an important part in decisions for "what to do" and "how to do" in
207 conservation and protection of species. The assessment of the Red List status is based on
208 population trends and some other parameters [21], some of which are not always easy to
209 assess for different reasons. One could imagine the inclusion of genetic diversity status into
210 this assessment, both as an independent parameter and as an indirect parameter for assessing
211 effective population size [22, 23]. It is well known that low effective population size
212 increases the rate of homozygosity. Runs of homozygosity have been used for estimating

213 historical bottlenecks for certain species [24-26]. It might be possible to take similar models
214 into use for practical conservation and protection purposes, like the national and regional Red
215 Lists. However, there is – perhaps surprisingly - no direct correlation of the Red List status
216 and runs of homozygosity for a limited set of mammals [26] (please note that there is
217 somewhat conflicting evidence regarding the correlation of the red list status and runs (or
218 degree) of homozygosity; see refs. in [26]). As hinted at [26], there could be several
219 explanations, like (i) the populations have not reached sufficiently low level to erode genetic
220 variation in the individuals, or (ii) that when the decline is rapid (as it is in many cases) and
221 without any particular genetic selection pressure, the relative degree of heterozygosity is
222 maintained for quite a while, and runs of homozygosity only become evidently apparent after
223 some generations of low population size.

224

225 Next generation sequencing and in particular third generation sequencing have shown that
226 structural genetic variants are more common than previously thought. In some cases,
227 structural variants are probably decisive for ecological adaptation and migration [27, 28] (see
228 also section *Sustainability and commercial exploitation*), and in other cases they influence
229 morphotypes and behaviour. In the Palearctic wader, ruff (*Philomachus pugnax*), an inverted
230 chromosomal region controls three male phenotypes affecting behaviour, body size and
231 plumage colour [29, 30], although not creating a reproductive barrier. The redpoll finch
232 complex is presently regarded as three species (hoary redpoll, *Acanthis hornemanni*; common
233 redpoll, *Acanthis flammea*; lesser redpoll, *Acanthis cabaret*), but they have considerable
234 overlap in geographical distribution and may hybridise to some degree. Again, these three
235 redpoll phenotypes are controlled by a large inversion [31]. In principle, an inversion does
236 not necessarily change the frequency and identity of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)
237 that are located in the inverted area, unless the genes and other genetic elements in the
238 inverted area are under some kind of selection pressure. And certainly, the most
239 comprehensive way to detect new or previously unknown SNPs and structural variants is by
240 genome sequencing. Even so, short-read sequencing, a powerful approach to detect both
241 known and previously unknown SNPs, may have problems in detecting the inversion itself,
242 especially when low-coverage sequencing is used. Long-read sequencing, like nanopore
243 (Oxford Nanopores) or Single Molecule Real Time (SMRT; PacBio) sequencing are
244 presently the ultimate tools for this purpose, and these methods are central in the ERGA
245 approach to achieve high-quality genome assemblies. Thus, for both population genetics and
246 for basic biological research in all kinds of species, it is a great advantage to establish a high-

247 quality species-specific reference genome, and from this develop genomic tools in
248 investigating a particular species and its subpopulations.

249

250 Since the development of large-scale and sensitive DNA sequencing technologies, the use of
251 environmental DNA (eDNA) and metabarcoding have gained popularity for different
252 purposes, including the assessment of biodiversity [32-37], estimates of spatial distribution
253 [38, 39], invasive species detection [40, 41], and predator-prey interactions [37]. These
254 methods are likely to be valuable tools in future assessments of biodiversity trends and
255 changes in relation to anthropogenic pressures. In the Faroe Islands, eDNA programs for
256 monitoring of marine biodiversity have been ongoing since 2018 onwards. These approaches
257 have already increased the number of species registered in the Faroese marine environment
258 (Salter et al., submitted). However, these methods rely on the exactness and completeness of
259 the relevant genetic databases, but also taxonomic expertise for correct registration of species.
260 We know that the databases are far from complete, although there has been great effort in
261 different barcoding projects, like the Barcode of Life [42] and Bioscan Europe [43].

262

263 Another factor that may influence both the completeness and the exactness of the databases
264 are cryptic species, *i.e.*, that two or more distinct species are classified as a single species due
265 to their morphological similarities [44]. Cryptic species are found within all organismal
266 groups [45], and is a different concept than subspecies, where morphological criteria can
267 distinguish between (usually geographic) subpopulations. Still, both concepts can lead to the
268 definition of new species. It was only a few years ago that a well-known animal like the
269 giraffe was divided into four species [46], and approximately every year subspecies of birds
270 are split out as unique species, or the other way around. Genome sequencing is probably the
271 most definitive way to sort out cryptic species (or if a subspecies should be split out as a
272 distinct species), although there is no specific limit of genetic differences that defines the
273 transition from one species to another. In any case, having high quality genome assemblies
274 available from as many species as possible will improve the genetic databases, and thereby
275 making the results from environmental metabarcoding more complete and more reliable.
276 Thus, whole genomes on the one hand and eDNA metabarcoding on the other hand are
277 complementary methods, and in particular, the genome sequencing of more species will
278 improve the outcomes of the metabarcoding.

279

280 The sustainability of harvesting (presently) abundant species is often not thought of as a part
281 of a conservation process or mechanism. We here briefly remind about the collapses in the
282 stocks of Northwest Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) [47] and Northeast Atlantic herring
283 (*Clupea harengus*) [48], and the extinction of passenger pigeon (*Ectopistes migratorius*) [49],
284 showing that such considerations should be taken. We must generally assume that common
285 species have more ecological importance than rare, but potentially more iconic, species. A
286 major exception to this notion is top predators (the highest trophic level), as they almost by
287 definition are sparse, but still, they may shape their habitat and ecosystem [e.g., ref. 50]. We
288 underline the advantage - and need - of maintaining subpopulations and genetic diversity in a
289 changing world, and genome sequencing is a crucial tool to achieve the conclusive
290 assessment of subpopulations and population structure (see section *Sustainability and*
291 *commercial exploitation*). However, there are also other reasons, angles and aspects of
292 genomics in conservation, some of which will briefly be described below.

293

294 **Sustainability and commercial exploitation**

295 The Faroe Islands is a maritime nation, where fisheries are of crucial importance. In the Faroe
296 Islands, and elsewhere, certain fish species are commercially harvested, despite that the
297 knowledge of their biology is limited. This is perhaps most evident for species where
298 industrial fisheries have developed during the last few decades. There are also a number of
299 species where commercial interests have more or less concrete wishes for developing new
300 fisheries, or are in the early phases of exploitation. The targeted species may range from
301 deep-water fish to zooplankton (like krill or *Calanus* spp.).

302

303 For some fish species, it has been known for a long time that the population consists of
304 several stocks, *i.e.*, subpopulations that breed independently. *E.g.*, Atlantic herring consists of
305 stocks that spawn in different areas of the North Sea and the North Atlantic, and with some
306 stocks spawning in the spring and other in the autumn. Still, herring gather in large schools
307 migrating across the Northeast Atlantic, and the different stocks often mix in such schools. It
308 is of importance that it is possible to estimate the fraction of each stock in catches from such
309 mixed schools to avoid overexploitation of certain stocks. History has shown that it is
310 possible to overexploit fish stocks [51], like herring and cod, resulting in a collapse from
311 which it may take decades to recover. Traditionally, the assessment of stock mixing in
312 catches has been based on phenotypic properties (morphology, otoliths), although genetic
313 tools have entered some fisheries. Phenotypic analysis is time-consuming and not necessarily

314 exact. Based on recent high-quality genomes [52, 53], it has been possible to refine genetic
315 markers in the herring genome, improving the potential in distinguishing between different
316 stocks of herring in the Northeast Atlantic [54], which are exposed to one of the world's
317 largest fisheries. Many of the genetic markers are positioned in an area of herring
318 chromosome 12 that is associated with ecological adaptation [28, 54], and which in some
319 stocks contains an inverted part of the chromosome [28]. This type of inversion is often
320 called a "supergene", and contains a set of tightly linked genes giving rise to a certain and
321 stable phenotype.

322

323 Similarly, Atlantic cod are divided into numerous stocks, some of which are migratory and
324 other are stationary, and with limited gene flow between these stocks, despite some of them
325 spawning in the same area and season. This is again associated with certain inverted
326 supergenes [27, 55, 56]. Faroese waters have two distinct populations of cod, one at the Faroe
327 Plateau and one at the Faroe Bank. The latter is fast-growing, large-sized fish [57], and
328 locally known for its superior quality. We are confident that the Faroe Bank phenotype is
329 strongly associated with certain, as yet unknown, genetic properties, possibly a genetic
330 inversion. By being able to genetically separate Faroe Bank cod from other local cod stocks
331 we would get a valuable tool in the search for the feeding grounds of the young Faroe Bank
332 cod (age 0.5 to 3 years), which are not known today. Additionally, knowing the genetic
333 properties associated with rapid growth and high quality may help in the efforts to make
334 farmed cod a commercial reality.

335

336 The lesser sandeel (*Ammodytes marinus*; an ERGA pilot species) is one of several species
337 collectively known as sandeels or sand lances. These species are important prey for birds,
338 larger fishes and marine mammals, and they are an important link between the primary
339 production and higher trophic levels [58-60]. The sandeels have typical seasonal behaviours,
340 and burrow into sandy sea bottom during much of the winter. They are little used for human
341 food, but are industrially fished, especially by countries around the North Sea. The total
342 annual catches have varied between 100 000 and 1 million tonnes [61]. The intense fishery
343 may influence seabirds at different stages of life [62-64], and thereby contribute to the
344 observed decreases in seabird populations [65, 66]. It is poorly understood whether the
345 sandeel populations in the different regions of the North Sea and the Northeast Atlantic are
346 genetically distinct populations and to which degree there is gene-flow from one region to
347 another [67]. Having the genome sequence of the lesser sandeel (and later for the related

348 species) would be highly valuable for developing genetic panels for such investigations.
349 Better knowledge on sandeel subpopulations and their genetic interconnections would
350 improve the basis for quota determination in different management areas. Even more
351 importantly, the genome sequence could be a tool in ecological studies, both to improve the
352 knowledge of the sandeel biology in general, and for investigations of species interactions
353 (see other examples below). At the time the ERGA pilot project was initiated, there were no
354 publicly available genome assemblies from the taxonomic order Uranoscopiformes, to which
355 the sandeels belong. During 2022 and 2023, genome assemblies from four species in this
356 order became available, including our genome assembly from *Ammodytes marinus* (GenBank
357 GCA_949987685).

358
359 Greater silver smelt (*Argentina silus*; an ERGA pilot species) is a relatively new, but, as yet,
360 limited target for commercial fisheries, with an average annual catch of around 50 000 tonnes
361 in the Northeast Atlantic, much of this in Faroese waters [57, 68]. It is commonly found at
362 depths of 150-1400 m and it is long-lived and slow-growing [69]. Species with these
363 characteristics are vulnerable to overexploitation, because the longer the time to reach
364 maturity, the longer it takes to increase the population after a potential collapse. The stock
365 structure is unknown [ref. 68 with stock annex]. Spawning may occur in several seasons or in
366 prolonged periods of the year, and spread around in vast areas [69]. The International Council
367 for the Exploration of the Sea (better known by its abbreviation, ICES) has divided the
368 greater silver smelt into four assessment units, despite the lacking knowledge on separate
369 biological populations [68]. Again, the genome would give us insight into the biology of the
370 species, and help to develop population genetic markers, making it possible to assess the
371 population substructure in the North Atlantic. Our genome assembly (GenBank
372 GCA_951799395) is the first available genome from the order Argentiniformes.

373
374 An important aspect in sustainable exploitation of wild species, is to ensure that the
375 population and the potential subpopulations are large enough to endure the harvesting
376 pressure - in essence, that the species is maintained at a sufficiently sized population, within
377 its natural fluctuations. Acquiring a good knowledge and overview of species that are
378 commercially exploited or suggested for commercial exploitation, should be common sense.
379 High-quality genome assemblies are one of the best tools, likely *the* best tool, to acquire such
380 knowledge, and it can later be diversified into separate and specialised sub-tools for specific
381 questions and investigations. One such question is how intensive fisheries are influencing the

382 genetic future of the species. Intensive fisheries may give selection pressures influencing
383 traits such as size-at-age and age-at-maturation [70, 71], but we know less if, and how, this
384 influences the ecosystem in small [72] or large scale, or the long-term trajectories of genetic
385 diversity.

386

387 **Interaction between species**

388 Species interact in all kinds of ways: in food webs being prey and predator, by symbiosis and
389 parasitism, by living permanently or temporarily in the mixed groups, by competing or
390 collaborating, etc. DNA investigations may reveal much about such species interactions and
391 ecosystem services.

392

393 The public attention is much directed towards "visible" species, but for many purposes,
394 "invisible" species may sometimes have large consequences, whether they have a lifestyle
395 that hide them from the human eye (night activity, under water, in soil), or they in fact are so
396 small that they really are invisible to the naked human eye. We will mention three more or
397 less local examples, two of which concern "invisible" species, where genomic knowledge
398 could be translated into practical tools or managerial choices and decisions.

399

400 Planktonic algae form the basis of the entire marine ecosystem on which the Faroese
401 economy relies. Many algae are difficult to distinguish morphologically, and DNA has
402 become an important tool for routine algal biodiversity monitoring. However, there is
403 probably much genetic variation and many cryptic species among algae that are unknown.
404 Thus, there are still many gaps in our sequence databases for algae. This also includes toxin-
405 producing algae [73-75], which are of interest for people collecting of mussels, the shellfish
406 industry and fish aquaculture. Furthermore, the combined influence of climate change and the
407 unintended transport and release of algae and other marine species, especially by ballast
408 water or by attaching to the hull of ships, is likely to be an increasing problem in northern
409 regions [e.g., ref. 76]. The ability to detect invasive species, including unexpected invasive
410 species, will increase as the genomic databases become more complete.

411

412 Invasive species are generally unwanted because they may affect the local native species and
413 the ecosystem in adverse ways. The New Zealand flatworm (*Arthurdendyus triangulatus*)
414 was first reported in the Faroe Islands in 1982, possibly co-introduced from Scotland or New
415 Zealand by soil following imported plants or trees [77]. The New Zealand flatworm preys on

416 local earthworms, thereby over time possibly degrading the quality and the properties of the
417 soil. Although there is some knowledge about genetic variation in the flatworm [78], a recent
418 evaluation concluded that there are large gaps in the sequence data from this and related
419 species, making it impossible to assess the reliability of the DNA markers [79]. Thus, having
420 a genome assembly would be the basis for much better tools to follow the routes of spreading
421 (for example, by eDNA), and possibly also to find potential targets for countermeasures.

422

423 In the Faroe Islands, there are no native terrestrial mammals. Among typical free-roaming
424 herbivores, only mountain hare (*Lepus timidus*) and domestic sheep have been introduced, the
425 former with four animals (from Norway) in 1855, and the latter probably with the first settlers
426 well before year 1000 (and with many subsequent import events). Hunting of hare is a
427 popular tradition, and the registered yield is between 3000 and 9000 hares/year (Eyðfinn
428 Magnussen, pers. comm.), which is extremely high considering an area of 1400 km². One
429 may imagine that hare and sheep could compete for food resources, given the high density of
430 both species. This could be possible to investigate using different genetic tools, provided that
431 the necessary genetic data are available for the local plants. Another interesting question is
432 microevolution in hare, as all the local populations are founded from the first few animals
433 introduced nearly 170 years ago.

434

435 **Incidental insights**

436 As genomes from more and more species are sequenced, it is evident that we will learn much
437 about each single species. However, a single species does not exist without being connected
438 to other species, not only in their habitats, in their ecosystems, and in their food webs, but
439 they are also genetically connected to other species through evolution and the process of
440 speciation. As more genome assemblies become available, we will undoubtedly understand
441 more about the genetic processes, physiological processes, the immune system, protection
442 against pathogens, and lots of other areas that give us deeper insight into life and basic
443 processes of life [12, 80], and some of which may find applications in the future for
444 improving our food production, and give new medical treatments, new materials, more eco-
445 friendly industrial processes, etc. We can safely assume that there will be a continued
446 advancement in methods, instruments, and bioinformatics, which will give us new and
447 efficient tools that also can be applied to various questions and purposes. In short, we will
448 have more insight into being humans, our own biology and genetics, and similarly for our

449 fellow beings, and understand more about taking care of nature and the Earth, which
450 ultimately is to take care of ourselves.

451

452 **Interactions with and dissemination to the society**

453 The third main aim of Gen@FarE is to establish an information databank in Faroese,
454 covering all Faroese species and nature types. It is a scholarly obligation to inform the public
455 in various ways, such as educational and outreach programmes, museum exhibitions and
456 events, popular science presentations, etc. Museums and public collections have a long
457 tradition in natural history, and have been highly important in disseminating knowledge and
458 information to the society, whether we consider school classes, single individuals or the
459 authorities. At the same time, many are interested in different aspects of biodiversity, and this
460 is reflected in citizen science projects like iNaturalist [81] and eBird [82]. More than 1.5
461 million observation lists (usually with several species and many individuals of each species in
462 each list) were submitted to eBird during February 2023, and more than 1.3 million single
463 observations were added to iNaturalist in the same period. When the scale of the collected
464 data is big enough, the geographical and seasonal distribution and abundance of species
465 become apparent, and over time disclose population trends, as noticeably illustrated by eBird
466 [83-85]. Additionally, and possibly undervalued, highly skilled non-professionals and
467 laypersons contribute considerably to the identification and description of new species [5],
468 and even more so for geographical distribution of species [86].

469

470 Our Nordic neighbours have organised national searchable public biological information
471 banks interlinked with the possibility of registration of citizen science observations (Sweden
472 with Artdatabanken and Artportalen [87, 88]; Norway with Artsdatabanken and
473 Artsobservasjoner [89, 90]); and Denmark with Arter.dk [91]). Both the national and
474 international citizen science initiatives mentioned above have identification tools, either
475 integrated into the website or as free-standing mobile telephone apps [92-95], which
476 significantly lowers the threshold for contributing to citizen science.

477

478 Consistent with article 13a *Public Education and Awareness* in CBD ("*The Contracting*
479 *Parties shall promote and encourage understanding of the importance of, and the measures*
480 *required for, the conservation of biological diversity, as well as its propagation through*
481 *media, and the inclusion of these topics in educational programmes*") and target 21 in the
482 Kunming-Montreal agreement (see *Background* section), we believe that the ability to easily

483 access the established knowledge on species and the possibility of the public in contributing
484 to the knowledge building, will increase the interest in the species and in nature values in
485 general. The combined data from organised research and citizen science will over time
486 indicate abundance and trends, and point out geographical areas with particular values of
487 nature (*e.g.*, rare type of biological or geological landscape at national or international level;
488 high biodiversity; habitat of rare or threatened species, etc.). This information will help in
489 management decisions of various kinds, like protection of species, development of area plans,
490 conservation of smaller or larger areas, etc. It will increase the transparency and the
491 interactions between the scientists, the authorities, the politicians, and the public for many
492 aspects of preservation of species, management and conservation of areas, and management
493 and sustainable exploitation of species.

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514

515 **Authors' contributions**

516 SOM wrote the manuscript. SíK commented throughout the writing process. JíH, IS, SH and
517 AD commented on the manuscript. All authors read and accepted the final version of the
518 manuscript.

519

520 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

521 The authors declare that they comply with the PCI rule of having no financial conflict of
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