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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- 22 sustainability.

23 Abstract

Biodiversity is under pressure, mainly due to human activities and climate change. At the 24 international policy level, it is now recognised that genetic diversity is an important part of 25 biodiversity. The availability of high-quality reference genomes gives the best basis for using 26 genetics and genetic diversity towards the global aims of (i) protection of species, 27 biodiversity, and nature, and (ii) in management of biodiversity for achieving sustainable 28 29 harvesting of nature. Protecting biodiversity is a global responsibility, also resting on small nations, like the Faroe Islands. Being in the middle of the North Atlantic Ocean and having 30 31 large fisheries activity, the nation has a particular responsibility towards maritime matters. We here provide the reasoning behind Genome Atlas of Faroese Ecology (Gen@FarE), a 32 project based on our participation in the European Reference Genome Atlas consortium 33 (ERGA). Gen@FarE has three major aims: (i) To acquire high-quality genomes of all 34 eukaryotic species in the Faroe Islands and Faroese waters. (ii) To establish population 35 genetics for species of commercial or ecological interest. (iii) To establish an information 36 37 databank for all Faroese species, combined with a citizen science registration database, 38 making it possible for the public to participate in acquiring and maintaining the overview of Faroese species in both terrestrial and marine environments. Altogether, we believe that this 39 40 will enhance the society's interest in and awareness of biodiversity, thereby protecting the foundations of our lives. Furthermore, the combination of a wide and highly competent 41 42 ERGA umbrella and more targeted national projects will help fulfilling the formal and moral responsibilities that all nations, also those of limited resources, have in protecting biodiversity 43 44 and achieving sustainability in harvesting from nature.

45 Background

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

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A well-functioning nature is dependent on healthy ecosystems, which again are intimately 51 linked with biodiversity. The term "biodiversity" includes the full set of all life forms, their 52 53 variations and functions, and their community structures in the different habitats and ecosystems [2]. The total biodiversity is a composite of several "sub"-diversities, and among 54 them, genetic diversity (additionally, and subject to the definition of choice, diversity in 55 species, ecosystems, functions, and evolution are often included) [2, 3]. It may well be argued 56 that genetic diversity is the foundation for each of the other "sub"-diversities, and thereby 57 58 also the total biodiversity. Biodiversity is central in maintaining ecosystems both locally and 59 globally. However, many species, ecosystems, and even global biodiversity are today 60 threatened by overexploitation, fragmentation of nature, loss of habitats, invasive species, and climate change [4]. Thus, all aspects of conservation, like protection of species and their 61 62 genetic diversity, and the protection of the areas and resources that the species depend on, 63 need to be considered to preserve biodiversity, ecosystems and nature as a whole, and at the 64 same time achieve sustainable exploitation to ensure that humans can live in a healthy world in the future [2]. 65

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It is of utmost importance that we, as the main caretaker of the Earth, are aware of the 67 biodiversity and the existing genetic diversity. Within each single species, and within each 68 single individual, the material of inheritance, the genome, is the basis and the main frame for 69 70 the present diversity and carrying the diversity forward to the future generations. It is also recognized that genetic diversity within a species is pivotal for adaptation in a changing 71 world, which is even more important in times of climate change. Thus, knowing the genome 72 sequences from as many species as possible is central in the understanding and knowledge of 73 74 the full span of biodiversity. With the strong influence that humans have on the ecosystems and the Earth, we will only be able to maintain the diversity and exploit it in a sustainable 75 way by having relevant knowledge about the diversity. It is difficult or impossible to take 76 77 unknown or undetected species into considerations in a management plan, or to make proper 78 management plans for species, an ecosystem, or a geographical area when relevant and

significant biological knowledge is not available. The sustainable utilisation and management
of biological resources require a determined effort to establish current status (which is not
necessarily the same as the historical status) and monitor future changes of biodiversity in
diverse environments.

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

In international policy, the terms "sustainability" and "biodiversity" became much more 91 92 frequently used after the UN report "Our Common Future" from 1987 [7] and the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) from 1992 [8]. Article 1 of CBD states that "The objectives ... 93 94 are... the conservation of biological diversity, (and) the sustainable use of its components..." [8]. The balance of conservation and sustainable use of nature is repeated in several of the 95 96 subsequent articles of CBD. All parties of the CBD, including the Faroe Islands (through the Kingdom of Denmark), commit to these objectives. CBD is the basis for additional 97 international agreements and protocols. The Faroe Islands have committed to some of these, 98 like the UN Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development and its Sustainability Development 99 100 Goals (SDG) [9, 10], but not to others, like the Nagoya protocol and the Aarhus convention. Not being a member of EU (despite that Denmark is a member), Faroe Islands are also less 101 102 restrained by EU regulations and agreements.

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The Kunming-Montreal global diversity framework from December 2022, better known as
UN CBD Conference of Parties 15 (COP15) [11], underlined the importance of genetics and
genetic diversity in biodiversity and sustainability, as reflected in their direct mentioning in
two of the four overarching goals:

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• The genetic diversity within populations of wild and domesticated species is maintained, safeguarding their adaptive potential.

The monetary and non-monetary benefits for the utilization of genetic resources ...
 are shared fairly and equitably...

This is also repeated in some of the corresponding 23 targets for the Kunming-Montrealframework:

- Target 4: Ensure urgent management actions, to halt human induced extinction of known threatened species and for the recovery and conservation of species, in particular threatened species, to significantly reduce extinction risk, as well as to maintain and restore the genetic diversity within and between populations of native, wild and domesticated species...
- Target 13: Take effective legal, policy, administrative and capacity-building measures
 at all levels, as appropriate, to ensure the fair and equitable sharing of benefits that
 arise from the utilization of genetic resources...
- Target 21: Ensure that the best available data, information and knowledge (this
 undoubtedly include genetic data, information and knowledge; authors' comment), are
 accessible to decision makers, practitioners and the public to guide effective and
 equitable governance, integrated and participatory management of biodiversity, and
 to strengthen communication, awareness-raising, education, monitoring, research
 and knowledge management...
- 128

Indirectly, having the species' genome assemblies and knowing the genetic diversities will 129 wholeheartedly support the other COP15 overarching goals and targets for the Kunming-130 131 Montreal framework that involve sustainability and sustainable management, and further the integration of biodiversity into policies, planning and regulations, including the protection of 132 species, habitats, ecosystems and areas, etc. The four overarching goals and the 23 more 133 specified targets can be seen as an elaboration and specification from previous international 134 135 agreements and protocols. We will here have a main focus on how genomes and the 136 knowledge of genetic diversity can help us in protecting biodiversity and maintaining sustainability to reach different aims and potentials. 137

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139 Genome Atlas of Faroese Ecology (Gen@FarE)

Knowledge of the full genome of each species and the genetic diversity within each species, provide powerful tools to monitor biodiversity, and through that, manage and preserve it [2, 12]. This knowledge can be used in different ways and for different purposes. On the very practical and applied side, management of commercially exploited resources and protection of species and/or habitats, can be much improved by such tools. It will also give us better

tools to survey the environment, whether it is for invasive species or population estimates.

- 146 Equally important, such knowledge is valuable for understanding the diversity of life in all its
- 147 aspects and functions, and it will undoubtedly initiate further questions and give new avenues
- to explore (see section *Incidental insights*). But above all, this will help us in protecting and
- 149 maintaining a healthy Earth for mankind and all its fellow beings.
- 150

National and regional initiatives are taking place both in Europe and globally by people and 151 institutions recognising the need for, and the potential of, genomic knowledge [13-17]. This 152 153 is a highly international task, where all nations need to contribute and collaborate. We all, as individuals, as industry, as society, as nations, have responsibility for the future of the Earth 154 and its nature, and the politicians and governments must set the frames so this can become 155 possible to achieve. Realising the urgency and needs in protecting biodiversity, and that 156 genomics and genetics are essential tools in achieving this purpose, more than 700 European 157 158 scientists, some of the present authors among them [18], have gone together to form the European Reference Genome Atlas project (ERGA) [13, 19, 20] as a collaborative and 159 interdisciplinary network. Also small nations, like the Faroe Islands (1 400 km² and 54 000 160 inhabitants), should contribute to this effort, partly as a global and moral obligation, and 161 162 partly to ensure sustainability in its exploitation of biological resources in accordance with CBD [8]. Utilising the ERGA network and its dedication to a decentralised and equitable 163 biodiversity genomics [21], the present authors have initiated the Genome Atlas of Faroese 164 Ecology (Gen@FarE), and we participate in the ERGA Pilot project [21]. Although being a 165 small nation, the Faroe Islands have a sizable economic zone (274 000 km²) in the middle of 166 the North Atlantic Ocean, and it has large fisheries activity. Thereby the nation has a 167 particular responsibility towards maritime matters. The authors represent Faroese institutions 168 with responsibilities for education, research, monitoring, and dissemination of knowledge 169 170 within Faroese and North Atlantic biology and biodiversity, and advising the authorities about stock management and nature in general. We jointly see the advantage of increased 171 genomic and genetic knowledge for protecting biodiversity and achieving sustainability in the 172 173 region.

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

To establish high-quality genomes of all eukaryotic species in the Faroe Islands and
 Faroese waters.

- To establish population genetics for all species that are commercially exploited or are
 of ecological interest.
- To establish an information databank for all Faroese species, combined with a citizen science registration database, making it possible for the public to participate in acquiring and maintaining the overview of Faroese species in both terrestrial and marine areas.
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We expect that it will take many years, maybe decades, before having high-quality genome assemblies from all species, despite the expected technological advances and the consorted accumulation of relevant genomes and data from other countries. We are aware that other projects, like the Earth BioGenome Project, may have more optimistic views on how fast such an aim will be achieved, but a large upscaling of capacities is needed [14, 22]. The urgency of protection and maintaining the biodiversity and ensuring sustainability in the harvesting of nature, requires that it is worked on all three aims in parallel.

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

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200 Biodiversity and conservation

Of course, partly as a consequence of the CBD, each nation has an added moral responsibility 201 202 for diversity existing only (or mainly) within their national borders and maritime economical zone. Although there are few known endemic species in the Faroe Islands, it has its share of 203 bird diversity with the world's largest colony of European storm petrel (Hydrobates 204 *pelagicus*), one of the few last remains of (claimed) wild type rock pigeon (*Columba livia*), 205 and recognized subspecies of several other birds (European starling, Sturnus vulgaris 206 faroensis; Eurasian wren, Troglodytes troglodytes borealis; common eider, Somateria 207 mollissima faeroeensis; etc.) (see [23] for more information). However, we will in this paper 208 209 not focus on this particular part of biodiversity.

The Red List status is often an important part in decisions for "what to do" and "how to do" in 211 conservation and protection of species. The assessment of the Red List status is based on 212 population trends and some other parameters [24], some of which are not always easy to 213 assess for different reasons. One could imagine the inclusion of genetic diversity status into 214 this assessment, both as an independent parameter and as an indirect parameter for assessing 215 effective population size [25, 26]. It is well known that low effective population size 216 increases the rate of homozygosity. Runs of homozygosity have been used for estimating 217 historical bottlenecks for certain species [27-29] as they are recognizable long after a 218 219 potential expansion of the population following a bottleneck. It might be possible to take similar models into use for practical conservation and protection purposes, like the national 220 and regional Red Lists. However, there is – perhaps surprisingly - no direct correlation of the 221 Red List status and runs of homozygosity for a limited set of mammals [29] (please note that 222 there is somewhat conflicting evidence regarding the correlation of the Red List status and 223 224 runs (or degree) of homozygosity or loss of heterozygosity; see refs. in [29, 30]). As hinted at [29], there could be several explanations, like (i) the populations have not reached 225 226 sufficiently low level to erode genetic variation in the individuals, or (ii) when the decline is rapid (as it is in many cases) and without any particular genetic selection pressure, the 227 228 relative degree of heterozygosity is maintained for quite a while, and runs of homozygosity 229 only become evidently apparent after some generations at low population size.

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Next generation sequencing and in particular third generation sequencing have shown that 231 232 structural genetic variants are more common than previously thought. In some cases, structural variants are probably decisive for ecological adaptation and migration [31, 32] (see 233 also section Sustainability and commercial exploitation), and in other cases they influence 234 morphotypes and behaviour. In the Palearctic wader, ruff (*Philomachus pugnax*), an inverted 235 chromosomal region controls three male phenotypes affecting behaviour, body size and 236 237 plumage colour [33, 34], although not creating a reproductive barrier. The redpoll finch 238 complex is presently regarded as three species (hoary redpoll, Acanthis hornemanni; common redpoll, Acanthis flammea; lesser redpoll, Acanthis cabaret), but they have considerable 239 240 overlap in geographical distribution and may hybridise to some degree. Again, these three redpoll phenotypes are controlled by a large inversion [35]. In principle, a recent inversion 241 does not necessarily change the frequency and identity of single nucleotide polymorphisms 242 (SNPs) that are located in the inverted area, unless the genes and other genetic elements in 243 the inverted area are under some kind of selection pressure. And certainly, the most 244

comprehensive way to detect new or previously unknown SNPs and structural variants is by 245 genome sequencing. Even so, short-read sequencing, a powerful approach to detect both 246 known and previously unknown SNPs, may have problems in detecting the inversion itself, 247 especially when low-coverage sequencing is used. Long-read sequencing, like nanopore 248 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) or in particular Single Molecule Real Time (SMRT; 249 250 PacBio) sequencing are presently the ultimate tools for this purpose. Additionally, SMRT sequencing is central in the ERGA approach to achieve high-quality genome assemblies. 251 252 Thus, both for population genetics and for basic biological research in all kinds of species, it 253 is a great advantage to establish a high-quality species-specific reference genome, and from 254 this develop genomic tools in investigating a particular species and its subpopulations.

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Since the development of large-scale and sensitive DNA sequencing technologies, the use of 256 257 environmental DNA (eDNA) and metabarcoding have gained popularity for different 258 purposes, including the assessment of biodiversity [36-41], estimates of spatial distribution [42, 43], invasive species detection [44, 45], and predator-prey interactions [41]. These 259 260 methods are likely to be valuable tools in future assessments of biodiversity trends and changes in relation to anthropogenic pressures. In the Faroe Islands, eDNA programs for 261 262 monitoring of marine biodiversity have been ongoing since 2018 onwards. These approaches 263 have already increased the number of species registered in the Faroese marine environment (Salter et al., submitted). However, these methods rely on the exactness and completeness of 264 the relevant genetic databases, but also taxonomic expertise for correct registration of species. 265 We know that the databases are far from complete, although there has been great effort in 266 different barcoding projects, like the Barcode of Life [46] and Bioscan Europe [47]. Thus, 267 assembling high-quality genomes and eDNA metabarcoding are complementary methods, 268 and in particular, the genome sequencing of more species will improve the outcomes of 269 270 eDNA and metabarcoding approaches.

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Another factor that may influence both the completeness and the exactness of the databases are cryptic species, *i.e.*, that two or more distinct species are classified as a single species due to their morphological similarities [48]. Cryptic species are found within all organismal groups [49], and is a different concept than subspecies, where morphological criteria can distinguish between (usually geographic) subpopulations. Still, both concepts can lead to the definition of new species. It was only a few years ago that a well-known animal like the giraffe was divided into four species [50], and approximately every year subspecies of birds

are split out as unique species, or the other way around. Genome sequencing is probably the most definitive way to sort out cryptic species (or if a subspecies should be split out as a distinct species), although there is no specific limit of genetic differences that defines the transition from one species to another. In any case, having high quality genome assemblies available from as many species as possible will improve the genetic databases and their practical use for many purposes, including the ability to describe new species whether based on previously known subspecies or cryptic species.

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287 Sustainability and commercial exploitation

288 The sustainability of harvesting (presently) abundant species is often not thought of as a part of a conservation process or mechanism. We here briefly remind about the extinction of the 289 290 once abundant passenger pigeon (Ectopistes migratorius) [51] and the collapses in the stocks of Northwest Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua) [52] and Northeast Atlantic herring (Clupea 291 292 *harengus*) [53] indicating that such considerations should be taken. The Faroe Islands is a maritime nation, where fisheries are of crucial importance. Thus, UN SDG 14 Life Below 293 294 Water ("Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development") is particularly relevant. Fishing is considered the main threat to the Faroese 295 296 marine ecosystem [54]. In the Faroe Islands, and elsewhere, certain fish species are 297 commercially harvested despite that the knowledge of their biology is limited. This is perhaps most evident for species where industrial fisheries have developed during the last few 298 decades. History has repeatedly shown that it is possible to overexploit fish stocks, resulting 299 300 in a collapse from which it may take decades to recover [55]. It has been estimated that one third of fish stocks are presently overfished [56]. Also for commercially exploited species it 301 is an advantage - and need - of maintaining subpopulations and genetic diversity in a 302 changing world. Genome sequencing is a crucial tool to achieve the conclusive assessment of 303 304 subpopulations and population structure.

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For some fish species, it has been known for a long time that the population consists of several stocks, *i.e.*, subpopulations that breed independently. *E.g.*, Atlantic herring consists of stocks that spawn in different areas of the North Sea and the North Atlantic, and with some stocks spawning in the spring and other in the autumn. Still, herring gather in large schools migrating across the Northeast Atlantic, and the different stocks often mix in such schools. It is important to estimate the fraction of each stock in catches from such mixed schools to avoid overexploitation of certain stocks. Traditionally, the assessment of stock mixing in

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 and better genome assemblies [57, 58], it has been possible to refine 315 genetic markers in the herring genome, improving the potential in distinguishing between 316 different stocks of herring in the Northeast Atlantic [59], which are exposed to one of the 317 world's largest fisheries. Many of the genetic markers are positioned in an area of herring 318 chromosome 12 that is associated with ecological adaptation [32, 59], and which in some 319 stocks contains an inverted part of the chromosome [32]. This type of inversion is often 320 321 called a "supergene", and contains a set of tightly linked genes giving rise to a certain and 322 stable phenotype.

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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 325 326 spawning in the same area and season. This is (at least partly) associated with certain inverted supergenes [31, 60, 61]. Faroese waters have two distinct populations of cod, one at the Faroe 327 328 Plateau and one at the Faroe Bank. The latter is fast-growing, large-sized fish [62], and locally known for its superior quality. We are confident that the Faroe Bank phenotype is 329 330 strongly associated with certain, as yet unknown, genetic properties. By being able to genetically separate Faroe Bank cod from other local cod stocks we would get a valuable tool 331 in the search for the feeding grounds of the young Faroe Bank cod (age 0.5 to 3 years), which 332 are not known today, although it is presumed they are local on the Faroe Bank [63]. 333 Additionally, identifying the genetic properties associated with rapid growth and high quality 334 may help in the efforts to make farmed cod a commercial reality. 335

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The greater silver smelt (Argentina silus) is a relatively new, but, as yet, limited target for 337 commercial fisheries, with an average annual catch of around 50 000 tonnes in the Northeast 338 Atlantic, much of this in Faroese waters [62, 64]. It is commonly found at depths of 150-1400 339 340 m and it is long-lived and slow-growing [65]. Species with these characteristics are 341 vulnerable to overexploitation, because the longer the time to reach maturity, the longer it takes to increase the population after a potential collapse. The stock structure is unknown 342 [ref. 64 with stock annex]. The International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (better 343 known by its abbreviation, ICES) has divided the greater silver smelt into four assessment 344 units, despite the lacking knowledge on separate biological populations [64]. Spawning may 345 occur in several seasons or in prolonged periods of the year, and spread around in vast areas 346

[65]. These were the major reasons why the greater silver smelt was suggested as a Faroese 347 ERGA pilot species. Through the ERGA efforts, its genome assembly became available in 348 the spring 2023 (GenBank GCA_951799395). This genome assembly is the first available 349 genome from the order Argentiniformes. The genome will give us insight into the biology of 350 the species, and help to develop population genetic markers (which we presently are doing), 351 352 making it possible to assess the population substructure in the North Atlantic, and thereby improve the management of this species. Additionally, we are also working on the genome 353 assembly of a sister species, the lesser silver smelt (a.k.a. lesser argentine; Argentina 354 355 sphyraena). The two species are morphologically rather similar (Fig. 1) and have overlapping geographical distributions, and there is a risk of mixed catches. With their genomes available, 356 genetic tools can be developed to easily assess the presence of one or the other or both 357 species even in industrial fish products in the supermarket (e.g., [66]). 358

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360 The lesser sandeel (Ammodytes marinus) is another Faroese ERGA pilot species. The ERGA efforts made its genome assembly available in the spring 2023 (GenBank GCA_949987685). 361 362 The lesser sandeel is one of several species collectively known as sandeels or sand lances. These species are important prey for birds, larger fishes and marine mammals, and they are 363 364 an important link between the primary production and higher trophic levels [67-69]. The sandeels have typical seasonal behaviours, and burrow into sandy sea bottom during much of 365 the winter. They are little used for human food, but are industrially fished, especially by 366 countries around the North Sea. The total annual catches have varied between 100 000 and 1 367 million tonnes [70]. The intense fishery may influence seabirds at different stages of life [71-368 73], and thereby contribute to the observed decreases in seabird populations [74, 75]. It is 369 poorly understood whether the sandeel populations in the different regions of the North Sea 370 and the Northeast Atlantic are genetically distinct populations and to which degree there is 371 gene-flow from one region to another [76]. Knowing the genome sequence of the lesser 372 sandeel (and for the related species) would be highly valuable for developing genetic panels 373 374 for such investigations, and we are presently working to establish its population genetics in the Northeast Atlantic Ocean. Better knowledge on sandeel subpopulations and their genetic 375 376 interconnections would improve the basis for quota determination in different management areas. At the time the ERGA pilot project was initiated, there were no publicly available 377 genome assemblies from the taxonomic order Uranoscopiformes, to which the sandeels 378 belong. During 2022 and 2023, genome assemblies from four species in this order became 379 available, including the mentioned genome assembly from Ammodytes marinus. These 380

genomes will make it easier to assess whether these species, which are morphologically
rather similar and have overlapping geographical distributions, are prone to mixed catches.
Even more importantly, the genome assemblies could be a tool in ecological studies, both to
improve the knowledge of the sandeel biology in general, and for investigations of species
interactions.

386

An important aspect in sustainable exploitation of wild species, is to ensure that the 387 population and the potential subpopulations are large enough to endure the harvesting 388 389 pressure - in essence, that the species is maintained at a sufficiently sized population, within 390 its natural fluctuations. Moreover, there are a number of species where commercial interests have more or less concrete wishes for developing new fisheries, or are in the early phases of 391 exploitation. The targeted species may range from deep-water fish to zooplankton (like krill 392 or Calanus spp.), and we know little about how this will affect the both the species itself and 393 394 interacting species. Acquiring adequate knowledge and overview of species that are commercially exploited or suggested for commercial exploitation, should be common sense. 395 396 High-quality genome assemblies are likely *the* best basis to acquire such knowledge, as it can later be diversified into separate and specialised sub-tools for specific questions and 397 398 investigations. One such question is how intensive fisheries are influencing the genetic future 399 of the species. Intensive fisheries may give selection pressures influencing traits such as sizeat-age and age-at-maturation [77, 78], but we know less if, and how, this influences the 400 ecosystem in small [79] or large scale, or the long-term trajectories of genetic diversity. 401

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403 Interaction between species

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

408

409 The public attention is much directed towards "visible" species, but for many purposes,

410 "invisible" species may sometimes have large consequences, whether they have a lifestyle

that hide them from the human eye (night activity, under water, in soil), or they in fact are so

- small that they really are invisible to the naked human eye. We will mention a few more or
- 413 less local examples, two of which concern "invisible" species, where genomic knowledge
- 414 could be translated into practical tools or managemental choices and decisions.

415

Planktonic algae (together with bacteria and viruses) form the bio-basis of the entire marine 416 ecosystem on which the Faroese economy relies. Many algae are difficult to distinguish 417 morphologically, and DNA has become an important tool for routine algal biodiversity 418 monitoring. However, there are taxonomic uncertainties, and probably many cryptic species 419 420 and much unknown intraspecies genetic variations among algae [80]. Thus, there are still 421 many gaps for algae in the sequence databases. This also includes toxin-producing algae [81-422 83], which are of interest for people collecting mussels, the shellfish industry and fish 423 aquaculture. Furthermore, the combined influence of climate change and the unintended transport and release of algae and other marine species, especially by ballast water or by 424 attaching to the hull of ships, is likely to be an increasing problem in northern regions [e.g., 425 ref. 84]. The ability to detect invasive species, including unexpected invasive species, will 426 427 increase as the genomic databases become more complete.

428

Invasive species are generally unwanted because they may affect the local native species and 429 430 the ecosystem in adverse ways. Island biodiversity is particularly vulnerable to the impact from invasive alien species as is recognised in Kunming-Montreal target 6 for stemming 431 432 biodiversity loss. As elsewhere in the world, rats [85] and mice [86, 87] are invasive species 433 also in the Faroe Islands. There is a particular worry that rats will spread to the few rat-free islands, especially as the rat-free Sandoy was connected to the rat-infected Streymoy by an 434 undersea tunnel in December 2023. However, there are also more subtle invasive species in 435 436 the Faroes. The New Zealand flatworm (Arthurdendyus triangulatus) was first reported in the Faroe Islands in 1982, possibly introduced from Scotland or New Zealand by soil following 437 imported plants or trees [88]. The New Zealand flatworm preys on local earthworms, thereby 438 over time possibly degrading the quality and the properties of the soil. Although there is some 439 knowledge about genetic variations in the flatworm [89], a recent evaluation concluded that 440 there are large gaps in the sequence data from this and related species, making it impossible 441 to assess the reliability of the DNA markers [90]. Thus, having a genome assembly would be 442 the basis for much better tools to follow the routes of spreading (for example, by eDNA), and 443 444 possibly also to find potential targets for countermeasures.

445

There are no native terrestrial mammals in the Faroe Islands. Among typical free-roaming
herbivores, only mountain hare (*Lepus timidus*) and domestic sheep have been introduced, the
former with four animals (from coastal Norway) in 1855, and the latter probably with the first

settlers well before year 1000 (and with many subsequent import events). Hunting of hare is a 449 popular tradition, and the registered yield is between 3000 and 9000 hares/year (Evðfinn 450 Magnussen, pers. comm.), which is extremely high considering an area of 1400 km². One 451 may imagine that hare and sheep could compete for food resources, given the high density of 452 both species. This could be possible to investigate using different genetic tools, provided that 453 454 the necessary genetic data are available for the local plants. Another interesting question is microevolution in hare, as all the local populations are founded from the first few animals 455 introduced nearly 170 years ago. This includes the genetics behind the grey winter fur of 456 457 Faroese hare. Grey winter fur is also known from parts of coastal southern Norway, and we would suppose that the grey winter furs of Faroese and local Norwegian hares have the same 458 genetic background. Hypothetically, the grey winter fur could be caused a recessive allele in 459 the introduced animals, and it probably became fixed in the population as the white hares 460 were more easily shot during the late fall hunting in (usually) snow-less conditions (hunting 461 of hares started only a few years after introduction, and the first legislation on hare-hunting is 462 from 1881). 463

464

465 Interactions with and dissemination to the society

466 The third main aim of Gen@FarE is to establish an information databank in Faroese, 467 covering all Faroese species and nature types. It is a scholarly obligation to inform the public in various ways, like educational and outreach programmes, museum exhibitions and events, 468 popular science presentations, etc. Museums and public collections have a long tradition in 469 470 natural history, and have been highly important in disseminating knowledge and information to the society, whether we consider school classes, single individuals or the authorities. At the 471 472 same time, many are interested in different aspects of biodiversity, and this is reflected in citizen science projects like iNaturalist [91] and eBird [92]. More than 1.5 million 473 474 observation lists (usually with several species and many individuals of each species in each list) were submitted to eBird during February 2023, and more than 1.3 million single 475 476 observations were added to iNaturalist in the same period. When the scale of the collected data is big enough, the geographical and seasonal distribution and abundance of species 477 478 become apparent, and over time disclose population trends, as noticeably illustrated by eBird [93-95]. Additionally, and possibly undervalued, highly skilled non-professionals and 479 laypersons contribute considerably to the identification and description of new species [5], 480 and even more so for geographical distribution of species [96]. Of course, citizen science data 481 may not rise to the same standards as professionally collected data [97], but the shortcomings 482

- 483 can be more or less counteracted by diverse measures [98-101], and time and again, citizen
 484 science data have shown their value as indicated by the references above [5, 93-96].
- 485

Our Nordic neighbours have organised national searchable public biological information
banks interlinked with the possibility of registration of citizen science observations (Sweden
with Artdatabanken and Artportalen [102, 103]; Norway with Artsdatabanken and
Artsobservasjoner [104, 105]); and Denmark with Arter.dk [106]). Both the national and
international citizen science initiatives mentioned above have identification tools, either
integrated into the website or as free-standing mobile telephone apps [107-110], which
significantly lowers the threshold for contributing to citizen science.

493

Consistent with article 13a Public Education and Awareness in CBD ("The Contracting 494 495 Parties shall promote and encourage understanding of the importance of, and the measures 496 required for, the conservation of biological diversity, as well as its propagation through media, and the inclusion of these topics in educational programmes") and target 21 in the 497 498 Kunming-Montreal agreement (see *Background* section), we believe that the ability to easily access the established knowledge on species and the possibility of the public in contributing 499 500 to the knowledge building, will increase the interest in the species and in nature values in 501 general. The combined data from organised research and citizen science will over time 502 indicate abundance and trends, and point out geographical areas with particular values of nature (e.g., rare type of biological or geological landscape at national or international level; 503 504 high biodiversity; habitat of rare or threatened species, etc.). This information will help in management decisions of various kinds, like protection of species, development of area plans, 505 conservation of smaller or larger areas, etc. It will increase the transparency and the 506 interactions between the scientists, the authorities, the politicians, and the public for many 507 508 aspects of preservation of species, management and conservation of areas, and management and sustainable exploitation of species. 509

510

511 Incidental insights

As genomes from more and more species are sequenced, it is evident that we will learn much about each single species. However, a single species does not exist without being connected to other species, not only in their habitats, in their ecosystems, and in their food webs, but they are also genetically connected to other species through evolution and the process of speciation. As more genome assemblies become available, we will undoubtedly understand

more about the genetic processes, physiological processes, the immune system, protection 517 against pathogens, and lots of other areas that give us deeper insight into life and basic 518 processes of life [14, 111], and some of which may find applications in the future for 519 improving our food production, and give new medical treatments, new materials, more eco-520 friendly industrial processes, etc. We can safely assume that there will be a continued 521 522 advancement in methods, instruments, and bioinformatics, which will give us new and efficient tools that also can be applied to various questions and purposes. In short, we will 523 have more insight into being humans, our own biology and genetics, and similarly for our 524 525 fellow beings, and understand more about taking care of nature and the Earth, which 526 ultimately is to take care of ourselves.

527

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546

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- 552

553 Authors' contributions

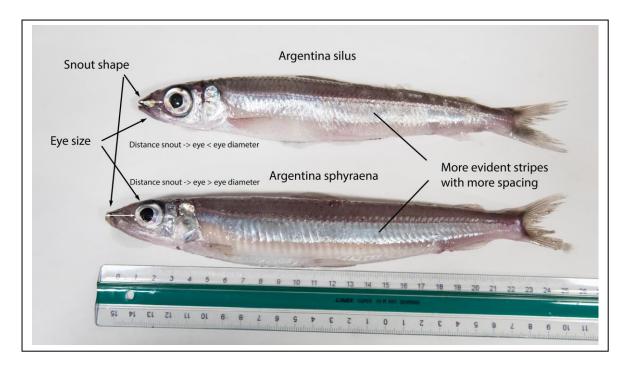
- 554 SOM wrote the manuscript. SíK commented throughout the writing process. JíH, IS, and AD
- commented on the manuscript. All authors read and accepted the final version of the
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- 557

558 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

- 559 The authors declare that they comply with the PCI rule of having no financial conflict of
- 560 interest in relation to the content of the article.

561 Figures

562



563

Fig. 1. Greater silver smelt (Argentina silus) and lesser silver smelt (Argentina sphyraena) 564 565 have quite similar appearances, and have overlapping geographical distributions. The shown individuals are (lower) adult lesser silver smelt (max. length 35 cm) and (upper) subadult 566 greater silver smelt (max. length 70 cm). The two individuals were caught in the same 1 h 567 trawl haul (survey cruise with RV Jákup Sverri) at 200-220 m depth (decimal position 61.60 568 N, 7.45 W) on the 9th of August 2023. Greater silver smelt is also known as greater argentine, 569 Atlantic argentine or herring smelt. Lesser silver smelt is also known as lesser argentine. 570 Photo and labelling by SOM. 571

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