

# Invertebrate sentience and sustainable seafood

Andrew Crump<sup>1</sup>, Heather Browning<sup>1</sup>, Alexandra K. Schnell<sup>2</sup>, Charlotte Burn<sup>3</sup>, & Jonathan Birch<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Centre for Philosophy of Natural and Social Science, London School of Economics and Political Science, London, UK

<sup>2</sup> Department of Psychology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

<sup>3</sup> Animal Welfare Science and Ethics, Royal Veterinary College, London, UK

\*Corresponding author [j.birch2@lse.ac.uk](mailto:j.birch2@lse.ac.uk)

**Octopuses, crabs and lobsters are probably sentient, yet their welfare needs are poorly protected in the food system. Upholding animal welfare in the seafood industry presents challenges and more research is needed to address humane capture, housing and slaughter.**

Every year, humans consume billions of cephalopod molluscs (including octopus, squid, and cuttlefish) and decapod crustaceans (including crabs, lobsters, crayfish, and shrimp) (**Figure 1**). Billions more of these invertebrate animals are slaughtered than the combined total of cows, sheep, pigs, and chickens<sup>1</sup> – and are frequently slaughtered using methods that would not be allowed for livestock. Caught octopuses may be asphyxiated or clubbed to death; live crabs are dismembered; and lobsters are boiled alive<sup>1</sup>.

## Is there a welfare problem?

Sentience is the capacity to have feelings. It is more than just the capacity to feel pain, although pain and distress raise the most urgent ethical issues. In most countries, animal welfare legislation does not protect cephalopods or decapods. The UK's Animal Welfare Act 2006, for instance, only covers vertebrates as invertebrates have often been viewed as not sentient. If we could be confident that octopuses, crabs and lobsters feel nothing when processed and slaughtered, it might be reasonable to leave them out of animal welfare laws. However, a growing body of evidence points the other way.

The UK government commissioned us to evaluate the evidence for sentience in cephalopods and decapods, to determine whether their welfare should be enshrined in legislation. We developed eight criteria for sentience, which encompass both whether the animal's nervous system can support sentience, and whether its behaviour indicates sentience<sup>2,3</sup>. In our report, which reviewed over 300 scientific studies, we found strong and diverse evidence for sentience in both cephalopods and decapods<sup>2</sup>. We found no clear evidence that either group failed any criteria. Where criteria were not shown to be satisfied, this was invariably due to a lack of evidence rather than clear evidence of absence.

Differences in the strength of evidence between species also tended to reflect biases in scientific attention. Octopuses and true crabs have received sustained scientific attention,

44 leading to abundant evidence for sentience, whereas shrimps (for example) have barely  
45 been studied, leading to less evidence. To prevent these disparities in scientific attention  
46 from disproportionately affecting legislation, we advised against restricting the scope of  
47 protection to just some cephalopods (e.g., octopuses) or some decapods (e.g., true crabs).

48

49 The UK government subsequently amended the Animal Welfare (Sentience) Bill, expanding  
50 it to cover all cephalopod molluscs and all decapod crustaceans. The bill recently became  
51 law, and the Animal Welfare (Sentience) Act 2022 now legally recognises these  
52 invertebrates as sentient. Invertebrates also receive some legal protection in a handful of  
53 other countries, including Switzerland, New Zealand and Norway. But what are the  
54 implications for pathways to sustainable seafood? And how can industry minimise potential  
55 animal welfare issues?

56

### 57 **Welfare risks for cephalopod molluscs**

58

59 Cephalopods caught from the wild usually die during capture and landing, unlike decapods  
60 (which are often transported live before slaughter). Welfare issues are similar to those for  
61 wild-caught fish.

62

63 Nets and poorly designed tanks can injure or cause abrasions to cephalopods' soft skin,  
64 leading to infections which are often fatal. Fishing nets can also cause cephalopods to  
65 suffocate or be crushed under the weight of other animals. Little research has sought to  
66 address these risks, although promising interventions may include softer netting materials  
67 and alternative capture methods<sup>4</sup>.

68

69 Traps present other problems such as cannibalism, which has been observed in some  
70 commonly studied species of octopus, squid, and cuttlefish<sup>5</sup>. Cannibalism has been linked to  
71 high densities and frequency of encounters between individuals, so rates are higher when  
72 decapods are trapped together. Furthermore, fights increase stress, which can contribute to  
73 self-cannibalism (i.e., individuals eating their own arms<sup>6</sup>).

74

75 Cephalopods have some attractive qualities for commercial aquaculture: high economic  
76 value, growth rate, protein content, and fecundity. However, current cephalopod  
77 aquaculture is incompatible with good welfare<sup>7</sup> and leads to a range of welfare issues.  
78 Conspecific aggression, including cannibalism, is a frequent problem when housing octopus  
79 in groups, particularly the commonly-used *Octopus vulgaris*<sup>7,8</sup>. Live prey is typically needed  
80 to avoid poor nutrition, especially for larval stages<sup>4,8</sup>. As this prey is most often decapod  
81 crustaceans (crabs and brine shrimp), there are additional welfare problems for the prey  
82 animals themselves.

83

84 Moreover, cephalopods have exacting environmental requirements. Oxygen, pH, CO<sub>2</sub>,  
85 nitrate, salinity, and temperature must remain constant to prevent poor health and stress<sup>9</sup>,  
86 and appropriate hiding places must be provided (shelters for octopus and soft substrate for  
87 cuttlefish). Small, barren tanks also fail to offer opportunities for exploration or cognitive  
88 stimulation, causing captive cephalopods to display indicators of stress<sup>7</sup>.

89

90 Finally, in both fisheries and aquaculture, no commercial cephalopod slaughter methods are  
91 humane. Terminal overdose with anaesthetic is the only recommended welfare-friendly  
92 approach<sup>10</sup>, but this is inappropriate for cephalopods destined for human consumption.  
93 Common slaughter methods include asphyxiation, clubbing, and reversing the body  
94 (mantle), all of which raise welfare concerns. Mechanical slaughter – cutting or puncturing  
95 the brain – requires careful and skilled operators to ensure it is performed correctly, and the  
96 level of suffering experienced is currently unknown<sup>10,11</sup>. For these reasons, it is not  
97 recommended in most cases, and seems particularly unlikely to be effective at a commercial  
98 scale.  
99

## 100 **Welfare risks for decapod crustaceans**

101

102 Decapods represent the fastest growing major fishery worldwide, with hundreds of billions  
103 caught and farmed every year<sup>12</sup>. Commercially important examples include brown crab,  
104 langoustine, and shrimp. Best-practice guidelines, where they exist at all, tend to prioritise  
105 product quality rather than animal welfare<sup>13</sup>. Welfare concerns are, therefore, prevalent  
106 during decapod farming, capture, transport, and slaughter.

107

108 A common practice is declawing, the removal of one or both claws, which are harvested for  
109 human consumption. In edible crabs, twisting off even one claw induced a substantial stress  
110 response within 10 minutes, and approximately 17% mortality within 24 hrs<sup>14</sup>. For  
111 laboratory-housed stone crabs, removing one or both claws increased mortality, compared  
112 to control individuals<sup>15</sup>. Declawed edible crabs tended and shielded their wound<sup>16</sup>,  
113 suggesting pain and suffering. If declawed crabs are returned to the ocean, relatively few  
114 are successfully re-fished and claw regrowth is very slow, suggesting limited commercial  
115 viability of this supposedly renewable practice (e.g.,<sup>15</sup>). Declawing was banned in the UK  
116 from 1986-2000; reinstating this ban may improve decapod welfare. If there is a perceived  
117 need to declaw, a possible higher-welfare alternative is inducing the animal to shed its claw  
118 (autotomy<sup>14</sup>).

119

120 Nicking, a practice associated with brown crab fisheries, involves cutting the tendons of a  
121 decapod's claw. This makes crabs safer to handle and limits aggression during transport.  
122 However, nicking elevates haemolymph glucose and lactate (potential signs of stress), as  
123 well as the risk of muscle necrosis and pathology<sup>17</sup>. Using individual transport containers or  
124 noninvasively immobilising claws are two possible alternatives.

125

126 During capture and transport, accidental physical injuries include cracked carapaces,  
127 damaged antennae, and limb loss. These are not just welfare issues: intact animals generally  
128 command higher prices than injured ones, which can spoil rapidly. Hence, industry best-  
129 practice guidelines already emphasise careful handling<sup>13</sup>. Means of avoiding injury vary  
130 between species. With langoustine, for example, creels (baskets) cause lower physiological  
131 stress, mortality, and physical damage than trawl nets<sup>18</sup>.

132

133 Intact decapods may be transported and kept alive for days or even weeks before slaughter.  
134 Live crustaceans are also maintained in commercial aquaculture. To prevent both poor  
135 welfare and spoilage, their temperature must be carefully controlled. Salinity and oxygen  
136 levels should also be kept stable for immersed decapods<sup>19</sup>, whilst constant humidity is

137 important for “dry-stored” animals<sup>20</sup>. In addition, best-practice guidelines discourage  
138 displaying and transporting live decapods on ice or in icy water<sup>13</sup>.

139

140 A common practice in global shrimp aquaculture is eyestalk ablation: severing the eyestalks  
141 of breeding females to induce egg production. Ablation causes whiteleg shrimp (marketed  
142 as king prawns) to recoil and swim erratically<sup>21</sup>, and cauque river prawns to flick their tails  
143 and rub the uncovered wound site<sup>22</sup>. In both studies, the local anaesthetic lidocaine  
144 (branded Xylocaine) dampened these behavioural responses. It is, however, unclear  
145 whether the anaesthetic reduced pain or simply inhibited general responsiveness. There is a  
146 need for more evidence regarding sentience in shrimps, but we should take seriously the  
147 possibility that they can feel pain, and eyestalk ablation is therefore a severe welfare risk.  
148 Moreover, there is evidence that non-ablated whiteleg shrimp can produce more offspring,  
149 with better stress-resistance, than ablated shrimp<sup>23</sup>.

150

151 Wherever possible, effective stunning should precede decapod slaughter. Commercial  
152 devices can deliver electric shocks that induce a seizure-like state and (apparently) render  
153 large crustaceans insensible within one second<sup>24</sup>. Stunning devices are available for lobsters,  
154 crabs, and crayfish. Slaughter methods that would otherwise be inhumane can become  
155 humane if the animal is *effectively* stunned beforehand. Some electrical stunning devices  
156 may also be used to slaughter large crustaceans.

157

158 Without stunning, most decapod slaughter methods almost certainly entail substantial pain  
159 and suffering. Examples include boiling, chilling, tailing (twisting head from body), and any  
160 form of dismemberment. Large crustaceans dropped in boiling water routinely take over  
161 two minutes to die, likely in extreme suffering<sup>24</sup>. Whilst smaller crustaceans boil faster, they  
162 do not escape this severe welfare risk<sup>25</sup>. Chilling can paralyse and kill decapods, but it is  
163 unclear whether loss of sentience accompanies immobility, and whether chilling is painful<sup>25</sup>.

164

165 Lobster and crab nervous systems are relatively decentralised: lobsters have a chain of 13  
166 interconnected nerve clusters (ganglia) running down their bodies, whilst crabs have two  
167 main ganglia. Until the neural circuits that underpin sentience are precisely located, we  
168 ideally recommend rapidly destroying all these ganglia. This means slicing lobsters down the  
169 midline (whole-body splitting) and stabbing crabs through both ganglia (double-spiking).  
170 Even for these methods, however, it is unclear how many ganglia are typically destroyed by  
171 trained chefs.

172

173 Selling live animals to domestic consumers is a particular welfare concern. Live decapods  
174 can be ordered from online retailers and various supermarket chains without guidance on  
175 storage, handling, or slaughter. These animals are thus highly likely to suffer from poor  
176 handling, inhumane slaughter methods, and lack of oversight or accountability. Banning live  
177 decapod sales to private individuals would be a low-cost intervention to improve welfare.

178

## 179 **Future Directions**

180

181 Our full report developed a scientific framework to evaluate evidence of sentience, and we  
182 hope it is applied to other animal groups harvested for food. Insects and gastropod molluscs  
183 should be regarded as serious candidates for sentience, raising potential welfare concerns

184 about farming insects and eating snails. Moreover, we found virtually no work on larval  
185 phases of cephalopods and decapods. Future studies should investigate the development of  
186 sentience and determine whether larvae satisfy our criteria.

187

188 To ensure acceptable cephalopod welfare, best-practice guidelines must be developed for  
189 their capture, housing, husbandry, and slaughter (see<sup>10</sup>). Cephalopod welfare research has,  
190 however, been very limited to date. For example, no slaughter methods are both humane  
191 and commercially viable. CephRes, a non-profit that promotes and disseminates cephalopod  
192 research, plans to evaluate different stunning methods – a positive step, especially since this  
193 organisation does not focus primarily on fisheries or welfare.

194

195 Decapods, meanwhile, are often kept alive during transport, storage, and aquaculture, so  
196 their long-term welfare needs safeguarding. This requires more research on appropriate  
197 stocking densities, environmental conditions, and methods to prevent aggression and injury.  
198 Improving health and welfare assessment is also important to allow early identification of  
199 suffering, injury, or disease.

200

201 Humane slaughter research is another decapod priority<sup>25</sup>. We tentatively recommend  
202 whole-body splitting, double-spiking, and electrocution as the best methods, but these can  
203 take 10-15 seconds and require specialist training and equipment. For splitting, research is  
204 also needed to determine whether the entire chain of ganglia is typically bisected.

205

206 The Humane Slaughter Association, a charity that promotes food animal welfare, is currently  
207 funding research into crustacean stunning and slaughter, including methods that may be  
208 feasible on vessels. Shrimp research is especially urgent, as very little is known about their  
209 welfare, and there is continuing uncertainty about their sentience. This is despite 210-530  
210 billion shrimps and prawns being farmed in 2017, plus countless wild-caught individuals  
211 (<http://fishcount.org.uk/fish-count-estimates-2/numbers-of-farmed-decapod-crustaceans>).

212

213 Including cephalopods and decapods in the Animal Welfare (Sentience) Act 2022 was a  
214 milestone, but this law only leads to oversight of new legislation. Existing welfare laws must  
215 also be extended, including the Animal Welfare Act 2006 (which only protects vertebrates)  
216 and the Animals in Scientific Procedures Act 1986 (which only protects vertebrates and  
217 cephalopods). To date, the UK government has not amended either piece of legislation. We  
218 also hope that other countries recognise cephalopods and decapods as sentient, and take  
219 reasonable steps to protect their welfare.

220

221

## 222 **References**

- 223 1. Elwood, R. W. *Anim Welf* 21, 23–27 (2012).
- 224 2. Birch, J., Burn, C., Schnell, A. K., Browning, H., & Crump, A. *Review of the evidence of*  
225 *sentience in cephalopod molluscs and decapod crustaceans*. (Defra, 2021).
- 226 3. Crump, A., Browning, H., Schnell, A. K., Burn, C., & Birch, J. *Anim Sentience* 7, 1 (2022).
- 227 4. Iglesias, J. *et al. Aquaculture* 266, 1–15 (2007).
- 228 5. Ibáñez, C. M., & Keyl, F. *Rev Fish Biol Fish* 20, 123–136 (2010).
- 229 6. Budelmann, B. U. *S Afr J Mar Sci.* 20, 101–108 (1998).

- 230 7. Jacquet, J., Franks, B., Godfrey-Smith, P., & Sanchez-Suarez, W. *Issues Sci Technol* 35, 37–  
231 44 (2019).
- 232 8. Aguado Giménez, F., & García García, B. *Aquac Int* 10, 361–377 (2002).
- 233 9. Moltschaniwskyj, N. A. *et al. Rev Fish Biol Fish* 17, 455–476 (2007).
- 234 10. Fiorito, G. *et al. Lab Anim* 49, 1–90 (2015).
- 235 11. Andrews, P. L. *et al. J Exp Mar Biol Ecol* 447, 46–64 (2013).
- 236 12. Boenish, R. *et al. Front Ecol Environ* 20, 102–110 (2022).
- 237 13. Jacklin, M., & Combes, J. *The good practice guide to handling and storing live crustacea.*  
238 (Seafish, 2005).
- 239 14. Patterson, L., Dick, J. T., & Elwood, R. W. *Mar Biol* 152, 265–272 (2007).
- 240 15. Duermit, E., Kingsley-Smith, P. R., & Wilber, D. H. *N Am J Fish Manag* 35, 895–905  
241 (2015).
- 242 16. McCambridge, C., Dick, J. T., & Elwood, R. W. *J Shellfish Res* 35, 1037–1044 (2016).
- 243 17. Welsh, J. E., King, P. A., & MacCarthy, E. *J Invertebr Pathol* 112, 49–56 (2013).
- 244 18. Ridgway, I. D., Taylor, A. C., Atkinson, R. J. A., Chang, E. S., & Neil, D. M. *J Exp Mar Biol*  
245 *Ecol* 339, 135–147 (2006).
- 246 19. Barrento, S., Marques, A., Vaz-Pires, P., & Nunes, M. L. *J Therm Biol* 36, 128–137 (2011).
- 247 20. Woll, A. K., Larssen, W. E., & Fossen, I. *J Shellfish Res* 29, 479–487 (2010).
- 248 21. Taylor, J., Vinatea, L., Ozorio, R., Schuweitzer, R., & Andreatta, E. R. *Aquaculture* 233,  
249 173–179 (2004).
- 250 22. Diarte-Plata, G. *et al. Appl Anim Behav Sci* 140, 172–178 (2012).
- 251 23. Zacarias, S., Carboni, S., Davie, A., & Little, D. C. *Aquaculture* 503, 460–466 (2019).
- 252 24. Fregin, T., & Bickmeyer, U. *PLoS One* 11, e0162894 (2016).
- 253 25. Conte, F. *et al. Animals* 11, 1089 (2021).

254

## 255 **Acknowledgements**

256 This research is part of a project that has received funding from the European Research  
257 Council (ERC) under the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme,  
258 Grant Number 851145. The review of evidence of sentience also received funding from the  
259 UK’s Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra), Project Code AW0517.  
260

## 261 **Conflicts of interest**

262 The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.