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Codotto, Giovanni; Pizzol, Massimo; Hegland, Troels Jacob; Madsen, Niels

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## Model uncertainty versus variability in the life cycle assessment of commercial fisheries

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Keywords:	life cycle assessment (LCA), industrial ecology
User-Supplied Keywords:	carbon footprint, attributional, consequential, fisheries
Abstract:	Results from Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) studies are sensitive to modelling choices and data used in building the underlying model. This is also relevant for the case of fisheries and LCAs of fish products. Fisheries product systems show both multifunctionality because of simultaneous co-catch of multiple species and potential constraints to supply due to natural stocks limits or socially established limits such as quota systems. The performance of fisheries also varies across seasons, locations, vessels, and target species. In this study we investigate the combined effect of modelling choices and variability on the uncertainty of results of LCA of fish products. We use time series data from official Danish statistics for catch and fuel use of several fisheries disaggregated using a top-down procedure. We apply multiple modelling approaches with different assumptions regarding the type of partitioning, substitution, and constraints. The analysis demonstrates that, in the presence of relevant multifunctionality, the results are substantially affected by the modelling approach chosen. These findings are robust across years and fisheries, indicating that modelling choices contribute to uncertainty more than the variability in fishing conditions. We stress the need for a more careful alignment of research questions and methods for LCA studies of fisheries and recommend a very transparent statement of assumptions, combined with uncertainty and sensitivity analysis.

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# 1 **Model uncertainty versus variability in the life cycle**

## 2 **assessment of commercial fisheries**

3 Giovanni Codotto<sup>1</sup>, Massimo Pizzol<sup>1\*</sup>, Troels Jacob Hegland<sup>2</sup>, Niels Madsen<sup>3</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup> Danish Centre for Environmental Assessment, Department of Sustainability and Planning,  
5 Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark.

6 <sup>2</sup> Centre for Blue Governance, Department of Sustainability and Planning, Aalborg University,  
7 Aalborg, Denmark.

8 <sup>3</sup> Environmental Biology Monitoring group, Department of Chemistry and Bioscience, Aalborg  
9 University, Aalborg, Denmark.

10 \*Rendsburggade 14, 90000 Aalborg, Denmark. [massimo@plan.aau.dk](mailto:massimo@plan.aau.dk)

11  
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14 available in [Supplementary Information] Model uncertainty versus variability in the life cycle  
15 assessment of commercial fisheries at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8340321>.

16 **keywords:** Life cycle assessment, attributional, consequential, carbon footprint, industrial  
17 ecology, fisheries

### 18 **Abstract**

19 Results from Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) studies are sensitive to modelling choices and data  
20 used in building the underlying model. This is also relevant for the case of fisheries and LCAs  
21 of fish products. Fisheries product systems show both multifunctionality because of  
22 simultaneous co-catch of multiple species and potential constraints to supply due to natural

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3 23 stocks limits or socially established limits such as quota systems. The performance of fisheries  
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5 24 also varies across seasons, locations, vessels, and target species. In this study we investigate  
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7 25 the combined effect of modelling choices and variability on the uncertainty of results of LCA  
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10 26 of fish products. We use time series data from official Danish statistics for catch and fuel use  
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12 27 of several fisheries disaggregated using a top-down procedure. We apply multiple modelling  
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14 28 approaches with different assumptions regarding the type of partitioning, substitution, and  
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16 29 constraints. The analysis demonstrates that, in the presence of relevant multifunctionality, the  
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18 30 results are substantially affected by the modelling approach chosen. These findings are robust  
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20 31 across years and fisheries, indicating that modelling choices contribute to uncertainty more  
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22 32 than the variability in fishing conditions. We stress the need for a more careful alignment of  
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24 33 research questions and methods for LCA studies of fisheries and recommend a very transparent  
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26 34 statement of assumptions, combined with uncertainty and sensitivity analysis.  
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## 36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 There is growing attention to indicators of environmental performance of food products,  
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39 38 including carbon footprint. Consumers are increasingly demanding sustainable products and  
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41 39 producers rely on Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) among the tools to evaluate performance.  
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43 40 However, in contrast to standard voluntary environmental labels, LCA results are not the  
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45 41 outcome of a checklist of measurements but the outcome of a modelling exercise. While the  
46  
47 42 use of quantitative indicators based on the results of LCA models can give the impression of  
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49 43 high accuracy, the estimates are obtained from a series of subjective modelling choices and  
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51 44 present varying degrees of uncertainty.  
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56 45 High sensitivity to assumptions and high uncertainty represent recognized problems with  
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58 46 models used for decision making in the sustainability domain (Saltelli et al., 2020). Within the  
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4 47 context of LCA it is well-known that modelling choices can substantially affect the results (Lo  
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6 48 Piano & Benini, 2022), particularly when using different approaches to the solving of  
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8 49 multifunctionality and to the definition of supply mixes. The influence of modelling choices  
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10 50 on results has been explored in several studies across different sectors and products such as  
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12 51 wood (De Rosa et al., 2018), meat (Wilfart et al., 2021), biorefinery products (Sandin et al.,  
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14 52 2015), bioenergy (Brandao et al., 2022; Wardenaar et al., 2012) and fish (Avadí and Fréon  
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16 53 2013), just to mention a few. LCA results can also vary substantially due to intrinsic variability  
17  
18 54 of the processes under analysis. This variability can be related to differences in the performance  
19  
20 55 of production activities across time and space and affects some activities more than others  
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22 56 (AzariJafari et al., 2018; Grassauer et al., 2022).

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27 57 While it is arguably difficult to rigorously classify uncertainty in the context of LCA, various  
28  
29 58 recent studies have attempted this (Brandao et al., 2022; Clavreul et al., 2012; Igos et al., 2019;  
30  
31 59 Lo Piano & Benini, 2022). Generalizing across them, it is possible to divide uncertainty  
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33 60 between two main distinct sources: *epistemic* and *aleatory*. For practical purposes, uncertainty  
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35 61 due to modelling choices can be defined as epistemic, because it concerns the challenge of  
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37 62 using a simplified model to represent a complex reality of which we have only partial  
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39 63 knowledge. Other sources of epistemic uncertainty include characterization factors, system  
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41 64 boundaries, cut-off criteria, data collection schemes etc. (Henriksson et al., 2015; Hertwich et  
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43 65 al., 2008; Huijbregts, 1998; Lloyd & Ries, 2007)

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48 66 The uncertainty due to the data input to the model can be defined as aleatory because it concerns  
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50 67 the challenge of generalizing or providing an instantaneous picture of a process, of which we  
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52 68 have limited records, that manifests intrinsic variability. To provide sound decision support a  
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54 69 strong focus on the analysis of sources of uncertainty and sensitivity is generally advised in the  
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56 70 interpretation of LCA results (Ross et al., 2002; Weidema, 2009).

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3 71 The product systems of commercial fisheries show both multifunctionality because of  
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5 72 simultaneous co-catch of multiple species (Ayer et al., 2006; Bastardie et al., 2022) and  
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7 73 potential constraints to supply due to natural stock limits or socially established limits such as  
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10 74 quota systems (Froehlich et al., 2018). Moreover, commercial fisheries do not operate in  
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12 75 controlled conditions and their performance shows yearly and seasonal variability that  
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14 76 translates into uncertainty regarding the estimation of the impact of single fish species or  
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16 77 fishing methods.  
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19 78 Since there is not only one univocal way of accounting for the impacts of fisheries in a life  
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21 79 cycle perspective, it is key to understand what LCA models align with which questions, and  
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23 80 how the choice of model and data can change results and contribute to their uncertainty.  
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27 81 Focusing on epistemic, system modelling-related uncertainties, Ziegler and Hansson (2003)  
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29 82 document that the use of mass- or revenue-based allocation considerably change results, up to  
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31 83 31%, and suggest system expansion as most appropriate method, followed by revenue-based  
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33 84 allocation, for mixed fisheries. Later, Ayer et al. (2006) conclude their review of problems with  
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35 85 co-product allocation LCA of seafood production by proposing allocation based on gross  
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37 86 energy content as best alternative but also argues for increased standardization and better  
38  
39 87 justification of allocation choices. Since then, several authors have reported how the allocation  
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41 88 choice has major influence on results and these may vary significantly according to co-product  
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43 89 allocation method (Avadí & Fréon, 2013; Thrane, 2006). Mogensen et al. (2021) reports large  
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45 90 differences between attributional and consequential studies and consider most marine capture  
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47 91 fish species as a constrained resource that cannot be increased.  
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53 92 When comparing these two approaches to LCA modeling, as per Avadí & Fréon (2013), the  
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55 93 predominant perspective adopted in the field of fisheries is attributional. However, this figure  
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57 94 might be outdated, as no more recent reviews of LCA modeling in this specific field could be  
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59 95 found.  
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3 96 The consequential approach is increasingly being used in the LCA of food products (Schmidt  
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5 97 et al., 2021) and it has also been recommended for use in the fishery sector (Vázquez-Rowe &  
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7 98 Benetto, 2014). When considering other sources of seafood, such as aquaculture, Philis et al.  
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10 99 (2019) report only one consequential study, while according to Bohnes & Laurent (2019)  
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12 100 avoiding allocation of aquaculture co-product is very difficult.

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15 101 Focusing on aleatory, variability-related uncertainties in the input data, Ramos et al. (2011)  
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17 102 highlight the need to increase the time frame in order to include in the LCA the strong annual  
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19 103 variations of pelagic fisheries. Ramos et al. (2011) also identify high regional variability within  
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22 104 Northern-Spain fisheries of small pelagic species and recommend increasing the time frame  
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24 105 while paying special attention when reporting national or regional scale results. Ziegler et al.  
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26 106 (2018) find considerable variation within the year, but not significant between different years,  
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28 107 in a Northeast Atlantic trawl fishery. The variations mentioned can be mainly seen through the  
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30 108 variations in fuel consumption, which is highly related not only to the technology factor, such  
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32 109 as engine efficiency and fishing techniques, but also to the variation of fish stock status  
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34 110 (Bastardie et al., 2022; Ziegler & Hansson, 2003). All these elements combined lead to high  
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36 111 variability in fuel consumption in commercial fisheries.

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41 112 Summing up, the problem of sensitivity to modelling choices has been discussed already in the  
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43 113 literature on LCA of fisheries, and LCA results for commercial fisheries are associated with  
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45 114 spatial and temporal variations. Previous studies do not explicitly use an uncertainty lens to  
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47 115 address the effect of modelling choices and data variability on LCA results for fisheries. Thus,  
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49 116 for the case of fisheries, it is currently challenging to draw definitive conclusions regarding the  
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51 117 magnitude of uncertainty associated with individual LCA results (e.g. emission of fishing cod  
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53 118 in Denmark with a medium-sized trawler). Nonetheless, when considering both epistemic and  
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55 119 aleatory sources it is also difficult to define what are the largest contributors to such uncertainty.  
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3 120 The objective of this study is to systematically contrast the epistemic uncertainty due to  
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5 121 modelling choices and the intrinsic aleatory uncertainty due to the variability in fishing  
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7 122 conditions and vessels. Since LCAs are complex models where modelling and data choices  
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10 123 largely drive results, the work here proposed is relevant to identify what are the most critical  
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12 124 ones, as well as to provide insights into the size of uncertainty in a specific case. The insights  
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14 125 from this study are thus expected to be useful to both researchers in LCA and in fisheries, as  
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16 126 well as to stakeholders in the fisheries sector, to better understand and contextualize results  
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19 127 from LCA models of commercial fisheries.  
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## 22 128 **2. METHODS**

### 23 24 25 129 *2.1 LCA modelling approaches and methods considered*

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28 130 We distinguish here between modelling approaches, specifically consequential and  
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30 131 attributional, and modelling methods, like partitioning and substitution. An approach is here  
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32 132 defined as an internally consistent compilation of modelling methods that answer a specific  
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34 133 question, while a method is a practical procedure to build a model. Both approaches and  
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36 134 methods have been extensively discussed in the LCA literature (Majeau-Bettez et al., 2017;  
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38 135 Weidema et al., 2018) and we provide here only a succinct summary of the state of the art.

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42 136 In short, the consequential approach looks prospectively at the consequences of changes in  
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44 137 demand for a product, uses substitution to solve multifunctionality and marginal mixes to  
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46 138 model supply (Ekvall & Weidema, 2004) Marginal mixes include only the suppliers that can  
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48 139 respond to change in demand and are thus not constrained (Buyle et al., 2018; Weidema et al.,  
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50 140 1999). The attributional approach is arguably less strictly defined both in theory and in practice  
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52 141 but generally proposes a retrospective tracking of the impacts of a product, uses partitioning to  
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54 142 solve multifunctionality, and average mixes to model supply (Ekvall et al., 2016). The LCA  
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56 143 community agrees to a good extent that the two modelling approaches should answer different  
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3 144 questions and they are thus not directly comparable (Köhler & Pizzol, 2019; Weidema et al.,  
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5 145 2018). In practice, however, the choice of one or the other approach and the alignment of this  
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7 146 choice with a specific question is most often not clearly motivated, and there are studies that  
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9 147 use both approaches (Kua & Kamath, 2014; Smetana et al., 2019).

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13 148 For fisheries, multifunctionality occurs when a vessel catches multiple species at the same time,  
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15 149 a process defined as *co-catch*. In this study, the term co-catch is used in relation to the fish  
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17 150 species that are caught, voluntarily or involuntarily, together with the main target species in a  
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19 151 specific fishery. Using the partitioning method, the impact of the fishery is split between the  
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21 152 target species and the co-catch according to an arbitrary rule, like for example the respective  
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23 153 mass or revenue-based value. Since there is no objective way of choosing the rule, this  
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25 154 approach requires agreement in industry or across stakeholders, like it is done in the Product  
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27 155 Environmental Footprint (EC, 2013). This is a relatively intuitive method that is widely used  
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29 156 in the literature and solves the multifunctional problem, assuming consensus is reached among  
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31 157 the stakeholders - a process that nevertheless has been proven difficult or impossible in some  
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33 158 cases, such as the meat industry (Wilfart et al., 2021). Yet, the partitioning method introduces  
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35 159 distortions that might impede sound decision support. In fact, the implicit assumption is not  
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37 160 only that the demand of one fish co-product will not affect production of the other, but also that  
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39 161 each is independent. In the virtual reality of the model, they are produced by two separate and  
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41 162 independent activities. Instead, the substitution method assumes that co-catch avoids the  
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43 163 production of equivalent fish elsewhere. This method requires a deeper understanding of the  
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45 164 primary driver for the fishing activity as well as detailed knowledge of markets for all fish  
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47 165 products.

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50 166 Another key modelling assumption used in the consequential approach is to regard the supply  
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52 167 of fish from marine capture as “constrained” by natural limits of the system or socially  
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54 168 constructed limitations, often in the shape of quotas. Consequently, an increase in demand for

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3 169 marine capture fish might shift to other, unconstrained suppliers of an equivalent function, for  
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5 170 example aquaculture. Overall, at macro level, this assumption might be justified, as global  
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7 171 landings of capture fisheries have stabilized from around the 90s while the global production  
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10 172 of aquaculture does indeed show an increasing trend (FAO, 2022). On the other hand, this type  
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12 173 of model further requires various assumptions about consumer preferences and how they  
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14 174 substitute fish with other similar fish or protein sources – assuming one, fully connected and  
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16 175 seamless, global market for fish. Therefore, the assumptions might not be applicable at micro  
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18 176 level. For example, the response to increases in demand might be nonlinear, so that small  
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20 177 increases can be handled within the current carrying capacity of the marine ecosystem and  
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22 178 within the current quota system. In that case, the resource will only be constrained in cases of  
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24 179 larger changes at macro level. Abandoning this assumption, one would have to make the  
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26 180 disclaimer that the model will only be able to reflect small-scale changes in demand.  
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31 181 We apply in this study both the consequential and attributional modelling approach with  
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33 182 different but all formally legit assumptions, building up to six different models for each fishery  
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35 183 (Table 1). Detailed examples of direct application of these models can be found in the  
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37 184 Supporting Information (SI 1.2). Within the attributional approach we perform both mass-  
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39 185 based, revenue-based, and energy content-based partitioning. Within the consequential  
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41 186 approach we assume both a fully constrained supply of fish from capture fisheries, and  
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43 187 unconstrained supply, with either available or not available alternative production routes for  
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45 188 the co-products. These models are applied to multiple fisheries considering differences in  
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47 189 vessel lengths and fishing years to test the contribution of the variability in fishing conditions  
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51 190 to the overall uncertainty.  
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191 *Table 1. Approaches and methods to model life cycle impacts of fisheries considered in this study.*

Approach	Method	Question answered	Assumptions
Attributional	Partitioning by mass (mass allocation)	Retrospective: how can impacts of various activities be attributed to this product based on its mass?	The higher the mass of a product the higher the input needed. Assumes the existence of virtual monofunctional activity
Attributional	Partitioning by revenue (revenue-based allocation)	Retrospective: how can impacts of various activities be attributed to this product based on its revenue?	The higher the revenue of a product the higher the input needed. Assumes the existence of virtual monofunctional activity
Attributional	Partitioning by energy content (energy content allocation)	Retrospective: how can impacts of various activities be attributed to this product, based on its energy content?	The higher the energy content of a product, the higher the input needed. Assumes the existence of virtual monofunctional activity
Consequential	Substitution (Constrained activity)	Prospective: what are the consequences of increasing the demand for this product, when its production cannot be increased due to constraints?	Since production is constrained by quotas, increase in demand will not affect this activity but other ones

Consequential	Substitution (Unconstrained activity, no alternative production routes)	Prospective: what are the consequences of increasing the demand for this product, when it cannot be produced in any other way?	Increasing demand for a product can only be partially met by this activity and the rest is due to other activities
Consequential	Substitution (Unconstrained activity, alternative production routes)	Prospective: what are the consequences of increasing the demand for this product, when there are alternatives in the market?	Increasing demand for a product will be met by this activity, coproducts will substitute alternative production routes in the market

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3 193 The proposed models are applied to the datasets presented in the following section. To ensure  
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5 194 comparability between results, a functional unit is defined as *1 kg of live-weight fish landed*.  
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7 195 All results are scaled to this functional unit and calculated with the IPCC 2013 (100a) impact  
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9 196 assessment method for the global warming potential (GWP) impact category.

## 10 11 12 13 197 *2.2 Sources and processing of data*

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15 198 We consider five vessel lengths of the Danish fisheries: trawlers under 12m, between 15-18m,  
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17 199 between 18-24 meters, over 40m and over 40m for industrial fish - based on the aggregation  
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19 200 level of fuel data available. Vessels of length 12-15m and 24-40m were excluded from the  
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21 201 analysis as the other categories were considered sufficiently representative of the Danish fleet  
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23 202 and as data basis for investigating differences across models, which was the main purpose of  
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25 203 the study. According to data from Statistics Denmark (statbank.dk), in combination, the  
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27 204 fisheries considered in the analysis account for 79% of the total Danish catch in 2019 (about  
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29 205 500,750 tons) and 61% of the total revenue from Danish fisheries (266,6 million EUR).  
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31 206 Trawlers over 40 m are generally targeting pelagic fish in the open water column, whereas  
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33 207 smaller trawlers are generally targeting demersal resources close to or on the sea floor. Data on  
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35 208 these fisheries are available from the central authority on Danish statistics and were retrieved  
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37 209 for the years 2017-2019 to study temporal variability. The data were used to derive different  
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39 210 LCA models that could return a carbon footprint for different marine capture fish species with  
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41 211 a top-down procedure that can be applied systematically. The procedure consists of two steps:  
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43 212 disaggregation and then system modelling.

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45 213 Given the goal of the study, the collection of inputs required in the inventory phase of LCA  
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47 214 has been reduced to include only major sources of variability and uncertainty, which are direct  
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49 215 expression of fuel consumption. For this reason, the impacts of landing marine capture fish are  
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51 216 related only to the fuel consumption of the fishing vessels. This choice is supported by several  
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53 217 studies (Avadí & Fréon, 2013; Bastardie et al., 2022; Cortés et al., 2021; Laso et al., 2018;

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4 218 Thrane, 2006; Ziegler et al., 2013, 2018) that identify fuel consumption up to the landing stage  
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6 219 as the main contributor to the carbon footprint of fisheries. Since there is no available data in  
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8 220 the official statistics, the potential impact of the practice of discarding fish at sea before landing  
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10 221 was not assessed. Nonetheless, all models were applied to the same datasets, ensuring that the  
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12 222 comparative results remain consistent.

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#### 16 17 18 224 *2.2.1 Disaggregation of Danish statistical data*

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21 225 Disaggregation is here defined as a “top-down” procedure to transform data. It is considered  
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23 226 top-down as it takes starting point in the country-level data provided by Statistics Denmark,  
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25 227 which aggregate the total catch and fuel consumption for all fisheries of the same vessel lengths  
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28 228 in the same year.

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30 229 Data on the selected vessels included many different fish species. Before performing the  
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32 230 disaggregation of fuel consumption, some of these species were grouped together, when  
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34 231 considered part of the same fisheries. Data on landed fish were provided for Atlantic cod  
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36 232 (*Gadus morhua*), Haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), Saithe (*Pollachius virens*) and  
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38 233 European hake (*Merluccius merluccius*). These have been aggregated in the same group of  
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40 234 roundfish species, of which Atlantic cod represented between 45 % (Trawlers of 18-24m  
41  
42 235 length) and almost 90% (trawlers below 12 m and of 15-18m length) of total landed mass.  
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44 236 European Plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*), European Flounder (*Platichthys flesus*), Witch  
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46 237 flounder (*Glyptocephalus cynoglossus*), Lemon sole (*Microstomus kitt*), Common sole (*Solea*  
47  
48 238 *solea*) and Turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*) are aggregated in the same group of flatfish  
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50 239 species. Within this group, the amount of landed mass for European Plaice ranged between  
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52 240 56% to around 80% along all the vessel lengths. Given the fact that the above-mentioned  
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54 241 species are targeted from the same fishery operations, they have been grouped together in what  
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3 242 in the remaining part of the document is referred to as the “roundfish and flatfish” fishery. Data  
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5 243 were also available for pelagic species, namely Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*), Atlantic  
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7 244 mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), Atlantic horse mackerel (*Trachurus trachurus*), Sprat (*Sprattus*  
8  
9 245 *sprattus*) and industrial fish. Finally, for the category of crustaceans, landing data is provided  
10  
11 246 for Norway lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*). For each of the fisheries it is assumed that there is  
12  
13 247 a certain amount of co-catch of industrial fish. In this case, industrial fish refers to all the fish  
14  
15 248 that has been sold for industrial purposes, such as production of fish meal and fish oil, and  
16  
17 249 therefore not used for human consumption.  
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22 250 The composition of the fisheries in terms of amounts of determining product and co-catch have  
23  
24 251 been defined using fishery composition data from Thrane (2004). This data reported in  
25  
26 252 percentages how much of each species could be found in a specific fishery. We disaggregated  
27  
28 253 these data reducing the number of fish categories down to the main ones (Table 2) and  
29  
30 254 determined the total catch and fuel consumption for specific species or sub-groups of fisheries.  
31  
32 255 For example, starting from the generic “Vessels below 12m” category we derived three  
33  
34 256 subcategories of vessels, fishing respectively “Roundfish and flatfish”, “Norway lobster” and  
35  
36 257 “Sprat”. This might be interpreted as a subset of vessels fishing only these species, or a subset  
37  
38 258 of fishing trips targeting only these species. Once calibrated, the approach is systematic and  
39  
40 259 applicable to data on multiple years and vessel lengths. A detailed breakdown of each fishery  
41  
42 260 category is proposed in Table 2. while the calculation procedures and data sources used in the  
43  
44 261 disaggregation are provided in Supporting Information (SI) 1.1, as well as spreadsheets for  
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46 262 reproducing the calculation in SI 2.  
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55 264 *Table 2. Disaggregation of vessel length data into sub-categories.*  
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Vessel length (aggregated)	Target products
----------------------------	-----------------

Trawlers below 12m	Roundfish and flatfish Sprat
Trawlers between 15-18m	Roundfish and flatfish Norway lobster Herring Industrial fish
Trawlers between 18-24m	Roundfish and flatfish Norway lobster Herring Industrial fish
Trawlers above 40m	Industrial fish Herring
Industrial trawlers above 40m	Industrial fish

265

### 266 *2.3 System modelling with different approaches*

267 Different system modelling approaches were applied to the disaggregated fishery data. We take  
 268 the Trawlers under 12 m for the year 2019 as an example to explain the various modelling  
 269 approaches applied. In 2019 this fishery harvested 182 tons of roundfish and 385 tons of  
 270 flatfish, with the majority of species being Atlantic cod and European plaice. These species  
 271 were caught together as they to a large extent share the same habitat and seasonal reproductive  
 272 cycles. 420000 litres of diesel were consumed in the process, equivalent to 1367 CO<sub>2</sub>-eq using  
 273 an emission factor of 3.254 kg CO<sub>2</sub>-eq · l<sup>-1</sup>diesel. Since demersal trawling is species-selective

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3 274 only to a certain level, there is concurrent capture of additional mixed demersal species. Based  
4  
5 275 on the data available, all the fish harvested constitutes a source of revenue for vessels, but  
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7 276 roundfish and flatfish are the main sources of revenue as they have the highest share of total  
8  
9 277 revenue. Given the fact that roundfish and flatfish, which are to a large extent covered by  
10  
11 278 quotas, are in this case often caught together, and that there is a ban on discarding of fish species  
12  
13 279 subject to quotas, there is rarely the option to go for either. Nor would that be economically  
14  
15 280 viable for the vessels, which usually depend on a mix of quotas and species to make the fishing  
16  
17 281 operations profitable.

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21  
22 282 In LCA terms, we can classify this case as *joint production* (Weidema, 2018), as the activity  
23  
24 283 simultaneously produces two product outputs, the volume of whose cannot be varied  
25  
26 284 independently. The technology and intervention matrices for this multifunctional activity with  
27  
28 285 detailed explanation of the models are presented SI 1.2. Moreover, neither of the two products  
29  
30 286 is clearly the determining product (main driver for production) and neither is clearly the  
31  
32 287 dependent one. Additionally, there are different types of constraints affecting the output. One  
33  
34 288 is a policy constraint as the fishing activity is regulated by quotas on both roundfish and flatfish  
35  
36 289 separately. The other constraint is the availability of the natural resource of the fish stocks that,  
37  
38 290 in turn, defines the quotas.

### 39 40 41 42 43 291 *2.3.1 Attributional approach*

44  
45  
46 292 This approach assumes that the amount of diesel used, and thus the emissions generated, in  
47  
48 293 fishing operations are directly proportional to the quantity of species caught. Thus, the model  
49  
50 294 of the fishing activity is constituted of two (virtual) partitioned fishing activities each producing  
51  
52 295 one of the products. When using the mass-allocational rule, every fish species has the same  
53  
54 296 impact per kg therefore, as a matter of fact, co-products of the same fishery such as roundfish  
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56 297 and flatfish have no difference in terms of impacts per kg of product.  
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3 298 The second allocation case is similar, but this time revenue is used instead of mass with very  
4  
5 299 similar allocation factors due to similarity in the prices of the two products. Higher emissions  
6  
7 300 are then allocated to the products that have higher prices, following the logic that higher profit  
8  
9 301 can drive production. The multi-functional activity is here split into two virtual mono-  
10  
11 302 functional activities. In this case the input per unit of mass is not identical between the products  
12  
13 303 and any mass balance between inputs and outputs is lost.  
14  
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16  
17 304 In the third allocation case, emissions are allocated based on the energy content of the products.  
18  
19 305 Similarly to the previous allocation cases, fish products with a higher energy content receive a  
20  
21 306 higher allocation of emissions.  
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### 24 25 307 *2.3.2 Consequential approach* 26

27  
28 308 We considered three possible ways of modelling using the consequential approach depending  
29  
30 309 on assumptions regarding the constraints to supply.  
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32  
33 310 In the first case, the fishery activity is regarded as fully *constrained* and thus not affected by  
34  
35 311 increases in demand. In a cascading effect, the demand is transferred to another marginal  
36  
37 312 activity that is a supplier of a functionally equivalent product and that needs to be identified  
38  
39 313 separately. In this case, farmed rainbow trout (Samuel-Fitwi et al., 2013) is assumed to be the  
40  
41 314 functionally equivalent product, so we assume that the marginal production activity might be  
42  
43 315 an aquaculture activity. Additionally, this could even be modelled as a generic market for  
44  
45 316 proteins. The assumption that the entire capture fishery industry cannot respond to even small  
46  
47 317 increases in demand might be contested and might need to be relaxed. Nonetheless, the problem  
48  
49 318 of separating the two co-products: roundfish and flatfish, remains. Therefore, two further  
50  
51 319 approaches can be used.  
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56 320 The second case is that of an unconstrained activity with no alternative production routes. This  
57  
58 321 happens when neither of the co-products generate sufficient revenue to be considered  
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4 322 determining products. Additionally, there are no other unconstrained activities that can produce  
5  
6 323 an equivalent product. In the model, an increase in demand for one co-product leads to an  
7  
8 324 increase in fishing, that only corresponds to the revenue obtainable from this product. In the  
9  
10 325 example we use the same marginal aquaculture activity for both roundfish- and flatfish-  
11  
12 326 equivalent production, but these could be different ones.

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14  
15 327 The last consequential case is to relax the assumptions even further and identify a determining  
16  
17 328 product and an alternative production route for the co-products. The more co-product is caught  
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19 329 by a certain vessel length the less will be supplied by other vessels dedicated to it. This marginal  
20  
21 330 activity might be modelled as an aquaculture activity as in the example below, or even as a  
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23  
24 331 generic market for proteins (SI 1.3). This corresponds to the traditional substitution method.

### 25 26 27 332 *2.3.3 Assumptions regarding substitution*

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30 333 In a consequential model the substitution mechanism, although logic and sound in theory, can  
31  
32 334 be difficult to demonstrate or validate in practice. In this study we made two assumptions to  
33  
34 335 show how the results can change depending on the choice of marginal substitute for fish. We  
35  
36 336 first assume marine capture fish performs the same function (and can be substituted by) farmed  
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38 337 rainbow trout, modelled using data from a consequential study on this product (Samuel-Fitwi  
39  
40 338 et al., 2013), so we assume that the marginal activity might be an aquaculture activity.  
41  
42 339 Nonetheless, the consumer might, on average, substitute fish with a variety of products. We  
43  
44 340 thus modelled a generic market for proteins as marginal activity, based on statistics on the  
45  
46 341 average protein consumption in Denmark and removing protein sources that we believe were  
47  
48 342 not intuitively a direct alternative to a fish dish. Details on the calculation and sources for the  
49  
50 343 marginal protein mix are provided in SI 2. A more accurate modelling of consumer preferences  
51  
52 344 was beyond the scope of this study.

### 53 54 55 345 *2.4 Statistical analysis*

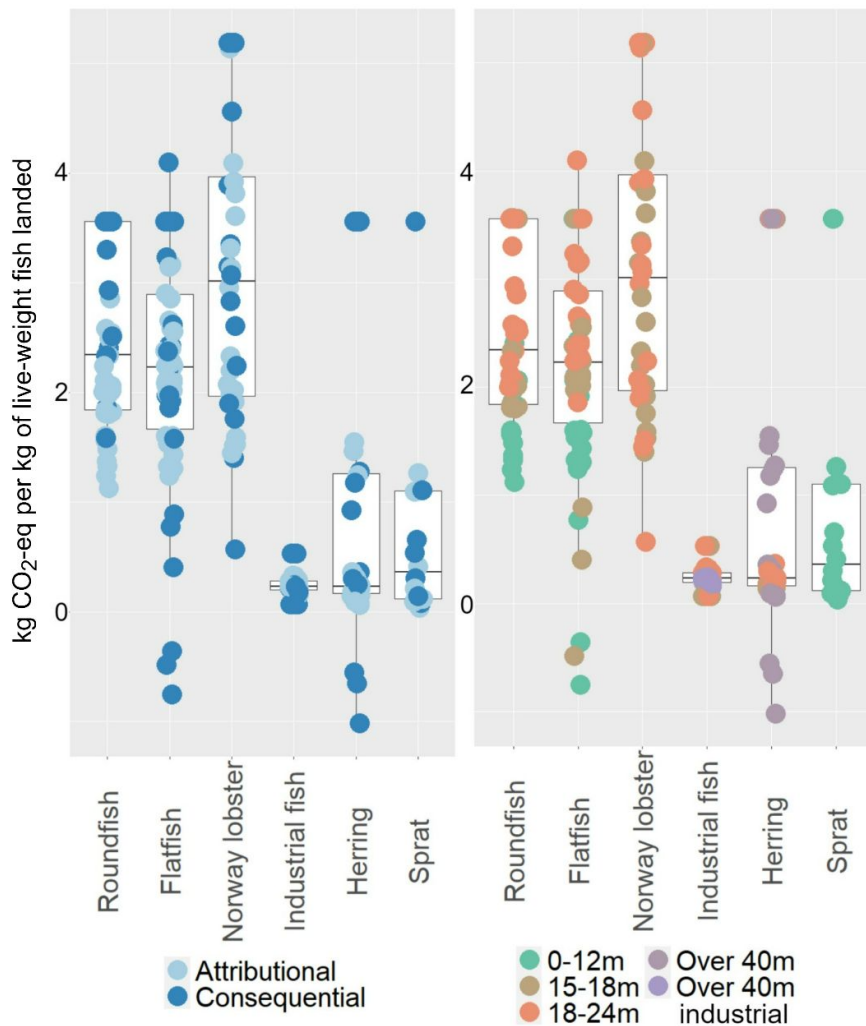
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3  
4 346 To better understand the contribution of each source of uncertainty, we performed Analysis of  
5  
6 347 Variance (ANOVA) and linear regression analysis on the results. We conducted the ANOVA  
7  
8 348 to understand whether different sources of variation namely the type of modelling assumption  
9  
10 349 used (epistemic uncertainty), the trawler length and the year (aleatory uncertainty) lead to  
11  
12 350 significant differences in the value of global warming impact. The regression analysis was used  
13  
14 351 to quantify the contribution of each source, each one represented by a categorical variable. The  
15  
16 352 statistical software R (R Core Team, 2021) was utilized in all cases.

### 19 353 **3. RESULTS**

21  
22 354 Figure 1 shows the results calculated for all fish species groups and LCA models where we  
23  
24 355 highlight the contribution to the uncertainty that is due to the choice of modelling approach  
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26 356 (attributional versus consequential, left side) and due to some of the natural variability in  
27  
28 357 fishing practices (vessel length, right side), respectively. The figure conveys how wide the  
29  
30 358 range of potential results that can occur is when every source of uncertainty and variability is  
31  
32 359 combined. We further stress that, while it is practically possible to plot all results on the same  
33  
34 360 chart, the attributional and consequential models are designed to answer different questions  
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36 361 and the absolute numerical results should not be compared directly – the reason why they are  
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38 362 plotted together is exclusively to compare the uncertainties by the range of potential impacts.  
39  
40 363 Figure 1 shows that the estimates obtained using the attributional approach are closer to each  
41  
42 364 other or have a smaller spread than those obtained using the consequential approach. The  
43  
44 365 overall interpretation of this figure is that neither the epistemic nor the aleatory uncertainties  
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46 366 alone can explain the total uncertainty satisfactorily. Looking at each source of uncertainty  
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48 367 individually does not reveal any clear pattern, and we therefore consider the two sources of  
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50 368 uncertainty in combination.

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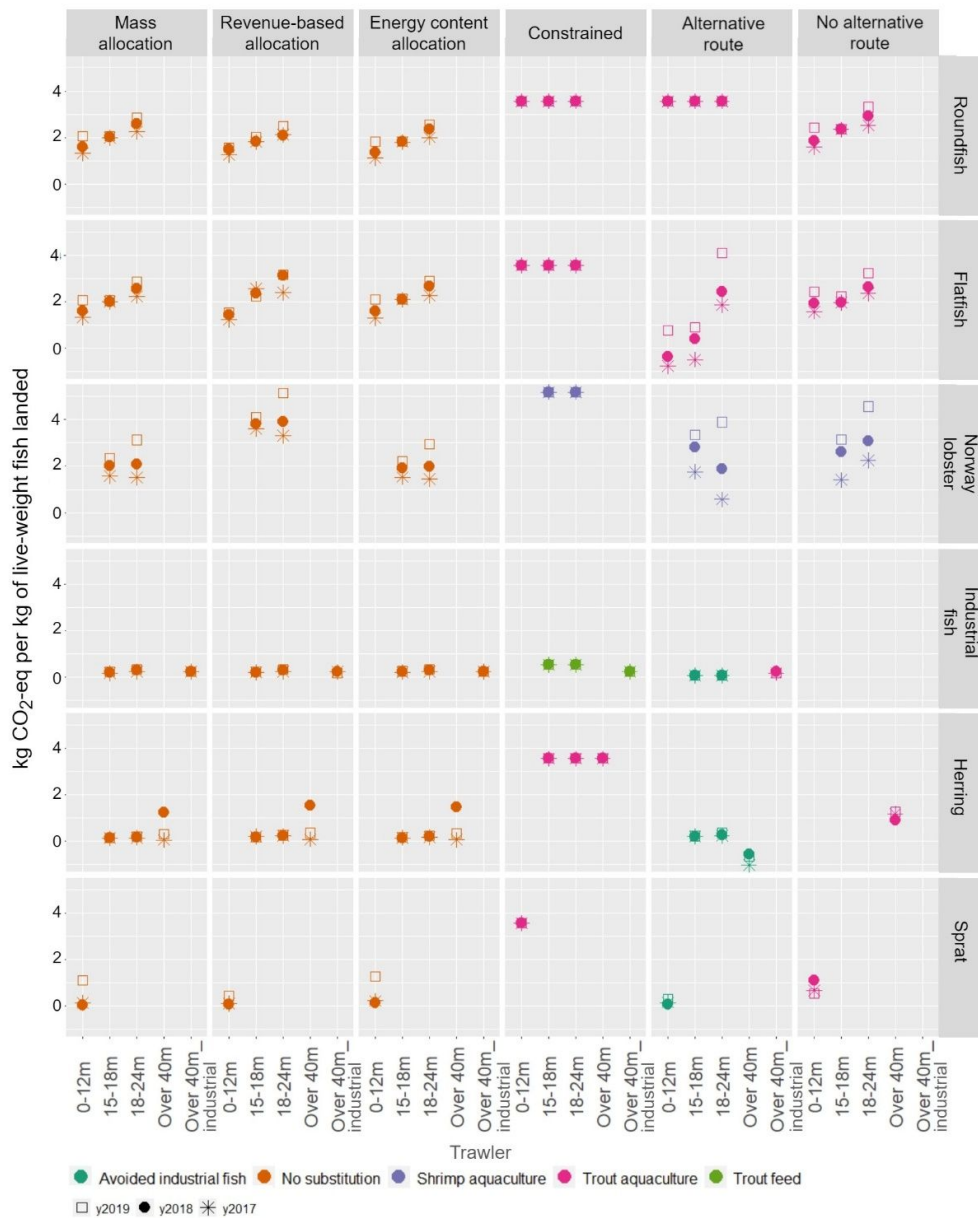
370  
371 *Figure 1. Sum of carbon footprint results obtained for each species according to two*  
372 *modelling approaches, consequential and attributional, on the left, and for different vessel*  
373 *lengths on the right.*

374 Figure 2 presents the same data but further decomposed, where results for the five different  
375 system models, two attributional and three consequential, are presented separately in multiple  
376 subplots according to vessel length and product under analysis. Within each subplot, replicates  
377 indicate measures for different years, showing three data points.

378 A pattern emerges now and our interpretation of the data is that the uncertainty due to modelling  
379 choices is larger than the uncertainty due to temporal variations and to variations in length of

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4 380 vessel. On the other hand, this trend is not equally pronounced for all products. Overall,  
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6 381 epistemic uncertainty appears always higher than variability.  
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8 382 Some results obtained with the consequential model present negative values. This is due to the  
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10 383 substitution effect in the alternative route consequential model. In fact, if a product is  
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12 384 substituted by another product that can be supplied with lower carbon emission, then the  
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14 385 emissions from demanding that product comes out negative. In this case we can use the  
15  
16 386 example of the Herring fishery (Figure 2). The Alternative Route model assumes that herring  
17  
18 387 is the main determining product, while the other species from this fishery (mackerel and horse  
19  
20 388 mackerel) are co-catch. For any amount of co-catch landed the production of fish from an  
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22 389 alternative source, trout aquaculture in this case, is avoided. As the aquaculture production  
23  
24 390 process has a higher carbon footprint, the net result is negative after subtracting these emissions  
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26 391 from the emissions produced by the fishing operation of herring. At the same time co-catch of  
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28 392 industrial fish is assumed to avoid its production from the industrial trawlers over 40m, where  
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30 393 it is the main product.  
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394  
 395 *Figure 2. full set of results divided in subplots according to vessel length, species, year and*  
 396 *modelling methods. The columns of Alternative Route, Constrained and No alternative route*  
 397 *belong to the consequential approach while Revenue-based allocation and Mass allocation*  
 398 *belong to the attributional approach. The colors indicate which product substitution is*  
 399 *performed within the fishery. Note that in the alternative route scenario substitution is*  
 400 *applied only to co-products.*

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4 401 We observe that for single-species fisheries (fisheries with no or low co-catch) the range of  
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6 402 results is smaller and there is larger agreement across models. This is because there is either no  
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8 403 need to make modelling choices regarding co-catch (such as partitioning or substitution) or  
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10 404 because the quantity of co-catch is so low in amount that the effect of assumptions is negligible.  
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12  
13 405 The results of the statistical analysis support the conclusions obtained from the visual analysis  
14  
15 406 improve the understanding of the data and the interpretation of Figure 2 (Full results can be  
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17 407 found in SI 2). The ANOVA test revealed that the choice of system model (constrained supply,  
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19 408 presence or absence of alternative production route, mass, revenue, or energy allocation) had  
20  
21 409 the most pronounced impact on the observed variance. Even though trawler length emerged as  
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23 410 a significant factor affecting variance in roundfish and flatfish, and year for Norway lobster,  
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25 411 the differences in variance attributed to the choice of system model were the only ones  
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27 412 consistently significant across all species.  
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31  
32 413 The regression analysis indicated that, among the categorical variables, the choice of system  
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34 414 model had a greater influence on the results, as evidenced by the highest value of the calculated  
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36 415 regression coefficients. Although in specific vessel lengths and years contributed significantly  
37  
38 416 to the variance in impact in some species, the coefficients associated with the year and trawler  
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40 417 variables were in general consistently lower than those of the system model by at least one  
41  
42 418 order of magnitude. Despite the limited number of variables considered and of data points  
43  
44 419 analysed for each species, the regression models explained rather well the relation between  
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46 420 variables and final footprint, with R-squared values between 0.7 and 0.9.  
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## 50 421 **4. DISCUSSION**

### 51 422 *4.1 The importance of modelling choices in terms of uncertainty*

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3 423 A comparison between uncertainty due to modelling choices and intrinsic variability, across  
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5 424 vessel lengths and years, was performed for Danish fisheries. In the context of fisheries, this is  
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8 425 the first study to quantitatively compare the two sources of uncertainty.  
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11 426 The results showed that modelling choices introduce an uncertainty that is consistently larger  
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13 427 than that due to the variability in fishing conditions. We considered two main modelling  
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15 428 approaches of LCA, attributional and consequential, and six respective methods within them,  
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17 429 to investigate how well their underlying assumptions represent the complex reality - this is  
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20 430 where model uncertainties become relevant. In this study, the attributional approach shows  
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22 431 more consistent results compared to the consequential one. This is because the price difference  
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24 432 as well as the energy content difference between co-products is minimal, so that the choice of  
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26  
27 433 partitioning method does not substantially change results. This specific condition is not easily  
28  
29 434 generalizable to other fisheries where the primary product significantly differs in price  
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31 435 compared to the co-catch, such as the case of Norway lobster. The higher the number of outputs  
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33 436 of the system, the higher was the effect of the assumption defining the model. This result  
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36 437 highlights also how demersal trawl fisheries, identified as mixed-fisheries, are affected by a  
37  
38 438 higher uncertainty compared to pelagic ones, characterized more by single-species. As  
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41 439 mentioned before, the multi-functionality of the system needs to be dealt with for any LCA  
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43 440 study, which can be considered a challenge not only from an LCA perspective but also for  
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45 441 marine governance in terms of stock management (Ulrich et al., 2017).  
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47  
48 442 Modelling choices in life cycle assessment of capture fisheries need therefore to be accounted  
49  
50 443 for and the chosen methods must be as transparent as possible. Besides modelling uncertainties,  
51  
52 444 other sources of uncertainty were analysed as well, among those the temporal variability,  
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54  
55 445 variability in species targeted, and vessel length. The contribution to uncertainty due to  
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57 446 geographical variability was not assessed. Results confirmed what was found in the literature  
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59 447 about temporal variability (Almeida et al., 2014; Ramos et al., 2011), as different years resulted  
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3 448 in different carbon footprints due to variations in fuel consumption. Overall, when these factors  
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5 449 are compared, uncertainty is dominated by the modelling approach, meaning it is consistently  
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7 450 more significant than that for temporal variability or vessel length. On the uncertainty  
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9 451 analysis, other approaches are available in the scientific literature on LCA of fish products. For  
10  
11 452 example, Henriksson et al. (2014) aggregates uncertainty and variability together; this is a  
12  
13 453 useful approach to derive a total estimate of uncertainty for the LCA results. However, in this  
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15 454 study we needed to maintain them separately to be able to compare them.

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19 455 In the context of LCA, an uncertainty analysis is especially relevant in the communication of  
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21 456 results to consumers. For example, the use of oversimplified product labels that only report the  
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23 457 numerical result of a complex LCA model, without reporting the uncertainties and the effect  
24  
25 458 of assumptions is problematic, as these labels can give a false impression of accuracy. nAn  
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27 459 uncritical and overconfident use of this approach can potentially backfire and ultimately  
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29 460 diminish the trust of consumers in LCA studies.

#### 30 31 461 *4.2 Considerations on the use of Attributional and Consequential approaches*

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34 462 The attributional approach, both with mass and revenue-based partitioning, is the main  
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36 463 approach that can be found across academic literature. The industry has settled around the  
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38 464 attributional approach where standards such as the GHG protocol, the Environmental Product  
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40 465 Declaration (EPD) as well as the upcoming Product Environmental Footprint (PEF) Category  
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42 466 Rules for fish products suggest using it (ISO 14025; Marine Fish PEFCR; WRI, 2014). The  
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44 467 market for food is, however, dynamic and influenced by changes in demand so a more realistic  
45  
46 468 picture of the effects induced by changes in consumption can be given by using a consequential  
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48 469 approach. The advantage of the consequential approach is that it takes consumers' perspective  
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50 470 into account by assessing the consequences of their choices, which is closer to the core purpose  
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52 471 of LCA. The consequential model used assumes only one unconstrained supplier of fish:  
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54 472 farmed rainbow trout. This choice is made for the sake of simplification, as introducing

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3 473 multiple potential products as potential substitutions would have complicated the interpretation  
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5 474 of results. While it is true that results for the consequential models are highly dependent on this  
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8 475 subjective choice, and different unconstrained suppliers would have resulted in different carbon  
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10 476 footprints, it does not change the interpretation of the results that model uncertainty is larger  
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12 477 than variability.

#### 15 478 *4.3 Study limitations*

17  
18 479 Although the study is carried out following the principles of ISO14044 (ISO 14044, 2006), the  
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20 480 scope of the assessment was limited to one impact category and one life cycle stage. In this  
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22 481 study the models focus entirely on the amount of fuel consumed by commercial fisheries and  
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24 482 the resulting carbon emissions, so other potential impacts are excluded from the scope of the  
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26  
27 483 analysis. This was a practical and deliberate choice motivated by the fact that the specific  
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29 484 objective of the study is to compare variability and uncertainty, so the focus is not on achieving  
30  
31 485 completeness but on narrowing the scope to a limited number of variables. The catch stage that  
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33 486 we have included is the most impactful stage in the fisheries sector - as mentioned in section  
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35  
36 487 2.2. Therefore, we are of the opinion that the decision to narrow the scope was justified to  
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38 488 fulfill the practical objectives of the study. Trawler lengths of 12-15m and 24-40m were  
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41 489 excluded as their data regarding species composition and amounts are close to the segments  
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43 490 included in the study, which already encompass fisheries with both demersal and pelagic target  
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45  
46 491 species.

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48 492 Assessing fuel consumption in fisheries LCA is a common challenge, as national statistics often  
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50 493 report it for entire fleet segments based on gear, length, or year. The disaggregation method  
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52 494 used to determine relative fuel consumption among different fisheries is a limiting factor in  
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55 495 achieving better impact assessment results. The disaggregation method relies on fishery catch  
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57 496 compositions from Thrane (2004), which is most likely outdated and does not account for  
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60 497 recent changes in fleet structure and practices. Additionally, assuming a fixed composition for

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3 498 each fishery oversimplifies the variability of catches, leading to a quantitatively different  
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5 499 composition compared to the baseline when allocating landed fish mass between fisheries.  
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8 500 These limitations do not constitute an issue in terms of reproducibility of the research but  
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10 501 reduce the accuracy of the results and should be considered when comparing results of this  
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12 502 study with carbon footprint estimates from other sources. We stress that, despite being old, data  
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14 503 from Thrane (2004) are the only published data regarding composition of Danish fisheries.  
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## 17 504 **5. CONCLUSION**

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20 505 In this study, different modelling approaches and data were considered and applied for the life  
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22 506 cycle assessment of Danish fisheries and the uncertainties in the results obtained were  
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24 507 discussed in depth. As shown in this study, LCA results are highly model dependent, which  
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26 508 means that the influence of modelling choices on the results is key to highlight when different  
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28 509 alternative products are compared and when the ranking of these alternatives changes with the  
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30 510 modelling assumptions. An uncertainty analysis is always recommended to nuance the  
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32 511 communication of results, as well as a precautionary approach when presenting side by side  
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34 512 results from different LCA studies– that due to the high number and diversity of modelling  
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36 513 choices made are in most cases not directly comparable.  
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41 514 For LCA practitioners in the fishery context and beyond, a takeaway from this study is to  
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43 515 increase focus on transparency around the implications of modelling choices, in particular  
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45 516 when making use of results and in their communication.  
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49 517 Since the attributional approach is based on consensus the decision of using one or the other  
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51 518 partitioning method is difficult to justify using an objective scientific argument, nor can it be  
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53 519 validated. We believe that the approach weakens the systemic understanding of the fisheries  
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55 520 context, as it aims to simplify the system under analysis by removing some of its parts and  
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57 521 creating virtual monofunctional processes that in some cases are unrealistic, like assuming non-  
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3 522 mixed fisheries where they are mixed. It is in general unclear how scientific improvements can  
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5 523 be carried out in an attributional context, besides finding better ways to reach consensus, and  
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7 524 it is thus difficult to provide here a recommendation for further research in this direction. On  
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10 525 the consequential approach, while it is in principle better suited to model reality and cause-  
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12 526 effect relationships in a systemic perspective, the uncertainties for the case of commercial  
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14 527 fisheries are large. This is because it relies on assumptions that are oversimplified and need to  
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16 528 be better scientifically grounded. Future research should focus on improving our understanding  
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19 529 of how constraints in the supply in the fisheries sector affect the assessment of life-cycle related  
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21 530 emissions for fish products. This includes identifying sound approaches to measure and  
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23 531 anticipate the shift in demand from fish to other food products, which are needed to model both  
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25 532 substitution effects and marginals supply within a consequential framework. An improved  
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27 533 model of this kind could also help to better comply with the purposes of LCA of decision  
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29 534 making and consumers' choice and provide more reliable results from this perspective.  
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### 35 36 536 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

37  
38  
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40  
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42  
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44  
45 540 *mistakes and omissions are purely the responsibility of the Authors.*  
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51 542 *There are no conflicts of interest to disclose.*  
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55 543

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58  
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4  
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6  
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735 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

736 **Supporting Information SI 1:** This supporting information provides a description and sources of  
737 the fuel disaggregation method for the fuel consumption data (1.1); a detailed description of the LCA  
738 models used, with technology and intervention matrices (1.2); a description and results of a sensitivity  
739 analysis performed to test alternative substitution choices (1.3).

740 **Supporting Information SI 2:** This supporting information contains the excel tables with raw data  
741 used and calculations performed to obtain the presented results. Furthermore, the R code used to  
742 perform the statistical analysis and plot the figures is included.

743

744 **Figure Legends**

745 *Figure 1. Sum of carbon footprint results obtained for each species according to two modelling*  
746 *approaches, consequential and attributional, on the left, and for different vessel lengths on the*  
747 *right.*

748 (Page 19)

749 *Figure 2. full set of results divided in subplots according to vessel length, species, year and*  
750 *modelling methods. The columns of Alternative Route, Constrained and No alternative route*  
751 *belong to the consequential approach while Revenue-based allocation and Mass allocation*  
752 *belong to the attributional approach. The colors indicate which product substitution is*  
753 *performed within the fishery. Note that in the alternative route scenario substitution is applied*  
754 *only to co-products.*

755 (Page 21)

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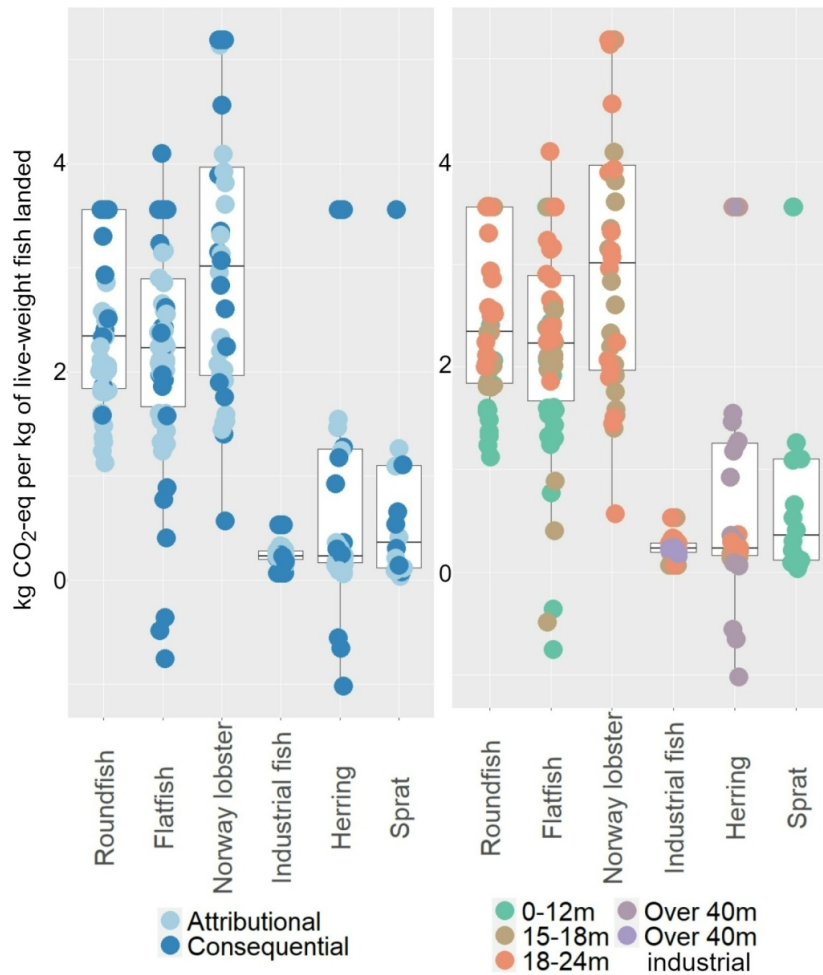
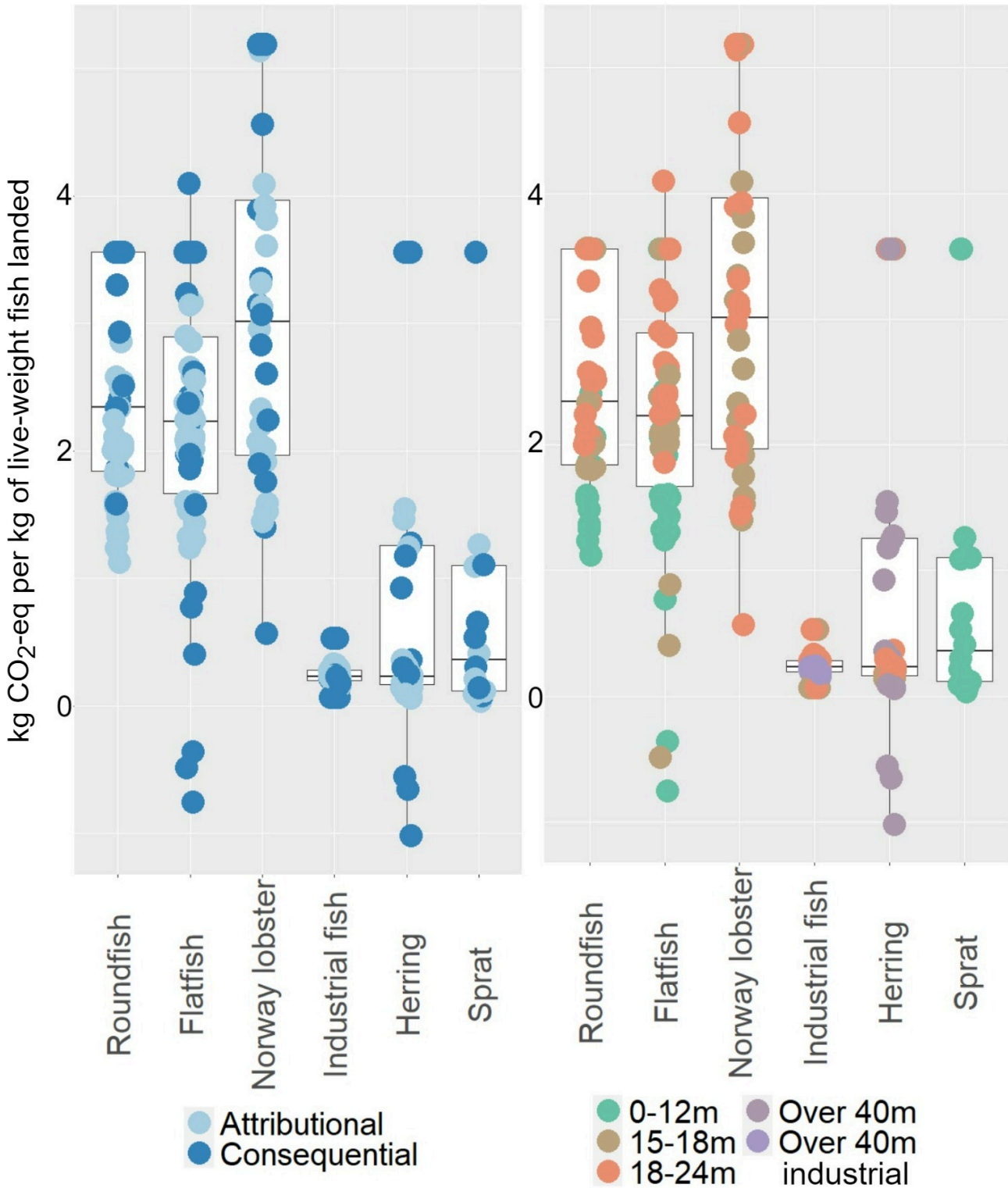


Figure 1. Sum of carbon footprint results obtained for each species according to two modelling approaches, consequential and attributional, on the left, and for different vessel lengths on the right.

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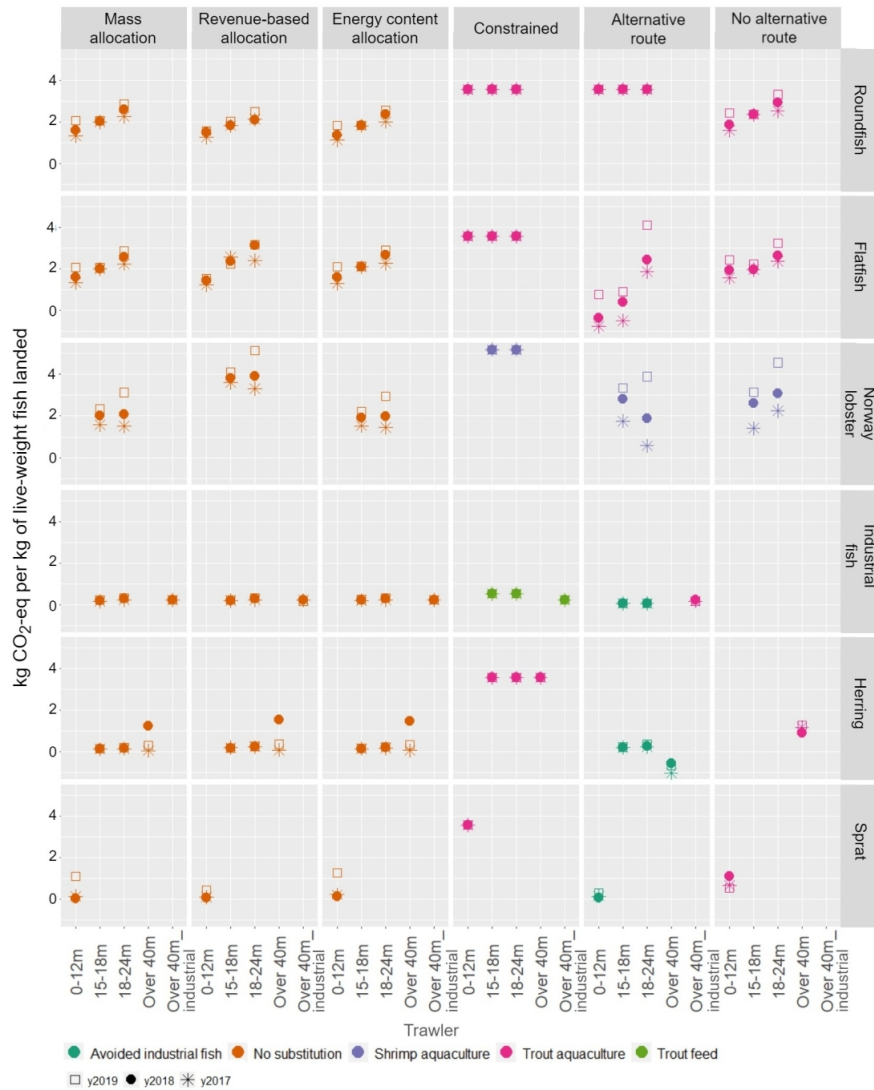


Figure 2. full set of results divided in subplots according to vessel length, species, year and modelling methods. The columns of Alternative Route, Constrained and No alternative route belong to the consequential approach while Revenue-based allocation and Mass allocation belong to the attributional approach. The colors indicate which product substitution is performed within the fishery. Note that in the alternative route scenario substitution is applied only to co-products.

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