



## **LCA of aquaculture systems** methodological issues and potential improvements

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# LCA of aquaculture systems: methodological issues and potential improvements

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## **Abstract**

*Purpose* The aquaculture sector is the fastest growing food production industry. Life cycle assessment (LCA) can be a useful tool to assess its environmental impacts and ensure environmentally-sustainable development. Years ago, critical reviews of LCA methodology have been conducted in that field to evaluate methodological practice. However, how effective were these reviews in improving LCA application? Are there any remaining issues that LCA practitioners should address in their practice?

*Methods* We tackle the above questions by critically reviewing all LCA cases applied to aquaculture and aquafeed production systems from a methodological point of view. A total of 65 studies were retrieved, thus tripling the scope of previous reviews. The studies were analysed following the main phases of the LCA methodology as described in the ISO standards, and the authors' choices were extracted to identify potential trends in the LCA practice.

*Results and discussion* We identified five main methodological issues, which still pose challenges to LCA practitioners: (i) the functional unit not always reflecting the actual function of the system, (ii) the system boundary often being too restricted; (iii) the multi-functionality of processes too often being handled with economic allocation while more recommendable ways exist, (iv) the impact coverage not covering all environmental impacts relevant to aquaculture; and (v) the interpretation phase usually lacking critical discussion of the methodological limitations. We analysed these aspects in depth, highlighting trends and tendencies.

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30 *Conclusions and recommendations* For each of the five remaining issues we provided  
31 recommendations to be integrated by practitioners in their future LCA practice. We also developed  
32 a brief research agenda to address the future needs of LCA in the aquaculture sector. The first need  
33 is that emphasis should be put on the construction of aquaculture LCI databases with a special  
34 need for developing countries and for post farming processes. Additionally, method developers  
35 should develop and/or refine characterisation models for missing impact pathways to better cover  
36 all relevant impacts of seafood farming.

37 **Keywords:** life cycle assessment; aquafeed; seafood; fish; LCA methodology; review; food  
38 production.

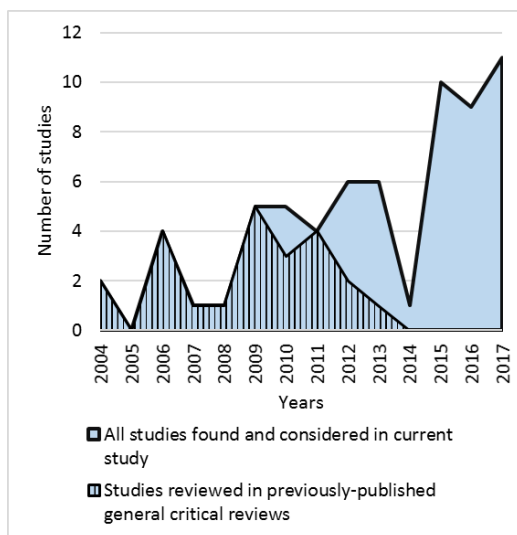
## 39 **1 Introduction**

40 Because of a growing global population, food demand currently faces a significant increase,  
41 which is expected to intensify in the future (UN 2017). As a main diet component in many  
42 countries and a healthy source of protein, seafood demand is no exception to that trend.  
43 Historically, fisheries were the main source of producing seafood, but with a majority of the fish  
44 stocks now fished at maximum capacity or at unsustainable levels, seafood production has  
45 progressively transitioned to aquaculture, for which production has boomed over the last decades  
46 (FAO 2016). However, the aquaculture industry remains associated with a number of impacts on  
47 the environment, such as climate change, aquatic eutrophication or loss of biodiversity due to  
48 escapes of farmed animals (Naylor et al. 2000; Diana 2009; Ottinger et al. 2016). It is therefore  
49 crucial to ensure that the fast development of the aquaculture sector happens in the most  
50 sustainable way possible.

51 A common tool to assess environmental sustainability of products or systems is life cycle  
52 assessment (LCA; ISO 2006). It has already been widely applied to assess aquaculture systems  
53 since the early 2000s. The number of LCA studies published in scientific literature has  
54 intensified in the last few years now reaching over 50 publications (Figure 1; Bohnes et al.,  
55 2018). Previous critical reviews have been made, looking at the findings of the LCA studies as  
56 well as the methodological choices of LCA practitioners (Henriksson et al. 2012; Parker 2012;  
57 Aubin 2013; Cao et al. 2013; Pahri et al. 2015). For instance, Henriksson et al. (2012) analysed  
58 methodological practices from 12 LCA studies of aquaculture systems. The authors concluded  
59 on a lack of transparency in the data used and reported, a limited coverage in the number of  
60 impacts assessed by the studies, and too narrowly-scoped system boundaries, for which they  
61 provided a number of recommendations to future studies. The aforementioned past reviews have

62 provided similar messages to improve LCA practice based other limited sets of studies (see  
63 Figure 1). However, now that the number of publications has more than quadrupled, how have  
64 these messages been taken up by LCA practitioners in the aquaculture sector? For example, has  
65 system boundary completeness and environmental impact coverage been improved in recent  
66 LCA studies conducted since critical reviews were published?  
67 Here, we conducted a follow-up critical review of all existing LCA studies in the aquaculture  
68 sector to address how LCA practice has evolved since previous reviews and recommendations  
69 were released and identify potential points that still remain to be addressed by practitioners. In  
70 the subsequent sections, we use this review basis to (i) critically evaluate the methodological  
71 choices of LCA studies in the aquaculture sector and provide a new set of recommendations  
72 wherever needed (Section 3); and (ii) outline a research agenda to address the requirements for  
73 more consistent LCA practice in the aquaculture sector (Section 4).

74



75

76 **Figure 1:** Number of LCA studies conducted on aquaculture systems per year since 2004

77 (extracted from Bohnes et al., 2018), and number of these LCA studies included in previous

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78 critical reviews (Henriksson et al. 2012; Parker 2012; Aubin 2013; Cao et al. 2013; Pahri et al.  
79 2015).

80

## 81 **2 Material and methods**

### 82 2.1 Identification of the studies

83 To enter the scope of this review, LCA studies had to comply with the following requirements:

84 (i) assessing at least one production system of aquaculture or aquafeed (i.e. feed for aquatic  
85 organisms farmed in aquaculture); (ii) focusing on seafood production for direct human

86 consumption; and (iii) including at least two impact categories (therefore, we excluded e.g.

87 stand-alone carbon footprinting studies). Only articles in peer-reviewed journals and publicly-

88 available peer-reviewed LCA reports published up to June 2017 and written in English were

89 considered. The studies were found using Web of Science online database

90 (<http://webofknowledge.com>) and Google Scholar research tool (<https://scholar.google.dk/>), with

91 the keywords “Life cycle assessment” + “Aquaculture”, “Life cycle analysis” + “aquaculture”,

92 “LCA” + “aquaculture”, “Life cycle assessment” + “aquafeed” and “Life cycle assessment” +

93 “aquaculture” + “feed”. Additional studies were identified by cross-referencing existing reviews

94 in that field (Henriksson et al. 2012; Parker 2012; Aubin 2013; Cao et al. 2013; Clark and

95 Tilman 2017). For further details on the identification and selection of the studies, the readers are

96 referred to Bohnes et al. (2018), who used the same pool of LCA studies to analyse trends and

97 patterns of environmental impacts from different aquaculture systems.

### 98 2.2 Review criteria

99 Studies were analysed following the main phases of the LCA methodology as described by the

100 ISO standards (ISO 2006a, b), i.e. goal definition, scope definition, life cycle inventory (LCI),

101 life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) and life cycle interpretation. Table 1 presents the list of the  
 102 main methodological choices retrieved. Data quality was categorised as Poor, Medium or Good  
 103 following the same criteria than Laurent et al. (2014). They were then compiled and analysed to  
 104 identify potential trends and patterns in practice, and their relevance was critically considered in  
 105 the context of the ISO14040-4 standards (ISO 2006a, b). Based on this analysis and the  
 106 recommendations made in previous reviews of LCA methodology (Henriksson et al. 2012;  
 107 Parker 2012; Aubin 2013), we identified and prioritised five important methodological issues.  
 108 These mainly relate to the scope definition of the study (one also addresses interpretation of the  
 109 results), which is an essential phase to ensure consistency and reliability in the LCA results.  
 110 Using ISO standards, we then established a set of recommendations to LCA practitioners to  
 111 potentially improve the quality of future LCA studies.

112

113 **Table 1:** List of the methodological choices retrieved from the reviewed LCA studies.

<i>Category</i>	<i>Information extracted from the studies</i>
General information	Mention of the ISO standards; Objectives of the studies.
Goal definition	Intended use of the study; Decision context.
Scope definition	Object of the study; Functional unit; LCI framework modelling; Multi-functional processes handling method; Elements entering and excluded from the system boundary; Scale of the study (e.g. number of farms, country studied, etc); Impact coverage.
LCI	List of data sources; Data quality (Laurent et al. 2014); Existence of a critical discussion regarding data representativeness; Software used for modelling.
LCIA	LCIA methodologies used; Normalisation (if applicable); Weighting (if applicable).
Interpretation	Existence of a sensitivity analysis; Elements tested in the sensitivity analysis (if applicable); Existence of a quantitative uncertainty analysis.

114

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115 **3 Past LCA practices and improvement potentials**

116 We retrieved and reviewed a total of 65 LCA studies on aquaculture and aquafeed systems. 51 of  
117 them assessed aquaculture production systems, 10 assessed aquafeed production systems and 4  
118 included the assessment of both types of systems. An exhaustive list of all the LCA studies  
119 included in the review is available in Table 2 for the studies assessing aquaculture production  
120 and Table 3 for the ones assessing aquafeed production.

121



122 **Table 2:** LCA studies assessing aquaculture production systems with their main methodological choices (Total of 55 studies; N.A. =  
123 Not Available; inspired from Bohnes et al. 2018).

Reference	Species	Technology <sup>a</sup>	FU basis <sup>b</sup>	System boundary <sup>c</sup>	MFPH <sup>d</sup>	Impact categories <sup>e</sup>			Other indicators	
						Non-toxic	Toxic	Energy	NPPT	WD
Abdou et al. (2017a)	Seabass/seabream	Net-cages	LW	CtF	A (bio m)	x	x		x	
Abdou et al. (2017b)	Multiple (polyculture)	Cages	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x		x	
Aubin et al. (2006)	Turbot	RAS	LW*	CtF	N.A.	x	x		x	
Aubin et al. (2009)	Trout/turbot/seabass	FTS/RAS/net-cages	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x		x	x
Aubin and Fontaine (2014)	Mussels	Bouchots	PP	CtF + pr + pa	N.A.	x	x			x
Aubin et al. (2015)	Multiple (polyculture)	Ponds	LW	CtF + t	A (ge; e)	x	x		x	
Avadí and Freon (2015)	Pacu/trout/tilapia	Ponds/floating cages	E	CtF + t + d	A (m)	x	x	x		x
Avadí et al. (2015)	Pacu/trout/tilapia	Ponds/floating cages	LW + E	CtF	A (ge)	x	x	x		x
Ayer and Tyedmers (2009)	Salmon/char	RAS/FTS/net-pens/floating bags	LW	CtF	SE; A (ge)	x	x	x		
Ayer et al. (2016)	Salmon	Net-pens	LW	CtF	A (ge)	x	x	x		
Baruthio et al. (2008)	Multiple (polyculture)	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x			
Besson et al. (2016)	Catfish	RAS	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x			
Boissy et al. (2011)	Salmon, trout	FTS/Net-cages	LW*	CtF	A (e)	x	x	x	x	x
Bosma et al. (2011)	Catfish	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (m)	x	x	x		
Boxman et al. (2016)	Tilapia	RAS (AP)	LW	CtF	SE	x	x			
Cao et al. (2011)	Shrimps	Ponds	LW + PP	CtF + pr + d	N.A.	x	x		x	
Chen et al. (2015)	Trout	FTS	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x		x	x
Dekamin et al. (2015)	Trout	FTS/RAS	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x			x
Roque d'Orbcastel et al. (2009)	Trout	FTS/RAS	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x		x	x
Efole Ewoukem et al. (2012)	Multiple (polyculture)	Ponds, integrated	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x		x	x
Ellingsen and Aanondsen (2006)	Salmon	N.A.	E	CtF + pr + t	A (m; e)	x	x			
Forchino et al. (2017)	Trout	RAS (AP)	Other	CtF	A (m)	x	x			
García García et al. (2016)	Seabream	Cages	LW	CtF	A (m)	x	x			
Grönroos et al. (2006)	Trout	Net-cages/floating cages/ponds	LW	CtF + pr + pa	N.A.	x				
Henriksson et al. (2015)	Shrimps/catfish/tilapia	Various	PP	CtF + d	A (m; e)	x	x			
Henriksson et al. (2017a)	Tilapia	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (m; e)	x				

Henriksson et al. (2017b)	Various (country production)	Ponds/Cages	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x		
Iribarren et al. (2010a)	Mussels	Rafts	PP + Other	CtF + EoL	SE	x	x		
Iribarren et al. (2010b)	Mussels	Rafts	PP	CtF + pr + pa + EoL	A (m)	x	x	x	
Iribarren et al. (2010c)	Mussels	Rafts	Other	CtF + pr + pa + EoL	SE	x	x		
Iribarren et al. (2012b)	Turbot	Sectorial approach	PP	CtF + c	N.A.	x			
Iribarren et al. (2012a)	Turbot	Sectorial approach	LW	CtF	N.A.	x			
Jerbi et al. (2012)	Seabass	FTS	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x	x	x
Jonell and Henriksson (2015)	Shrimps/catfish	Mangrove, integrated	LW	CtF	A (e)	x			
Kluts et al. (2012)	Catfish/multiple (polyculture)	Rice, integrated	LW	CtF	SE; A (m)	x	x		
Lourguioui et al. (2017)	Mussels	Rafts	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x		
Lozano et al. (2010)	Mussels	Rafts	LW	CtF	N.A.	x	x		
McGrath et al. (2015)	Salmon	FTS	LW*	CtF	A (nut)	x	x	x	
Medeiros et al. (2017)	Multiple (polyculture)	Ponds	LW	CtF	SE	x	x	x	x
Mungkung et al. (2006)	Shrimps	N.A.	PP	CtF + pr + t + d + c	N.A.	x	x		
Mungkung et al. (2013)	Multiple (polyculture)	Cages	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x	x	x
Nhu et al. (2016)	Catfish	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (ex)	x	x		
Pahri et al. (2016)	Cockles	Rafts	PP	CtF + pr + pa	N.A.	x	x		
Papatryphon et al. (2004b)	Trout	FTS	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x	x	
Pelletier et al. (2009)	Salmon	Net-pens	LW*	CtF	A (ge)	x	x	x	
Pelletier and Tyedmers (2010)	Tilapia	Net-pens/ponds	LW + PP	CtF + pr + pa + d	A (ge)	x	x	x	
Phong et al. (2011)	Multiple (polyculture)	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x		
Samuel-Fitwi et al. (2013b)	Trout	RAS/FTS	LW	CtF	SE	x			
Samuel-Fitwi et al. (2013c)	Trout	N.A.	LW	CtF	SE	x			
Santos et al. (2015)	Shrimps	Ponds	LW	CtF + t + d	A (e)	x	x	x	x
Seves et al. (2016)	Various (country approach)	Various (country approach)	LW*	CtF	N.A.	x			
Smárason et al. (2017)	Char	Ponds	LW	CtF	A (m)	x	x	x	
Wilfart et al. (2013)	Multiple (polyculture)/Salmon	Ponds/RAS	LW	CtF	A (e)	x	x	x	x
Winther et al. (2009)	Salmon/Mussels	Various (country approach)	PP	CtF + pr + t	A (m)	x	x		
Yacout et al. (2016)	Tilapia	Ponds	LW*	CtF	A (ge)	x	x		

124 <sup>a</sup>: Main technologies: RAS=Recirculating aquaculture system; FTS=Flow-through system; AP=Aquaponics

125 <sup>b</sup>: Basis of definition of the functional units (FU): LW=Live-weight; PP=Processed and packaged product; EW=Edible weight; \*: No explicitly stated FU.

126 <sup>c</sup>: System boundary parts included in the study: CtF=Cradle-to-Farm gate; pr=Processing; pa=Packaging; t=Transport; d=Distribution; EoL=End-of-Life; c=Consumption

127 <sup>d</sup>: Multi-functional process handling (MFPH): A=Allocation (m=mass; ge=gross energy; e=economic; nut=nutritional; ex=exergy); SE=System expansion

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128 \*: Non-toxic impact categories include climate change, aquatic eutrophication, stratospheric ozone depletion, acidification, tropospheric ozone formation, particulate matter  
129 formation; Toxic impact categories include human toxicity, and ecotoxicity; NPPU=Net primary production use; WD=Water dependence.

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130 **Table 3:** LCA studies assessing aquafeed production systems with their main methodological  
 131 choices (Total of 14 studies; FMFO=Fishmeal/Fish oil; FU=Functional unit; \*: No explicitly  
 132 stated FU.)

Reference	Type of aquafeed	Species	FU basis	MFPH <sup>a</sup>	Impact categories <sup>b</sup>				Other indicators	
					Non-toxic	Toxic	Energy	NPPU	WD	
Boissy et al. (2011)	Low FMFO aquafeed	Salmon/trout	Mass*	A (e )	x	x	x	x	x	
Cashion et al. (2016)	Conventional aquafeed	Salmon	Mass	A (ge)				x		
Cashion et al. (2017)	FMFO	Not differentiated	Mass*	A (ge)	x				x	
Fréon et al. (2017)	Conventional aquafeed, prime fishmeal; different factories	Not differentiated	Mass	A (ge)	x	x	x			
Iribarren et al. (2012b)	Continental vs. marine aquafeed	Turbot	Mass	N.A.	x					
Papatryphon et al. (2004a)	Different level of FMFO in aquafeed	Trout	Mass	A (e )	x		x	x		
Parker and Tyedmers (2012)	FMFO	Not differentiated	Mass*	A (ge; m)	x		x	x		
Pelletier and Tyedmers (2007)	Low FMFO aquafeed; Organic aquafeed	Salmon	Mass*	A (ge)	x	x	x	x		
Pelletier and Tyedmers (2010)	Conventional feed	Tilapia	Mass	A (ge)	x		x	x		
Samuel-Fitwi et al. (2013a)	No FMFO aquafeed	Trout	Mass	SE	x					
Seghetta et al. (2017)	Macro algae based aquafeed	Not differentiated	Surface of cultivation	SE	x	x	x			
Smárason et al. (2017)	Low FMFO aquafeed; Black soldier fly larvae based feed	Char	Mass	A (m)	x	x	x			
Strazza et al. (2015)	Food waste	Not differentiated	Not Proteins mass	A (m)	x	x				
Taelman et al. (2013)	Micro algae based aquafeed	Not differentiated	Exergy	N.A.	x	x				

133 <sup>a</sup>: Multi-functional process handling (MFPH): A=Allocation (m=mass; ge=gross energy; e=economic; ex=exergy); SE=System  
 134 expansion.

135 <sup>b</sup>: Non-toxic impact categories include climate change, aquatic eutrophication, stratospheric ozone depletion, acidification,  
 136 tropospheric ozone formation, particulate matter formation; Toxic impact categories include human toxicity, and ecotoxicity;  
 137 NPPU=Net primary production use; WD=Water dependence.

138

### 139 3.1 Making the functional unit reflect the actual function of aquaculture systems

140 More than 70% of the LCA practitioners assessing aquaculture systems have adopted a  
 141 functional unit (FU) based on a mass of live-weight seafood (see Figure 2a and Table 2). This  
 142 particularly high proportion reflects the focus of many LCA studies on the production side,

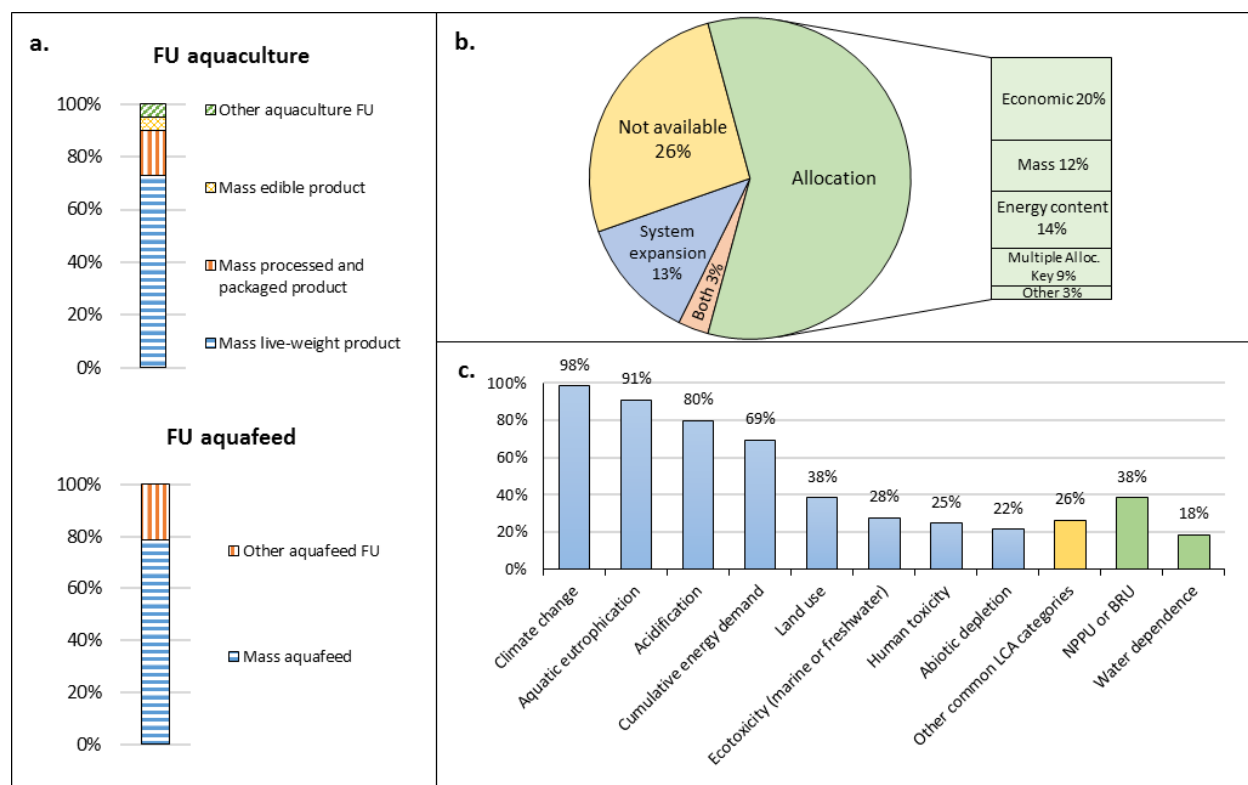
143 assessing a function based on the needs and benefits of the producer. It contrasts with the few  
144 authors (e.g. Avadí and Fréon 2015) that selected a mass of edible or processed product, hence  
145 basing their reference on the consumer needs, which convey a consumption approach. With  
146 regard to the 14 studies that assessed aquafeed production systems, 11 of them adopted a FU  
147 based on mass of aquafeed, while the remaining ones followed a different approach and used a  
148 mass of protein (Strazza et al. 2015), a surface of cultivation (Seghetta et al. 2017) or an energy  
149 content (Taelman et al. 2013) – see Figure 2a and Table 3. It should be highlighted that 14% of  
150 the studies had not explicitly defined and reported a FU, which thus had to be deduced from the  
151 text and tables/figures of the articles. This lack of transparency only slightly decreased since the  
152 last review of LCA methodologies, from 16% in the studies prior to 2013 to 12% in the more  
153 recent studies.

154 The FU is particularly important for comparative assessments because of the need to quantify an  
155 identical function for both systems to allow a fair comparison. Defining differently the FUs may  
156 lead to different ranking of the assessed solutions, as illustrated by Avadí et al. (2015), who  
157 tested two different FU based on either the mass of live-weight product or the mass of edible  
158 product. Furthermore, when assessing the life cycle of a food product, using a FU based on the  
159 product total mass does not reflect the actual function of that product, i.e. to provide nutritional  
160 benefits to the consumer (Sala et al. 2017; Sonesson et al. 2017). Most past critical reviews in the  
161 field already pointed out practitioners' preference to define a mass-based FU. They highlighted  
162 that the lack of consensus on the way to define the FU reduces the possibility of comparison  
163 between studies (Aubin 2013; Cao et al. 2013), and stressed the risk that the choice of the FU  
164 might change the results of the study (Henriksson et al. 2012; Parker 2012).

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165 To ensure consistency, it is therefore recommended to define the FU of aquaculture LCA studies  
166 based on nutritional criteria of the product, such as protein or energy content, as already  
167 emphasised by Sala et al. (2017) and Sonesson et al. (2017). A consensus should be reached in  
168 the LCA food community to determine which nutritional criteria the defined FU should rely on  
169 as a function of the goal of the LCA, so that future studies can align with this same basis and  
170 become more comparable. Such recommendation also applies to aquafeed systems. Indeed, the  
171 primary function of the aquafeed is to feed the fishes; that function is only captured properly  
172 when a nutritional reference is used. For instance, comparing plant-based ingredients with fish-  
173 based ingredients based on a mass alone, as done in several past studies (see Table 3), might be  
174 highly misleading, because the amount required to fulfill the needs of the fish is highly different  
175 for the two ingredients. To prevent such situation, we recommend to compare full diets to ensure  
176 comparability of the aquafeeds' function.

177



178  
179 **Figure 2:** Distributions of the 65 reviewed LCA studies (a) between the different types of  
180 functional units (FU) for aquaculture and aquafeed, (b) between the different methods for  
181 handling multi-functionality, and (c) between covered impact categories in the assessments.

182  
183 **3.2 Including all relevant life cycle stages of aquaculture production**

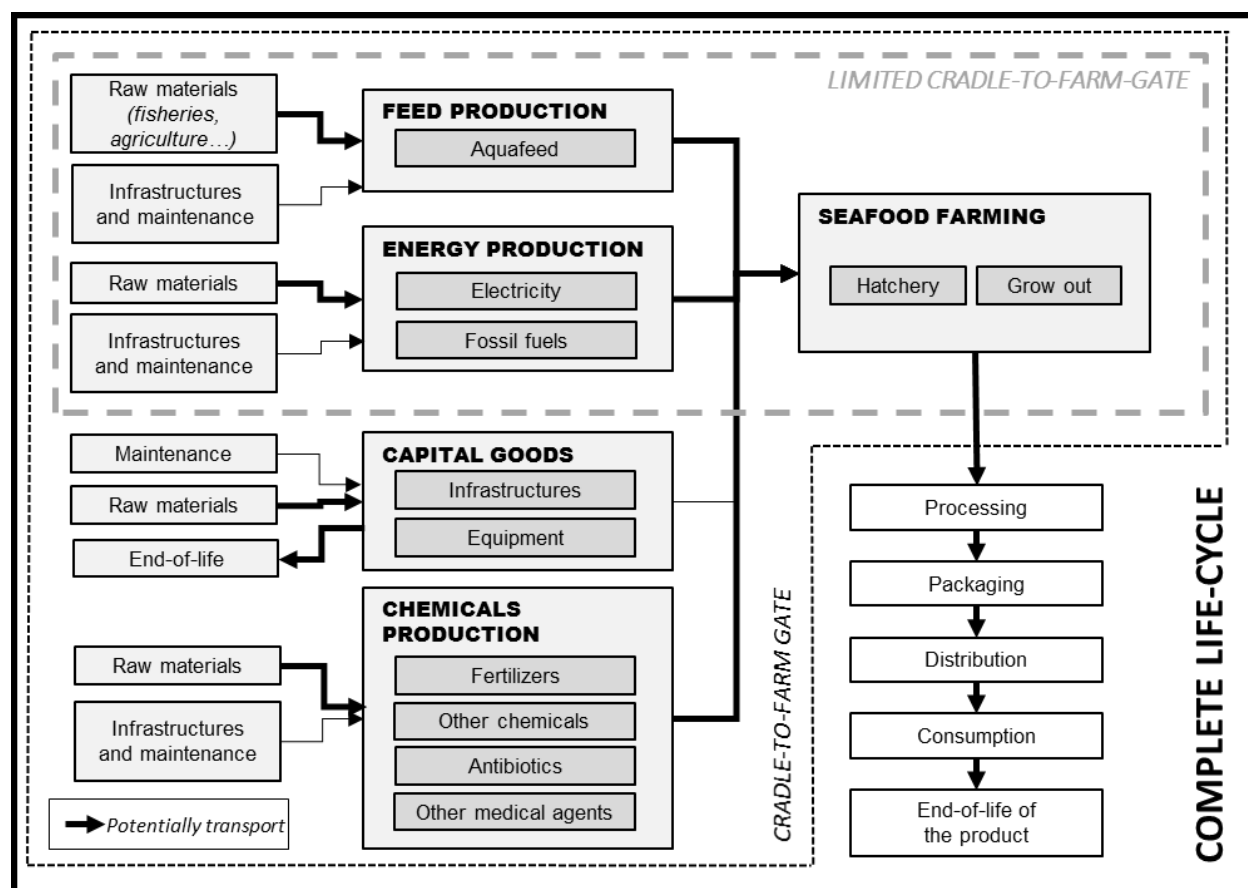
184 Several processes constitute the life cycle stages of an aquaculture production system. As  
185 illustrated in Figure 3, they can be divided as: feed production, energy supply, chemical inputs,  
186 infrastructures and equipment, seafood production, processing, packaging, distribution,  
187 consumption and seafood end-of-life. All these elements need to be included in an LCA to  
188 ensure a *complete* life cycle. However, 69% of the studies reviewed herein did not consider the  
189 last five aforementioned processes and ended their assessments at farm gate, conducting  
190 therefore “cradle-to-farm-gate” LCAs. Additionally, the production and use of chemicals and the

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191 infrastructures and equipment were often neglected, with only 64% of the studies including the  
192 first and 60% considering the latter. The reason stated by the authors for not including these  
193 stages are the expected negligible impacts these may have or the lack of primary data and  
194 available databases to support a consistent modelling.

195 Including all elements that may have important environmental impacts is necessary to conduct a  
196 comprehensive LCA and avoid burden-shifting from one environmental impact to another  
197 (Hellweg and Milà i Canals 2014; Ziegler et al. 2016). Some post-farming processes have been  
198 demonstrated to be of potentially great importance on the final impact scores, and can increase  
199 impacts (e.g. transport to distribution; Seves et al. 2016) or decrease them (e.g. reuse or recycling  
200 at end-of-life; Iribarren et al. 2010a). Parker (2012) already introduced the benefits of a larger  
201 system boundary than cradle-to-farm gate. Additionally, by conducting a detailed contribution  
202 analysis (i.e. hotspot analysis) from the documented results, Bohnes et al. (2018) found out that  
203 78% and 84% of the existing studies that adopted a complete life cycle reported a non-negligible  
204 contribution of 5% or more for the production and use of chemicals and for the infrastructures  
205 and equipment, respectively. Henriksson et al. (2012) had already highlighted the need of a  
206 broadly-encompassing system boundary and the importance of including infrastructures. We  
207 reiterate this still ignored recommendation to consider a *complete* life cycle when performing  
208 LCAs of aquaculture systems, using the processes in Figure 3 as guidance to ensure a  
209 comprehensive assessment of the environmental impacts.





210

211 **Figure 3:** Different stages and processes of aquaculture production and types of system  
 212 boundaries (adapted from Bohnes et al., 2018). The thick arrows represent the stages between  
 213 which transport can occur (dependent on case study).

214

215 **3.3 Using system expansion instead of allocation for handling multi-functional processes**

216 It is common in LCA that a single process produces multiple outputs or functions, called  
 217 therefore a multi-functional process. Usually, only one of the functions needs to be included in  
 218 the assessment, hence the necessity of methodologies to solve process multi-functionality. From  
 219 the retrieved studies, 58% of them selected allocation, 13% system expansion, and 3% used both,  
 220 while 26% of the studies did not explicitly state which method they used –see Figure 2b. A

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221 difference is witnessed between the studies published until 2012 and the more recent ones: the  
222 use of system expansion increased from 7% to 16%, and the proportion of studies not stating  
223 which method they used dropped from 36% to 19%. The use of allocation did not change  
224 considerably. As evidenced in the sensitivity analyses of numerous LCA studies included in the  
225 current review (e.g. Winther et al. 2009; Kluts et al. 2012; Wilfart et al. 2013; Aubin et al. 2015;  
226 Jonell and Henriksson 2015; McGrath et al. 2015; Nhu et al. 2016; Medeiros et al. 2017), the  
227 choice of method to solve process multi-functionality is of great importance for the LCA results.  
228 Past general reviews already noted the lack of consensus regarding the approach to be used for  
229 handling multi-functionality and, without providing explicit recommendations, they highlighted  
230 the need for a better argumentation to justify the choice of the approach applied (Henriksson et  
231 al. 2012; Parker 2012; Aubin 2013). According to ISO 14044, it is recommended to prioritize  
232 sub-division of the system whenever possible (ISO 2006b). However, the cases when this  
233 approach is possible are rare, and the second most recommended method is then system  
234 expansion, and, if that is not possible, the LCA practitioner should apply allocation, and  
235 prioritize physical allocation keys over other types such as e.g. economic allocation (ISO 2006b).  
236 Considering that more than half of the studies applied allocation, it is therefore legitimate to  
237 question whether or not system expansion is applicable in aquaculture systems. By analysing the  
238 studies that applied system expansion, it appears that this method can be applied in handling the  
239 outputs of several co-products related to aquaculture systems. Natural fertilizers can thus fulfil  
240 the same function as synthetic fertilizers (see e.g. Ayer and Tyedmers 2009, or Kluts et al. 2012),  
241 seafood or agricultural co-products are equivalent to the same products from conventional  
242 production ways, usually from monoculture (e.g. Boxman et al. 2016 or Medeiros et al. 2017),  
243 aquafeed co-products can be functionally-equivalent to the marginal corresponding ingredients

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244 (see e.g. Samuel-Fitwi et al., 2013), and waste products can generally be valorised, e.g. mussels  
245 shells used to produce calcium, thus replacing conventional means (Iribarren et al. 2010). The  
246 above examples cover most of the secondary functions arising from aquaculture and aquafeed  
247 production systems and demonstrate that using system expansion is possible in that area for most  
248 multi-functional processes.

249 However, some LCA practitioners have argued that some of the multi-functionality cited above  
250 are not solvable by using system expansion. We observed that usually this comes from a  
251 difference in the definition of the function to isolate. For instance, the production of fish meal  
252 always has fish oil as a co-product, and some LCA practitioners would isolate the fish oil  
253 production by expanding the system and include the production of other oils, e.g. vegetal ones,  
254 whereas other authors would argue that this is not reasonable because of the different nutritional  
255 compositions that make fish oil unique, hence the use of allocation. This is a legitimate decision  
256 of the LCA practitioner, but it is not always well justified in the articles under review and  
257 allocation often seems to be the default solution. Therefore, we recommend to explain in more  
258 details the reason why allocation cannot be avoided, and to state explicitly the function  
259 considered, which has no alternative processes. Once allocation have been selected, Figure 2B  
260 shows that a third of the LCA studies chose an economic allocation key over a physical one,  
261 which should be considered as a last resort according to the ISO hierarchy to solve process multi-  
262 functionality (see above: ISO 2006a, b). Indeed, economic allocation keys are not stable because  
263 of market fluctuations, which leads to constantly changing LCA results (Ayer et al. 2007). In  
264 most cases when system expansion cannot be applied, the multi-functionality concerns the  
265 production phase and therefore physical allocation such as energy-content or mass allocation can  
266 be used instead of economic criteria. This was already recommended by Ayer et al. (2007) in

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267 their critical review of co-product allocation in fisheries and aquaculture, where they argued that  
268 gross-energy allocation is the most scientifically accurate solution for the cases when system  
269 expansion is not applicable.

270 We therefore recommend that LCA practitioners follow more rigorously the hierarchy specified  
271 in the ISO standards to handle multi-functionality of processes. In particular, system expansion  
272 should be more prioritized over allocation as it is often applicable. Practitioners are thus  
273 encouraged to check previous LCA studies that used system expansion (see above examples) and  
274 when allocation cannot be avoided, to use physical allocation keys instead of economic ones.

### 275 3.4 Covering all environmental impacts of aquaculture

276 Figure 2c shows that a majority of studies included climate change, aquatic eutrophication,  
277 acidification and cumulative energy demand (all four categories covered in more than 50% of  
278 studies), but that all other impact categories are rarely included. Only few studies included  
279 toxicity impacts (25% for human toxicity and 28% for ecotoxicity) or land use (38%), and less  
280 than half included net primary production use (NPPU) and water dependence, two impact  
281 categories specific and of high relevance to food production systems (Aubin et al. 2009; Cashion  
282 et al. 2016). Overall, the spectrum of included impact categories was limited, their selection was  
283 poorly justified and exclusively based on the argument that previous LCA studies on aquaculture  
284 systems had similarly-limited impact coverage. Rare were the authors, who justified the selection  
285 of their impact assessment on scientific foundations about the potential relevance of different  
286 impact categories (see as example of good practice Avadí and Freon 2015).

287 In their critical reviews, Henriksson et al. (2012) and Aubin (2013) already highlighted the  
288 limited impact coverage of LCA studies on aquaculture. Together with the life cycle perspective,  
289 the impact coverage is a key element in LCA to ensure a holistic dimension and reduce the risk

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290 of environmental burden-shifting (Laurent et al., 2012). When some categories for which the  
291 system has high environmental impacts are omitted, the results might be biased and the decisions  
292 based on the conclusions might lead to suboptimisation, i.e. decreasing some impacts while  
293 increasing others as relevant. For instance, toxicity impacts may be of high relevance in  
294 aquaculture systems, as showed by Kluts et al. (2012), who found a different ranking in their  
295 comparative study for freshwater ecotoxicity than for most of the other impact categories  
296 assessed. Other impacts are as relevant. The inclusion of land use impact category thus has been  
297 recommended by several authors (Bosma et al. 2011; Kluts et al. 2012; Samuel-Fitwi et al.  
298 2013b; Dekamin et al. 2015; Jonell and Henriksson 2015), although it has until now mainly been  
299 assessed at an inventory level (i.e. total area of land occupied or transformed) without impact  
300 assessment. Additionally, indicators specific to biomass extraction that also account for the  
301 pressure exerted on wild fish stocks have been developed, and a number of approaches have been  
302 proposed although no consensus have yet been reached on a specific LCIA method (see e.g. Lost  
303 Potential Yield (LPY) in Emanuelsson et al. 2014 or Biotic Natural Resource Depletion (BNRD)  
304 in Langlois et al 2012). Therefore, we recommend the assessment of a broad variety of relevant  
305 impact categories in future LCA studies, including toxicity impacts and land use, as well as  
306 NPPU, water dependence and overfishing related impacts, which are not common to LCA  
307 applications, albeit relevant to aquaculture systems. LCIA methods for these categories exist and  
308 should be used, including, but not limited to, the USEtox model for toxicity impacts (Bijster et  
309 al. 2017), land use assessment method developed by Chaudhary et al. (2015) and recommended  
310 in Jolliet et al. (2018), the NPPU method described in Papatryphon et al. (2004) and water  
311 dependence introduced and developed by Aubin et al. (2009).

312 3.5 Discussing the results with critical thinking and highlighting the limitations of the studies

313 Out of the 65 reviewed studies, an overall good quality of the data sources used in the studies  
314 was observed, with 85% of the studies relying on primary data and adequate literature sources  
315 with respect to data specificity and scope (see Section 2.2). However, only half of the studies  
316 critically discussed the representativeness of the data, which consists of data that are appropriate  
317 in term of their geographical, temporal and technological aspects. To support the interpretation  
318 of LCA results, uncertainty and sensitivity analyses are recommended as part of the sensitivity  
319 check (ISO, 2016; Laurent et al. 2018). However, only 49% of the studies conducted a sensitivity  
320 analysis and 28% ran a quantitative uncertainty analysis.

321 The accuracy and hence the reliability of the LCA results are highly dependent on the quality of  
322 the data collected and the sensitivity and uncertainty underlying in the model. Therefore, these  
323 matters need to be critically analysed in the interpretation phase of the assessment during the  
324 completeness, consistency and sensitivity checks to support the conclusions from the results as  
325 well as the recommendations based on them. The review conducted by Henriksson et al. (2012)  
326 emphasized a lack of sensitivity analyses in the LCA studies, and the results of the current study  
327 also showed a lack of critical analysis, regardless of the time of publication of the studies  
328 (problem encountered in recent studies too). This prevents the reader from putting the results in  
329 perspective and assessing the robustness of the results.

330 Therefore, we recommend future LCA practitioners to critically discuss their LCI and include a  
331 detailed description of the limitations of study in the interpretation. We also recommend to  
332 systematically perform a sensitivity analysis of a large selection of criteria covering the input  
333 data and the modelling choices, and to conduct a quantitative uncertainty analysis such as a  
334 Monte Carlo simulations (available in most LCA software), wherever possible, to complement a

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335 default qualitative analysis. Guidance for performing interpretation of LCA results is available in  
336 Laurent et al. (2018).

## 337 **4 Research needs in LCA for aquaculture**

338 From the critical review of 65 LCA studies, we additionally identified two main research needs  
339 that should be addressed to improve LCA applications to the aquaculture sector: constructing  
340 comprehensive LCI data sets and developing missing relevant impact pathways. Both are  
341 developed in the following sub-sections.

### 342 **4.1 Increasing the pool of LCI data sets for aquaculture**

343 Several studies reported a lack of available LCI for modelling processes within the life cycle of  
344 aquaculture systems, hence preventing them from including these elements in their assessments.  
345 Data regarding all post-farming stages (e.g. transport, processing, distribution, consumption and  
346 end-of-life) are thus extremely scarce, if not inexistent, as highlighted previously by Abdou et al.  
347 (2017). For primary data collection, LCA practitioners are usually in contact with the seafood  
348 farmers, who often know little about the processes occurring to their seafood after the farm gate.  
349 Therefore the processing, packaging, transport and distribution steps are almost always missing  
350 from the assessment because of the lack of information, which might have an important impact  
351 on the final results. For instance, Winther et al. (2009) found that the transport can be a main  
352 contributor to the final scores depending on the distribution zone of the product, and Iribarren et  
353 al. (2010b) highlighted the importance that processing and packaging may have on the results.  
354 Specific processes of aquaculture are also poorly documented. Infrastructures for instance are  
355 problematic because some parts, such as the water filtration systems, are difficult to model by the  
356 LCA practitioners due their high complexity in term of number of components and variety of  
357 materials.

358 Additionally, there is a general lack of databases concerning developing countries, leading to  
359 only a few LCA studies performed in these regions and to less robust assessments when some  
360 have been attempted (Dekamin et al. 2015; Bohnes et al. 2018). This is especially problematic in  
361 aquaculture assessments as more than 95% of the world production of seafood from aquaculture  
362 takes place in Asia, where only few general LCI are publicly available (Bohnes et al., 2018). In  
363 the Ecoinvent database (Weidema et al. 2013), which is the most widely used LCI database in  
364 our review (used in 74% of the studies), only few processes are specific to e.g. Indonesia (35  
365 processes), Vietnam (14 processes) or the Philippines (17 processes), which are the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and  
366 5<sup>th</sup> most important aquaculture producers in the world, respectively (FAO 2016).  
367 We therefore encourage all aquaculture stakeholders to share data for enabling the construction  
368 of LCI data sets, which would improve the overall quality of future LCA studies and facilitate  
369 their applications to relevant systems and locations.

#### 370 **4.2 Missing impact pathways**

371 Several studies have pointed out that the current LCIA methodologies do not cover all the  
372 environmental impacts relevant to aquaculture, as highlighted by Ellingsen and Aanondsen  
373 (2006), Samuel-Fitwi et al. (2013), Aubin et al. (2015), Avadi and Freon (2015), Henriksson et  
374 al. (2015, 2017a), Nhu et al. (2016) and Abdou et al. (2017). Below, two major gaps are  
375 highlighted: impacts from escapes and damages related to use of antibiotics and medicine  
376 treatment.

377 The impacts of escapes on the local environments are thus not addressed, albeit being a well-  
378 documented issue in that sector (Naylor et al. 2000; Diana 2009). If the escaped species are  
379 invasive, they can affect the balance of the local ecosystem because of the introduction of new  
380 predators, which can have important consequences as the extinction of local species (Arismendi



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381 et al. 2009; Peeler et al. 2011). If the farmed species are already present in the local ecosystems,  
382 it can be as problematic because of breeding that changes the genetics of farmed specimens and  
383 make them different from the wild ones, thus altering the natural balance of species present in  
384 the ecosystem and potentially contributing to biodiversity losses and/or changes in ecosystem  
385 functioning (Youngson et al. 2001; Naylor et al. 2005). Some authors already highlighted the  
386 need of including that issue in life cycle impact assessment and proposed ways of accounting for  
387 it (Ford et al. 2012). However, no actual impact pathways have been developed yet, and escapes  
388 are only suggested to be considered at inventory level (i.e. accounting the number of fish escaped  
389 per year; Ford et al. 2012).

390 Another uncovered impact pathway is the effect of antibiotics and other medicine used in  
391 seafood farms, and their subsequent impacts on human health through for example antimicrobial  
392 resistance. Indeed, the use of antibiotics in food production as growth promoter or medical  
393 treatment leads to the development of resistant microorganisms, which will not be treatable by  
394 that antibiotic anymore, thereby inducing higher rates of infections by that microorganism in the  
395 human population (Cabello et al. 2013). This has recently been highlighted by the World Health  
396 Organization, which recommended addressing this topic urgently (WHO 2018). The use of  
397 antibiotics should also be included in the modelling of impact pathways for ecotoxicity because  
398 of the potential impacts of these products on natural ecosystems. Antibiotics are designed to  
399 affect microorganisms in general, and are therefore a threat for bacteria but also fungi and  
400 microalgae (Kümmerer 2009). Similarly, the impacts of cleaning products used during the  
401 farming stage are not included in some toxicity impact methodologies because these products are  
402 usually inorganics and their environmental fate is not always well known. For instance, the  
403 USEtox model, which covers 27 inorganics (mainly metals) and 3077 organic substances

404 (Huijbregts et al. 2015a, b), does not include some of the common bleach such as Sodium  
405 hypochlorite, thus calling for extending the substance coverage in its characterisation factor  
406 database.

407 For the two above methodological gaps, we recommend new method developments in LCIA to  
408 complement existing impact pathways and develop characterisation model to integrate these new  
409 cause-effect chains.

## 410 **5 Conclusions and outlook**

411 Based on the review of 65 LCA studies in the aquaculture sector, five major issues were  
412 identified and analysed. For each of them, recommendations were provided aiming to improve  
413 the quality and reproducibility of future LCAs in that sector. In summary, LCA practitioners  
414 should (i) choose a functional unit based on nutritional qualities, (ii) prefer system expansion  
415 over allocation, and seek inspiration and assistance in published studies that applied this rule,  
416 (iii) assess a life cycle as complete as possible in line with the goal of the study, (iv) include an  
417 environmental impact coverage as broad as possible, and (v) pay special attention to the  
418 consistency/completeness check and the sensitivity and uncertainty analysis during the  
419 interpretation of the results. Drawing on these, we also identified two key research needs that  
420 method developers in LCI and LCIA should undertake, namely expanding LCI database with  
421 aquaculture-specific processes and characterising missing impact pathways, respectively. It is  
422 also worth noting that as highlighted in Sections 3.1 to 3.5, a lack of transparency in the  
423 methodological choices is latent in many studies, with a non-negligible proportion of them not  
424 even stating their choices and assumptions. These not only refer to old studies, i.e. prior to  
425 previous critical reviews but also to a number of recent studies. Such poor practice is a great

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426 impediment to the credibility and reuse of the LCA results for large-scale analysis or  
427 comparative assessments.

428 We therefore recommend to future practitioners that they undertake these above messages. A few  
429 of our recommendations are not new and have already been indicated in previous critical  
430 reviews, be it within the field of aquaculture or in other fields. Recent studies have however  
431 showed that these key recommendations are not implemented by LCA practitioners. This  
432 demonstrates that there is a need for LCA practitioners to better inform themselves on the  
433 conduct of LCA in their specific fields of applications, e.g. by reading critical reviews, to  
434 integrate consistent guidance and overcome methodological challenges in their cases. Peer-  
435 reviewers of scientific articles should also be aware of these critical reviews and of the  
436 methodological issues indicated therein to prevent studies with insufficient documentation and/or  
437 inconsistencies – as some identified in the current review – from being published. Such practice  
438 should eventually contribute to bring more consistency and reliability in LCA studies to support  
439 decision- and policy-making processes in fields as important and relevant as the aquaculture  
440 sector.

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