



## Overview and recommendations for regionalized life cycle impact assessment

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## 1 **Overview and recommendations for regionalized life cycle impact assessment**

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## 28 1 Abstract

29 **Purpose** Regionalized life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) has rapidly developed in the past  
30 decade, though its widespread application, robustness, and validity still faces multiple challenges.  
31 Under the umbrella of UNEP/SETAC Life Cycle Initiative, a dedicated cross-cutting working group  
32 on regionalized LCIA aims to provides an overview of the status of regionalization in LCIA  
33 methods. We give guidance and recommendations to harmonize and support regionalization in  
34 LCIA for developers of LCIA methods, LCI databases, and LCA software.

35 **Method** A survey of current practice among regionalized LCIA method developers was conducted.  
36 The survey included questions on chosen method spatial resolution and scale, the spatial resolution  
37 of input parameters, choice of native spatial resolution and limitations, operationalization and  
38 alignment with life cycle inventory data, methods for spatial aggregation, the assessment of  
39 uncertainty from input parameters and model structure, and variability due to spatial aggregation.  
40 Recommendations are formulated based on the survey results and extensive discussion by the  
41 authors.

42 **Results and discussion** Survey results indicate that majority of regionalized LCIA models have  
43 global coverage. Native spatial resolutions are generally chosen based on the availability of global  
44 input data. Annual modelled or measured elementary flow quantities are mostly used for  
45 aggregating characterization factors (CFs) to larger spatial scales, although some use proxies, such  
46 as population counts. Aggregated CFs are mostly available at the country level. Although  
47 uncertainty due to input parameter, model structure, and spatial aggregation are available for some  
48 LCIA methods, they are rarely implemented for LCA studies. So far, there is no agreement if a finer  
49 native spatial resolution is the best way to reduce overall uncertainty. When spatially differentiated  
50 models CFs are not easily available, archetype models are sometimes developed.

51 **Conclusions** Regionalized LCIA methods should be provided as a transparent and consistent set of  
52 data and metadata using standardized data formats. Regionalized CFs should include both  
53 uncertainty and variability. In addition to the native-scale CFs, aggregated CFs should always be  
54 provided, and should be calculated as the weighted averages of constituent CFs using annual flow  
55 quantities as weights whenever available. This paper is an important step forward for increasing  
56 transparency, consistency and robustness in the development and application of regionalized LCIA  
57 methods.

58 Keywords: regionalization, impact assessment, standardization, archetypes, uncertainty, variability,  
59 spatial differentiation

## 60 2 Introduction

61 Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) is frequently used to quantify the environmental impacts of a product  
62 or a service throughout its entire life cycle (ISO 2006a, b). Life cycle impact assessment (LCIA)  
63 method developers have long recognized that, for many impact categories, the impact of a given  
64 elementary flow depends on the where that flow occurs, and have therefore provided site-dependent  
65 characterization factors (CFs) (Potting and Hauschild 2006). In the last decade, regionalized  
66 methods have included impact categories such as air pollution (Roy et al. 2012; van Zelm et al.  
67 2016), freshwater and terrestrial acidification (Roy et al. 2014; Azevedo et al. 2015), eutrophication  
68 (Azevedo et al. 2013; Scherer and Pfister 2015), respiratory effects from particulate matter  
69 (Humbert et al. 2009), water scarcity and related impact on human health and ecosystem (Pfister et  
70 al. 2009; Verones et al. 2010, 2013, 2017b; van Zelm et al. 2011; Hanafiah et al. 2011; Helmes et al.  
71 2012; Pfister and Bayer 2014; Motoshita et al. 2014; Scherer et al. 2015; Pfister and Suh 2015;  
72 Sonderegger et al. 2015; Boulay et al. 2018), land use, biodiversity, and soil quality (Núñez et al.  
73 2010, 2012, de Baan et al. 2012, 2013; Chaudhary et al. 2015; Chaudhary and Brooks 2018),

74 toxicity and exposure effect (Wegener Sleeswijk and Heijungs 2010; Owsianiak et al. 2013;  
75 Kounina et al. 2014; Wannaz et al. 2018a, b), as well as overarching methods such as EDIP 2003  
76 (Hauschild and Potting 2005), TRACI (Bare 2011), IMPACT World + (Bulle et al. 2012), eco-  
77 scarcity 2013 (Frischknecht and Knöpfel 2013), and LC-IMPACT (Verones et al. 2016). Such  
78 regionalized LCIA models and methods include spatial inputs from fields such as climatology,  
79 geology, hydrology, ecology, human geography, and environmental engineering. In theory, maps of  
80 regionalized LCIA characterization factors can be combined with site-dependent life cycle  
81 inventories to produce more accurate and less uncertain LCA results. In practice, such regionalized  
82 LCA can be limited by a lack of standardization in regionalized LCIA data formats, poor site-  
83 dependent inventory data availability, and a lack of widespread software support. Regionalized  
84 normalization and weighting also present a separate set of challenges, primarily due to data quality  
85 and availability. This paper is the consensus output of a UNEP-SETAC Life Cycle Initiative  
86 working group on the harmonization of LCIA regionalization (Frischknecht and Jolliet 2016;  
87 Verones et al. 2017a), and provides an overview of the status of regionalization in LCIA methods  
88 and recommendations for LCIA method, LCI database, and software developers to harmonize and  
89 support regionalization in LCIA. We do not discuss the development of regionalized inventory  
90 databases, which is the focus of a separate working group, or the development of the impact  
91 assessment models themselves.

## 92 **3 Methodology**

### 93 **3.1 Recommended nomenclature**

94 We recommend and use the following specific terms for concepts that have been used inconsistently  
95 in previous literature:

- 96       • *Spatial unit*: The geometrical definition and metadata of a spatial feature, such as the  
97           coordinates of a raster cell or a polygon and all associated spatial and non-spatial metadata.
- 98       • *Spatial resolution*: The set of spatial units used in an inventory database or LCIA method.  
99           We note that this differs slightly from the traditional definition of spatial resolution being  
100           the smallest distinguishable parts (Lam and Quattrochi 1992), as the spatial units used in  
101           LCIA, such as watersheds, can have dramatically different sizes.
- 102       • *Native spatial resolution*: The spatial resolution of LCIA method CF maps which the  
103           method developers best feel represents the spatial variability of CF values.
- 104       • *Aggregated spatial resolution*: A transformation of the native spatial resolution to a new  
105           spatial resolution, usually at the country, continental, or global scale.
- 106       We use the terms *site-specific*, *site-dependent*, and *site-generic* as defined and used by Potting  
107       and Hauschild (2006).

### 108 3.2 Survey of current practice

109 A survey of developers from every recent regionalized LCIA method known to the working group  
110 were conducted by phone or email. A summary of the questions asked are shown in Table 1, and the  
111 full list of questions and answers are given in the supporting information.

### 112 3.3 Formulation of recommendations

113 The recommendations in this paper and technical appendix were developed over online meetings  
114 from 2015 to 2018 and during a Pellston Workshop in Valencia, Spain in January 2016.

## 115 4 Results

### 116 4.1 Summary of survey results

117 In this survey, methods for twenty seven regionalized impact indicators were reviewed. Both widely  
118 used LCIA methods, such as TRACI (3 impact categories, hereafter IC), Ecological scarcity 2013  
119 (2 IC), and EDIP 2003 (3 IC) , as well as more recent LCIA methodologies like LC Impact (5 IC),  
120 IMPACT World+ (13 IC), and AWARE (1 IC) were included (Hauschild and Potting 2005; Bare  
121 2011; Bulle et al. 2012; Frischknecht and Knöpfel 2013; Verones et al. 2016; Boulay et al. 2018).  
122 They cover the following environmental issues: water use, land use, acidification, eutrophication,  
123 human toxicity, respiratory inorganics, smog formation, and photochemical ozone formation. Most  
124 methods had global spatial coverage, except for TRACI (USA) and EDIP (Europe).

125 The survey results are summarized in Figure 1 and discussed in detail in the following sections.

#### 126 4.1.1 Choice of native spatial resolution

127 In theory, the native spatial resolution should reflect the observed spatial variability of a given  
128 environmental issue and elementary flow. Surveyed method developers were aware of how the  
129 choice of native spatial resolution could influence the produced characterization factors. However,  
130 in our survey, the native spatial resolution choice was driven in most cases by the following factors:  
131 input data availability, especially when global coverage was desired; optimizing model robustness  
132 and consistency instead of finer spatial resolution; and the limited availability of models for specific  
133 impact categories. Few developers used tools like spatial interpolation or minimization of spatial  
134 autocorrelation (Mutel et al. 2012) to actively choose a spatial resolution not already found in their  
135 input data. Instead, several method developers tested multiple possible native spatial resolutions,  
136 and the chosen native spatial resolution was then a compromise between scientific fidelity and  
137 practical considerations, such as data size and calculation times.

138 The surveyed native spatial resolutions ranged from very small to very large regions (i.e. from tens  
139 to millions of square kilometers); from tens to thousands of spatial units; and from spatial units  
140 based on biophysical or political boundaries to grid cells. In some cases, such as acidifying  
141 emissions to air, consumption of surface and ground water, and toxicity assessment, individual  
142 substances, such as ammonia or SO<sub>x</sub>, or classes of substances, such as water from surface sources or  
143 water from aquifers, will each have their own spatial resolution within one impact category.

#### 144 *4.1.2 Desirability of finer native spatial resolutions*

145 Most impact assessment (IA) method developers mentioned they would prefer a finer native spatial  
146 resolution to better represent their CF spatial variability. However, most of them cited data  
147 availability and time effort as the limiting factors to do so. Some developers mentioned they would  
148 prefer to focus on improving underlying LCIA model details, such as assumptions and input  
149 parameter data quality, rather than the spatial resolution, as this was a more efficient path to reduce  
150 CF uncertainty. In our survey, the IA method developers were split about whether a finer native  
151 spatial resolution was the best way to reduce overall uncertainties. Those who answered “yes”  
152 considered their native spatial resolutions too coarse and felt that a finer resolution would better  
153 reflect spatial impact variability. Those who answered “no” presented several arguments against a  
154 finer spatial resolution: 1) inventory data is not ready, or has very poor spatial resolution; 2) result  
155 uncertainty is driven by inventory or impact assessment model uncertainty, not IA spatial  
156 uncertainty; 3) results on a finer spatial resolution would actually have higher uncertainty, due  
157 either to the use of either spatial interpolation, more detailed but less accurate models or uncertainty  
158 on the exact location of withdrawal or emission (e.g. for water supply or effluents); 4) the amount  
159 of work and new tools needed to deal with big data can be overwhelming or infeasible.



## 160 4.2 Aggregation of characterization factors

161 Method developers aggregate native resolution CF to larger spatial resolutions (e.g. regional,  
162 continental, and global levels) to meet specific study or software requirements. During this  
163 aggregation, method developers face challenges in 1) the selection of appropriate techniques used to  
164 aggregate native CFs; 2) the definition of aggregation-scale regions; and 3) the handling of native-  
165 scale regions for which no CFs are provided.

### 166 4.2.1 Selection of appropriate aggregation techniques

167 As shown in Table 2, method developers have handled aggregation in an ad hoc and uncoordinated  
168 fashion. When aggregating, most developers used a weighted average of the native-scale CFs, but  
169 significant differences were observed in the choice and source of data used as weights. The most  
170 widely used weighting data were annual elementary flow quantities in each native-scale region.  
171 This approach assumes that the specific activities in each given study, and their corresponding  
172 elementary flows, are more likely to happen in areas where they are generally already occurring.  
173 This approach is practical, as such flow data is often gathered during method development. One can  
174 even differentiate such flow quantities by industrial sector, for example differentiating consumption  
175 of water for agricultural and non-agricultural purposes (Boulay et al. 2016), and thus generate  
176 sector-specific aggregated CFs.

177 Proxy weighting data has been used when data on the actual distribution of the elementary flow  
178 quantities were unavailable. Population counts have been used as weighting proxy, with the  
179 assumption that the spatial patterns of stressors are well correlated with population distributions  
180 (Humbert et al. 2011). Given no other suitable proxy data, the surface area of each native-scale  
181 region could be used as a last resort (Mutel et al. 2012).

#### 182 4.2.2 Definition of aggregation regions

183 Aggregation to country and continent scales can be another source of discrepancies across methods.  
184 Country borders can change over time, as can the number of countries. Country boundaries can also  
185 vary based on the chosen data source and that source's spatial resolution. Not all country borders  
186 are recognized by other countries, and different data sources treat disputed areas differently. The  
187 situation is even less clear when it comes to continental boundaries; while the United Nations has a  
188 country-based list of regions and sub-regions (United Nations Statistics Division 2018), few method  
189 developers follow this standard. In particular, the boundary between Asia and Europe can differ by  
190 more than one thousand kilometers, depending on the data source. Method developers doing  
191 aggregation need to check whether their country definitions span multiple continents, which could  
192 lead to unexpected results. Discrepancies on the spatial definitions of countries and continents can  
193 lead to mismatches with life cycle inventory datasets, even if the formal name of the spatial unit is  
194 identical.

#### 195 4.2.3 Handling of no data values

196 Regionalized LCIA methods with global coverage will still have some areas where no CFs are  
197 provided. Such "no data" CFs can arise due to a lack of data, such as isolated islands, or in regions  
198 where it would not make physical sense to provide a CF, such as land use in the ocean. The way  
199 these "no data" values are handled in the aggregation process can significantly affect the aggregated  
200 CF values, but is seldom described. Four approaches to handle "no data" values in weighted,  
201 average aggregation techniques are present in the literature: 1) treat no data values as zeros; 2)  
202 assign a default value such as the global average; 3) interpolate from neighboring areas where real-  
203 value native CFs are present; 4) exclude "no data" spatial units from the weighted average.

204 The choice among these four techniques should reflect the reason that such “no data” values occur.  
205 In areas where it is reasonable not to have a CF, such Antarctica, the last option (4) is preferable.  
206 Equating no data regions with zero CFs (1) is the most widely used but can introduce significant  
207 and systematic downward bias in aggregated CFs. The use of default values (2) is a good  
208 compromise for spatial units where a CF is expected to be non-zero but not available. Interpolation  
209 from near neighbors (3) has been used to fill in no data values for coastal areas (Pfister et al 2011),  
210 but should only be used as a last resort; it would be far preferable to fill the missing input data in the  
211 LCIA model.

## 212 5 Discussion

### 213 5.1 Spatial Archetypes

214 Archetypes are classes of similar scenarios or situations that can explain some of the variability in  
215 CFs. Archetypes can incorporate geographical information (“low population density,”  
216 “agricultural”), though spatial differentiation is not always the primary consideration (“from high  
217 stacks,” “indoor”). Archetypes can impart information more efficiently than spatial units when such  
218 spatial units would need to be defined on a very fine spatial resolution, or when spatial  
219 differentiation is not the main driver for variability. For example, some intake fractions are driven  
220 by population density around emission sources (Apte et al. 2012; Hodas et al. 2016). In this case, it  
221 is more important to know whether a particulate matter emission happens in a city or a rural area  
222 than to know whether it takes place in France or Italy. Even a regionalized IA method with a native  
223 spatial resolution of 50 km by 50 km (van Zelm et al. 2016) will be less accurate than urban versus  
224 rural archetypes, as most of the grid cells will be composed of a mix of high and low population  
225 density and will therefore not be able to reflect the actual variability in intake fractions.

226 Archetypes may further represent an efficient way to link inventory and impact assessment. It may  
227 be difficult to know the exact location where an emission takes place, but we can easily differentiate  
228 whether it takes place indoors or outdoors, or the fraction occurring in an urban versus rural area.

229 Several challenges need to be addressed to ensure the consistent and efficient use of archetypes. To  
230 be practical, archetypes must be general enough that they can be used across different impact  
231 categories and LCIA methods. Proliferation of category-specific archetypes is not practical since  
232 this would mean that different inventory flows would be reported in different ways depending on  
233 the considered category. The definition of archetypes therefore requires coordination between LCI  
234 databases and LCIA methods, as well as across LCIA methods, to ensure consistent archetype use  
235 and definitions.

236 Archetypes should be relatively easy to use (Helmes et al. 2012). Kounina et al. (2018) defined  
237 archetypes for the fate of eutrophying or toxic substances in freshwater based on the residence time  
238 of water to the sea and the water depth. In this case, it is easier to provide a map, as the input data  
239 needed to choose the archetype would require site-specific (Kounina et al. 2018).

240 Finally, archetypes may not be able to reflect the entire range of variability. For example, the  
241 archetype label “urban” may include large variations in population densities between a small and a  
242 large city, or between a North American low density and an Asian high-density city. A hybrid  
243 approach that combines archetypes with location-specific inputs can be one way forward (Fantke et  
244 al. 2017). Parameterizing archetypes for different regions, like different parameters for a default  
245 urban area in each continent of the world (Fantke et al. 2017), could also be tried, though such an  
246 approach could lead to inconsistencies without community consensus.

## 247 5.2 Uncertainty and variability

248 Current LCA practice merges input parameter and model uncertainty, commonly understood as  
249 reducible through model refinement or data acquisition, and inherent variability, which is not. Both  
250 input parameter and model uncertainty and inherent variability have a spatial and non-spatial  
251 component. The merging of those uncertainties into a single probability distribution presents  
252 challenges for regionalized IA method developers, as it is difficult to give practitioners guidance on  
253 how much of the total uncertainty is spatially correlated, and how much is due to inherent  
254 variability and should therefore be independently sampled from spatial unit to spatial unit.

## 255 5.3 Value choices in aggregation

256 The choice of the proxy can have considerable influence on the resulting aggregated CFs. For  
257 example, the use of population counts to upscale CFs for freshwater eutrophication at local  
258 resolution may lead to different aggregated CFs compared to the use of phosphorus emissions as  
259 proxy. A large fraction of phosphorus emissions stem from agricultural sources, which are not  
260 highly-populated areas, thus generating important bias in the aggregation. In addition, for a country  
261 with important exports from a strong agricultural sector, the population densities will be decoupled  
262 from the emission intensities in that country, and their use will thus contribute to a bias in the  
263 obtained CF compared to other countries. Illustrations of such biases have been shown in previous  
264 studies, e.g. land use impact assessment.

265 Using current annual flow quantities or proxy data such as population counts in the aggregation  
266 calculation introduces uncertainty due to practitioner choice: the implicit assumption of such  
267 techniques is that current patterns are good predictors of the spatial pattern of stressors caused by a  
268 specific functional unit. There is a parallel here with current debates on “attributional” versus  
269 “consequential” LCA; using current spatial patterns of stressors is analogous to the attributional

270 approach, whereas a consequential perspective might, for example, prefer to use a model of where  
271 agricultural land could be transformed or intensified due to increased demand when calculating land  
272 use impacts.

## 273 6 Recommendations

### 274 6.1 Overall recommendations

275 Our first overall recommendation is that method developers should provide more complete set of  
276 information than is currently provided. This recommendation is specified in detail in the following  
277 sections and includes 1) a transparent and consistent set of metadata; 2) LCIA CFs with separate  
278 characterization of uncertainty and variability; 3) aggregated CFs with include variability due to  
279 spatial aggregation.

280 We recommend that methods be provided in, and LCA software support, a standardized  
281 regionalized LCIA data format. Existing LCIA formats do not support regionalized CFs and do not  
282 enjoy broad community support. A draft standard is provided in the supporting information. The  
283 proposed data format is not a new creation, but rather a standardized way of using existing data and  
284 metadata formats such as GeoTIFFs, GeoJSON, and the Open Knowledge Foundation's Data  
285 Package, and will be tested and applied to both IMPACT World+ (Bulle et al. 2012) and LC-  
286 IMPACT (Verones et al. 2016). Feedback from the broader LCA community as well as LCA  
287 software developers will be solicited.

288 Specific recommendations are given below to IA developers (Section 6.2), LCI database providers  
289 (Section 6.3), and LCA software developers (Section 6.4).

## 290 6.2 Recommendations for IA method developers

291 **Transparent and comprehensive documentation.** Regionalized methods developers should  
292 clearly and transparently state 1) which parameters are regionalized, and at what spatial resolution,  
293 in their LCIA model and input data sets; 2) aggregation method, if any; 3) value choices. All IA  
294 method developers should indicate the basis for their choice of native spatial resolution, even if they  
295 have chosen site-generic modeling. Regionalized methods should indicate whether they would have  
296 preferred a different native spatial resolution.

297 **Standard data formats.** Regionalized IA method metadata and CFs should be provided in a  
298 standardized data format. We have proposed and will test one such format, described in the  
299 supporting information.

300 **Common and comprehensive elementary flow nomenclature.** CFs should be provided using a  
301 common and comprehensive nomenclature such as found in the ELCD or ecoinvent databases or  
302 produced through community reconciliation efforts such as the Global LCA Data Network (GLAD).

303 **Native spatial resolution.** Spatial input datasets for regionalized impact assessment models should  
304 be aggregated as little as possible, as such aggregation causes loss of information. In cases where IA  
305 model input datasets have different resolutions, it is preferable to downscale the input data to the  
306 finest spatial resolution instead of aggregating all input data to the coarsest resolution.

307 **Archetype development.** When similar scenarios or situations can explain a large fraction of CF  
308 variability, we recommend defining archetypes that reflect this similarity. This development should  
309 be done under the condition that related LCI information could easily be adapted to match such  
310 archetypes. In cases where the use of archetypes could lead to additional complexity in their  
311 implementation, we recommend calculating sector- or industry-specific average CFs.

312 **Spatial aggregation.** Regionalized IA method developers should provide aggregated

313 characterization factors, and document how such aggregated factors were calculated.

- 314 • Global factors should always be provided; continental and region- or country-specific  
315 factors should be provided when these spatial units are larger than the native resolution.  
316 Continental region and sub-region definitions are encouraged to follow the United Nations  
317 geoscheme (United Nations Statistics Division 2018), and any other continental- resolution  
318 regions should be labelled as such and be given names not overlapping those found in the  
319 United Nations geoscheme. Data sources for continent and country borders should be  
320 documented and publicly accessible, including their URLs, version numbers, and access  
321 dates.
- 322 • The approach used to handle no data CF values in aggregation should be explained. We  
323 recommend that no data values should be skipped in the aggregation algorithm (the fourth  
324 approach in section 4.2.3), though care should be taken when a large fraction of an  
325 aggregated spatial unit has no data CF values.
- 326 • Aggregation techniques across impact categories within an LCIA method should be as  
327 consistent as possible. We recommend the use of annual flow quantities in the weighted  
328 average aggregation calculation whenever available. Alternative aggregation approaches,  
329 such as using proxies based on population counts, can be used if necessary. LCIA method  
330 developers should document the rationale for using those alternative proxies.
- 331 • The data used for the aggregation should be as consistent as possible with the data used in  
332 the IA model, including having the same reference year and spatial resolution. Any  
333 discrepancies between these data sources should be documented.



334 Should there be high variability in regionalized CFs within large and diverse countries, sub-national  
335 or regional CFs may be developed.

336 **Report uncertainty factors separately.** IA method developers should include quantitative  
337 estimates of uncertainty and variability in their published CFs at both the native and aggregated  
338 spatial resolutions. For aggregated spatial units, CFs should include a separate estimate of  
339 variability due to spatial aggregation. In all cases, a total probability distribution function for the CF  
340 should be given.

341 **Changing the spatial resolution of model inputs.** Many fields of scientific inquiry contribute  
342 datasets and models that could be useful for impact assessment applications, each with their own  
343 spatial and temporal resolution and level of detail. Adapting and transforming these inputs is the  
344 first step for most impact assessment method development, but such modifications can change  
345 statistical or other data properties due to the modifiable areal unit problem (Fotheringham and  
346 Wong 1991). Method developers should check, understand, and document changes introduced by  
347 the adaptation and transformation of model inputs.

348 **Global coverage.** Global coverage of regionalized IA methods is recommended, but is not a  
349 requirement - in some cases, region-specific models may have higher accuracy. Some  
350 parameterized models can be adapted to many regions provided region-specific input data is  
351 available, like the InVEST model (Sharp et al. 2014). This is a promising approach, though we  
352 caution that model developers should thoroughly and critically evaluate the global application of  
353 such models.

354 **Develop regionalized archetypes.** Combining archetypes, such as population density classes, with  
355 spatial information, such as a city name and location, could be an efficient way to provide high

356 fidelity CFs. If global spatially differentiated CFs cannot be easily developed for certain impact  
357 categories, such as particulate matter formation, using detailed location-specific archetypes can  
358 capture important CF variabilities (Fantke et al. 2017). More research is needed on the  
359 implementation and trade-offs of such an approach.

360 **Validity check with case study.** Regionalized LCIA developers should use their methods in LCA  
361 case studies or method comparison studies to show the practicality and usefulness of their CFs.

### 362 6.3 Recommendations for inventory databases

363 **Prioritize the development of regionalized inventories.** Regionalized inventories are necessary to  
364 unlock the value of the data that already exists in regionalized LCIA methods. Therefore, database  
365 developers should prioritize the development of regionalized inventories when high spatial  
366 variability is observed or expected.

367 **Document the spatial resolution of the inventory.** Inventory databases should document and  
368 make available the geographical definition of each spatial unit used in the database, as well as how  
369 these definitions were derived. A good example is the ecoinvent geography definitions report,  
370 which includes all spatial units in four different spatial data formats, built using open data and  
371 software (Mutel 2017). We encourage inventory databases to use existing and widely available data  
372 and definitions, such as Natural Earth data and the United Nations geoscheme (United Nations  
373 Statistics Division 2018) whenever possible.

374 **Three-dimensional spatial information.** In addition to the geographic location, some impacts are  
375 impacted by the altitude of the stressor. The most prominent example are the varying climate  
376 change impacts of air emissions at low and high altitudes (Fuglestvedt et al. 2010). The existing  
377 archetype approach is, however, adequate to capture this variability.

378 **Support archetype developments.** Inventory database developers should support the development  
379 of regionalized archetypes where appropriate, including conducting trial applications on existing  
380 datasets, providing their experience implementing archetypes in a consistent fashion, and  
381 integrating archetypes with proven value in a timely manner.

#### 382 6.4 Recommendations for software developers

383 **Support for native resolution CFs.** LCA software should support regionalized LCA calculations  
384 and the data formats for regionalized LCIA methods. Such support can include integrating GIS  
385 directly into the LCA software or using external services for on-demand or pre-calculated GIS  
386 operations.

387 **Clear and tested calculation algorithms.** The algorithms used in regionalized LCA calculations  
388 should be documented and publicly available. Transparency is vital to build trust in the results and  
389 understanding of such advanced and novel calculations.

390 **Support the standard data format.** LCA software should support the standard data format  
391 proposed in the supporting information for documenting CFs, as this will simplify the use of and  
392 ensure consistency in the implementation of regionalized LCIA methods.

### 393 7 Conclusions

394 Based on our survey of all major recent regionalized LCIA methods, developers face the following  
395 challenges when developing robust and usable methods: 1) data availability for LCIA  
396 characterization factors with global coverage; 2) lack of standardization and harmonization of when  
397 calculating weighted spatially-aggregated CFs; 3) insufficient quantification and differentiation of  
398 uncertainty factors; 4) inconsistent metadata and data formats. There are also practical challenges

399 posed by poor spatial resolution and understanding of spatial dynamics in LCI databases and  
400 software support for regionalized LCA calculations.

401 The recommendations for regionalized method, inventory database, and software developers in this  
402 manuscript can help improve transparency, consistency, and data quality of both regionalized LCIA  
403 methods and their use in LCA software and inventory databases. With spatially differentiated LCI  
404 data and advanced LCA calculation routines becoming increasingly available, regionalized LCA  
405 can contribute to improving the robustness of LCA results by reducing uncertainties due to spatial  
406 variability.

## 407 **8 Disclaimer**

408 The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the  
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418 solely those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect or represent EPA's views or policies.

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**Table 1** – Survey questions

Meta information	LCIA method name
	Contact person
	Midpoint or endpoint (damage) modelling
	Impact category (water scarcity, land occupation, etc.)
Spatial resolution and scale	Spatial coverage (global, country level, etc.)
	Description of the chosen native spatial resolution: use of spatial differentiation or archetype?
Spatial resolution for input parameters in the LCIA model	Fate factor
	Effect factor
Improvements/Limitations  - Short term (interim approach) - overall (directional)	How was the native spatial resolution chosen?
	Was the chosen native spatial resolution compared with alternatives?
	Would a finer native spatial resolution be preferred?
	Is a finer native spatial resolution the best way to reduce overall uncertainties?
	Would a finer native spatial resolution be operational?
Operationalization	Did you try to align the LCIA spatial resolution with the spatial resolution of available inventory data?
	To which spatial resolutions was the aggregation performed?
	What method used for spatial aggregation, if any?
	Which aggregation scale would you recommend?
Uncertainty assessment	Was basic uncertainty from input parameters assessed?
	Was basic uncertainty from the model structure assessed?
	Was spatial variability due to spatial aggregation assessed?

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**Table 2** Weighting proxies to upscale the native CF to country, continental and global CF for regional and local impact categories (non-exhaustive list)

Impact categories	Elementary flow type	LC-Impact	IMPACT World +	ReCiPe 2016
Photochemical ozone formation	Emission (kg)	Annual flow quantity	NR <sup>a</sup>	Annual flow quantity
Particulate matter formation	Emission (kg)	Annual flow quantity	Population count	Annual flow quantity
Terrestrial acidification	Emission (kg)	Annual flow quantity	Annual flow quantity	Annual flow quantity
Aquatic acidification	Emission (kg)	NA <sup>a</sup>	Annual flow quantity	NA <sup>a</sup>
	Emission (kg)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Emissions from fertilizer and manure applications</li> <li>- Crop area (for erosion)</li> </ul>	Population count	Population count
Marine eutrophication	Emission (kg)	NA <sup>a</sup>	Airborne Annual flow quantity	NA <sup>a</sup>
Terrestrial eutrophication	Emission (kg)	NA <sup>a</sup>	NA <sup>a</sup>	NA <sup>a</sup>
Land stress	Land occupation (area occupied over time, m <sup>2</sup> /yr.), land transformation (area transformed, m <sup>2</sup> )	Total ecoregion area (biodiversity indicator)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ecoregion area used for each land use type</li> <li>- Area of climate zones or of Holridge life zones used for each land use type</li> </ul>	NR <sup>a</sup>
Water stress / water use	Water consumption (m <sup>3</sup> )	Water consumption	Water consumption	Water consumption
Ionizing radiation	Emission (Bq)	NR <sup>a</sup>	NR <sup>a</sup>	NR <sup>a</sup>

562 <sup>a</sup> NR = not regionalized; NA = not available yet

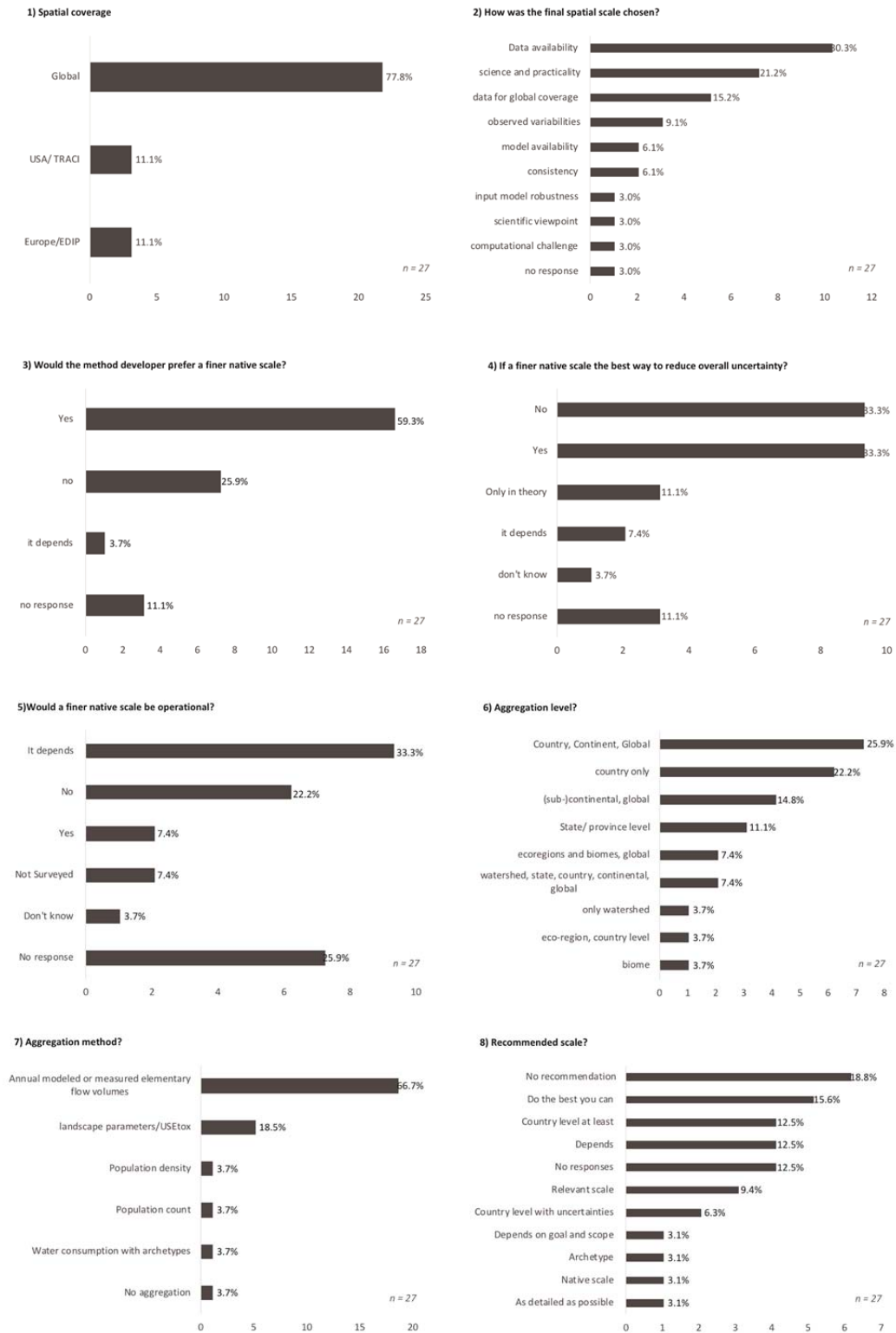


Figure 1 Summary of quantitative survey results

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