Fuel consumption and air emissions in one of the world's largest commercial fisheries

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Abstract :

The little information available on fuel consumption and emissions by high seas tuna fisheries indicates that the global tuna fleet may have consumed about 2.5 Mt of fuel in 2009, resulting in the production of about 9 Mt of CO2-equivalent greenhouse gases (GHGs), i.e., about 4.5-5% of the global fishing fleet emissions. We developed a model of annual fuel consumption for the large-scale purse seiners operating in the western Indian Ocean as a function of fishing effort, strategy, and vessel characteristics based on an original and unique data set of more than 4300 bunkering operations that spanned the period 2013-2019. We used the model to estimate the total fuel consumption and associated GHG and SO2 emissions of the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery between 1981 and 2019. Our results showed that the energetic performance of this fishery was characterized by strong interannual variability over the last four decades. This resulted from a combination of variations in tuna abundance but also changes in catchability and fishing strategy. In recent years, the increased targeting of schools associated with fish aggregating devices in response to market incentives combined with the IOTC management measure implemented to rebuild the stock of yellowfin tuna has strongly modified the productivity and spatio-temporal patterns of purse seine fishing. This had effects on fuel consumption and air pollutant emissions. Over the period 2015 to 2019, the purse seine fishery, including its support vessel component, annually consumed about 160,000 t of fuel and emitted 590,000 t of CO2-eq GHG. Furthermore, our results showed that air pollutant emissions can be significantly reduced when limits in fuel composition are imposed. In 2015, SO2 air pollution exceeded 1500 t, but successive implementation of sulphur limits in the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery in 2016 and 2018 have almost eliminated this pollution. Our findings highlight the need for a routine monitoring of fuel consumption with standardized methods to better assess the determinants of fuel consumption in fisheries and the air pollutants they emit in the atmosphere.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

▶ We modelled the annual fuel consumption in tuna purse seiners of the Indian Ocean. ▶ Days at sea, numbers of operations, vessel length and age affect fuel consumption. ▶ Fuel Use Intensity and consumption showed strong variability over 1981 to 2019. ▶ Greenhouse gas emissions were about 600,000 t y⁻¹ of CO₂-eq over 2015 to 2019. ▶ Sulphur limits reduced annual SO₂ emissions from >1500 t to almost none since 2018.

Keywords : Air pollution Fish aggregating device (FAD), Energy use Greenhouse gas (GHG), Sulphur dioxide, Tuna purse seine fisheries

46 Introduction

47 Oceangoing ships constitute a significant source of air pollution through the emission of 48 greenhouse gases (GHGs) such as carbon dioxide (CO_2) and nitrous oxide (N_2O), and other air 49 pollutants such as sulphur dioxide (SO₂) (Corbett and Fischbeck, 1997; Corbett et al., 1999). 50 Global shipping emissions have major effects on the environment, including ocean acidification 51 and contribution to climate change, and on human health (Corbett et al., 2007; Jägerbrand et 52 al., 2019; Tian et al., 2013). With about 2.5 million motorized vessels out of 4.6 million vessels in 53 operation (FAO, 2018; Rousseau et al., 2019), the global fishing fleet annually consumes about 54 30-40 million tonnes (Mt) of fuel and accounts for more than 1% of the global marine fuel 55 demand (Parker et al., 2018; Tyedmers et al., 2005). Global emissions from fuel combustion by 56 fishing vessels have been estimated at about 180-200 Mt of CO₂-equivalent GHGs every year 57 (Parker et al., 2018). Furthermore, total emissions related to fishing go beyond the direct 58 emissions of fuel combustion because of indirect effects of upstream and downstream 59 activities, e.g., emissions generated during fuel processing and refining, fish product packaging 60 and transport (Winebrake et al., 2007). Fishing and water transport are therefore considered 61 among the most air-polluting industries, per unit of wealth created, in particular for CO₂ and 62 SO₂ (Bagoulla and Guillotreau, 2020). To improve air quality and global health, global sulphur limits of 0.5% (mass/mass) in fuel oil have been recently imposed by the International Maritime 63 64 Organization (IMO) under the MARPOL convention (Annex VI) to reduce the emissions of both 65 sulphate aerosols and sulphur-containing particles (Chu Van et al., 2019).

Industrial tuna fisheries are one of the most highly capitalized fisheries in the world (Miyake et
al., 2010). High seas fishing vessels, typically longer than 25 m, travel long distances to search

68	and catch highly migratory tuna and billfish widely distributed across the world's oceans
69	(Fonteneau, 2010). Energy costs make up to 20% or more of total running costs in the high seas
70	fishing industry (Miyake et al., 2010). However, little information is available on fuel
71	consumption and emissions by high seas tuna fisheries. This said, a survey-based study
72	indicated that the global tuna fleet may have consumed about 2.5 Mt of fuel in 2009, resulting
73	in the production of about 9 Mt of CO_2 -equivalent GHGs, i.e., about 4.5-5% of the global fishing
74	fleet emissions (Tyedmers and Parker, 2012). Although large-scale purse seiners represent a
75	very small component of the global tuna fleet (~700 vessels in 2020; Justel-Rubio and Recio
76	(2020)), they accounted for more than two thirds of the global catch of tuna since the late
77	2000s. In 2009, the global tuna purse seine fishery was responsible for the release of more than
78	3 Mt of CO ₂ -equivalent GHGs into the atmosphere (R. W. R. Parker, Hartmann, et al., 2015).
79	The global tuna purse seine fishery has significantly changed over the last decade. The purse
80	seine catches of tropical tuna increased from about 2.8 Mt in the late 2000s to more than 3.2
81	Mt in the late 2010s, with about two thirds of the catch coming from fish aggregating devices
82	(FAD) and the rest from free-swimming schools (FSC) and schools associated with dolphins
83	(Taconet et al., 2018). In the Indian Ocean, the catch of the tuna purse seine fishery, composed
84	of about 50 vessels larger than 65 m, increased from 280,000 t in the late 2000s to almost
85	500,000 t in 2018 (Fiorellato et al., 2019). In particular, the advent and increasing use of echo-
86	sounder buoys attached to the FADs deployed at sea has greatly increased the efficiency and
87	catchability of purse seiners over the last decade (Lopez et al., 2014; Wain et al., 2020).
88	Furthermore, 20 support vessels assist the purse-seine fishing fleet by maintaining a network of
89	FADs. These support vessels have proved to be instrumental in increasing fishing success,

90 although they consume additional fuel energy and produce more GHG emissions (Assan et al., 91 2015; Ramos et al., 2010). Over the last decades, an increasing proportion of FAD-caught tuna 92 has been observed in the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery. Since 2017, the use of FADs has 93 been further accentuated by a shift in the fishing strategy to target more skipjack tuna 94 (Katsuwonus pelamis) (Assan et al., 2019; Baez et al., 2018; Floch et al., 2019). This change 95 occurred following the implementation of a total allowable catch on yellowfin tuna (Thunnus 96 albacares) by the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC) with the aim of rebuilding the 97 yellowfin tuna stock. Yellowfin tuna compose the large majority of FSCs while tuna schools 98 associated with FADs are dominated by skipjack tuna (Fonteneau et al., 2013). Such a change in 99 fishing strategy may have affected the fuel consumption and air pollutant emissions as purse 100 seiners targeting schools associated with FADs have been shown to consume more fuel per ton 101 landed than purse seiners targeting FSCs at global scale (R. W. R. Parker, Vázquez-Rowe, et al., 102 2015).

103 In this context, the overarching objective of the present study was to estimate with more 104 accuracy the GHG and SO₂ emissions of the tuna purse seine fishery of the Indian Ocean over 105 the period 1981 to 2019 and assess how they vary with fleet structure, fishing strategy and 106 productivity. First, we developed a model of fuel consumption of tropical tuna purse seiners 107 based on a unique large data set of bunkering operations that took place in the Seychelles 108 between 2013 and 2019. Secondly, we used the model to estimate the direct total fuel 109 consumption and associated GHGs and SO₂ emissions for the western Indian Ocean purse seine 110 fishery over the last four decades (1981-2019), including the fuel consumed by the fleet of

- support vessels. Finally, we assessed the extent of the reduction in SO₂ emissions following the
- 112 mandated reduction in sulphur content of the marine diesel oil delivered in the Seychelles.

113 Materials & Methods

114 **Fuel data**

115 All bunkering operations in Port Victoria are recorded by the Seychelles Petroleum Company 116 (SEYPEC) and include the vessel name, type of gasoil (i.e., sulphur content), volume (I) and 117 weight (t) delivered, and the date and location of delivery. All purse seiners and support vessels 118 considered in the study use the same marine diesel oil, a marine fuel composed of various 119 blends of distillates and heavy fuel oil. Except for sulphur, the general composition of the 120 marine fuel delivered in Port Victoria has not varied much over the last four decades. The 121 storage capacity of fuel varies with vessel size, i.e., between 370-1,000 m³ and 90-160 m³ for 122 purse seiners and support vessels, respectively. The data set available for the study covered the 123 period 2013 to 2019 and included a total of 3,676 and 703 bunkering operations for 52 purse 124 seiners and 29 support vessels, respectively. Sulphur content in the fuel delivered to the purse 125 seiners and support vessels calling on Port Victoria was reduced from 0.5% to 0.05% on the 1st 126 of March 2016 and from 0.05% to 0.005% on the 15th of May 2018.

127 Fisheries data

The purse seine fleet based in Port Victoria, Seychelles, represents more than 90% of the total purse seine catch of the Indian Ocean over the period 1981 to 2019 (Assan et al., 2019; Baez et al., 2018; Floch et al., 2019; Kawol et al., 2019). The activities of the purse seiners operating in the western Indian Ocean have been monitored since the early 1980s by the Seychelles Fishing 132 Authority (SFA) in collaboration with the French national Research Institute for Sustainable 133 Development (IRD) and the Spanish national Institute of Oceanography (IEO). The monitoring 134 consists of the collection and processing of fisher' logbooks, landings and sales notes, and 135 sampling of the catch at unloading. Information on landings is recorded for each trip. All purse 136 seiners are equipped with a Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) and monitored at sea by their 137 respective national fisheries administrations. For each fishing operation, the catch by species 138 and type of tuna school association (i.e., FSC and FAD) are recorded in the logbook. Days at sea 139 constitute the standard effort unit to monitor purse seine fishing effort (FAO, 1997). Purse 140 seiner logbook data constitute the basis of the aggregated catch-effort data reported to the 141 IOTC and were assumed to be comprehensive and accurate in this study. By contrast, support 142 vessel logbooks were incomplete or missing, preventing the computation of the annual number 143 of days at sea for this component of the purse seine fishery.

144 Vessel fuel consumption

The fishing activities of purse seiners that operated in the western Indian Ocean from 2013 to 2019 were linked with the bunkering operations that took place at Port Victoria, Seychelles, during the same period. We selected a subset of purse seiners that unloaded and transshipped all their catch in Port Victoria, assuming that the vessels did not purchase fuel elsewhere. In most cases, the vessels take the opportunity to refuel during unloading operations. We considered that the fuel delivered in a given year was representative of the landings of the year although a few fishing trips may span two years. 152 We used generalized additive models (GAMs) to examine the relationship between the annual 153 quantity of fuel (F; t) delivered to the subset of selected purse seiners as a function of vessel 154 length overall (LOA; m), annual number of days at sea (D) and number of fishing sets on FSCs 155 (S_{FSC}) and FADs (S_{FAD}) in order to account for differences in fishing effort and strategy. By 156 using local smoothers, GAMs make no *a priori* assumptions about the nature of the associations 157 between predictors and response variables (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990). The period of 158 construction (C) of each purse seiner was included in the model as a categorical covariate (i.e., 159 1970-1980s, 1990-2000s and 2010s) to account for technological improvements in diesel 160 engines and vessel design. Year (Y) was finally included as a categorical covariate to account for 161 changes in tuna abundance and accessibility, e.g., changes in access opportunities related to 162 fisheries agreements. The general form of the model fitted to the fuel data was:

163
$$F_{v,Y} = s(LOA_v) + C_v + s(D_{v,Y}) + s(S_{FAD_{v,Y}}) + s(S_{FSC_{v,Y}}) + Y + \epsilon_{v,Y}$$

164 Where v and Y indicate vessel and year, respectively and the model residuals $\epsilon_{v,Y}$ were 165 assumed to be independent and identically distributed normal random variables with mean 166 zero and constant variance. Model fitting and the automatic selection of degrees of freedom 167 for the regression splines were performed using the generalized cross-validation method 168 (Wood, 2011). Assumptions of homoscedasticity and Gaussian distribution were checked 169 through the residuals.

Effects of vessel size were assessed by comparing predictions of annual fuel consumption for the smallest purse seiner (LOA = 67.3 m), a purse seiner of mean length (LOA = 89.7 m), and the largest purse seiner of the fleet (LOA = 116 m), all built in the 1990s, having operated over 273 days and having made 223 and 51 sets on FAD and FSC, respectively, corresponding to the
mean values observed in the data set. Model predictions were also performed to assess the
influence of the fishing strategy (i.e., FSC vs. FAD) on purse seiner's annual fuel consumption.
For these simulations, we considered a purse seiner built in the 1990s of mean length 89.7 m in
operation for 273 days at sea (i.e. the mean value observed in the data set) for a number of sets
varying between 0 and 141 made either on FADs or FSCs and corresponding to the range of
values observed for FSCs in the data set.

180 Statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.6.3 (R Core Team 2020).

181 Energetic performance

182 The Fuel Use Intensity (FUI), i.e., annual volume of fuel (I) consumed per ton of wet weight 183 landings, was used to describe and assess the environmental performance of the purse seine 184 fishery (Parker et al., 2018; R. W. R. Parker, Hartmann, et al., 2015). The annual value of FUI was 185 computed for all purse seiners to describe the variability between vessels. The fuel consumed 186 by the support vessels could not be included in the individual FUI of the purse seiners as they 187 were generally assisting several vessels and this information was not available for most years of 188 the study period. To account for this additional fuel consumption, the annual FUI values were 189 scaled up by the FUI of the support vessels computed as the ratio between the total annual 190 quantity of fuel consumed by this fleet segment and the total landings of the fishery.

191 GHG and SO₂ emissions

192 Emissions of GHGs and SO₂ from marine fuel combustion are considered to be mostly

193 dependent on fuel contents while engine and combustion technology may have more influence

194 on the release of other pollutants such as nitrogen oxides (Holloway et al., 2006; Winnes and 195 Fridell, 2009). GHGs emitted from water-borne navigation include CO₂, N₂O, methane (CH₄), 196 carbon monoxide (CO), non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), particulate matter 197 (PM), and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) (Waldron et al., 2006). There is currently little information 198 available about the emissions of each GHG by large-scale purse seiners and their associated 199 support vessels. Recently, Parker et al. (2015) estimated a total GHG-to-fuel ratio of 3.1 kg CO₂-200 eq per litre of fuel consumed for the purse seine fishery. This emission factor reflects both the 201 direct emissions of the marine distillate fuel used by the vessels (2.8 kg CO_2 -eq l^{-1}) and the life 202 cycle emissions from mining, processing, and transporting, to packaging (0.3 kg CO_2 -eq l^{-1}) 203 (Hospido and Tyedmers, 2005; Hospido et al., 2006; Parker and Tyedmers, 2015). This emission 204 factor is very similar to that of other studies (Dalsøren et al., 2009; Ziegler and Hansson, 2003) 205 and it has been used for a large range of fisheries worldwide (Parker et al., 2018; R. W. R. 206 Parker, Hartmann, et al., 2015). 207 In absence of detailed information, we followed the approach of Parker et al. (2015) and 208 considered a mean emission factor of 3.7 t of CO₂-eq per t of fuel consumed based on the mean 209 density of 0.835 of the fuel delivered in Port Victoria between 2013 and 2019. To account for 210 variability in GHG emissions, we considered a coefficient of variation of 10% for the emission 211 factor, i.e., we assumed that 95% of the values of the emission factor were comprised between 212 3 and 4.4 t of CO₂-eq per t of fuel consumed. While the variance of the CO₂ emission factor is 213 considered small for marine diesel (Waldron et al., 2006), emissions associated with the 214 transport of tuna from the fishing grounds to the processing factories are expected to vary due 215 to their location all over the world (Miyake et al. 2010). Furthermore, the variability in

emissions may stem from differences in packaging since tuna caught with purse seine can be
processed in different products: canned chunks and flakes, loins, and steaks. Confidence
intervals around GHG estimates were computed by boostrap resampling (n = 500) in the
distributions of fuel predictions and emission factor assuming that they were normally
distributed.

221 For SO_2 , emissions were assumed to be directly proportional to the sulphur content in the fuel, 222 i.e., 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001 t per t of fuel consumed for 0.5%, 0.05%, and 0.005% sulphur, 223 respectively (Corbett et al., 1999). Since the model of fuel consumption was based on annual 224 data, the successive changes in sulphur content were assumed to have taken place in January 225 2016 and 2018, respectively. The reduction in sulphur was also assumed to have occurred in the 226 other fishing ports of call of the Port Victoria-based purse seiners, i.e., Diego Suarez 227 (Madagascar) and Port-Louis (Mauritius). The landings made at these ports represented less 228 than 2.5% of the landings of the fleet over the period 2016 to 2019. Information on fishing 229 effort and operations was available for all large-scale purse seiners that operated in the 230 western Indian Ocean and were based in Port Victoria over the last four decades (1981-2019). 231 We used the model of annual vessel fuel consumption to predict the total fuel consumed and 232 associated GHG and SO₂ emissions for all Port Victoria-based purse seiners from 1981 to 2019. 233 We included the fuel consumed by the support vessels from 2013 to 2019, assuming they 234 bunkered only in Port Victoria during that period. Statistical analyses were performed in R 235 version 3.6.3 (R Core Team 2020).

236 **Results**

237 Fuel delivery in Port Victoria

238 From 2013 to 2019, mean total weights of 139,000 t (SD=20,000 t) and 8,000 t (SD=3,000 t) of

- fuel were delivered annually to the purse seiners and support vessels calling on Port Victoria,
- 240 Seychelles, respectively (**Table 1**). Over that period, the support vessels represented 5.4% of the
- total fuel purchased in Port Victoria. For purse seiners, the mean fuel quantity delivered during
- an operation was 264 t and the maximum was 858 t (**Table 1**). For support vessels, the mean
- was 79 t and the maximum was 176 t.

244 Selected data set

- 245 More than 95% of all fish caught by the purse seine fishing fleet operating in the western Indian
- Ocean from 2013 to 2019 were landed at Port Victoria, Seychelles. We found 168 annual
- records of 44 purse seiners that exclusively unloaded and transshipped in Port Victoria,
- 248 providing an opportunity to link fishing effort and activities with fuel consumption. This data set
- represented 63% of all days at sea, 65% of fishing sets, and 67% of landings of the Port Victoria
- 250 based-purse seine fishing fleet over the period 2013 to 2019.
- 251 The mean annual fishing effort for the selected vessels decreased between 2013-2016 and
- 252 2017-2019 following the implementation of the rebuilding plan for the Indian Ocean yellowfin
- tuna stock (Table 2). Between the two periods, the mean annual number of fishing sets
- remained stable but the proportion of sets on FADs increased from 77% to 86% in 2017 to
- 255 2019. The mean weight of fuel consumed annually by one purse seiner decreased from about
- 4,000 t in 2013 to about 3,000 t in 2019 (**Table 2**).

257 Variability in fuel consumption

258 We found that vessel size, fishing effort, and fishing sets for both types of tuna school 259 associations as well as the period of vessel construction significantly explained the variability in 260 purse seiners' fuel consumption while there were no significant differences between years of 261 activity. The final model explained 88.5% of the total variance of the annual fuel consumed by 262 purse seiners and each effect was significant (**Table 3**). After accounting for differences in vessel 263 length, we found that purse seiners built throughout the 1970s and 1980s had the highest fuel 264 consumption. They consumed 943 t more fuel annually than vessels built in the 1990s-2000s 265 and 212 t more than vessels built after the 2010s. Hence, the most recent vessels were found to 266 annually consume 731 t more fuel than the ones built during the 1990s-2000s. This is explained 267 by the increased requirements in energy to store part of the catch at ultra-low temperature to 268 improve fish quality. Some purse seine fishing companies have recently developed new markets 269 of higher value (e.g., loins, sashimi) based on improved handling and storage practices. Besides, 270 the annual fuel consumption was found to linearly increase with the number of fishing 271 operations on FADs, i.e., by 3.8 t of fuel for each additional set on FADs, while the positive 272 effects of length overall, days at sea, and number of sets on FSCs on fuel consumption were 273 found to be non-linear (Fig. 1).

Vessel length substantially increased the annual quantity of fuel consumed by a purse seiner.
Considering the mean annual values of 273 days spent at sea, 223 sets on FADs and 51 sets on
FSCs observed in the data set, the mean annual fuel consumption (lower and upper bounds of
the 95% confidence interval) was estimated at 2,044 t (1,792–2,297 t) for small-sized purse

seiners, 2,682 t (2,392–2,971 t) for medium-sized purse seiners, and 4,360 t (4,097–4,623 t) for
large-sized purse seiners built in 2001 (Fig. 2).

280 The fishing strategy defined by the type of school association targeted was found to affect fuel

- 281 consumption, with FAD-fishing resulting on average in more fuel consumed than FSC-fishing.
- 282 For 60 fishing sets made either on FSC- or FAD-associated schools, model predictions indicated
- that the annual fuel consumption would be 1,868 t (1,515 2,221 t) for FSC sets and 2,135

284 (1,746 – 2,523 t) for FAD sets (Fig. 3). Nevertheless, the difference was found to be not

significant as the confidence intervals of the predictions overlapped, showing the large

286 variability in fuel consumption estimates between vessels.

287 Fuel Use Intensity

The FUI in the western Indian Ocean purse seine fishery showed a large variability over the last four decades. The median FUI was larger than 1,000 l t⁻¹ in the early 1980s during the initial phase of development of the fishery and then showed an overall decreasing trend until 2003 when it reached a minimum of 364 l t⁻¹ (**Fig. 4**). The FUI showed large interannual variability during the 2000s and 2010s and had median values lower than 500 l t⁻¹ in 2018 and 2019. The support vessels contributed to between 3% and 7% of the FUI of the purse seine fishery between 2013 and 2019.

The annual estimates of FUI were found to differ highly between purse seiners. For instance, in 2015, the standard deviation of the FUI in the fleet was 210 l t⁻¹, with values ranging from less 2015 than 500 l t⁻¹ to more than 800 l t⁻¹. Furthermore, the purse seiners showed some major 2016 changes in FUI over time. For instance, a purse seiner that was present in the fishery between

- 299 1984 and 2019 was described by a standard deviation of 132 l t⁻¹ for a mean value of FUI of 436
- 300 I t⁻¹ over the period, i.e., a coefficient of variation of 30%.

301 Historical changes in the fishery

302 After an initial period of exploration in the very early 1980s, a large number of purse seiners 303 arrived in the Indian Ocean from the Atlantic Ocean in 1984, rapidly increasing the fishing effort 304 and the number of fishing operations. These were mainly conducted on FSC tuna at that time 305 (Fig. 5a-c). The annual effort of the fishery increased with some variability to more than 15,000 306 days at sea in 1997, before decreasing to about 12,000 days in 2004 (Fig. 5a,c). Between 1984 307 and 1997, the FAD component of the fishery steadily developed. The fishery experienced a 308 major decrease in effort and sets on FSCs due mainly to the piracy threat in 2008 to 2010 (Fig. 309 **5a,c**). The effort increased again in 2016 to almost 14,000 days at sea while the sets on FADs 310 showed a massive increase, from about 7,500 annually over the period 2013 to 2015 to more 311 than 10,000 from 2016 to 2018 (Fig. 5b). In the last years (2017 to 2019), the yellowfin tuna 312 catch limit on the purse seine fishery resulted in a decrease in the number of days spent at sea 313 combined with a drop in the targeting of FSC tuna (**Fig. 5a,c**).

In addition to changes in fishing effort and operations, the purse seine fishery showed some major changes in vessel technical characteristics that affected fuel consumption throughout the whole period. In particular, larger vessels consumed more fuel (see section Variability in fuel consumption) and the fishery showed a steady increase in vessel size over the last four decades. The mean vessel length increased from less than 60 m in the early 1980s to more than 90 m in 2019 (**Fig. 5d**). In addition, the period of construction was found to affect fuel 320 consumption (see section Fuel Consumption), which is likely due to technological 321 improvements in vessel and engine design over the last decades. The mean year of 322 construction, used as a metric of age of the vessels, steadily increased over time from a mean 323 of 1978 in the 1980s to 1999 in the 2010s (Fig. 5e). These changes reflected an aging of the 324 fleet from about 5-6 years old at the inception of the fishery in the early 1980s to about 15 325 years old on average in the 2000s and early 2010s. Some new vessels came into the fleet in 326 2015, reducing the mean age from a maximum of 16.2 years old in 2013 to 13.5 years in 2015 327 (Fig. 5f).

328 Total fuel consumption and air emissions

329 The estimated quantity of fuel consumed by the purse seine fishery in operation in the western 330 Indian Ocean showed strong interannual variability over the last four decades (1981-2019) in 331 relation to major changes in the fishing effort and activities (Fig. 6a). GHG and SO₂ emissions 332 were assumed to be proportional to fuel consumption and therefore showed similar temporal 333 patterns as fuel consumption over the last decades (Fig. 6b-c). The development of the fishery 334 in the 1980s resulted in a rapid increase of the fleet fuel consumption to about 110,000-335 125,000 t over the decade between 1985 and 1994 (Fig. 6). In the meantime, the annual GHG 336 and SO₂ emissions increased to about 425,000 t of CO₂-eq (SD = 31,522 t) and 1,100 t (SD = 86337 t), respectively. Fuel consumption and emissions then increased with some variability to reach a 338 peak in 2006 at about 165,000 t of fuel, 610,000 t of CO₂-eq GHG and 1,700 t of SO₂ (Fig. 6). The 339 high values of fuel consumption and emissions observed during 2003 to 2006 seemed to mainly 340 be driven by the large number of fishing sets on FSCs during that period (**Fig. 5c**). Fuel 341 consumption and associated emissions then showed major declines to 106,000 t of fuel,

342 428,000 t of CO_2 -eq GHG and 1,100 t of SO_2 in 2010 in relation to a sharp decline in the overall 343 effort and activities of the purse seine fleet. When the piracy risk was reduced, the vessels 344 came back to the fishery and increased their overall fishing effort, in particular towards a 345 massive use of FADs and support vessels. Consequently, the air emissions increased to reach 346 more than 660,000 t of CO_2 -eq in 2016. In recent years, fuel consumption and GHG emissions 347 decreased following the implementation of the yellowfin tuna catch limit. Meanwhile, SO₂ 348 emissions dropped to about 180 t in 2016 and 15 t in 2019 following the successive reductions 349 in the sulphur content of fuel imposed in 2016 and 2018.

350 **Discussion**

351 Our results provide a four decade perspective on the air pollutant emissions of one of the 352 world's largest commercial fisheries, the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery, responsible for 353 about half a Mt of tropical tuna catch in 2018. Based on an original and unique data set of more 354 than 4,300 bunkering operations spanning the period 2013-2019, we developed a model of 355 annual fuel consumption for a subset of large-scale purse seiners based in Port Victoria, 356 Seychelles, as a function of fishing effort, strategy and vessel characteristics. Based on our 357 model that explained almost 90% of the variability in purse seiners' annual fuel consumption, 358 our findings are threefold. First, we showed that the energetic performance of the Indian Ocean 359 purse seine fleet quantified with the FUI showed strong interannual variability. This is mainly 360 explained by the variability in fishing success due to a combination of variations in tuna 361 abundance and catchability, changes in accessibility and changes in fishing grounds, and 362 changes in fishing strategy. In particular, the increased targeting of FAD-associated schools in

363 response to market incentives (e.g., sale price of skipjack tuna) combined with the IOTC 364 management measure that was implemented to rebuild the stock of yellowfin tuna have 365 strongly modified the productivity and spatio-temporal patterns of the purse seine fishery with 366 recent effects on both catch and fuel consumption. Second, we estimated the past and current 367 levels of fuel consumption and GHG emissions of the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery over four 368 decades. We showed how emissions varied from the inception of the fishery to its evolution as 369 described by changes in the fleet structure (i.e., age and size of the vessels), technology, and 370 the effects of the environment on tuna catchability and management measures. The whole 371 fishery, including its support vessel component, annually consumed about 160,000 t of fuel and 372 emitted about 590,000 t of CO₂-eq GHG from 2015 to 2019. Finally, we demonstrated the 373 efficiency of the implementation of sulphur limits in the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery. These 374 limits resulted in the sharp reduction of the SO_2 air pollution which had exceeded 1,500 t in 375 2015.

376 **GHG emissions**

377 Considering annual estimates of GHG emissions available from the literature, our results 378 indicate that the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery represented about 0.37% of the global 379 fisheries emissions in 2000 (Tyedmers et al., 2005), 0.24% in 2011 (Parker et al., 2018) and 380 0.32% in 2016 (Greer et al., 2019). Emissions from this highly industrial fishery are overall low 381 due to the small number of active vessels (~50 purse seiners) and despite their large size (~90 m 382 length overall) and the wide spatial extent of their fishing grounds. Tuna fisheries of the Indian 383 Ocean represented about 20% of the global tuna catch over the last decades (Taconet et 384 al. 2018). The importance of coastal fisheries has steadily increased over time and they now

contribute to about 70% of the total tuna catch (Fiorellato et al. 2019). In this context, it seems
essential to extend such analysis to the other industrial components of the tuna fisheries
(i.e. longliners and pole and liners) but also to the thousands of small fishing vessels that target
tunas and other pelagic fishes with a large variety of fishing gears (e.g. handline, gillnets,
driftnets) to better assess the multiple sources of air pollution by fisheries across the Indian
Ocean.

391 Purse seiners' characteristics and fuel consumption

392 Vessel characteristics (e.g., hull design, propeller, auxiliary engine and cold storage capacity) as 393 well as fishing strategies and tactics affect the distance travelled and fuel consumption 394 (Guillotreau et al., 2011; Sala et al., 2011). Our results showed that size and age explain a 395 significant part of the differences observed in annual fuel consumption between vessels. Purse 396 seiners' length increased steadily over the last four decades. Some fishing companies invested 397 in very large boats (>90 m) throughout the 1990s and 2000s to reduce the fuel to catch ratio 398 and increase profit (Campling, 2012). Economic incentives explain the increasing size of purse 399 seiners to a large extent as the economies of scale are high for this highly capitalized industry 400 characterized by heavy fixed costs. Fuel costs represent on average 20% of the total operating 401 costs of a purse-seine vessel fishing in the Indian Ocean (Miyake et al., 2010). However, the 402 business model of purse seine fishing companies became more dependent on fuel price rises 403 during the oil crisis of 2008 when the energy costs reached more than 50% of the running costs 404 (Miyake et al., 2010). Even for smaller vessels such as Japanese longliners, fuel costs rose from 405 7 up to 23% of total running costs between 1994 and 2006 (Miyake et al., 2010). When it is not 406 possible to implement a slow-steaming strategy, one way of dealing with such a dependency is

407 to increase the size of vessels to reduce unit costs (Cariou, 2011). This strategy is only possible
408 because the environmental costs of carbon emission externalities are not included in oil price
409 (Lvovsky et al., 2000). Furthermore, government subsidies for vessel construction and tax

410 exemption of fuel consumption may have supported the development of larger vessels and

411 buffered the effects of increased oil price to some extent (Sumaila et al., 2008).

412 In recent years, several new purse seiners were built and equipped with diesel-electric

413 propulsion systems that optimize the use of energy according to power demand. As such, fuel

414 consumption and associated air pollutant emissions are reduced (Hideki et al., 2011).

415 Nevertheless, the adoption of these mixed systems was mainly driven by the development of

416 ultra-freezing capacities onboard these vessels to store part of the catch at temperatures

417 between -40°C and -60°C and target markets of higher value than canned tuna. The high power

418 required to maintain these cold storage conditions actually resulted in the increase of the

419 overall fuel consumption of the purse seine fleet. This was shown by the effect of construction

420 period in our model that indicated that vessels built in the 2010s consume more than vessels

421 built throughout the 1990s-2000s.

422 Fishing strategy and fuel consumption

Fuel consumption varies with purse seine fishing strategy which depends on several factors driven by resource availability, market demand and costs, and are affected by innovation and technological changes (Guillotreau et al., 2011; Torres-Irineo et al., 2014). In particular, the advent of satellite-tracked buoys equipped with accurate positioning systems in the early 2000s supported the development of FAD-fishing that has become increasingly prevalent over the 428 years (Fonteneau et al., 2013; Maufroy et al., 2015). The profitability of the very large purse 429 seiners (>90-100 m) relied on an increasing number of GPS-tracked FADs and the association 430 with support vessels that manage the array of FADs, while smaller, less-costly purse seiners 431 (<80 m) generally used less FADs and seasonally targeted FSCs of large yellowfin tuna 432 (Guillotreau et al., 2011; Maufroy et al., 2017). Since the early 2010s, buoys attached to the 433 FADs include acoustic units that provide real-time information on the biomass of tuna occurring 434 in the vicinity of the drifting rafts (Lopez et al., 2014). This has led to increasing fishing efficiency 435 and success and enables further FAD-fishing throughout the year (Wain et al., 2020). The 436 increasing use of FADs has substantially modified the spatial extent and movement patterns of 437 the purse seiners. These vessels spend less time searching for tuna and more time steaming 438 towards the FADs where fish appear to be present. This may explain that the fuel consumption 439 increased more on average for a FAD set than a FSC set in our model although this was a 440 marginal effect and was not significant considering the large variability between vessels and 441 years. It should be noted however that vessels targeting FAD-associated schools make more 442 sets per day than when fishing on FSCs (Floch et al., 2019). The FUI for purse seiners targeting 443 FADs would then increase through increased number of fishing sets and associated fuel 444 consumption but decrease through increased catch per set enabled by better selection of the 445 FADs (Wain et al., 2020).

At short time scales, fishing tactics depend on the technical skills and different sources of
information available to the skipper, e.g., location of oceanographic features and acoustic
estimates of tuna abundance around GPS-tracked FADs (Baidai et al., 2020; Gaertner et al.,
1999). In addition, cooperative fishing is an essential component of purse seine fishing as FAD

450 position information can be shared between vessels and some skippers work in groups 451 (Lennert-Cody et al., 2020; Snouck-Hurgronje et al., 2018). Cooperative behaviour may 452 significantly reduce searching time and associated fuel costs, and this could explain the non-453 linear pattern observed for the number of FSC sets in our model, i.e., the initial reduction in fuel 454 consumed when the number of FSCs increased from 0 to 60. The transfer of information on 455 tuna presence between vessels explains the spatio-temporal co-occurrence of several purse 456 seiners in the same fishing area observed. For instance, this has been observed in the cases 457 where there are large concentrations of tuna and all purse seiners were found in the same 458 concentrated fishing grounds (Fonteneau et al., 2008). Further work is required to study how 459 collaborative fishing may affect fishing success, the relationship between fuel consumption and 460 catch measured by the FUI and more generally the use of purse seine catch rates as indices of 461 tuna abundance (Lennert-Cody et al., 2020).

462 **Emissions's variability**

463 GHG emissions of the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery showed a general increasing trend over 464 the last four decades described by some strong interannual variability and a mean annual value 465 of 590,000 t of CO_2 -eq from 2015 to 2019. Our estimates are conservative as they do not 466 include emissions from support vessels prior to 2013 nor from purse seiners that operated in 467 the northwest and eastern parts of the Indian Ocean. Information on vessels' characteristics 468 and fishing operations for these vessels was not available for the present study. However, we 469 assume that their contribution to the total air pollutant emissions of the Indian Ocean purse 470 seine fishery is on the order of magnitude of their catch, i.e., less than 6% of the total purse 471 seine catch for the whole period. Support vessels appeared in the late 1980s in the purse seine

472 fishery but their role has increased since the late 1990s. Their number varied between 10 and
473 15 over 1997 to 2012 (Chassot et al., 2015), and likely would represent an additional 3-4% of
474 the total fuel consumed by purse seiners' activity during that period.

475 Our results showed that fuel consumption and associated emissions varied strongly over time 476 as a result of several intricate factors, including changes in fleet characteristics and strategy, 477 changes in accessibility to fishing grounds and tuna abundance and catchability. In the Indian 478 Ocean, annual catch rates are strongly related to the extent of favourable feeding habitats for 479 tuna, i.e., good environmental conditions result in fishery contraction (Druon et al., 2017). 480 Although the reduction in the size of fishing grounds, supported by collaborative fishing, might 481 suggest a reduction in fuel consumption, we found that increased catchability may actually 482 result in increased numbers of fishing sets and eventually higher fuel consumption. In 483 particular, the period 2003 to 2005 was characterized by an exceptional abundance of mantis 484 shrimp Natosquilla investigatoris, a major prey of tuna that occurred in large swarms near the 485 surface and substantially increased the catchability of tuna schools (Potier et al., 2007; 486 Romanov et al., 2015). During that period, the total landings of the fishery were larger than 487 385,000 t per year. GHG emissions showed a major increase and reached almost 500,000 t of 488 CO₂-eq per year. Our study also showed that GHG emissions declined by 30% over 2009 to 2011 489 due to the piracy threat, which resulted in a major decline of overall purse seine effort and 490 reduction in the extent of the fishing grounds (Chassot et al., 2012). Although too early to 491 assess, preliminary information suggests a major decrease in purse seiners' effort and GHG 492 emissions in 2020 in relation with the COVID-19 pandemic, possibly of the same magnitude as 493 observed during the main period of the Somali piracy threat.

494 Energetic and environmental performance

495 FUI is used to describe and compare the environmental performance of fisheries and fishing 496 gears in terms of output and efficiency (Parker et al., 2018; R. W. R. Parker, Vázquez-Rowe, et 497 al., 2015). Based on a global survey among purse seine fishing companies, Tyedmers and Parker 498 (2012) found that the FUI of the purse seine fishery in 2009 was lower in the Indian Ocean (454 499 It⁻¹) than in the Atlantic (513 It⁻¹) but higher than in the Pacific Ocean (354 It⁻¹). Our mean FUI 500 predictions of 496 l t⁻¹ in 2009 are slightly higher than their estimate, possibly due to the 501 difference in methodology and sample size (i.e., nine purse seiners in the sample of Tyedmers 502 and Parker (2012) and 46 in this study). The review of historical values of FUI in purse seine 503 fisheries shows a range of 200-2,500 | t⁻¹ and a more restricted range (200-527 | t⁻¹) since 2000 504 (R. W. R. Parker, Hartmann, et al., 2015). Our results showed that the mean annual FUI of the 505 Indian Ocean purse seine fishery exceeded this range in the last decade, reaching more than 506 650 | t⁻¹ in 2015, while the same fleet showed a FUI of less than 420 | t⁻¹ in 2018. This illustrates 507 the large temporal variability in FUI linked to the main factors described above (see Fishing 508 strategy and fuel consumption). In this context, developing and implementing routine 509 monitoring of fuel consumption using standardized methods is required to provide more 510 accurate assessment of fisheries energetic performance.

511 The economic drivers and consequences of the FUI were beyond the scope of this study.

512 Nonetheless, it would be interesting in future research to look at the impact of heavy fuel oil

513 and marine diesel oil prices on fishing strategies, fuel consumption and the level of emissions.

514 In particular, if the fishing companies were deemed sensitive to price signals, incentive-based

515 policies such as tax instruments could be implemented as complements to the new standards

of sulphur content, at least for catches taking place within the exclusive economic zones ofcoastal countries.

518 Air pollutant emissions from fuel combustion constitute one component of the environmental 519 performance of a fishery. The status of the stocks that are targeted as well as the impact of 520 fishing on habitat and species that are taken as bycatch should also be scrutinised when it 521 comes to assessing the sustainability of a fishery as is done for eco-labels such as the Marine 522 Stewardship Council (MSC) fisheries standard. In recent years, most purse seine fisheries have 523 entered into the process of MSC certification through Fishery Improvement Projects (Crona et 524 al., 2019) which do not include any constraint related to emissions of air pollutants. Quantifying 525 the magnitude and composition of air pollutant emissions should be an integral component to 526 monitoring sustainability of fisheries.

527 Conclusion

528 Our model of purse seiner fuel consumption allowed us to reconstruct the history of air 529 pollutant emissions of the Indian Ocean purse seine fishery over four decades. The FUI 530 predicted by our model is in line with that found in earlier studies, but it also shows a great 531 inter-annual variability according to environmental and fishing conditions that should be taken 532 into greater consideration. The shifting structure of the fleet towards larger vessels assisted by 533 support vessels and more intensive use of FADs tend to increase fuel consumption, hence air 534 pollution in the fishery. GHGs now reach some 600,000 t of CO_2 -eq yearly. This high level of air 535 pollutant emissions should certainly be a concern to the eco-label schemes promoting

536 sustainable fisheries, responding to the Sustainable Development Goal #14 of the United537 Nations.

Further work is required to better account for the additional air pollution linked to the global tuna supply chain: transportation of raw tuna material to the processing factories located all over the world and of processed tuna products to the consumer markets that are dominated by the EU and the USA (Miyake et al., 2010). The model will also be useful to predict the expected effects of changes in fleet capacity and fishing activities on the Seychelles national economy, e.g., to quantify the decrease in revenues for the government linked to the stop of vessels due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

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557 Table 1: Description of the fuel data set. Number of vessels and bunkering operations with

558 mean, maximum and total weight (t) of fuel delivered annually to the purse seiners (PS) and 559 support vessels (SV) that called on Port Victoria, Seychelles, during 2013-2019.

Year	VesselType	Vessels	Operations	MeanWeight	MaxWeight	TotalWeight
2013	PS	38	390	269	858	104,731
2013	SV	10	50	72	151	3,613
2014	PS	42	465	260	672	120,883
2014	SV	15	68	81	135	5,526
2015	PS	49	534	279	792	149,043
2015	SV	18	96	84	176	8,099
2016	PS	47	606	274	777	166,227
2016	SV	21	120	84	176	10,103
2017	PS	45	557	263	713	146,588
2017	SV	20	135	79	166	10,611
2018	PS	44	580	247	729	143,095
2018	SV	18	121	74	152	8,932
2019	PS	45	544	261	605	141,735
2019	SV	16	113	79	172	8,889

561 **Tables**

562 Table 2: Description of the fisheries data set selected for modelling fuel consumption. Number

563 of vessels (N) and mean annual values of length overall (LOA; m), fishing effort (days at sea),

numbers of sets on schools associated with fish aggregating devices (SetsFAD) and on free

565 swimming schools (SetsFSC), landings (t) and fuel consumed (t) for the purse seiners that 566 called exclusively on Port Victoria, Seychelles, during 2013-2019.

Year	Ν	LOA	DaysAtSea	SetsFAD	SetsFSC	Landings	Fuel
 2013	8	94.1	298	254	63	11,463	3,989
2014	19	89.6	300	205	52	7,593	3,568
2015	23	90.9	267	170	72	6,672	3,465
2016	31	88.8	300	228	61	7,207	3 <i>,</i> 605
2017	29	92.7	270	231	66	8,283	3,499
2018	30	91.5	258	259	14	11,064	3,494
2019	28	89.8	245	219	41	8,384	3,014

568 Table 3: Analysis of variance outputs for the annual quantity of fuel consumed (t) by large-

569 scale purse seiners. YOC = Year of construction; SetsFAD = number of sets on schools

570 associated with fish aggregating devices; LOA = Length overall; SetsFSC = number of sets on

571 *free swimming schools; s = smooth function; edf = effective degrees of freedom; F = Test*

572 statistic.

Source of variation	edf	F value	p-value
DecadeYOC	2.00	22.2	<0.001
SetsFAD	1.00	36.2	<0.001
s(LOA)	8.64	32.1	<0.001
s(DaysAtSea)	4.94	22.4	<0.001
s(SetsFSC)	2.58	5.2	0.0014

574 Figures



576 Figure 1: Variability in annual fuel consumption of large-scale purse seiners operating in the

- 577 western Indian Ocean. Predictions for the three continuous variables included in the model of
- 578 annual fuel consumption: (a) length overall (m), (b) days a sea, (c) number of sets on tuna
- 579 free-swimming schools (FSC).

580



582 Figure 2: Effect of fishing effort and vessel length on fuel consumption of large-scale purse

583 seiners of the Indian Ocean. Predictions of quantity of fuel consumed (t) by purse seiners of

584 different length overall (LOA; m) as a function of the annual number of days spent at sea.

585 Solid lines are the mean predictions with 95% confidence intervals for the smallest (67.3 m),

586 medium-sized (89.7 m) and largest (116 m) vessels of the purse seine fishery.



Number of fishing sets



590 Indian Ocean. Predictions of quantity of fuel consumed (t) by a medium-sized purse seiner

591 (89.7 m) as a function of the annual number of fishing sets that would have been made

592 exclusively on schools associated with fish aggregating devices (FADs) or on free-swimming

593 schools (FSCs). Solid lines are the mean predictions with 95% confidence intervals.



596 Figure 4: Temporal variability in environmental performance of the Indian Ocean purse seine

597 fishery from 1981 to 2019 as described by the annual distribution of Fuel Use Intensity (lt^{-1}).





600 Figure 5: Annual changes in fishing effort, activities, and main technical characteristics of the

601 western Indian Ocean purse seine fishery from 1981 to 2019. Annual time series of (a) days at

602 sea, (b) number of sets on tuna schools associated with Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs), (c)

603 number of sets on free swimming schools (FSCs), (d) mean length overall (m), (e) mean year

of construction and (f) mean age of the purse seiners that operated in the western Indian

605 Ocean during 1981-2019. Blue polygon = Onset of the fishery; Red polygon = Piracy threat and

606 worldwide financial crisis; Green polygon = Yellowfin tuna catch limit.





610 emissions of the western Indian Ocean purse seine fishery from 1981 to 2019. Annual time

611 series of (a) fuel consumption (t), (b) GHG emissions (x1,000 t CO_2 -eq) and (b) SO_2 emissions

- (t) as derived from model predictions of fuel annually consumed by the fleet of purse seiners and support vessels based in Port Victoria, Seychelles, during 1981-2019.

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