

1           **How are typical urban sewage treatment technologies going in**  
2           **China: From the perspective of life cycle environmental and**  
3           **economic coupled assessment**

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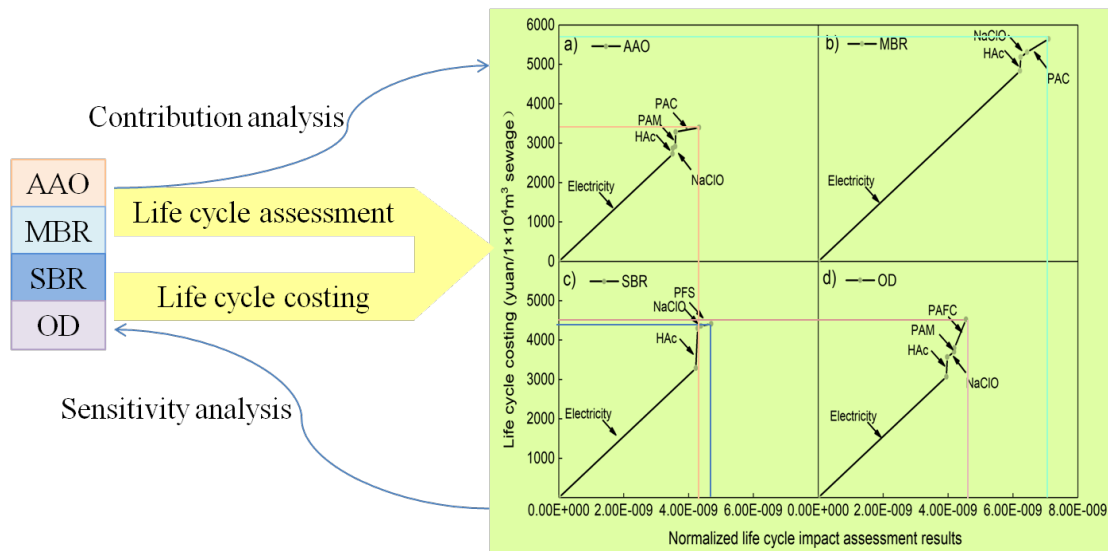
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26 **Abstract**

27 Sewage treatment is an important public service, but it consumes a lot of energy and  
28 chemicals in the process of removing wastewater pollutants, which may cause the risk  
29 of pollution transfer. To find the corresponding hot issues, this paper took the lead in  
30 integrating life cycle assessment (LCA) with life cycle costing (LCC) to evaluate four  
31 most typical sewage treatment technologies with more than 85% share in China. It is  
32 found that anaerobic/anoxic/oxic (AAO) was the optimal treatment scheme with  
33 relatively small potential environmental impact and economic load. The normalized  
34 results show that the trends of the four technologies on eleven environmental impact  
35 categories were basically the same. Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential accounted for  
36 more than 70% of the overall environmental impact. Contribution analysis indicates  
37 that electricity and flocculant consumption were the main processes responsible for the  
38 environmental and economic burden. Overall, electricity consumption was the biggest  
39 hot spot. Sensitivity analysis verifies that a 10% reduction in electricity could bring  
40 high benefits to both the economy and the environment. These findings are expected to  
41 provide effective feedback on the operation and improvement of sewage treatment.



42  
43 *Keywords:* Life cycle assessment; Life cycle costing; Technical comparison;  
44 Environmental impact; Contribution analysis; Sewage treatment technology

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 Sewage treatment project is an important part of modern urban public  
47 infrastructure, which is responsible for solving water pollution problems. With the rapid  
48 growth of China's economy and population, the number and capacity of sewage  
49 treatment plants are growing well, doubling in just ten years from 2006 to 2016  
50 (MOHURD 2018). Various sewage treatment technologies and equipments have been  
51 invented and applied. Sewage treatment can greatly reduce the pollutants in the influent  
52 wastewater and obtain good effluent quality, thus reducing the impact on the water  
53 environment. However, the gas and solid waste discharged in the treatment process, as  
54 well as the input of energy and chemicals, will have extra negative impacts on the  
55 environment (Zang et al. 2015). In addition to paying attention to the effluent quality  
56 and pollutant removal rate, the environmental impact of different treatment  
57 technologies should also be evaluated reasonably, which has important theoretical value  
58 and practical significance for guiding the design and operation of sewage treatment  
59 (Cheng et al. 2020)..

60 Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a technology to quantify the environmental impact  
61 of all phases of a product, service, or process. Since the 1990s, LCA has been applied  
62 in the field of sewage treatment (Emmerson et al. 1995; Singh et al. 2019), and it has  
63 proven to be an ideal tool to evaluate the environmental impact of sewage treatment  
64 plants (Guest et al. 2009). Initially, LCA was used to calculate the environmental impact  
65 of a particular case and identify key phases (Emmerson et al. 1995; Pasqualino et al.  
66 2009). Later, LCA was gradually applied to compare different scenarios of a single  
67 treatment system, such as comparison of effluent standards (Bai et al. 2018; Zhao et al.  
68 2018), comparison of different sewage reuse rates (Raghuvanshi et al. 2017; Tong et al.  
69 2013), comparison of different sludge disposal methods (Murray et al. 2008; Xu et al.  
70 2014), and comparison of different evaluation methods (Hernández-Padilla et al. 2017;  
71 Vera et al. 2015). Up to now, multiple systems have been compared gradually. For  
72 example, Kamble et al. (2019) conducted a life cycle assessment of six local sewage  
73 treatment technologies in India, and the results showed that the soil biotechnology had

74 the least environmental impact, while the aerated lagoons were the opposite.

75 With the continuous development and improvement of LCA, life cycle costing  
76 (LCC) was added to the life cycle sustainability assessment (LCSA) for economic  
77 impact assessment (Swarr et al. 2011). LCA is a widely recognized environmental  
78 management tool. However, when making the final decision, it is necessary to consider  
79 both environmental factors and economic differences between diverse technologies.  
80 LCC can compensate for the lack of LCA in economic evaluation by calculating the  
81 total cost in the life cycle, which is helpful to identify the production links with large  
82 economic load. Therefore, integrating LCC and LCA allows for better evaluation and  
83 comparison of products.

84 However, most of the current researches in China generally had the following  
85 shortcomings: (1) focus on the comparison between two plants in the terms of technical  
86 or economic, failing to get more comprehensive evaluation results (Hao et al. 2019;  
87 Zhao et al. 2019)(Zhang et al., 2019); (2) basically concentrated on analysis of energy  
88 (Li et al., 2020), carbon emissions (Chai et al. 2015), sludge disposal (Innocenzi et al.,  
89 2020) and water reuse (Li et al., 2020), ignoring the more detailed identification of  
90 hotspots; (3) lack the comparative studies of various localized technologies, and unable  
91 to put forward optimization suggestions in line with China's national conditions further.

92 In this context, this paper integrated LCC and LCA to evaluate the four typical  
93 regional sewage treatment technologies: anaerobic/anoxic/oxic (AAO), membrane  
94 bioreactors (MBR), sequence batch reactors (SBR) and oxidation ditches (OD) in China.  
95 According to researches, more than 85% of sewage treatment plants in China adopt four  
96 technologies mentioned above (Jiang et al. 2020; Li et al. 2018). The samples were  
97 selected from one of the most developed cities in China, representing the overall level  
98 of sewage treatment in country. The study aims to (1) quantify the environmental and  
99 economic impacts of typical urban sewage treatment technologies in China, (2) identify  
100 the key impact categories, phases, processes and substances for improvement, (3)  
101 establish geographically specific data on Chinese urban wastewater treatment to  
102 provide useful information for decision makers in their effort to build and transform the  
103 sewage treatment industry from environmental and economic perspectives.

## 104 **2. Methodology**

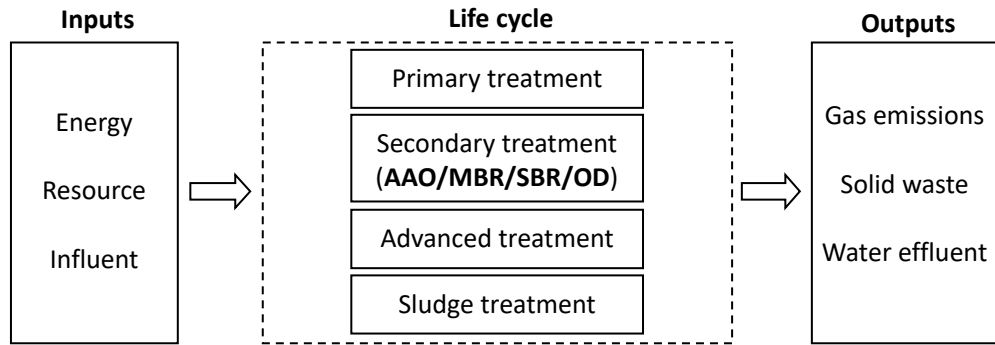
### 105 2.1. Life cycle assessment

106 LCA is a method to evaluate the potential environmental impact of a product system  
107 in its whole life cycle. According to the ISO 14040 standard (Finkbeiner et al. 2006;  
108 ISO 2006a, b), LCA is generally divided into four steps: goal and scope definition, life  
109 cycle inventory (LCI) analysis, life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) and interpretation  
110 of results.

#### 111 2.1.1. Definition of goal and scope

112 The goal of this study was to analyze the life cycle of four most typical and widely  
113 used sewage treatment technologies (AAO, MBR, SBR and OD) in China. LCA can  
114 identify hot spots in the product lifecycle to find the potential of pollutant mitigation  
115 and enable decision-makers to make strategic planning.

116 Sewage treatment is a particularly large and complex system, and previous studies  
117 have shown that the effects of the construction and demolition stages are negligible  
118 compared to the operation stage (Garcia-Montoya et al. 2016; Hospido et al. 2012;  
119 Lundie et al. 2004; Rodriguez-Garcia et al. 2011). Canaj et al. (2021) and Xue et al.  
120 (2019) confirmed that electricity consumption and chemical consumptions contributed  
121 up to 90% of the environmental loads to most impact category indicator results. Rashid  
122 et al. (2020) verified the environmental impact was largely derived from electricity  
123 consumption and chemical consumptions (57–95%) and construction and demolition  
124 only contribute less than 10% in each impact category. A similar finding was reported  
125 by (Foley et al., 2010) and (Hao et al., 2019) that the operation of WWTP contributed  
126 more than 90% to environmental impact categories compared with construction and  
127 demolition phases. Therefore, this study only considered the operation stage from  
128 sewage pumping into the plant to final discharge. With the treatment of  $1 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$  of  
129 sewage as a functional unit, a system boundary was established as shown in Fig.1. The  
130 research scope included primary treatment, secondary treatment, advanced treatment,  
131 and sludge treatment, so as to compare the environmental load of each treatment phase  
132 of the four technologies.



**Fig.1.** System boundary for the LCA study. AAO: Anaerobic/anoxic/oxic; MBR: Membrane bioreactor; SBR: Sequencing batch reactor; OD: Oxidation ditch.

### 2.1.2. Inventory analysis

This study selected four representative wastewater treatment plants for specific inventory in Wuxi, Jiangsu Province. As one of the biggest demonstration areas and most developed cities, these samples basically represent the best level of sewage treatment and the future development direction (Cheng et al., 2020). All plants removed contaminants with the same treatment capacity, ensuring the comparability fundamentally. The inventory data of this study mainly came from field investigation, employee interviews and literature reports. The input items covered energy consumption, chemical consumption and transportation in each treatment phase. The output items involved pollutants in the effluent ( biochemical oxygen demand (BOD<sub>5</sub>), chemical oxygen demands (COD), ammonia nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>-N), total nitrogen (TN), total phosphorus (TP) and suspended solids (SS) ), waste gas ( ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) ), and solid waste (grid slag, sanding, biochemical sludge). Most were based on 2017 annual average data. The detailed inventory is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1** Life cycle inventory of four sewage treatment technologies (functional unit:  $1 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$  sewage).

I/O for per phase	Parameter	Unit	AAO	MBR	SBR	OD
<b>Primary treatment</b>						
Inputs	Electricity	kWh	532.14	837.19	495.55	1150.32
	SS	Kg	1140	1520	1020.3	1023.9
	COD	Kg	3130	3060	1779	3346.8
	BOD <sub>5</sub>	Kg	1110	1030	628.4	1528.6
	NH <sub>3</sub> -N	Kg	224	245	240.4	279.6
	TP	Kg	28.6	37.1	24.7	45.8
	TN	Kg	265	326	306.1	347
Outputs	Grid slag	Kg	657.53	600.00	415.34	1000.00

	Sanding	Kg	383.56	400.00	276.16	450.01
	H <sub>2</sub> S	Kg	0.0260	0.0844	0.0278	0.0019
	NH <sub>3</sub>	Kg	0.1452	0.8504	0.2619	0.0192
<b>Secondary treatment</b>						
Inputs	Acetic acid	Kg	32.88	81.89	237.449	117.32
	Electricity	kWh	2219.61	5128.59	3235.21	2161.32
Outputs	H <sub>2</sub> S	Kg	0.0553	0.0192	0.0523	-
	NH <sub>3</sub>	Kg	0.2767	0.1918	0.5546	-
<b>Tertiary treatment</b>						
Inputs	Sodium Hypochlorite	Kg	67.19	181.48	91.32	193.18
	Electricity	kWh	693.19	-	199.43	276.27
Outputs	SS	Kg	70	20	30	50
	COD	Kg	210	187	298	209.9
	BOD <sub>5</sub>	Kg	80	41	36	36
	NH <sub>3</sub> -N	Kg	6.49	5	11.5	9.7
	TP	Kg	0.87	2.5	1.4	2.5
	TN	Kg	79.6	81.4	132.2	96.7
<b>Sludge treatment</b>						
Inputs	Poly aluminum chloride	Kg	821.92	750.68	-	-
	Poly aluminium ferric chloride	kg	-	-	-	364.13
	Poly ferric sulfate	Kg	-	-	71.23	-
	Polyacrylamide	Kg	8.22	-	-	6.81
	Electricity	kWh	56.02	235.65	282.83	347.50
Outputs	Biochemical sludge	Kg	3791.91	4928.97	2509.59	6488.52
	H <sub>2</sub> S	Kg	0.0066	0.0472	0.0376	0.0031
	NH <sub>3</sub>	Kg	0.0411	0.4745	0.3543	0.0308

152 As for transportation, it is assumed that both chemicals and wastes were  
153 transported by diesel-driven trucks, with a transportation distance of 50 km and 30 km  
154 respectively. The background data of upstream and downstream processes required for  
155 the study were from GaBi education database (version 9.1) and Ecoinvent database  
156 (version 3.6), mainly involving the production of electricity and chemicals as well as  
157 the transportation of chemicals and wastes. The relevant data representing China in the  
158 database were used preferentially. If not available, foreign parameters would be used.

### 159 2.1.3. Impact assessment

160 Life cycle impact assessment is a vital part of LCA. On the basis of the obtained  
161 inventory, the various types of data are associated with their corresponding  
162 environmental impacts by classification. Then data under the same kind of impact are

163 unified into a single indicator for characterization, which represents the mid-point result.  
164 In order to make different impact categories comparable, the normalization can be  
165 conducted by comparing mid-point results with the specific pollutant levels of the  
166 region to obtain dimensionless values.

167 CML 2001 method (Guinee 2001) is currently the most popular and commonly used  
168 method of impact quantification due to its broad impact categories and accuracy  
169 (Gallego-Schmid and Tarpani 2019). Therefore, this study adopted CML 2001 to obtain  
170 the characterization and normalization results for each impact category in each scenario.  
171 The following eleven impact categories are included: abiotic depletion potential-  
172 elements (ADPE), abiotic depletion potential-fossil (ADPF), acidification potential  
173 (AP), eutrophication potential (EP), freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP),  
174 global warming potential (GWP 100 years), human toxicity potential (HTP), marine  
175 aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP), ozone layer depletion potential (ODP),  
176 photochemical ozone creation potential (POCP), and terrestrial ecotoxicity potential  
177 (TETP). The global standard values based on CML 2001-Jan.2016 normalization  
178 system are listed in Table A.1 in Appendix.

#### 179 2.1.4. Interpretation of results

180 The interpretation, which is a comprehensive analysis of the results of inventory  
181 analysis and impact assessment, can provide valuable suggestions for decision-makers  
182 in combination with research goal and scope.

#### 183 2.2. Life cycle costing

184 LCC is an extended life cycle economic evaluation method based on LCA research  
185 (Woodward 1997), and the steps of the LCC approach are similar to those of LCA.  
186 Within the goal and scope defined by the LCA, LCC calculates the economic load  
187 generated in the whole life cycle process and identifies the main links. The unit price  
188 of each item was taken from the average price of the Chinese market. The related data  
189 were obtained on average, so no cash flow and discount rate can be considered, and  
190 then static economic analysis method-like was used in this paper. The detailed list can  
191 be found in Table A.2 in Appendix.



### 192 3. Results and discussion

#### 193 3.1. LCIA results

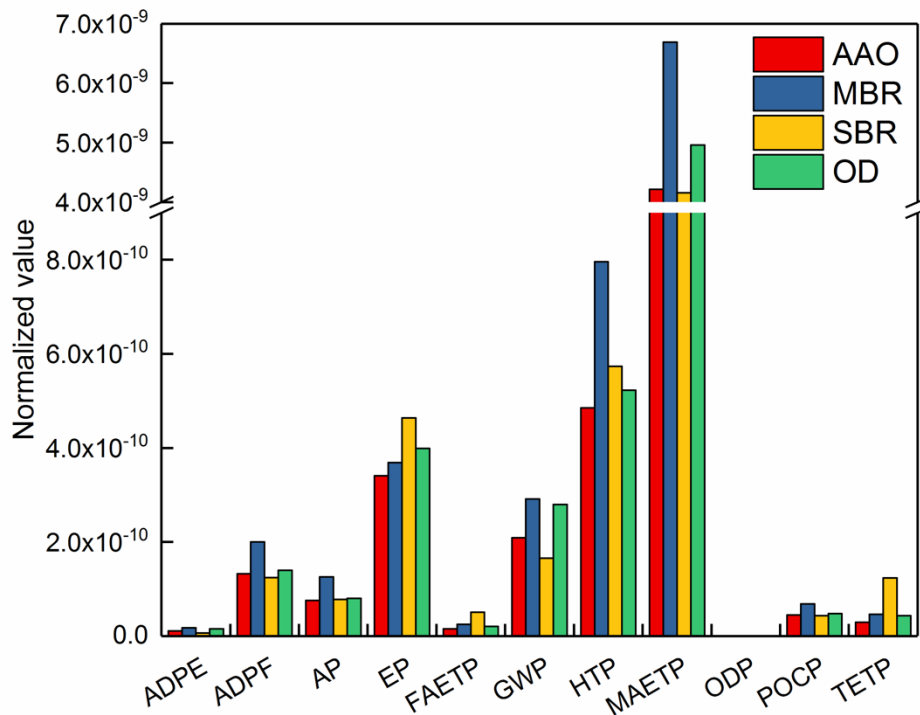
194 Through the environmental impact assessment of the inventory data of four  
195 sewage treatment technologies, the mid-point values of each impact category were  
196 obtained after the characterization. As shown in Table 2, the minimum environmental  
197 impact values all occurred in the AAO and SBR scenarios, while the maximum values  
198 all occurred in MBR and SBR. For example, AAO had the least impact on acidification,  
199 eutrophication, freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity, human toxicity, and terrestrial  
200 ecotoxicity. MBR performed the worst in most environmental impact categories, such  
201 as abiotic depletion, acidification, global warming, human toxicity, marine aquatic  
202 ecotoxicity, ozone layer depletion, and photochemical ozone creation. As an advanced  
203 sewage treatment technology, MBR can obtain high effluent quality, but it is at the cost  
204 of consuming more chemicals and energy. These additional inputs easily lead to high  
205 negative environmental impacts. Therefore, it is necessary to achieve a balance between  
206 water pollution control and potential pollution transfer.

207 **Table 2** Comparison of the characterized environmental results among the four technologies.

Category	Unit	AAO	MBR	SBR	OD
ADPE	kg Sb eq.	0.004	0.006	0.002	0.005
ADPF	MJ	50409.189	75923.651	47115.788	53150.747
AP	kg SO <sub>2</sub> eq.	18.160	29.975	18.600	19.106
EP	kg Phosphate eq.	53.786	58.274	73.325	62.999
FAETP	kg DCB eq.	36.555	58.552	119.644	48.834
GWP	kg CO <sub>2</sub> eq.	8832.495	12293.060	6989.533	11810.717
HTP	kg DCB eq.	1251.332	2053.547	1479.396	1348.672
MAETP	kg DCB eq.	821593.814	1304231.832	810468.542	967496.538
ODP	kg R11 eq.	$3.01 \times 10^{-11}$	$4.46 \times 10^{-11}$	$2.03 \times 10^{-11}$	$3.30 \times 10^{-11}$
POCP	kg Ethene eq.	1.635	2.525	1.590	1.767
TETP	kg DCB eq.	31.645	50.416	134.641	46.834

208 To compare the different impact categories, this study normalized the  
209 characterized results based on the CML 2001-Jan.2016 standard system. Fig.2 shows  
210 the normalized results. The impacts and trends of the four technologies on these eleven  
211 environmental categories were similar, but in terms of numerical values, AAO was  
212 relatively small in each category. In general, the normalized dimensionless values of

213 AAO, MBR, SBR, and OD were  $5.72 \times 10^{-9}$ ,  $8.85 \times 10^{-9}$ ,  $5.92 \times 10^{-9}$ , and  $6.70 \times 10^{-9}$   
 214 respectively. From the perspective of environmental categories, marine aquatic  
 215 ecotoxicity potential provided the largest contribution to the overall impact, accounting  
 216 for more than 70%, followed by human toxicity and eutrophication potential. In contrast,  
 217 the values of abiotic depletion potential-elements and ozone layer depletion potential  
 218 were too small and could be negligible, which is consistent with Hancock et al. (2012)  
 219 and Tong et al. (2013).



220  
 221 **Fig.2.** Comparison of the normalized environmental results among the four technologies.

222 3.2. Contribution analysis

223 In order to further explain the results, an impact contribution analysis was carried  
 224 out to identify the main processes and key factors. Fig.3 and Fig.4 illustrate the  
 225 contribution of different phases and processes to eleven environmental impacts in four  
 226 scenarios.

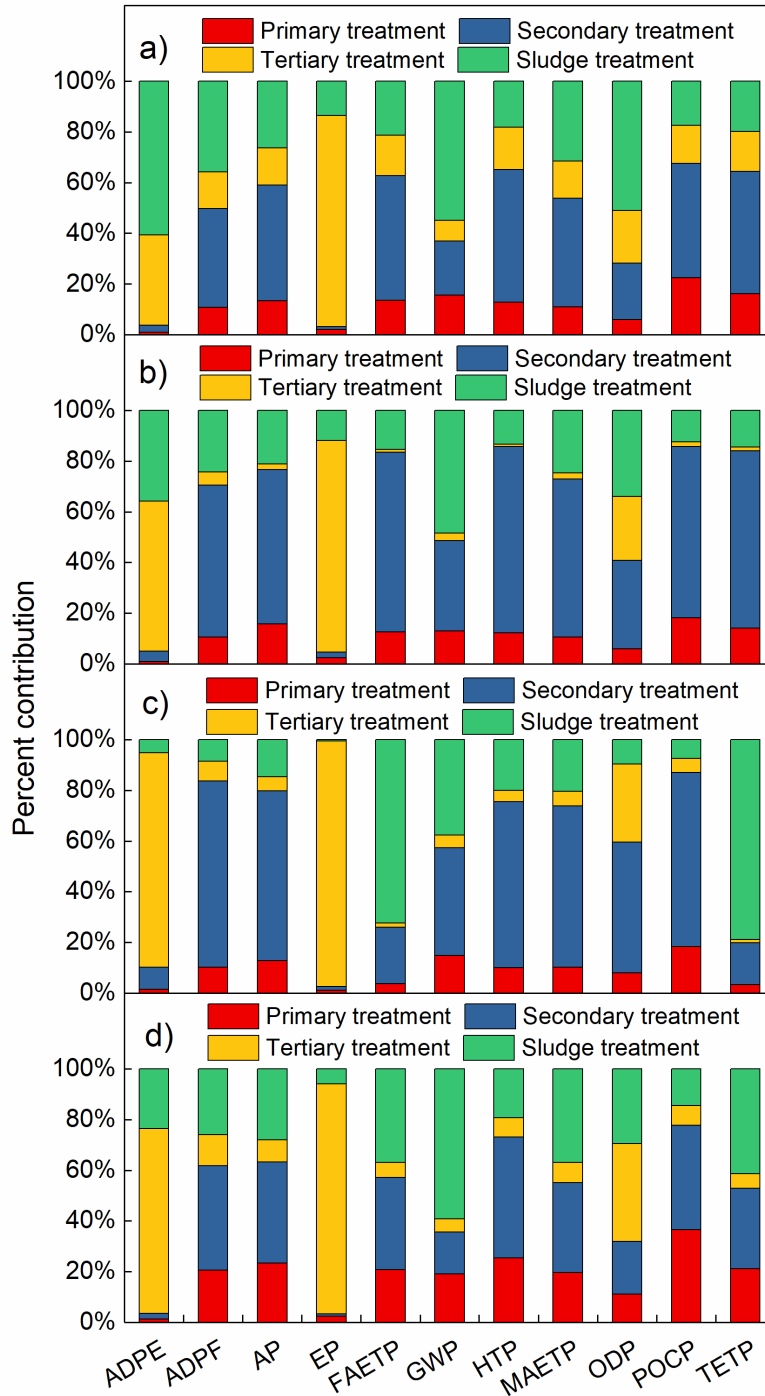


Fig.3. Phase contribution. a) AAO; b) MBR; c) SBR; d) OD.

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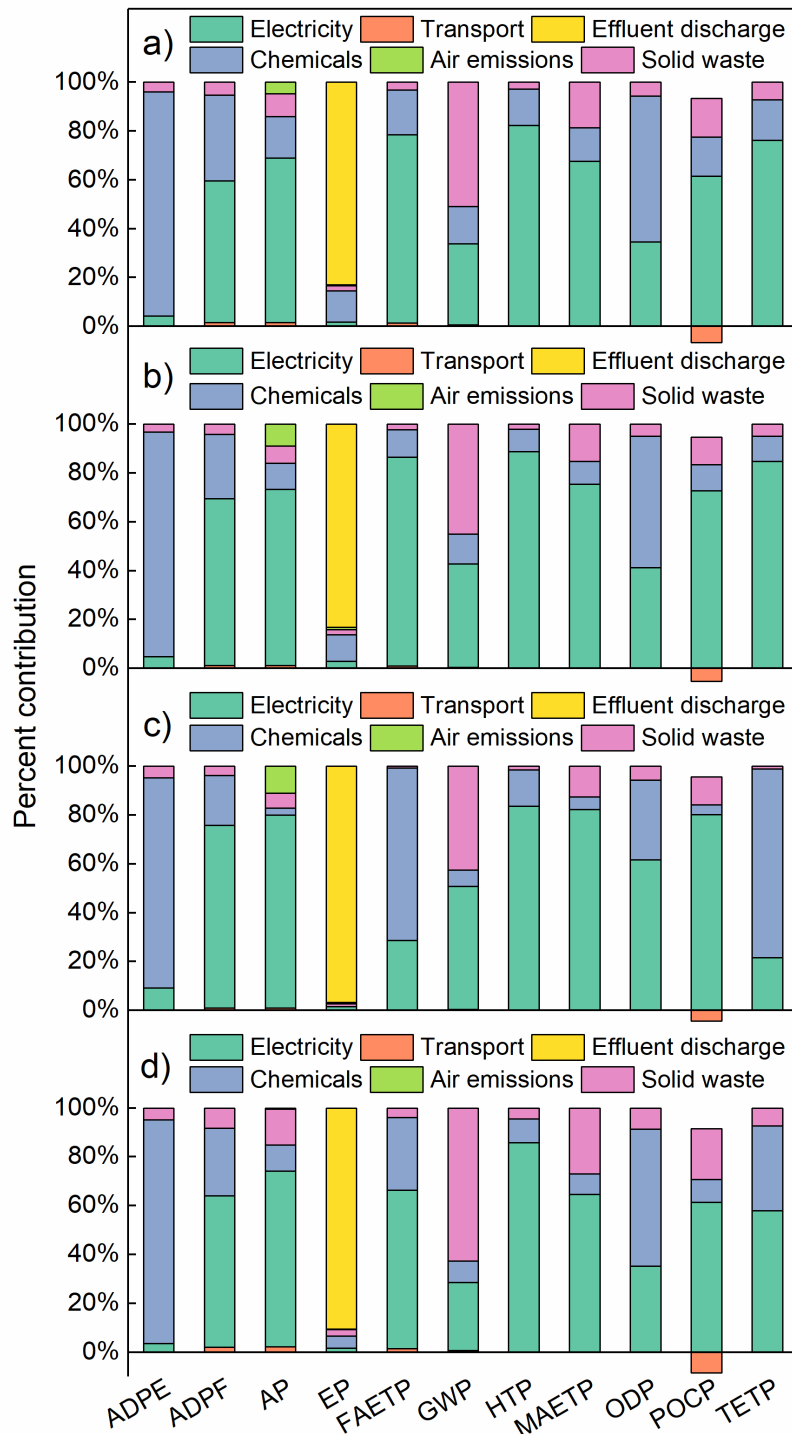
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As shown in Fig.3, the environmental impact was largely from the secondary treatment, while the impact of the primary treatment was relatively small. The main contribution phases of different impact categories were slightly different for the four technologies. It can still be found that secondary treatment was the main contributor to environmental impacts such as abiotic depletion potential-fossil, acidification, human toxicity, marine aquatic ecotoxicity and photochemical ozone creation, while

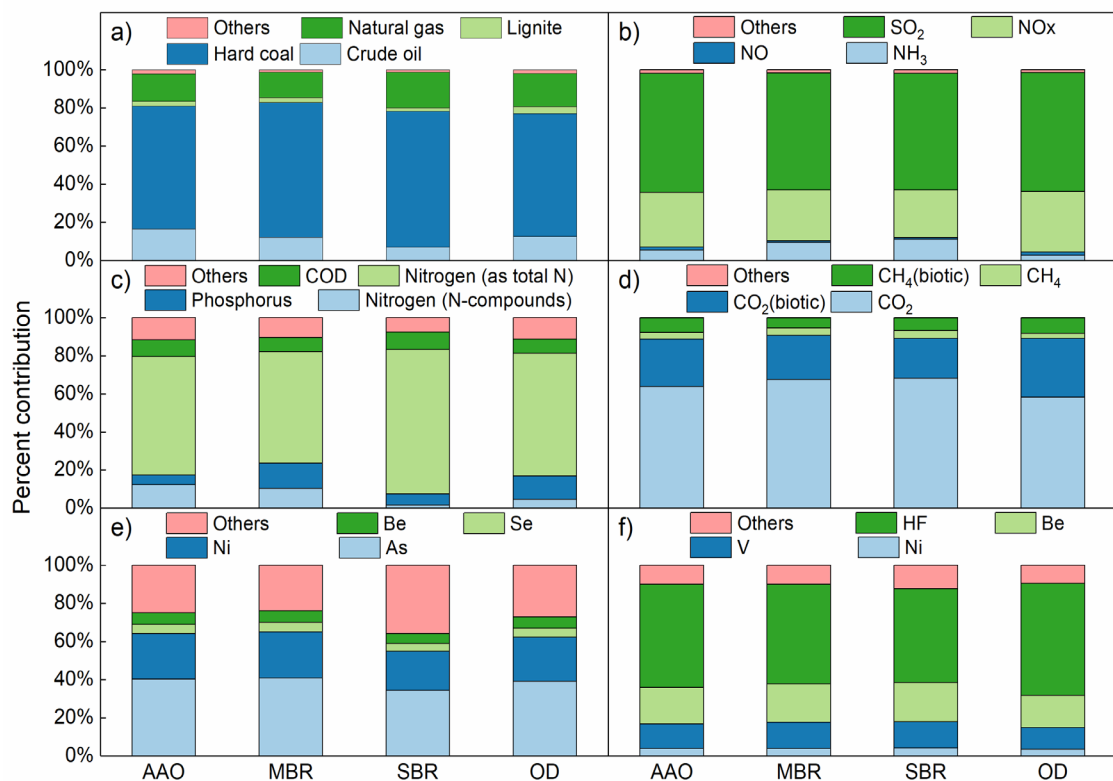
235 eutrophication potential was mainly caused by advanced treatment.



236  
237 **Fig.4.** Process contribution. a) AAO; b) MBR; c) SBR; d) OD.

238 Fig.4 reveals that electricity consumption was the decisive factor leading to the  
239 impact categories of abiotic depletion potential-fossil, acidification, human toxicity,  
240 marine aquatic ecotoxicity and photochemical ozone creation potential. This is because  
241 China currently relies mainly on thermal power generation (NBS 2018), which will be

242 accompanied by a large amount of raw coal consumption and pollutant emissions such  
 243 as sulfur dioxide. It is a common finding in the sewage treatment, where electricity  
 244 consumption tends to dominate most of the environmental impacts (Abello-Passteni et  
 245 al. 2020; Polruang et al. 2018). Therefore, it should be noted that the use of clean and  
 246 renewable energy may greatly reduce the whole life cycle environmental impact of  
 247 sewage treatment (Li et al. 2013; Ye et al. 2018). Chemicals also made an important  
 248 contribution to abiotic depletion potential-elements, freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity,  
 249 ozone layer depletion, and terrestrial ecotoxicity potential. The dominant contributor to  
 250 eutrophication was the effluent discharge because of the residual nutrients. Global  
 251 warming potential was mainly attributable to solid waste. In this study, the end  
 252 treatment of sludge was incineration, so there was a large amount of greenhouse gas  
 253 emissions.



254  
 255 **Fig.5.** Substance contribution. a) ADP; b) AP; c) EP; d) GWP; e) HTP; f) MAETP.

256 To further analyze the key substances that cause environmental impacts in each  
 257 link of sewage treatment, the six most affected environmental categories were selected  
 258 based on the normalized results. Fig.5 shows the contribution of key substances under  
 259 the four scenarios. The consumption of hard coal during power generation made the

260 largest contribution to abiotic depletion. Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>)  
261 emitted into the air were the key influencing factors of acidification. Total nitrogen (TN)  
262 discharged into fresh water was the main contributor to eutrophication. Carbon dioxide  
263 (CO<sub>2</sub>) emitted into the air contributed the most to global warming potential. Arsenic  
264 (As) and nickel (Ni) were major contaminants of human toxicity. For marine aquatic  
265 ecotoxicity, hydrogen fluoride (HF) emitted in fresh water was the dominant contributor.

266 Combined with the contribution analysis of key phases, processes and substances,  
267 the impact categories are grouped and further discussed as follows:

#### 268 (1) Abiotic depletion potential

269 Abiotic depletion potential is related to the exploitation of non-renewable  
270 resources (Singh et al. 2019), which can be divided into fossil fuel depletion and  
271 chemical element depletion. The chemicals used in the advanced treatment and sludge  
272 treatment were the main influencing factors of abiotic depletion potential-elements, and  
273 coal-fired power generation was the main influencing factor of abiotic depletion  
274 potential-fossil. Overall, MBR performed the worst in these two environmental  
275 categories and SBR performed the best.

#### 276 (2) Acidification potential

277 For the four technologies, acidification potential was found to be 18.160-29.975  
278 kg SO<sub>2</sub> eq. The contribution of electricity to acidification was more than 67%, mainly  
279 due to the emission of sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides during thermal power  
280 generation. The high energy consumption led to a higher acidification potential value  
281 for MBR than the other three technologies.

#### 282 (3) Eutrophication potential

283 Eutrophication potential is considered to be one of the most important impacts of  
284 sewage treatment. Although the treatment system can greatly reduce wastewater  
285 pollutants, the residual nutrients such as total nitrogen and total phosphorus can still  
286 cause eutrophication potential. Fig.4 illustrates that effluent discharge provided the  
287 main contribution to eutrophication, accounting for 83%-97% of the four technologies.  
288 It is believed that effluent discharge from sewage treatment plants is one of the major  
289 reasons for global eutrophication (Renou et al. 2008). In addition, indirect emissions

290 from the chemical production process might also lead to eutrophication. Compared with  
291 other technologies, SBR had the highest eutrophication potential (73.325 kg phosphate  
292 eq.), which can be decreased by enhancing the removal of nitrogen and phosphorus or  
293 by reducing the discharge of sewage through tail water reuse.

#### 294 (4) Global warming potential

295 Global warming potential was mainly attributable to greenhouse gases (carbon  
296 dioxide, methane, etc.) emitted during the sewage treatment. As shown in Fig.2, MBR  
297 performed the worst in global warming potential, followed by OD, AAO and SBR.  
298 Fig.4 implies that the key processes contributing to GWP were sludge incineration  
299 treatment and electricity production. Due to the high demand for electricity (0.62  
300 kWh/m<sup>3</sup> sewage) and more sludge (0.49 t/m<sup>3</sup> sewage, with 80% water content)  
301 generated in the actual production process, the MBR technology had the highest  
302 greenhouse effect. Therefore, it is necessary to save energy and reduce consumption in  
303 the process of sewage treatment, and pay attention to pollutant control in the process of  
304 sludge incineration.

#### 305 (5) Ozone layer depletion potential

306 Ozone layer depletion potential means that the release of substances such as  
307 fluorine and chlorine groups leads to a reduction in the thickness of the ozone layer,  
308 thereby endangering the ecosystem and human health. The ozone layer depletion  
309 potential for the four technologies was around  $3 \times 10^{-13}$  kg R11 equivalent, which is the  
310 smallest among all environmental categories. The main contribution process was the  
311 consumption of electricity and chemicals, accounting for more than 90%. And the key  
312 impact substance was methyl chloride.

#### 313 (6) Photochemical ozone creation potential

314 Photochemical ozone creation potential refers to the reaction of reactive  
315 hydrocarbons, nitrogen oxides and carbon monoxide to form photo-oxidized substances  
316 (i.e. ozone), which in turn affect human health. The electricity consumption of  
317 secondary treatment was the main process leading to photochemical ozone creation  
318 potential. Overall, MBR had the largest photochemical ozone creation potential, up to  
319 2.525 kg Ethene eq.

320 (7) Toxicity potential

321 The toxicity potential mainly depends on the heavy metals emitted into the  
322 environment and can be divided into freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity, marine aquatic  
323 ecotoxicity, terrestrial ecotoxicity and human toxicity potential. Indirect metal emission  
324 from electricity production was the main cause of TP, which is in agreement with  
325 previous studies (Piao et al. 2016; Singh et al. 2019). In addition, the use of chemicals  
326 and the disposal of sludge also contributed to the toxicity potential.

327 Electricity and chemicals contributed the most to freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity  
328 potential, with a contribution of more than 70% in the secondary treatment and sludge  
329 treatment phases. SBR owned the largest freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity (119.644 kg  
330 DCB eq.), mainly due to the release of vanadium (V), beryllium (Be), nickel and  
331 chrysene into water and air.

332 Compared with other environmental impact categories, marine aquatic ecotoxicity  
333 potential had the largest normalized value in sewage treatment, which is consistent with  
334 the researches by Kalbar et al. (2014) and Tong et al. (2013). As shown in Fig.5, more  
335 than 80% of marine aquatic ecotoxicity was derived from the pollution of hydrogen  
336 fluoride, beryllium and vanadium. Through the process contribution analysis, it is  
337 confirmed that about 90% of the contribution came from electricity production and  
338 solid waste treatment. Due to the large electricity consumption and sludge production,  
339 MBR had the greatest impact on marine aquatic ecotoxicity.

340 Concerning terrestrial ecotoxicity potential, it mainly occurred in two phases of  
341 sludge treatment and secondary treatment, which has a great relationship with the  
342 consumption of electricity and chemicals, accounting for more than 90%. Chromium,  
343 mercury, arsenic and vanadium were major contributors.

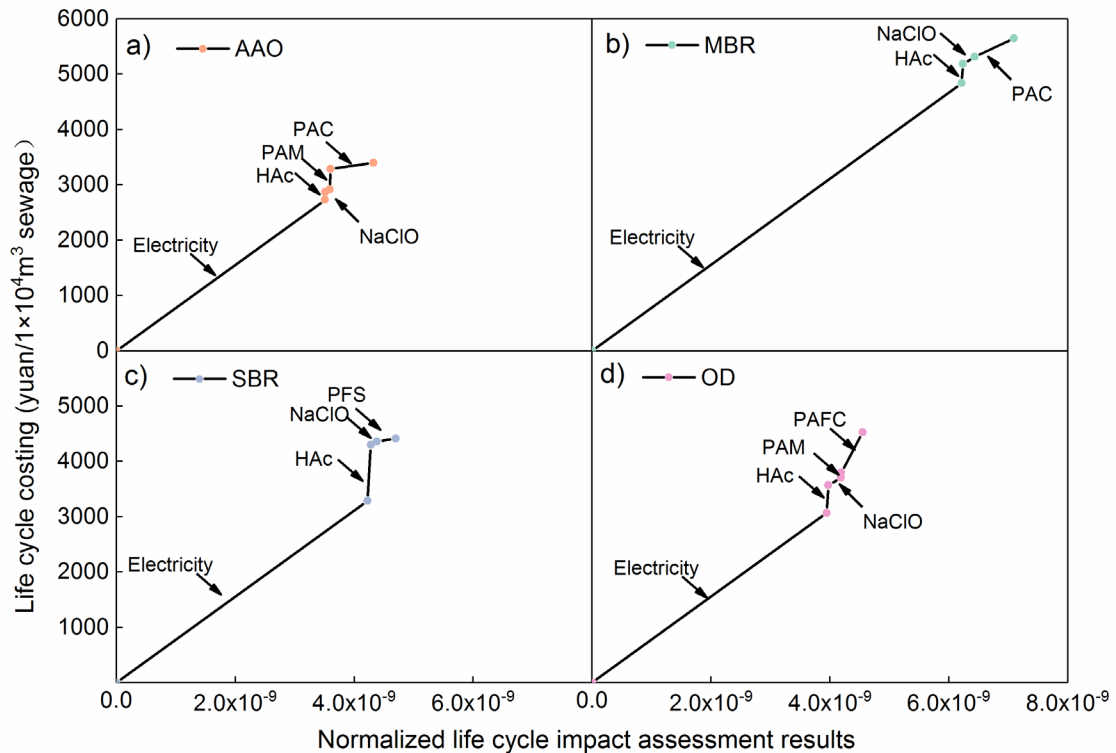
344 Human toxicity potential is mainly due to the release of heavy metals into water,  
345 air and soil (Kamble et al. 2019). Among the four scenarios, MBR had the greatest  
346 impact on human toxicity, while AAO had the least. The contribution of secondary  
347 treatment to HTP was 48-74%. Taking MBR as an example, 89% of human toxicity  
348 potential came from electricity consumption, followed by chemical consumption (9%).  
349 The key substances were arsenic and nickel, which account for 24% and 41%



350 respectively.

### 351 3.3. LCC analysis

352 Existing studies had evidenced that the expenditure of operation phase is an  
353 important part of the cost of the sewage treatment process. Lorenzo-Toja et al. (2016b)  
354 and Lorenzo-Toja et al. (2016a) founded that construction phase only contributed 4%  
355 to the costs of urban water treatments. According to Su et al. (2019), the expenditure of  
356 electricity and chemical consumption is an important part of operating costs in the  
357 sewage treatment process. Innocenzi et al. (2020) reported that the chemical purchase  
358 necessary for the treatment was the major component of the total cost for the treatment  
359 of wastewater. Xue et al. (2019) founded that apart from operation phrase, the rest of  
360 the stages contributed to less than 8% of the total cost of wastewater treatment. Besides,  
361 according to previous studies, only LCA and LCC have the same scope and basic  
362 assumption, LCC can effectively supplement the analysis of LCA results to achieve  
363 sustainability assessments (Di Maria et al. 2020; Hoogmartens et al. 2014). Therefore,  
364 LCC considered the operation stage from sewage pumping into the plant to final  
365 discharge. From the contribution analysis of Section 3.2, it is known that electricity and  
366 chemical consumption in operation phases were major contributors to most of  
367 environmental impact categories. Considering that pollution discharge fees in China are  
368 based on local unified standards, they are generally linked to discharge volume and  
369 have nothing to do with the processes adopted by the sewage treatment plant. Therefore,  
370 only the cost of electricity and various chemicals was accounted for LCC, accompanied  
371 by the joint analysis of the corresponding environmental impact. Fig.6 integrates the  
372 economic and environmental indicators of the four sewage treatment technologies. The  
373 total economic costs of the four technologies were 3398, 5650, 4416, and 4524 yuan  
374 respectively. Combined with the normalized overall LCIA results, MBR had the largest  
375 economic cost and environmental impact. AAO performed best and could be regarded  
376 as an optimal technology from both economic and environmental perspectives.



377

378 **Fig.6.** Life cycle economic versus environmental impact. PAC: poly aluminum chloride; PAFC:  
 379 poly aluminum ferric chloride; PFS: poly ferric sulfate; PAM: polyacrylamide.

380 As shown in Fig.6, electricity presented a very high economic and environmental  
 381 burden, accounting for 67% and 81% respectively. In addition, flocculants such as poly  
 382 aluminum chloride (PAC) and poly aluminum ferric chloride (PAFC) also had a certain  
 383 economic and environmental burden. This is similar to the discovery that flocculants  
 384 had an important impact on the digestive treatment of pig manure (Duan et al., 2020).  
 385 As a carbon source additive, acetic acid (HAc) had a high economic cost (4.13%-  
 386 22.94%), but the corresponding environmental impact was relatively small (0.12%-  
 387 1.2%). Generally speaking, it is necessary to improve the efficiency of energy usage,  
 388 optimize the chemical production process, as well as reduce the consumption of  
 389 electricity and chemicals, which can effectively reduce the environmental impact and  
 390 economic load, so as to achieve a win-win situation.

### 391 3.4. Sensitivity analysis

392 Based on the joint analysis of LCA and LCC, the consumption of electricity and  
 393 main chemicals (flocculants) in sewage treatment were selected with a 10% variation  
 394 for sensitivity analysis. The corresponding life cycle environmental and economic  
 395 impact changes are shown in Table 3.

396 The results show that electricity consumption was the most sensitive process.  
397 Changes in electricity usually bring maximum environmental and economic benefits,  
398 similar to previous studies (Li et al. 2019). When the electricity consumption was  
399 reduced by 10%, the overall LCIA results of four sewage treatment technologies were  
400 decreased by more than 6%. Five environmental impact categories, such as abiotic  
401 depletion potential-fossil, acidification, human toxicity, marine aquatic ecotoxicity and  
402 photochemical ozone creation potential, were greatly affected by electricity changes.  
403 Among them, human toxicity potential had the largest variability (8.21%-8.86%). It  
404 should be noted that the reduction in electricity had the least environmental benefits for  
405 eutrophication and abiotic depletion potential-elements. At the same time, the  
406 electricity changes also had a greater impact on the economic cost, with a sensitivity of  
407 6.79%-8.56%.

408 Compared with electricity consumption, flocculants contributed less to reducing  
409 the overall environmental impact and economic costs. The sensitivity of flocculant  
410 consumption to economic impact is less than 2%. Because of the high price of PAFS,  
411 the economic sensitivity of the OD scheme was up to 1.61%. Flocculant consumption  
412 has a certain contribution to the environmental impact of AAO, in which abiotic  
413 depletion potential-elements and ozone layer depletion potential show a high sensitivity  
414 of about 5%. However, for MBR and SBR schemes, environmental and economic  
415 indicators were less sensitive (less than 1%).

416 According to the sensitivity analysis, it is of great significance to decrease the  
417 consumption of electricity and flocculants during the operation stage of the sewage  
418 treatment. In practical terms, as discharge standards become more and more stringent,  
419 wastewater treatment is often based on the cost of a substantial increase in energy and  
420 chemical consumption. The pursuit of self-sufficiency in energy consumption is in line  
421 with the concept of sustainable sewage treatment, such as sludge incineration for power  
422 generation, while heat recovery is often neglected. Treated wastewater has great thermal  
423 energy potential (Hao et al. 2019; Guo et al. 2019), and the heat recovered on-site by  
424 heat pump technology can be used for sludge drying and other heating in the plant.  
425 Developing more environmentally friendly flocculants to replace traditional chemicals

426 such as PAC is also a new direction to be considered in the current sewage treatment.  
 427 In addition, the environmental impact of sewage treatment can be significantly  
 428 improved by optimizing the power structure and adopting low-energy equipment. By  
 429 comparing different power schemes, Li et al. (2013) and Polruang et al. (2018) have  
 430 proved that most environmental impact categories could be improved by using  
 431 renewable energy such as wind power, hydropower, etc.

432 **Table 3** Sensitivity analysis of main contributors with a 10% variation.

Category	AAO		MBR		SBR		OD	
	Electricity	PAC	Electricity	PAC	Electricity	PFS	Electricity	PAFC
ADPE	0.42%	5.64%	0.48%	3.25%	0.91%	0.0041%	0.35%	1.82%
ADPF	5.81%	2.89%	6.84%	1.75%	7.48%	0.01%	6.20%	1.20%
AP	6.73%	1.49%	7.22%	0.83%	7.91%	0.01%	7.19%	0.62%
EP	0.17%	1.27%	0.27%	1.07%	0.15%	0.0002%	0.16%	0.47%
FAETP	7.72%	1.72%	8.54%	0.98%	2.84%	6.99%	6.50%	2.77%
GWP	3.31%	1.31%	4.22%	0.86%	5.04%	0.0052%	2.79%	0.43%
HTP	8.21%	1.40%	8.86%	0.78%	8.36%	1.28%	8.56%	0.75%
MAETP	6.74%	1.22%	7.53%	0.70%	8.23%	0.27%	6.44%	0.48%
ODP	3.45%	4.52%	4.13%	2.79%	6.16%	0.04%	3.53%	1.81%
POCP	7.09%	1.62%	8.14%	0.96%	8.77%	0.10%	7.37%	0.67%
TETP	7.61%	1.58%	8.46%	0.90%	2.15%	7.71%	5.78%	3.32%
LCA	6.32%	1.30%	7.21%	0.76%	7.30%	0.55%	6.06%	0.55%
LCC	8.04%	0.33%	8.56%	0.60%	7.44%	0.12%	6.79%	1.61%

#### 433 **4. Conclusions**

434 In this paper, LCA and LCC were integrated to quantitatively analyze the  
 435 environmental and economic impacts of four typical sewage treatment technologies in  
 436 China, including AAO, MBR, SBR and OD. The results show that AAO was the  
 437 optimal treatment scheme. The main processes responsible for the environmental and  
 438 economic burden were the consumption of electricity and chemicals. Overall,  
 439 electricity consumption was the biggest hot issue. Reducing energy consumption can  
 440 bring relatively high benefits. It is also recommended to increase more environmentally  
 441 friendly flocculants, tail water reuse and incineration end control to reduce the impact  
 442 on water and atmospheric environment.

443 On the whole, LCA and LCC can be used as good environmental and economic  
 444 evaluation tools for system assessment. This study is helpful for managers to build up

445 a better understanding of four typical sewage treatment technologies in China from both  
446 economic and environmental aspects. Through identifying important contributions and  
447 hot issues during the life cycle, the findings provide insight into the potential impacts  
448 caused by various aspects of the process, thereby supporting decision-making. In  
449 addition, considering that the evaluation results are affected by various aspects such as  
450 system boundary and influent wastewater quality, the next study can be further  
451 improved to supplement the Chinese sewage treatment database.

## 452 **Declarations**

### 453 ● **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

454 Not applicable.

### 455 ● **Consent for publication**

456 Not applicable.

### 457 ● **Availability of data and materials**

458 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published  
459 article and its supplementary information files.

### 460 ● **Competing interests**

461 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### 462 ● **Funding**

463 This study was supported by Major Science and Technology Program for Water  
464 Pollution Control and Treatment (2017ZX07204001) from Ministry of Science and  
465 Technology of the People's Republic of China.

### 466 ● **Authors' contributions**

467 **Hui Jiang:** Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation,  
468 Writing-Original Draft. **Qiang Jin:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Supervision.  
469 **Panpan Cheng:** Software, Validation, Writing-Review. **Ming Hua:** Project  
470 administration. **Zhen Ye:** Writing-Review & Editing.

### 471 ● **Acknowledgements**

472 The authors thank the editors and reviewers for their valuable comments.

## 473 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

474 Supplementary data related to this article can be found online at .

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