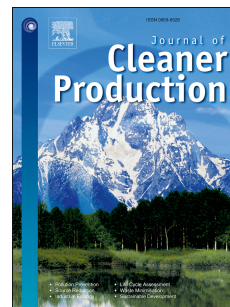


Accepted Manuscript

Life cycle analysis of hydrothermal carbonization of olive mill waste: Comparison with current management approaches

Verónica Benavente, Andres Fullana, Nicole D. Berge



PII: S0959-6526(16)31848-0

DOI: [10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.11.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.11.013)

Reference: JCLP 8400

To appear in: *Journal of Cleaner Production*

Received Date: 23 March 2016

Revised Date: 31 October 2016

Accepted Date: 1 November 2016

Please cite this article as: Benavente V, Fullana A, Berge ND, Life cycle analysis of hydrothermal carbonization of olive mill waste: Comparison with current management approaches, *Journal of Cleaner Production* (2016), doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.11.013.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

**LIFE CYCLE ANALYSIS OF HYDROTHERMAL CARBONIZATION OF OLIVE
MILL WASTE: COMPARISON WITH CURRENT MANAGEMENT APPROACHES**

Verónica Benavente^{*a}, Andres Fullana^a, Nicole D. Berge^b

^a *Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Alicante, P.O. BOX 99, E-03080 Alicante,
Spain*

^b *Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of South Carolina, 300 Main
Street, Columbia, SC 29208, USA*

**Corresponding author. E-mail: veronica.benavente@ua.es. Tlf.: +(34) 96 590 38 67. Fax:
+(34) 96 590 38 26.*

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Significant efforts have been directed towards developing environmentally sustainable and
18 economically beneficial treatment of olive mill wastes. Recently, hydrothermal carbonization
19 (HTC) has been shown to be a potentially beneficial approach for the treatment of olive mill
20 wastes. When considering the use of HTC to treat these wastes, however, it is critical that its
21 environmental implications be evaluated and subsequently compared to other commonly used
22 treatment approaches. In this study, the environmental impacts associated with using HTC to
23 treat olive mill wastes were evaluated and compared to aerobic composting, anaerobic digestion,
24 and incineration using life cycle assessment. Results indicate that HTC coupled with subsequent
25 energy recovery from the combustion of the generated hydrochar results in net environmental
26 benefits and that the energy offsets derived from electricity production from hydrochar
27 combustion are critical to achieving these savings. In addition, results indicate that HTC process
28 water discharge significantly influences system environmental impacts, indicating that research
29 investigating treatment alternatives is needed. Changes in carbonization temperature and
30 hydrochar moisture content also influence system environmental impact, suggesting that both are
31 important when considering possible industrial applications. In comparison with current
32 management approaches, alternatives using HTC are more environmentally advantageous than
33 composting and anaerobic digestion. However, the use of HTC is not as environmentally
34 advantageous as incineration with energy recovery because 45-35% of the energy contained in
35 the olive mill waste is lost during HTC. However, if the electricity recovery efficiency from
36 incineration increases to greater than 30%, the environmental impacts associated with HTC and
37 subsequent energy generation are equal to or better than direct TPOWM incineration with energy
38 recovery. It is recommended that future research efforts focus on the evaluation of appropriate

39 and environmentally beneficial HTC process water treatment approaches and methods to
40 improve the energetic retention efficiencies of the hydrochar.

41

42 **Keywords:** LCA, hydrothermal carbonization, energy, olive mill waste, disposal treatments,

43 EASETECH

44

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Current olive oil production processes involve a two-phase centrifugation system that results in
48 the generation of a large mass of a semisolid waste stream referred to as two-phase olive mill
49 waste (TPOMW). TPOMW consists of olive pulp, a considerable amount of water (> 65%), and
50 a variety of organic compounds (e.g., carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, aromatic compounds). This
51 waste stream has been reported to be phytotoxic and has been shown to adversely impact
52 microbial activity (Alburquerque et al., 2004), necessitating treatment prior to its discharge to the
53 environment (MME, 2000). Therefore, significant efforts have been direct towards developing
54 environmentally sustainable and economically beneficial TPOMW treatment/management
55 approaches (e.g., Vlyssides et al., 2004; Tortosa et al., 2012).

56
57 In Spain, the largest olive oil producing country, both biological (e.g., aerobic composting (AC),
58 anaerobic digestion (AD)) and thermal treatment processes (e.g., incineration) are used to
59 manage this waste, as illustrated in Figure 1. Each of these processes results in the generation of
60 value-added products (e.g., biogas, heat, power, or pomace oil) that increase system
61 sustainability and/or economic viability. However, these processes are plagued with significant
62 operational challenges. Biological degradation of TPOMW by microorganisms is complicated by
63 its acidic pH and high polyphenol concentrations (Siciliano et al., 2016), and thermal treatment
64 approaches are generally inefficient because of the high moisture content and low energy density
65 of the waste (Van Loo and Koppejan, 2008).

66
67 An innovative wet thermal treatment approach that may alleviate many of these challenges is
68 hydrothermal carbonization (HTC). HTC occurs at relatively low temperatures and under

69 autogenous pressures in closed systems (Libra et al., 2011). Because HTC requires moisture,
70 TPOMWs are better suited for conversion via HTC than other dry thermal conversion
71 techniques. Benavente et al. (2015) report that HTC of TPOMW requires significantly less
72 energy than that associated with dry thermal conversion approaches. In addition, HTC of
73 TPOMW results in the generation of energy-rich solids that have properties equivalent to
74 subbituminous/bituminous coals. Additional information associated with the HTC process and
75 the HTC of TPOMWs can be found elsewhere (Funke and Ziegler, 2010; Libra et al., 2011;
76 Benavente et al., 2015).

77
78 When considering the use of HTC to treat TPOMW, it is critical that its environmental
79 implications be evaluated and subsequently compared to other commonly used treatment
80 approaches. Such information is currently unknown, but necessary to ensure environmentally
81 responsible treatment process selection. The purpose of this work is to use life cycle assessment
82 (LCA) to determine the environmental impacts associated with TPOMW treatment using HTC,
83 and to compare these impacts with those associated with currently used biological and thermal
84 treatment approaches. The specific objectives of this work are to: (1) evaluate the environmental
85 impacts of the current TPOMW management approaches, (2) evaluate the environmental impacts
86 associated with HTC of TPOMW combined with the subsequent combustion of the hydrochar
87 for energy production, (3) understand how key parameters associated with each treatment
88 approach (e.g., energy recovery efficiencies, hydrochar moisture content) influence system
89 environmental impacts, and (4) provide recommendations for process selection from an
90 environmental perspective.

91

92 **2. Materials and methods**

93 *2.1. Goal and scope definition*

94 The goal of this study is to use results from an LCA to compare environmental impacts
95 associated with the HTC of TPOMW with those associated with AC, AD, and incineration of
96 TPOMW. This study considers the consumption and/or production of materials and energy, as
97 well as pollutant emissions generated over the entire life cycle of each treatment approach.
98 Avoided production and combustion of primary fuels (coal and natural gas) due to energy
99 generation from TPOMW are also included. Upstream processes, such as waste collection and
100 transport, are not considered in this study because it is assumed that these values are the same for
101 all management alternatives. The functional unit of this study is defined as the treatment of 1 kg
102 of fresh TPOMW. The physico-chemical properties of the TPOMW modeled in this work taken
103 from Benavente et al. (2015) and are described in Table SI-1 in the supplementary information
104 (SI).

105

106 *2.2. Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)*

107 *2.2.1. Modelling approach*

108 LCA modeling was performed using the Environmental Assessment System for Environmental
109 Technologies software (EASETECH, version 2.0.0), a mass-flow based LCA tool developed by
110 researchers at the Technical University of Denmark to evaluate the environmental impact of
111 waste management processes (Clavreul et al., 2014). EASETECH was chosen for use in this
112 study because it has been used extensively for modeling waste-related processes, similar to those
113 commonly used as TPOMW management approaches (e.g., incineration, AC, AD, HTC). All
114 input waste material fractions are specified in terms of elemental composition (e.g., carbon,

115 hydrogen, etc.) and fraction-specific properties (e.g., moisture and energy content, etc.), and are
116 tracked through the system. Additional details associated with EASTECH and its use in
117 modeling waste management systems can be found elsewhere (e.g., Clavreul et al., 2014).

118

119 *2.2.2. Description of scenarios and data inventory*

120 Six TPOMW treatment approaches were modeled and evaluated, as illustrated in Figures 2 and
121 3. These scenarios encompass different biological and thermal treatment approaches currently
122 practiced in Spain, as well as a scenario in which HTC is used. Three different biological
123 scenarios were modeled (Figure 2), including: (1) co-composting of TPOMW with other
124 agricultural wastes (B.1), (2) anaerobic digestion of the TPOMW with subsequent aerobic
125 composting of the digestate (B.2), and (3) anaerobic digestion of TPOMW pre-treated using
126 catalytic oxidation following the Fenton-like process to maximize anaerobic degradation, with
127 subsequent composting of the digestate (B.3). Specific details associated with each process,
128 including process material and energy needs and operational parameters, can be found in the
129 supporting information (see section 1.1).

130

131 Three thermal TPOMW treatment scenarios were also modeled (Figure 3), including: (1)
132 TPOMW incineration with energy recovery (T.1), (2) extraction of pomace oil from the
133 TPOMW, followed waste incineration with energy recovery (T.2), and (3) HTC of TPOMW
134 with subsequent incineration of hydrochar with energy recovery (T.3). Specific details associated
135 with each process, including process material and energy needs and operational parameters, can
136 be found in the supporting information (see section 1.2).

137

138 Inventory data associated with these scenarios were either calculated from experimental results
139 or collected from previously published data sources, including life cycle inventory studies,
140 scientific literature describing experimental studies, and/or Ecoinvent databases. Specific details
141 associated with each management strategy and relevant individual assumptions are described in
142 the supporting information (see discussion in section 1).

143

144 2.2.3. Impact categories

145 Nine of the International Reference Life Cycle Data System (ILCD)-recommended impact
146 categories were evaluated and compared in this work, as shown in Table 1. Each method is
147 described in Hauschild et al. (2012). These categories were chosen because they are
148 environmentally relevant and internationally accepted in accordance with ISO 14040:2006 (ISO
149 2006). Normalization and weighting of the impacts were not performed in this study.

150

151 2.2.4. Sensitivity analysis and model simulations

152 Sensitivity analyses (SA) were conducted to ascertain how parameters associated with the HTC
153 of TPOMW that represent information that is either currently unknown or may change from
154 application to application influence overall system environmental impact. Tables 2 and 3 present
155 a summary of the model simulations conducted and the parameters modified in each simulation.
156 Several model simulations varying the hydrochar moisture content (%) (SA1) and the energy
157 yield (%) (SA2) of the hydrochar were performed to understand their influence on the
158 environmental impacts caused by scenarios in which HTC is practiced. To quantify results from
159 these scenarios, sensitivity ratios (SRs), defined as the percent change of the result divided by the
160 percent change of the parameter, were subsequently calculated for each parameter varied. SRs

161 were used to quantify how the uncertainty associated with those parameters may contribute to
162 each impact category.

163

164 Simulations were also conducted to understand how increases in energy recovery efficiencies
165 may influence the LCA of the TPOMW thermal management treatments. Data associated with a
166 potential future biowaste incinerator reported by Jungbluth et al. (2007) were used to model and
167 simulate potential future scenarios (labeled as T.X.F). Table 4 summarizes the energy recovery
168 efficiencies and the electricity consumption of the biowaste incineration in the base case
169 (reference value) and the future perspective (new value). Since simulating the future perspective
170 involves the variation of several parameters, the results obtained were only compared with those
171 obtained in the base case, and no sensitivity ratios were determined. Additional model
172 simulations were performed to illustrate how changing the heat and electricity production
173 efficiencies of the future biowaste incinerator (SA3 and SA4) may affect overall results to
174 understand the impact of each process.

175

176 **3. Results and discussion**

177 *3.1. LCA analysis of currently used technologies*

178 LCA results for each evaluated impact category associated with all modeled waste treatment
179 approaches are reported in Figures 4-6. A positive impact potential indicates a burden to the
180 environment (negative environmental effects), while a negative potential indicates environmental
181 emissions savings (positive environmental effects).

182

183 *3.1.1. Biological treatment approaches*

184 Results indicate that all biologically based treatment scenarios (B.1, B.2, and B.3) result in a net
185 cost to the environment for all evaluated impact categories, except for FEP (Figures 4-6). The net
186 environmental savings associated with the FEP impact category results almost entirely (99-
187 100%) from benefits associated with using the compost as a fertilizer (Figure 5). Using
188 composted organics in this manner ultimately reduces the need for mineral fertilizer production,
189 and thus the need for mining virgin phosphorus, which also imparts a positive impact on the
190 GWP and POF categories (Figure 4 and 5). Conversely, using composted organics as a fertilizer
191 results in ammonia emissions to the atmosphere, negatively contributing to the AP, TEP and
192 MEP environmental impacts. Furthermore, heavy metal emissions (mainly zinc and copper,
193 which are present in the TPOMW, see Table SI-1 in the SI) resulting from land application of the
194 compost ultimately increase the HT-NC and ET environmental potentials. These results suggest
195 that when utilizing biological processes to treat TPOMW, additional treatment of the composted
196 digestates may be required before land application. Investigating such treatment appears
197 advantageous because of the high potential for environmental savings associated with reducing
198 the requirement for virgin mineral fertilizer.

199
200 Energy recovery from generated biogas also represents a significant environmental benefit
201 (scenarios B.2 and B.3, Figures 2 and 4-6). The energy recovered from biogas conversion in a
202 CHP engine offsets emissions associated with the need for non-renewable energy production.
203 When recovering energy in scenario B.2 (Figure 2b), reductions in HT-NC (94%), HT-C (93%),
204 ET (89%), MEP (58%), TEP (16%) and GWP (11%) impact potentials result when compared
205 with scenario B.1. These reductions resulting from energy recovery represent the greatest benefit
206 for all impact potentials, except for GWP and FEP. Using the composted digestate in place of

207 mineral fertilizers results in the greatest reduction of the GWP and FEP impact potentials. Not
208 surprisingly, all energy-related benefits significantly increase when the TPOMW is catalytically
209 oxidized through the Fenton process (scenario B.3) to improve its biodegradability. This increase
210 in energy-related benefits is illustrated by greater reductions in the HT-C (95%), MEP (76%),
211 TEP (58%), AP (56%), POF (43%) and GWP (29%) impact potentials associated with scenario
212 B.3 when compared to scenario B.1. Scenario B.3 exhibits the lowest burden among the
213 biological treatments because of the higher electricity production from the biogas combustion,
214 although a net cost to the environment remains. Overall, these results indicate that when
215 selecting biological treatment approaches, it is critical that the biogas be collected and used for
216 energy to decrease system environmental burden.

217
218 A significant cost to the environment associated with the anaerobic digestion of TPOMW and
219 subsequent aerobic composting of the digestate is related to process energy needs. Each process
220 requires the use of diesel and/or coal-based electricity, resulting in NO_x and SO_x emissions
221 which increase process environmental burden. The biostabilization stage during the composting
222 process is another source of emissions (e.g., ammonia, methane, and nitrous oxide) that
223 contributes to process environmental burden. NO_x and SO_x emissions contribute to the total POF
224 impact potential of scenarios B.2 and B.3. These NO_x emissions also contribute to the AP and
225 TEP impact potentials. Ammonia emissions are the main component of the TEP impact category,
226 and methane and nitrous oxide ultimately contribute to the environmental costs in the GWP and
227 POF categories.

228

229 3.1.2 Thermal Treatment Approaches

230 When using traditional thermal treatment approaches (scenarios T.1 and T.2), drying of fresh
231 TPOMW in a rotary dryer and pomace oil extraction result in costs to the environment (Figures
232 4-6). TPOMW drying occurs in both scenarios and imparts an environmental cost to all impact
233 categories, with GWP most affected due to the large amount of energy required to dry the waste
234 stream. The environmental costs associated with pomace oil extraction (scenario T.2) also
235 largely result from energy consumption. In addition, hexane emissions as a result of the pomace
236 oil extraction process contribute to the GWP, AP, TEP, ET and POF impact potentials. The
237 majority of this impact is due to actual hexane emissions, which result from residual hexane
238 found in the exhausted TPOMW. The majority of the POF impact potential is caused by these
239 hexane emissions. Hexane manufacturing (e.g., heptane, hexane and aliphatic, alkane and cyclic
240 hydrocarbons) also contributes to the environmental impact of this process. Only 1% of the POF
241 impact potential is associated with gas emissions resulting from hexane manufacturing. Hexane
242 manufacturing also contributes to the GWP, AP, ET and TEP impact potentials. The GWP
243 category is increased because of the energy required to manufacture hexane, while the process
244 specific emissions associated with the manufacturing process (e.g., heptane, hexane, aliphatic,
245 alkane, and cyclic hydrocarbons) influence the AP, ET and TEP potentials.

246
247 A net environmental savings associated with all impact categories, except for FEP, results when
248 incinerating TPOMW with energy recovery (scenario T.1). Environmental costs associated with
249 incineration are mainly attributed to the pollutant emissions (e.g., non-methane volatile organic
250 compounds, NMVOC), particulates, sulfur dioxide, and nitrogen oxides) and material
251 requirements (e.g., natural resources and chemicals used in the gas cleaning). However, the
252 environmental benefits associated with substituting coal-based electricity with energy recovered

253 from the incineration of the TPOMW (Figures 4-6) outweigh these costs. The environmental
254 costs associated with the FEP impact are related to the phosphorus content in the TPOMW,
255 which is emitted to the water compartment. Since the phosphorus content is not degraded during
256 waste drying or pomace oil extraction, the influence of phosphorus to FEP category is the same
257 in scenarios T.1 and T.2.

258
259 It should be noted that although pomace oil extraction contributes to system environmental costs,
260 recovery of this value-added product represents a potential economic benefit that is not
261 accounted for in this LCA. In addition, it is important to note that the environmental costs
262 associated with pomace oil extraction are offset by the benefits associated with energy recovery.
263 Therefore, if pomace oil is extracted, it is critical that energy recovery occurs.

264 265 3.1.3. Comparison between currently used biological and thermal treatment approaches

266 Overall, thermal treatment of TPOMW results in reducing the climate change (GWP), ecosystem
267 quality (except for FEP), and human toxicity (Figures 4-6) impact potentials. Conversely,
268 biological treatment approaches result in environmental costs to these impact potentials, except
269 for FEP (Figures 4-6). Environmentally favorable results are achieved when using a thermal
270 treatment approach because of the significant environmental credits obtained from electricity
271 production and its subsequent replacement of coal-based electricity. These results suggest that
272 energy generation and subsequent recovery is critical to ensure environmental savings associated
273 with the climate change, the ecosystem toxicity and the human toxicity potentials of the
274 scenarios studied occur.

275

276 3.2. LCA analysis of Hydrothermal Carbonization

277 3.2.1. Environmental impact of hydrothermal carbonization and influence of carbonization

278 reaction temperature

279 When using HTC to treat TPOMW, an overall environmental savings results, except for the ET
280 and FEP impact categories (Figures 4-6). Environmental costs associated with the HTC process
281 itself are a result of electricity requirements and liquid and gas-phase emissions. The HTC
282 process at all evaluated temperatures (200, 225, and 250°C) contributes most significantly to the
283 FEP and ET impact categories because of liquid-phase discharge to the environment (Figure 6).
284 Liquid-phase nutrient emissions to the surface water represent 100% of the FEP impact potential,
285 while liquid-phase metal emissions (zinc and copper, present in the TPOMW, see Table SI-1 in
286 the SI) represent the largest influence (99%) on the ET impact category. Released liquid-phase
287 zinc also imparts a contribution to the HT-NC impact potential (24-33%). It should be noted that
288 although in these scenarios the HTC-liquid was not treated before its discharge, such treatment
289 will be required to meet regulatory discharge limits. Berge et al. (2015) reported that if 90% of
290 the liquid-phase contaminants are removed, the environmental impact associated with HTC can
291 be significantly reduced. The gas-phase emissions associated with HTC are mostly composed of
292 biogenic carbon dioxide (88-93%, vol.), and thus do not represent a significant environmental
293 impact. However, a more extensive evaluation of gas-phase composition associated with HTC is
294 needed.

295
296 The electricity required to run the HTC process represents only a small contribution to the
297 overall environmental impacts, contributing to the GWP (8.3%), HT-C (2.1%), POF (3.0%), AP
298 (4.4%) and TEP (2.0%) impact categories. It is important to note that the environmental impacts

299 caused by the HTC process itself may change when scaling-up the HTC and mechanical
300 dewatering processes due to changes in requirements for auxiliary equipment requiring diesel oil,
301 electricity, and/or chemicals, all of which were not considered in this study.

302
303 As carbonization temperature increases, the environmental costs of the HTC process increases
304 (Figures 4-6). Changes in reaction temperature influence energy requirements for reactor heating
305 and volume of discharged HTC process water (see Table SI-2). When increasing the reaction
306 temperature from 200°C to 250°C, impact potentials associated with the HTC process increase,
307 although they remain insignificant on overall environmental impact.

308
309 Hydrochar drying, which is represented in the rotary dryer category in Figures 4-6, following
310 carbonization represents a small environmental impact to each scenario and, importantly,
311 presents a significantly lower contribution to the impact categories than that of TPOMW drying
312 in scenarios T.1 and T.2. This reduction in impact results because the moisture content of the
313 solid (hydrochar) following HTC is lower than that associated with raw TPOMW (Tables SI-1
314 and SI-2). As HTC reaction temperature increases, the contribution of hydrochar drying
315 decreases because hydrochar hydrophobicity increases and consequently less moisture is retained
316 in the solids. The environmental impact associated with hydrochar drying decreases by almost
317 80% in all impact categories when increasing the HTC reaction temperature from 200°C to
318 250°C.

319
320 Similar to energy recovery in the biological and thermal treatment approaches discussed
321 previously, the energy recovered from hydrochar combustion represents an important and

322 significant environmental savings; the GWP (-81.5%), HT-C (-96.0%), HT-NC (-76.6%), POF (-
323 92.9%), AP (-91.0%), TEP (-96.3%), and MEP (-96.2%) impact categories (Figures 4-6) are
324 influenced. These savings are significant enough to overcome the aforementioned burdens
325 attributed to the HTC process (e.g., energy consumption and gas emissions, excluding liquid
326 emissions) and hydrochar drying, indicating that the energy offsets associated with electricity
327 production from hydrochar combustion play an important role in the environmental implications
328 of the HTC process. The percent of energy initially present in the TPOMW that is recovered in
329 the hydrochar, which is dependent on both hydrochar energy content and mass yield, reaches a
330 maximum at 225°C (Table 2 in the SI, Benavente et al., 2015) and, as a consequence, greater
331 environmental benefits are obtained at this temperature. Approximately 4% and 18% more
332 electricity are produced from the hydrochar generated at 225°C than that at 200°C and 250°C,
333 respectively. Therefore, scenario T.3.225 exhibits the lowest overall impact potentials in all
334 categories, except for ET. The large impact associated with the ET category remains because
335 liquid emissions remain significant.

336

337 3.2.2. Comparison between scenarios with HTC and other currently used treatment approaches

338 A ranked comparison of all evaluated scenarios for all evaluated impact categories is presented
339 in Table 5. Results from scenarios in which HTC is used to overcome the technical challenges
340 biological and thermal treatment approaches pose indicate that environmental savings in the
341 GWP impact potential occur; however, such savings are not as significant as those obtained with
342 traditional thermal treatment approaches (scenario T.1 and T.2). This finding results because the
343 energy content of the hydrochar is approximately 45-35% smaller than that associated with dried
344 TPOMW, which results in the recovery of less energy. It should be noted, however, that the HTC

345 of TPOMW and subsequent incineration of the hydrochar does result in a net environmental
346 benefit, and is shown to be more environmental advantageous than any of the biological
347 treatments analyzed from a climate change perspective. No significant differences are observed
348 between HTC of TPOMW and subsequent incineration of the hydrochar (scenarios T.1 and T.2)
349 regarding the impact categories associated with human toxicity (HT-C, HT-NC, and POF).

350
351 When comparing the ecosystem quality impact potentials, scenarios T.1 and T.2 remain more
352 environmentally advantageous (Figures 4 and 5) than the scenarios with HTC. Greater FEP,
353 MEP, and ET emissions savings result in scenarios T.1 and T.2 because of greater electricity
354 production. In addition, HTC of TPOMW represents a burden to the ecosystem quality due to the
355 HTC liquid-phase discharge to surface waters. When compared with biological treatment
356 approaches, it is found that the ET impact potential of the HTC scenarios is lower than that
357 determined for scenarios B.1, B.2, and B.3.

358
359 Most environmental costs associated with the integration of the HTC process within a TPOMW
360 treatment scheme are related to the liquid phase discharge to the environment. As previously
361 stated, adequate treatment of the HTC liquid before its discharge may significantly decrease the
362 magnitude of these impact potentials. Wirth and Mumme (2013) showed that anaerobic digestion
363 was a suitable process to treat HTC wastewaters. The properties of the HTC process water
364 obtained from TPOMW carbonization are similar to the properties of olive mill wastewaters
365 (OMWW). Therefore, it is expected that anaerobic digestion may also be effective for the
366 treatment of wastewaters produced from TPOMW carbonization. Treatment processes that have
367 been found to be useful in treating OMWW may also be used to treat this liquid stream (e.g., Aly

368 et al., 2014; Sponza and Oztekin et al., 2014). It is important to note that emissions associated
369 with HTC process water treatment will also contribute to the system environmental impact.
370 However, results from previous studies suggest that these processes may cause significantly less
371 environmental impacts than the direct discharge of HTC wastewaters (Hong et al., 2010).

372
373 The reduction in energy contained in the solid during HTC is another other key factor affecting
374 the global energy efficiency, and consequently the environmental savings associated with
375 scenarios T.3.200-250. Although the HTC technology is more energetically advantageous and
376 ultimately alleviates some operational and economic challenges associated with current thermal
377 treatment processes, the amount of energy produced from the combustion of the hydrochar is
378 lower than that produced from the direct combustion of the TPOMW. Research focusing on
379 maximizing solids yields and hydrochar energy contents is needed to potentially reduce this
380 difference.

381
382 Overall, these results suggest that thermal treatment approaches (traditional and with HTC) out-
383 perform biologically based approaches. It should be noted that several LCA simulations were
384 conducted to evaluate the importance of various key parameters associated with biological
385 treatment approaches, as described in the supplementary information (Section 2, Table SI-4,
386 Figures SI-1 and SI-4). However, even when values for these key parameters were chosen to
387 minimize system environmental impacts, scenarios B.1, B.2, and B.3 remain less favorable than
388 thermal treatment approaches with and without HTC.

389

390 *3.3. Sensitivity analyses*

391 *3.3.1. Influence of the energy recovery efficiency during thermal treatment*

392 Simulations were conducted to assess how changes in energy-related parameters associated with
393 incineration may influence system environmental impact. First, gross electric and thermal energy
394 efficiencies were modified according to values corresponding with a potential future biowaste
395 incinerator (Jungbluth et al., 2007). In these future scenarios, the thermal energy efficiency is
396 projected to greatly increase because some additional heat energy can be generated from the flue
397 gas by means of a heat pump and lowering of the flue gas temperature after condensation.
398 However, electric efficiencies are projected to only slightly increase.

399

400 The individual impact potentials resulting from this future scenario analysis are presented in
401 Figure 7, and indicate that changes in the efficiencies associated with electricity and heat
402 generation impart a significant influence on all impact categories associated with these thermal
403 management approaches. As the total energy efficiencies increase, the overall impact potentials
404 decrease because greater emission offsets are obtained from the larger electrical and thermal
405 energy production. The GWP impact potentials are reduced by 70-83% in all scenarios studied.
406 This change in energy efficiency also results in corresponding reductions in environmental
407 impact potentials related to human toxicity and ecosystem quality.

408

409 When comparing the results from the future scenarios (T.1.F, T.2.F, T.3.200.F, T.3.225.F,
410 T.3.250.F) with their corresponding base case scenarios (T.1, T.2, T.3.200, T.3.225, T.3.250),
411 interesting observations associated with electricity and heat production/requirements result
412 (Table 4). For each base case scenario, the heat produced is less than total heat consumption (as
413 reflected by negative net heat production values); therefore, an industrial furnace operated with

414 natural gas is required. When HTC is implemented, less heat is required for TPOMW drying and
415 as a consequence, heating energy savings results, even when the heat produced from the
416 hydrochar is lower than that produced from the TPOMW (as seen in Table 4). This ultimately
417 reduces the environmental impacts associated with the auxiliary natural gas-based heat supply.
418 When considering the future perspective, however, all scenarios result in net heat production that
419 can be used for beneficial purposes at/nearby the facilities; 28% and 10% of the heat produced
420 could be exported for other uses if practicing scenarios T.1.F and T.2.F, respectively, while 14%,
421 21% and 29% of excess heat is produced in scenarios T.3.200, T.3.225 and T.3.250, respectively.
422

423 In instances in which the excess heat produced cannot be used, it would be more beneficial to
424 produce larger amounts of electricity than heat. Two model simulations were conducted to
425 evaluate how decreasing heat production while increasing electricity production influence overall
426 impact potentials. In the first analysis (SA3), the heat recovery efficiency corresponding to the
427 future biowaste incinerator was decreased so that only the amount of heat required in each
428 scenario is generated, as illustrated in Tables 3 and 4. In the second analysis (SA4), the heat
429 recovery efficiency used in analysis SA3 was coupled with the electricity recovery efficiency
430 equivalent to the future biowaste incinerator, as shown in Table 3. Results from these analyses
431 are illustrated in Figures 7 and 8 and indicate that changes in heat and electricity recovery
432 efficiencies do not have the same effect on the environmental impact results. A reduction in the
433 heat recovery efficiency imparts a smaller influence on the environmental impact of the thermal
434 treatments than the same increase in the electricity recovery efficiency. Decreases in the heat
435 generation efficiency (SA3) lead to a slight reduction of all the environmental impacts, with
436 GWP being the most affected impact potential (Figures 7 and 8). However, when increasing the

437 electricity recovery efficiency (SA4), the associated environmental impacts are greatly reduced,
438 indicating that these environmental savings are more significant. These results are not surprising,
439 as offsetting emissions associated with coal-based electricity are likely greater than the offsetting
440 emissions associated with natural gas and heat. In addition, it is also observed that the
441 environmental impacts associated with scenario T.1 and scenarios with HTC are equivalent when
442 the electricity production efficiency is increased, with the exception of the ET impact potential,
443 which is associated with the HTC-liquid emissions. This result is significant and suggests that
444 when electricity efficiencies are high, HTC is likely the preferred approach, noting that using
445 HTC to treat TPOMW alleviates some of the operational challenges associated with TPOMW
446 incineration.

447

448 *3.3.2. Influence of hydrochar properties: moisture and energy content*

449 There is a significant amount of uncertainty associated with hydrochar moisture content
450 following liquid drainage. This is an important parameter because it impacts the amount of
451 energy required for hydrochar drying and can vary greatly depending on the mechanical
452 dewatering technology employed (i.e., filter presses or centrifuges). Therefore, a sensitivity
453 analysis was performed to understand the influence of hydrochar moisture content on the overall
454 environmental impacts of scenarios T.3.200, T.3.225 and T.3.250. Results from this analysis are
455 illustrated in Figure 8a and indicate that increases in hydrochar moisture content negatively
456 affect system environmental impacts for all impact categories that are influenced by liquid-phase
457 emissions (ET, MEP, and HT-NC). Increases in hydrochar moisture content result in lower
458 liquid-phase discharges, imparting a positive effect on the environmental impacts associated with
459 the ET, MEP, and HT-NC categories. Additionally, results from this analysis indicate that

460 system environmental impact is not very sensitive to changes in the electricity required for liquid
461 evaporation. These results are important when considering possible industrial applications, as the
462 dewatering process should consider both energy and environmental implications.

463
464 Another analysis was conducted to determine the percentage of energy initially present in the
465 TPOMW that needs to be recovered in the hydrochar to match the GWP impact potential results
466 obtained when incinerating the TPOMW. Results from this analysis indicate that the minimum
467 amount of energy recovered from the initial TPOMW in the hydrochar needs to be 91% for
468 scenarios T.3.200 and T.3.225 and 86% for scenario T.3.250. These differences result because of
469 the improvement of the dewatering properties of the hydrochar with increasing temperature. If
470 achieving these energy recoveries during HTC is possible, HTC of TPOMW and subsequent
471 incineration of the hydrochar would be as environmental beneficial as direct incineration of
472 TPOMW, with the added advantage of overcoming the operational and economic limitations
473 associated with the currently used processes. These results suggest that research focusing on
474 improving hydrochar energy content and solids yields from HTC would be advantageous.

475

476 **4. Conclusions**

477 LCA was used to conduct a system level analysis to determine the environmental impacts
478 associated with currently used TPOMW management approaches and to compare them with the
479 impacts associated with the use of HTC to treat the TPOMW. Results indicate that the largest
480 environmental impacts arise from the biological treatment of TPOMW. The most
481 environmentally friendly TPOMW management option is scenario T.1, which includes waste
482 drying and incineration, followed by scenario T.2, which involves drying, pomace oil extraction,

483 and incineration. It is important to note, however, that despite having greater environmental
484 benefits, these alternatives pose some operational and economic challenges caused by the high
485 moisture content of the TPOMW. The benefit of using HTC to overcome these challenges is not
486 reflected in this LCA. Additional analyses in which benefits associated with these operational
487 and economic challenges are considered also need to be conducted.

488
489 Results from this work also indicate that the hydrothermal carbonization of TPOMW followed
490 by hydrochar combustion with energy recovery results in net environmental savings for all
491 impact categories with the exception of FEP and ET, which are mainly attributed to the untreated
492 HTC process water discharge to the environment. Improving the fraction of energy initially
493 present in the TPOMW that remains in the hydrochar and treating the liquid emissions from the
494 HTC process will result in reducing system environmental impact, resulting in scenarios with
495 HTC being as environmentally beneficial as current thermal treatment approaches. Thus, it is
496 recommended that future research efforts focus on the evaluation of appropriate and
497 environmentally beneficial HTC process water treatment approaches and methods to improve the
498 energy retention efficiencies of the hydrochar.

499

500 **Acknowledgements**

501 Author V. Benavente kindly wishes to thank the Conselleria d'Educación, Cultura i Esport, for a
502 Ph.D. grant (contract grant number ACIF/2014/275) and a pre-doctoral employee stays grant
503 (grant number BEFPI/2015/062).

504

505 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

506

507 **Abbreviation list**508 **TPOMW** – Two Phase Olive Mill Waste509 **AC** – Aerobic Composting510 **AD** – Anaerobic Composting511 **HTC** – Hydrothermal carbonization512 **LCA** – Life Cycle Analysis513 **B** – Biological treatment514 **T** – Thermal Treatment515 **GWP** – Global Warming Potential516 **AP** – Terrestrial Acidification517 **TEP** – Terrestrial eutrophication518 **HT-C** – Human Toxicity, Carcinogenic519 **HT-NC** – Human Toxicity, Non-Carcinogenic520 **POF** – Photochemical Oxidant Formation521 **MEP** – Marine Eutrophication522 **FEP** – Fresh water Eutrophication523 **ET** – Ecotoxicity524 **SA** – Sensitivity Analysis525 **SR** – Sensitivity Ratio526 **CHP** – Combine Heat and Power engine527 **COD** – Chemical Oxygen Demand528 **TOC** – Total Organic Carbon

529 **OMWW** – Olive Mill Waste Water

530 **NMVOC** – Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds

531

532 **References**

533 Albuquerque, J.A., González, J., García, D., Cegarra, J., 2004. Agrochemical characterization
534 of ‘alperujo’, a solid by-product of the two-phase centrifugation method for olive oil
535 extraction. *Bioresource Technol.* 91, 195-200.

536

537 Aly, A.A., Hasan, Y.N.Y., Al-Farraj, A.S., 2014. Olive mill wastewater treatment using a simple
538 zeolite-based low-cost method. *J. Environ. Manage.* 145, 341-348.

539

540 Benavente, V., Calabuig, E., Fullana, A., 2015. Upgrading of moist agro-industrial wastes by
541 hydrothermal carbonization. *J Anal. Appl. Pyrol.* 113, 89-98.

542

543 Berge, N.D., Li, L., Flora, J.R.V., Ro, K.S., 2015. Assessing the environmental impact of energy
544 production from hydrochar generated via hydrothermal carbonization of food wastes.
545 *Waste Manage.* 43, 203-217.

546

547 Clavreul, J., Baumeister, H., Chistensen, T.H., Damgaard, A., 2014. An environmental
548 assessment for environmental technologies. *Environ. Modell. Software* 60, 18-30.

549

550 Forster, P., Ramaswamy, V., Artaxo, P., Berntsen, T., Betts, R., Fahey, D.W., Haywood, J.,

551 Lean, J., Lowe, D.C., Myhre, G., Nganga, J., Prinn, R., Raga, G., Schulz, M., Van

- 552 Dorland, R., 2007. Changes in atmospheric constituents and in radiative forcing. In:
553 Solomon, S., Qin, D., Manning, M., Chen, Z., Marquis, M., Avery, K.B., Tignor, M.,
554 Miller, H.L. (Eds.), *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of*
555 *Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on*
556 *Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge and New York.
- 557
- 558 Funke, F., Ziegler, F., 2010. Hydrothermal carbonization of biomass: A summary and discussion
559 of chemical mechanisms for process engineering. *Biofuels, Bioprod. Bioref.* 4, 160-177.
- 560
- 561 Hauschild, M.Z., Goedkoop, M., Guinee, J., Heijungs, R., Huijbregts, M., Jolliet, O., Margni, M.,
562 Schryver, A., Humbert, S., Laurent, A., Sala, S., Pant, R., 2012. Identifying best existing
563 practice for characterization modelling in life cycle impact assessment. *Int. J. Life Cycle*
564 *Assess.* 18, 683-697.
- 565
- 566 Hong, J., Li, X., Zhaojie, C., 2010. Life cycle assessment of four municipal solid waste
567 management scenarios in China. *Waste Manage.* 30, 2362-2369.
- 568
- 569 ISO, 2006. ISO 14040:2006. *Environmental Management – Life Cycle Assessment – Principles*
570 *and framework*. <<http://www.iso.org>> (accessed 01.12.15).
- 571
- 572 Jungbluth, N., Chudacoff, M., Dauriat, A., Dinkel, F., Doka, G., Faist Emmenegger, M.,
573 Gnansounou, E., Kljun, N., Schleiss, K., Spielmann, M., Stettler, C., Sutter, J. 2007: *Life*

- 574 Cycle Inventories of Bioenergy.ecoinvent report No. 17, Swiss Centre for Life Cycle
575 Inventories, Dübendorf, CH.
- 576
- 577 Libra, J.A., Rob, K.S., Kammann, C., Funkel, A., Berge, N.D., Neubauer, Y., Titirici, M.M.,
578 Fühner, C., Bensi, O., Heinz-Emmerich, K.K., 2011. Hydrothermal carbonization of
579 biomass residuals: a comparative review of the chemistry, processes and applications of wet
580 and dry pyrolysis. *Biofuels* 2, 71-106.
- 581
- 582 Ministerio de Medioambiente de España (MME), 2000. Prevención de la contaminación en la
583 Producción de aceite de oliva. Centro de Actividades Regionales para la Producción
584 Limpia (CAR/PL): Plan de Acción para el Mediterráneo. <<http://www.cprac.org>>
585 (accessed 01.12.15).
- 586
- 587 Posch, M., Seppala, J., Hettelingh, J.P., Johansson, M., Margni, M., Jolliet, O., 2008. The role of
588 atmospheric dispersion models and ecosystem sensitivity in the determination of
589 characterization factors for acidifying and eutrophying emissions in LCIA. *Int. J. Life
590 Cycle Assess.* 13 (6), 477–486.
- 591
- 592 Rosenbaum, R.K., Bachmann, T.M., Gold, L.S., Huijbregts, M.A.J., Jolliet, O., Juraske, R.,
593 Koehler, A., Larsen, H.F., MacLeod, M., Margni, M., McKone, T.E., Payet, J.,
594 Schuhmacher, M., van de Meent, D., Hauschild, M.Z., 2008. USEtox – the UNEP
595 SETAC toxicity model: recommended characterisation factors for human toxicity and
596 freshwater ecotoxicity in life cycle impact assessment. *Int. J. Life Cycle Assess.* 13, 532–

- 597 546.
- 598
- 599 Seppala, J., Posch, M., Johansson, M., Hettelingh, J.P., 2006. Country-dependent
600 characterisation factors for acidification and terrestrial eutrophication based on
601 accumulated exceedance as an impact category indicator. *Int. J. Life Cycle Assess.* 11,
602 403–416.
- 603
- 604 Siciliano, A., Stillitano, M.A., De Rosa, S., 2016. Biogas production from wet olive mil wastes
605 pretreated with hydrogen peroxide in alkaline conditions. *Renew. Energ.* 85, 903-916.
- 606
- 607 Sponza, D.T., Oztekin, R., 2014. Dephenolization, dearomatization and detoxification of olive
608 mill wastewater with sonication combined with additives and radical scavengers. *Ultrason.*
609 *Sonochem.* 21, 1244-1257.
- 610
- 611 Struijs, J., Beusen, A., van Jaarsveld, H., Huijbregts, M.A.J., 2009. Aquatic eutrophication. In:
612 Goedkoop, M., Heijungs, R., Huijbregts, M.A.J., De Schryver, A., Struijs, J., Van Zelm,
613 R. (Eds.), *ReCiPe 2008 a Life Cycle Impact Assessment Method Which Comprises*
614 *Harmonised Category Indicators at the Midpoint and the Endpoint Level. Report I:*
615 *Characterisation*, vol. 6. (Chapter 6).
- 616
- 617 Tortosa, G., Alburquerque, J.A., Ait-Baddi, G., Cegarra, J., 2012. The production of commercial
618 organic amendments and fertilisers by composting of two-phase olive mill waste
619 (“alperujo”). *Journal of Cleaner Production* 26, 48-55.
- 620

- 621 Van Loo, S., Koppejan, J., 2008. Handbook of Biomass Combustion and Co-Firing. Earthscan
622 Publication Ltd, London, UK.
- 623
- 624 Van Zelm, R., Huijbregts, M.A.J., Den Hollander, H.A., Van Jaarsveld, H.A., Sauter, F.J.,
625 Struijs, J., VanWijnen, H.J., Van de Meent, D., 2008. European characterization factors
626 for human health damage of PM10 and ozone in life cycle impact assessment. Atmos.
627 Environ. 42, 441–453.
- 628
- 629 Vlyssides, A.G., Loizides, M., Karlis, P.K., 2004. Integrated strategic approach for reusing olive
630 oil extraction by-products. J. Clean. Prod. 12, 603-611.
- 631
- 632 Wirth, B., Mumme, J., 2013. Anaerobic digestion of waste water from hydrothermal
633 carbonization of corn silage. Appl. Bioenergy 1, 1-10.
- 634
- 635

636
637
638

Table 1. Impact categories used in the impact assessment.

Impact category	Method	Abbreviation	Unit/kg
Climate change	IPCC 2007 (Forster et al., 2007))	GWP	kg CO ₂ -eq.
Human toxicity, cancer effect ^a	USEtox (Rosebaum et al., 2008)	HT-C	CTU _h
Human toxicity, non-cancer effect ^a	USEtox (Rosebaum et al., 2008)	HT-NC	CTU _h
Photochemical ozone formation	ReCiPe midpoint (Van Zelm et al., 2008)	POF	kg NMVOC-eq.
Terrestrial acidification ^c	Accumulated exceedance (Seppala et al., 2006; Posch et al., 2008)	AP	AE
Terrestrial eutrophication	Accumulated exceedance (Seppala et al., 2006; Posch et al., 2008)	TEP	AE
Freshwater eutrophication	ReCiPe midpoint (Struijs et al., 2009)	FEP	kg P-eq.
Marine eutrophication	ReCiPe midpoint (Struijs et al., 2009)	MEP	kg N-eq.
Freshwater ecotoxicity	USEtox (Rosebaum et al., 2008)	ET	CTU _e

^a CTU_h: comparative toxic unit for humans.^b CTU_e: comparative toxic unit for ecosystem.^c AE: accumulated exceedance (keq).

639

640

641
642
643

Table 2. Summary of model simulations conducted in EASETECH.

Scenario	Label	Description
COMPOSTING	B.1	Base case
ANAEROBIC DIGESTION	B.2	Base case
	B.3	Base case with pretreatment of TPOMW
INCINERATION WITH ENERGY RECOVERY	T.1	Base case
	T.1.F	Future perspective
	T.1.F.SA3	Lower heat production
	T.1.F.SA4	Larger electricity production
SECOND EXTRACTION OF POMACE OIL AND INCINERATION WITH ENERGY RECOVERY	T.2	Base case
	T.2.F	Future perspective
	T.1.F.SA3	Lower heat production
	T.1.F.SA4	Larger electricity production
HTC FOR SUBSEQUENT ENERGY PRODUCTION	T.3.200	Base case (HTC 200°C)
	T.3.225	Base case (HTC 225°C)
	T.3.250	Base case (HTC 250°C)
	T.3.200.SA1	+25% hydrochar moisture (HTC 200°C)
	T.3.225.SA1	+25% hydrochar moisture (HTC 225°C)
	T.3.250.SA1	+25% hydrochar moisture (HTC 250°C)
	T.3.200.SA2	Change in HTC-char energy yield (HTC 200°C)
	T.3.225.SA2	Change in HTC-char energy yield (HTC 225°C)
	T.3.250.SA2	Change in HTC-char energy yield (HTC 250°C)
	T.3.200.F	Future perspective (HTC 200°C)
	T.3.225.F.SA3	Change Heat eff. (HTC 225°C)
	T.3.250.F.SA3	Change Heat eff. (HTC 250°C)
	T.3.200.F.SA4	Change Electricity eff. (HTC 200°C)
T.3.225.F.SA4	Change Electricity eff. (HTC 225°C)	
T.3.250.F.SA4	Change Electricity eff. (HTC 250°C)	

644
645
646647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656

657
658
659

Table 3. Parameters modified in the models simulations conducted.

Label	Parameter	Reference Value	New Value	Percent change (%)
SA1	HTC-char moisture at 200 °C (%) ^{*a}	60	75	+25
	HTC-char moisture at 225 °C (%) ^{*a}	55	69	+25
	HTC-char moisture at 250 °C (%) ^{*a}	27	34	+25
SA2	HTC-char energy yield at 200 °C (%) ^{*b}	65	91	+40
	HTC-char energy yield at 225 °C (%) ^{*b}	68	91	+35
	HTC-char energy yield at 250 °C (%) ^{*b}	55	86	+55
F	Future perspective ^{*c}			
	Gross electric energy efficiency (%)	13	17	+31
	Gross thermal energy efficiency (%)	26	56	+115
	Gross total efficiency (%)	39	73	+87
	Electricity consumption (kWh/kg)	0.144	0.100	-31
SA3	Heat recovery efficiency, Heat eff (%) ^{*d}			
	T.1.F (%)	56	40	-29
	T.2.F (%)	56	50	-11
	T.3.200.F (%)	56	43	-23
	T.3.225.F (%)	56	40	-29
	T.3.250.F (%)	56	36	-36
SA4	Electricity recovery efficiency, Elect eff (%) ^{*e}			
	T.1.F (%)	17	33	+94
	T.2.F (%)	17	23	+35
	T.3.200.F (%)	17	30	+76
	T.3.225.F (%)	17	33	+94
	T.3.250.F (%)	17	37	+118

New values from:

^{a*} Arbitrary values.^{b*} Energy recovery determined to make HTC as beneficial as the best case scenario.^{c*} Jungbluth et al., 2007^{d*} Heat recovery efficiency determined to cover the heat requirements of the scenario, defined as *breakeven heat requirement* (%) (see Table 9).^{e*} Electricity recovery efficiency determined: $(\text{Elect eff})_{\text{Ref. value}} (\%) + (\Delta\text{Heat eff})_{\text{SA5}} (\%)$.660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668

669

670 Table 4. Summary of energy requirements and energy production in thermal treatment
671 approaches (with and without HTC).

672

<i>Current Perspective</i>	T.1	T.2	T.3.200	T.3.225	T.3.250
Energy available from the combustion of the waste (MJ/kg OMWin)	7.44	6.31	4.85	5.03	4.12
Electricity production (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.27	0.82	0.63	0.65	0.54
Total electricity consumption (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.02
Net electricity production (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.22	0.78	0.6	0.63	0.51
Heat production (MJ/kg OMWin)	1.9	1.61	1.24	1.29	1.05
Total heat consumption (MJ/kg OMWin)	3	3.17	2.1	2.01	1.47
Net heat production (MJ/kg OMWin)	-1.1	-1.56	-0.86	-0.72	-0.42
Breakeven heat requirement (%)*	40	50	43	40	36
<i>Future Perspective</i>	T.1.F	T.2.F	T.3.200.F	T.3.225.F	T.3.250.F
Energy available from the combustion of the waste (MJ/kg OMWin)	7.44	6.31	4.85	5.03	4.12
Electricity production (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.35	1.07	1.1	1.14	0.93
Total electricity consumption (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02
Net electricity production (kWh/kg OMWin)	0.31	1.04	1.08	1.12	0.92
Heat production (MJ/kg OMWin)	4.19	3.55	2.44	2.53	2.08
Total heat consumption (MJ/kg OMWin)	3	3.17	2.1	2.01	1.47
Net heat production (MJ/kg OMWin)	1.19	0.38	0.35	0.53	0.61
Breakeven heat requirement (%)*	40	50	43	40	36

* Breakeven heat requirement (%) = (Total heat consumption/energy available from the combustion of the waste)*100

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

Table 5. Ranking of the alternatives.

681

Order of Env. Impact		GWP	HT-C	HT-NC	POF	AP	TEP	FEP	MEP	ET
Best ↓ Worst	1	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)	B.2 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.1 (-)
	2	T.2 (-)	T.2 (-)	T.2 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	T.2 (-)	T.2 (-)	B.3 (-)	T.2 (-)	T.2 (-)
	3	T.3.225 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	B.1 (-)	T.3.225 (-)	T.3.200 (+)
	4	T.3.200 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.2.250 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.1 (-)	T.3.200 (-)	T.3.225 (+)
	5	T.2.250 (-)	T.2.250 (-)	T.2.250 (-)	T.2 (-)	T.2.250 (-)	T.2.250 (-)	T.2 (+)	T.2.250 (-)	T.3.250 (+)
	6	B.3 (+)	B.3 (+)	B.3 (+)	B.3 (+)	B.3 (+)	B.3 (+)	T.3.225 (+)	B.3 (+)	B.1 (+)
	7	B.2 (+)	B.2 (+)	B.2 (+)	B.1 (+)	B.2 (+)	B.2 (+)	T.3.200 (+)	B.2 (+)	B.3 (+)
	8	B.1 (+)	B.1 (+)	B.1 (+)	B.2 (+)	B.1 (+)	B.1 (+)	T.3.250 (+)	B.1 (+)	B.2 (+)

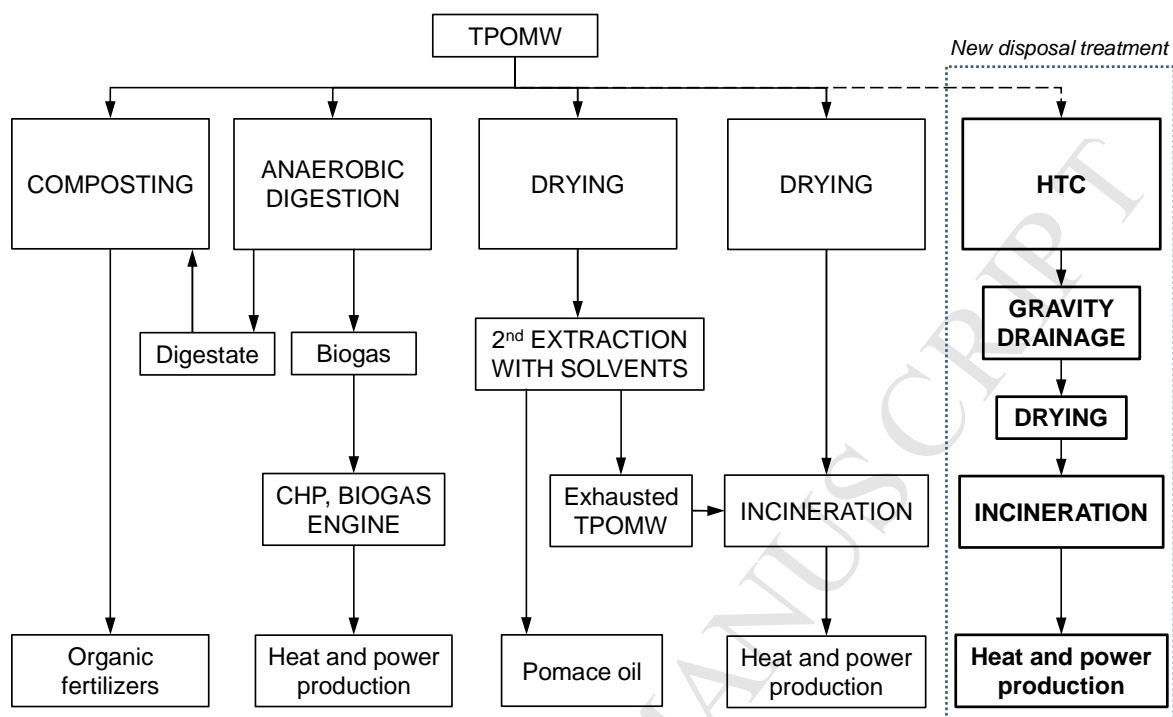
The annotation in parentheses indicates whether the contribution associated with the scenario is positive or negative

682

683

684

685



686

687

688 Figure 1. Currently used approaches for management of TPOMW in Spain (adapted from MME,
 689 2000), including the proposed use of HTC as a pretreatment technique.

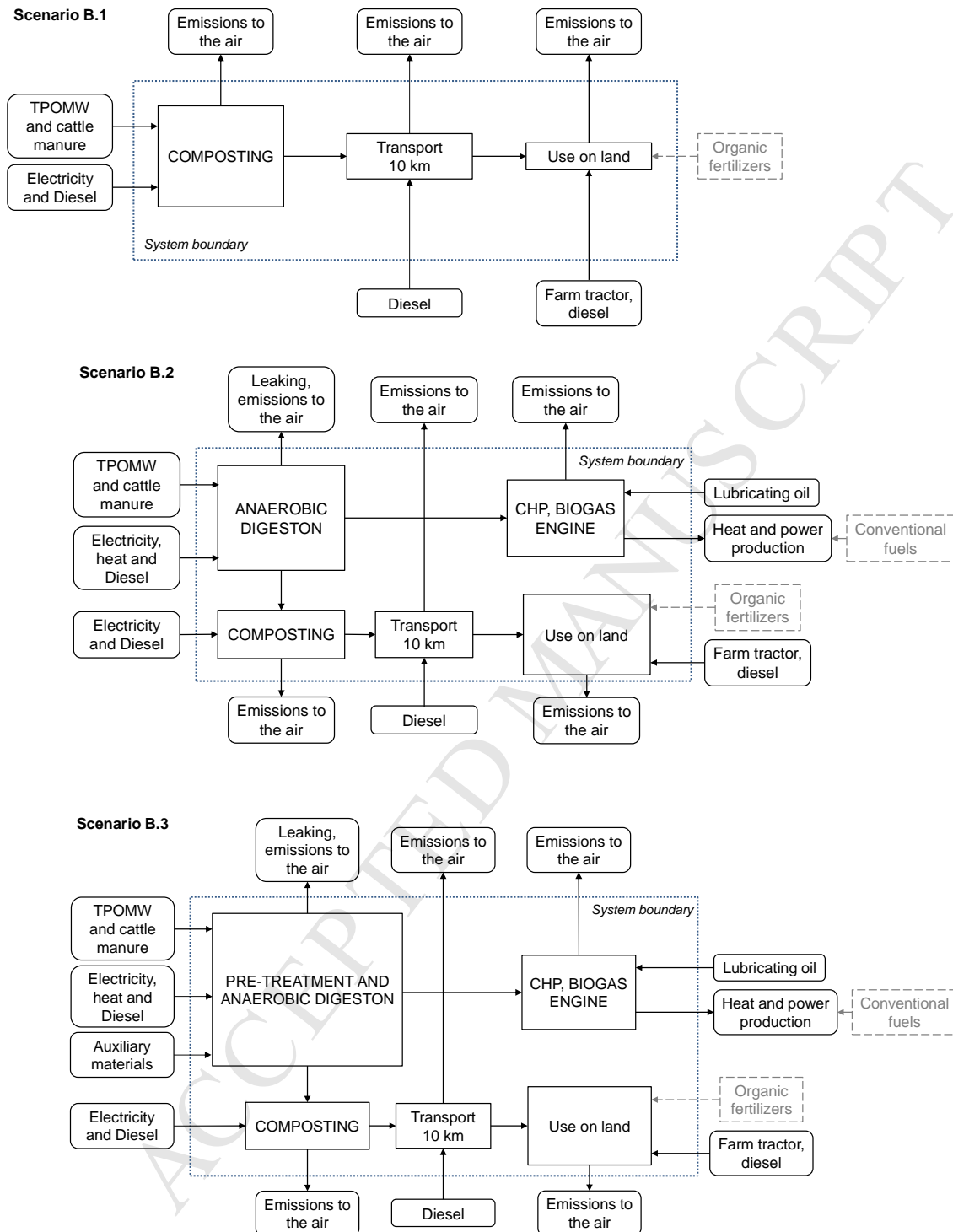
690

691

692

693

694

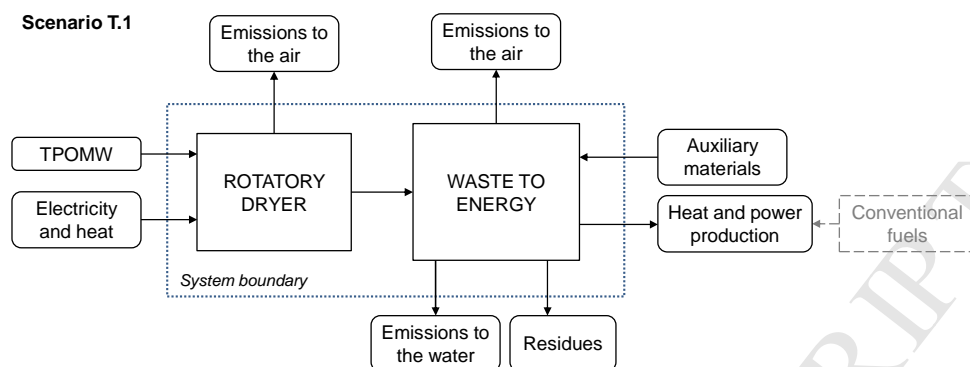
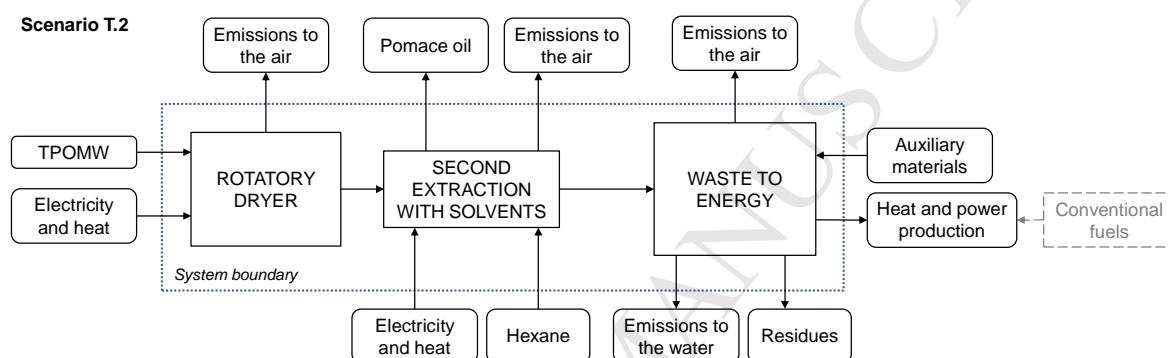
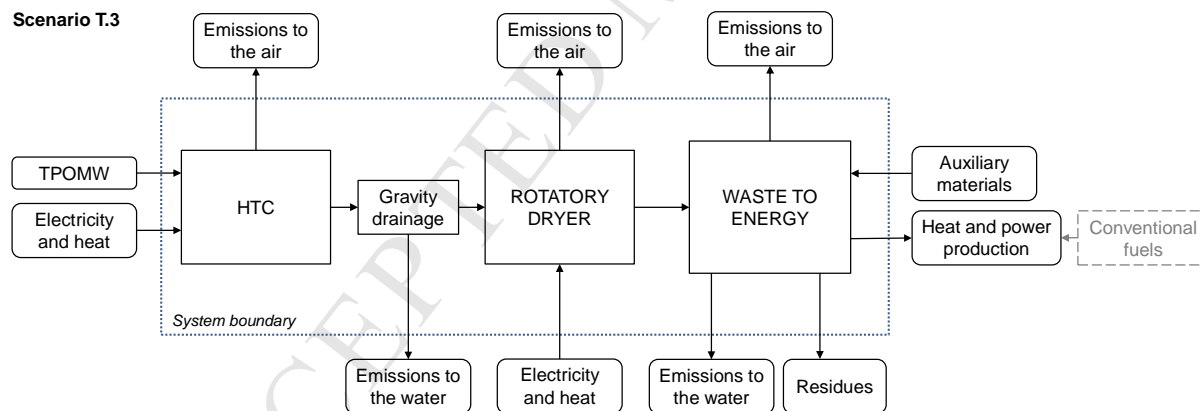


695

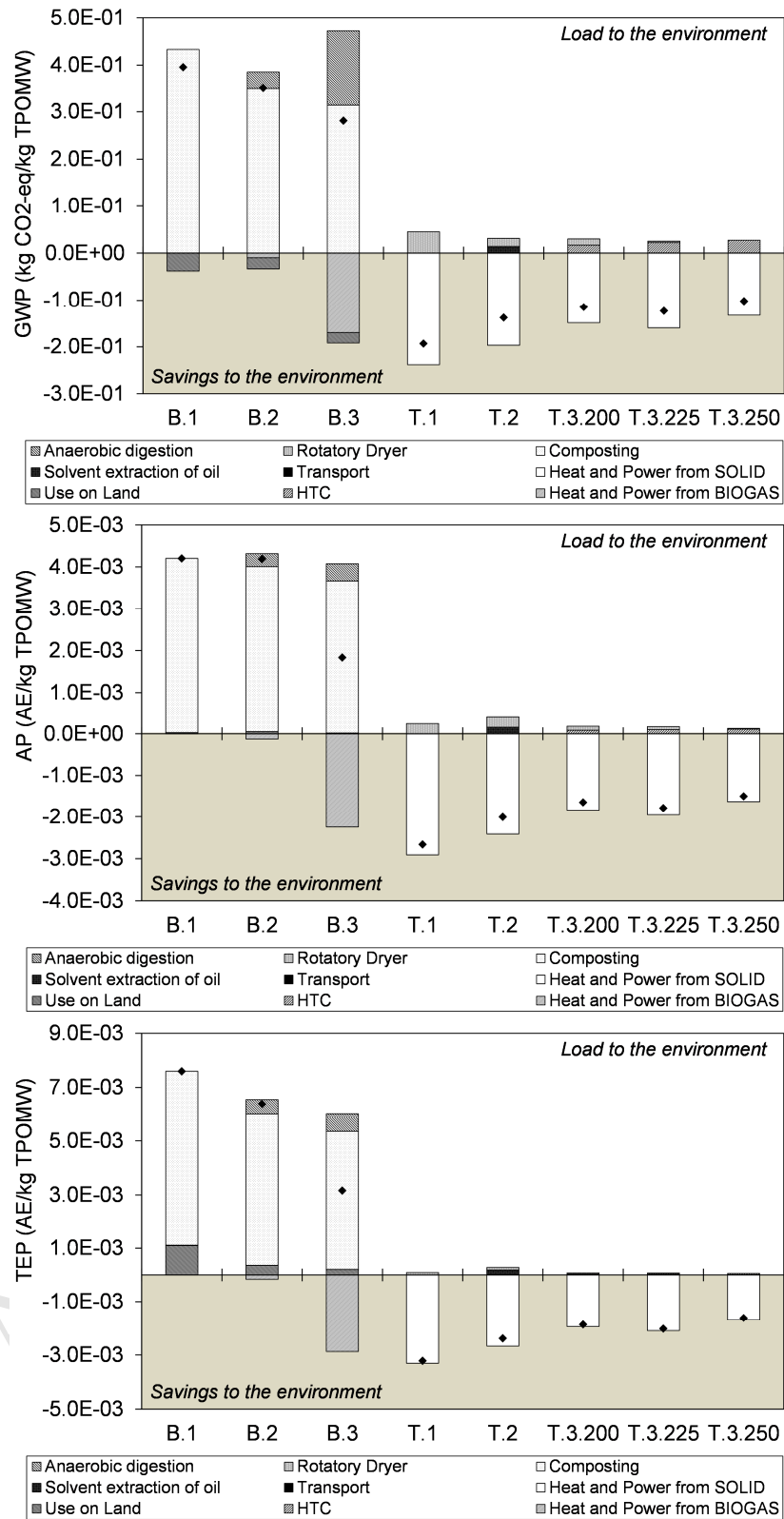
696
697
698699
700
701
702
703
704

Figure 2. Modeled biological alternatives and overview of system flows: (a) Scenario B.1: Composting with other agricultural wastes; (b) Scenario B.2: Anaerobic digestion and composting of the digestate; and (c) Scenario B.3: Anaerobic digestion of TPOMW pre-treated using catalytic oxidation following the Fenton-like process to maximize anaerobic degradation, with subsequent composting of the digestate.

705

706
707708
709710
711

712 Figure 3. Modeled thermal alternatives and overview of the flows: (a) Scenario T.1: Incineration
713 of TPOMW with energy recovery; (b) Scenario T.2: Second extraction with solvents of TPOMW
714 and incineration with energy recovery; and (c) Scenario T.3: Hydrothermal carbonization of
715 TPOMW and incineration of the hydrochar with energy recovery.
716
717

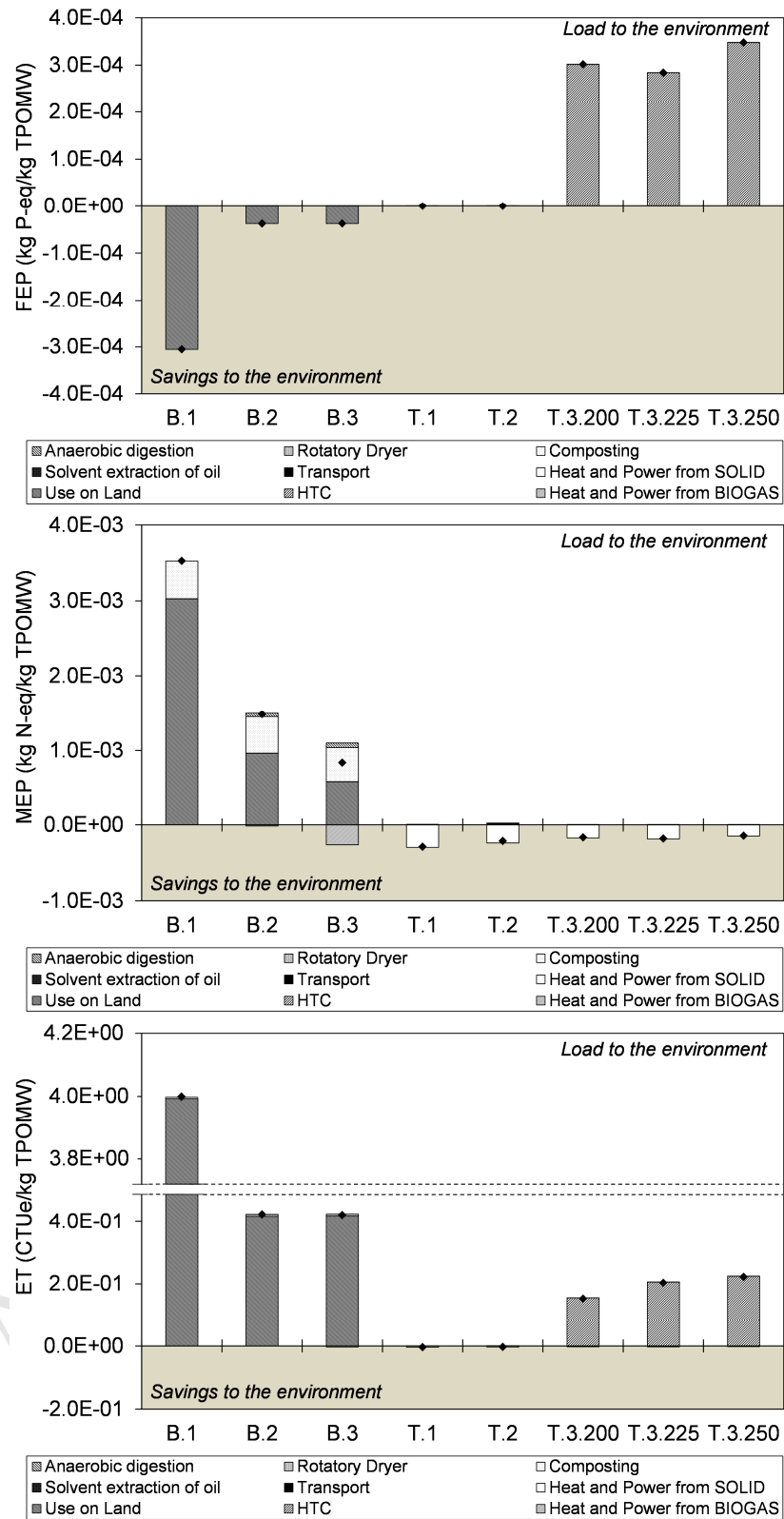


718

719

720
721
722

Figure 4. Climate change (GWP), and ecosystem quality (AP, TEP) impact potentials associated with the TPOMW treatment approaches.



723

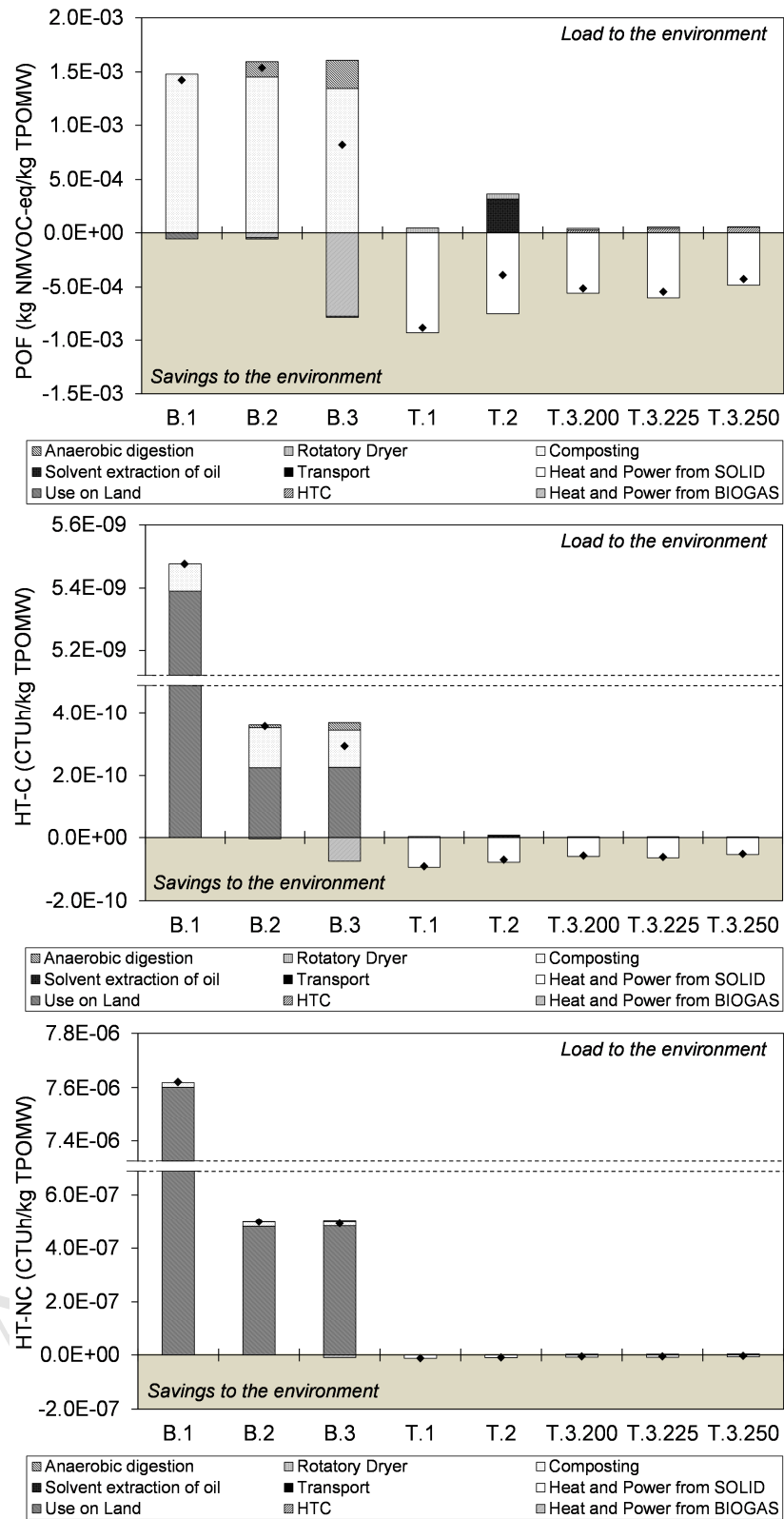
724

725

726

727

Figure 5. Ecosystem quality (FEP, MEP, ET) impact potentials associated with the TPOMW treatment approaches.



728

729

730

731

732

Figure 6. Human toxicity (POF, HT-C, HT-NC) impact potentials associated with the TPOMW treatment approaches.

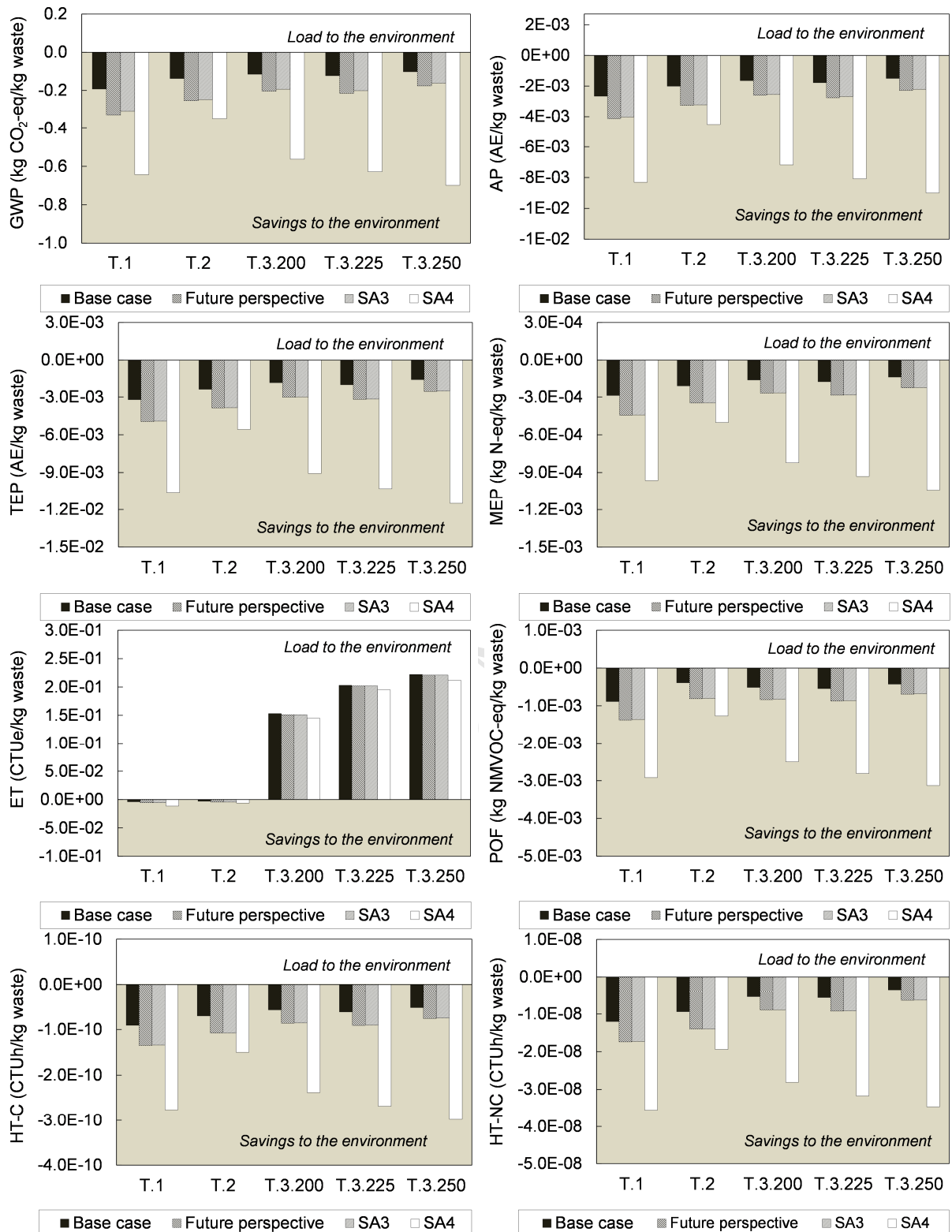
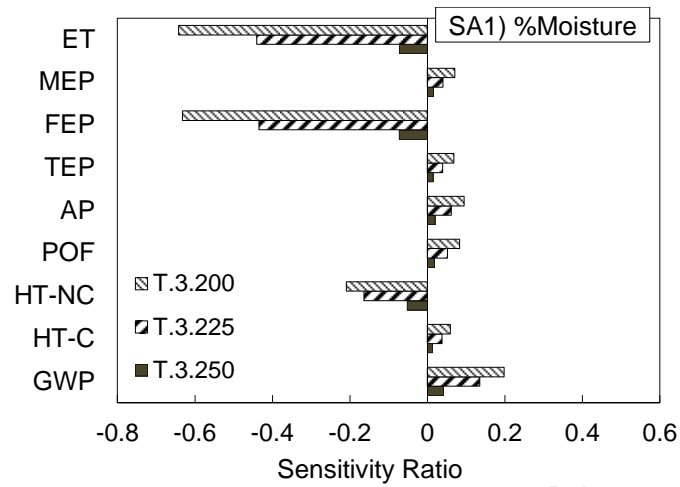
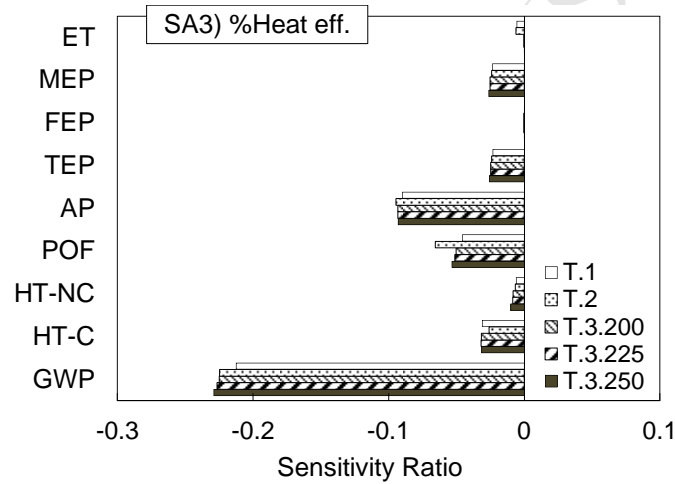
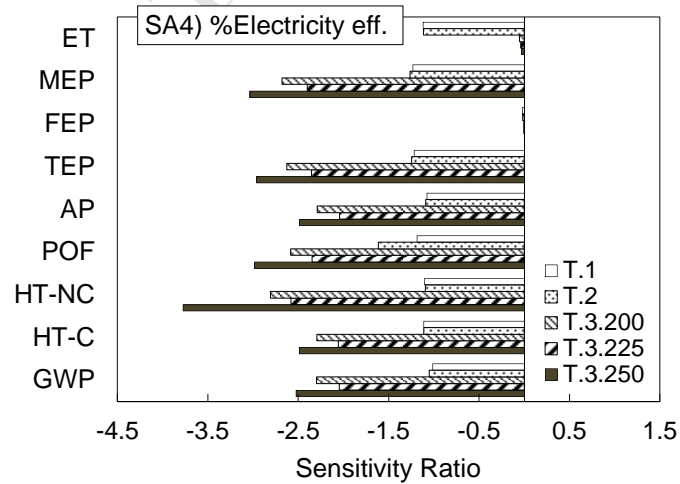


Figure 7. Differences in net climate change (GWP), ecosystem quality (AP, TEP, MEP, ET) and human toxicity (POF, HT-C, HT-NC) impact potentials due to changes in heat (SA3) and electricity (SA4) production efficiencies.

740

741
742743
744745
746

747 Figure 8. Sensitivity ratios associated with changing (a) % moisture of hydrochar (SA1), (b)
748 %Heat eff (SA3) and (c) %Elect Eff (SA4) in thermal treatment scenarios.

Highlight 1: Environmental impacts associated with TPOMW treatment is evaluated using LCA

Highlight 2: Thermal treatment of TPOMW is more environmentally advantageous than biological treatment

Highlight 3: Energy recovery is critical in reducing system environmental impact

Highlight 4: Incineration with energy recovery has a lower impact than HTC, but operational challenges remain

Highlight 5: Increase hydrochar energy recovery efficiency and treat liquid emissions to reduce impact