

This item is the archived peer-reviewed author-version of:

Improving the resource footprint evaluation of products recovered from wastewater : a discussion on appropriate allocation in the context of circular economy

Reference:

Sfez Sophie, De Meester Steven, Vlaeminck Siegfried, Dewulf Jo.- Improving the resource footprint evaluation of products recovered from wastewater : a discussion on appropriate allocation in the context of circular economy
Resources, conservation and recycling - ISSN 0921-3449 - 148(2019), p. 132-144
Full text (Publisher's DOI): <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RESCONREC.2019.03.029>
To cite this reference: <https://hdl.handle.net/10067/1598870151162165141>

1

Resources, Conservation and Recycling

2

3 **Improving the resource footprint evaluation of products recovered from**
4 **wastewater: a discussion on appropriate allocation in the context of circular**
5 **economy**

6

7 Sophie Sfez^{1*}, Steven De Meester², Siegfried E. Vlaeminck³, Jo Dewulf¹

8 ¹ Research Group STEN, Department of Green Chemistry and Technology, Faculty of
9 Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University – Campus Coupure, Coupure Links 653, 9000
10 Gent, Belgium; sophie.sfez@ugent.be; jo.dewulf@ugent.be;

11 ² Department of Green Chemistry and Technology, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent
12 University – Campus Kortrijk, Graaf Karel de Goedelaan 5, 8500 Kortrijk, Belgium;
13 steven.demeester@ugent.be.

14 ³ Research Group of Sustainable Energy, Air and Water Technology, Department of
15 Bioscience Engineering, Faculty of Science, University of Antwerp, Groenenborgerlaan
16 171, 2020 Antwerpen, Belgium; siegfried.vlaeminck@uantwerpen.be

17 * Corresponding author

18 **Abstract**

19 Shifting from a linear to a circular economy has consequences on how the sustainability of
20 products is assessed. This is the case for products recovered from resources such as
21 sewage sludge. The “zero-burden” assumption is commonly used in Life Cycle Assessment
22 and considers that waste streams are burden-free, which becomes debatable when
23 comparing waste-based with virgin material-based products in the context of the growing
24 circular economy. If waste streams are considered as resources rather than waste, upstream

25 burdens should be partly allocated to all products to allow a fair comparison with their virgin
26 material-based equivalents. In this paper, five allocation approaches are applied to allocate
27 the resource use of upstream processes (consumer goods production) to products recovered
28 from the processing of sewage sludge in the Netherlands, which produces biogas,
29 (phosphorus-based) chemicals and building materials.

30 Except for the approach which allocates 100% of the impact from resource recovery
31 processes to the preceding consumer goods, the allocation approaches show a resource use
32 27 to 80% higher than with the “zero-burden” assumption. In this particular case, using these
33 allocation approaches is likely to find little support from recyclers. The producers of
34 household products, recyclers and policy makers should find a consensus to consider the
35 shift from a linear to a circular economy in sustainability assessment studies while avoiding
36 discouraging the implementation of recovery technologies. This paper suggests starting the
37 discussion with the approach which allocates the impacts from upstream processes
38 degressively to the downstream products as it best translates the industrial ecology
39 principles.

40 **Keywords**

41 Wastewater, Life Cycle Assessment, Allocation, Cascading, Struvite, Water resource
42 recovery facility

43 **Highlights**

- 44 • The “zero-burden” assumption of products from waste in LCA becomes debatable
- 45 • Allocation approaches are tested in the LCA of products obtained from sewage
46 sludge
- 47 • Discarding the “zero-burden” assumption might discourage resource recovery

- 48 • A consensus should be found to consider the circular economy concepts in LCA

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Until recently, household wastewater treatment was mainly considered as a step to reduce
51 the emission of harmful substances to the environment and recover water for human
52 activities. However, households' wastewater contains large amounts of substances that
53 could have a secondary use in the economy. This is the case for nutrients and organic matter
54 which could be valorized as fertilizers and biogas (energy), amongst others (Verstraete et al.,
55 2011). Resource recovery from wastewater streams is increasingly seen as one option to
56 help tackling challenges such as the resource efficiency of regions and countries and the low
57 revenues from wastewater treatment (IWA, 2016; Spinosa et al., 2011). Using sewage
58 sludge as a fertilizer has been considered for many years but is often limited by a heavy
59 metals content that exceeds the maximum allowed in regulation (Linderholm et al., 2012). To
60 overcome this challenge, technologies to extract the useful compounds of sewage sludge
61 and produce "heavy metal free" fertilizers such as struvite are being developed. The
62 wastewater sector is also developing several other innovative technologies, e.g., to recover
63 metals and ammonia or to produce biogas, bio-plastics, biodiesel, esters, fish or microbial
64 protein from sewage sludge (Alloul et al., 2018; Puyol et al., 2017; Verstraete et al., 2016).
65 Therefore, the wastewater treatment sector is increasingly positioning itself as a key player in
66 the shift towards a circular economy (IWA, 2016). However, this requires a paradigm shift
67 related to the main goal assigned to wastewater treatment today, i.e., to avoid pollution of
68 receiving water bodies. Renaming wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) into water resource
69 recovery facilities (WRRF) boosts the shift from the "water cleaning" to the "resource
70 recovery" approach by considering giving a second life to resources in wastewater as a
71 major goal of the wastewater treatment chain (Vanrolleghem et al., 2014). This paradigm

72 shift has consequences on how the sustainability of products obtained from wastewater is to
73 be assessed. Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) is a tool commonly used to assess the
74 sustainability of products and services. It is a recognized methodology to assess the
75 environmental burdens of a system and follows the framework of International Standards
76 Organization (ISO) 14040 and 14044 (ISO, 2006a, 2006b). It allows comparing the
77 environmental impact of different steps of a process, identifying the steps which could be
78 improved and avoiding environmental impact shifting from one step to another. However,
79 some methodological approaches commonly used in LCA become debatable when it comes
80 to compare products from sewage sludge valorisation in circular systems with virgin material-
81 based products. The “zero-burden” assumption was described by Finnveden (1999) as an
82 approach followed in comparative waste-LCA and which considers that *“those parts of the*
83 *systems which are identical in all systems which are compared, can be disregarded”*.
84 Finnveden (1999) further specifies that if different amounts of waste are produced in the
85 compared scenarios, the upstream processes should be included in the system boundaries.
86 If this definition is strictly followed, the processes upstream waste production have to be
87 included in the system boundaries when comparing products recovered from waste with their
88 virgin material-based equivalents. In practice today, this approach is not implemented
89 because the concept of “zero-burden” assumption has become broader, considering that
90 waste streams do not bear any burden, even in a broader context than waste-LCA. However,
91 since the definition of the “zero-burden” assumption twenty years ago by Finnveden (1999), a
92 new paradigm has emerged, the one of circular economy. The Ellen MacArthur Foundation
93 defines “designing out waste” as one of the three principles of circular economy (Ellen
94 MacArthur Foundation, 2017), which means that no waste should be produced by circular
95 systems, only by-products (Djuric Ilic et al., 2018) and resources used in further processes.
96 As the “zero-burden” assumption applies to waste streams (Ekvall et al., 2007), it might
97 become obsolete and inconsistent in the assessment of circular systems. In the field of

98 wastewater treatment it means that in practice, if wastewater streams are considered as a
99 resource and not as a waste, the upstream environmental burdens should be partly allocated
100 to the downstream products to allow a fair comparison with the equivalent virgin materials-
101 based products. A similar paradigm shift can be observed in the solid waste management
102 sector in which there is a growing discussion on the necessity to allocate part of the impact
103 from the upstream processes (i.e., the production of the products which will turn into waste)
104 to the recycled products (Chen et al., 2010; Oldfield et al., 2014). The recent ecoinvent
105 model “allocation at the point of substitution” also follows this approach and allocates the
106 environmental burden of primary production to solid waste streams by considering them as
107 co-products (Weidema et al., 2013). However, this approach is not yet applied to wastewater
108 streams. It has been recently discussed by Pradel et al. (2016), who reviewed the modelling
109 approach followed by 44 LCA studies assessing the environmental sustainability of sewage
110 sludge management. This study shows that the sludge is always considered as a “burden
111 free” flow. The authors stress that such an approach can be followed when comparing
112 different sewage sludge management options but becomes debatable when comparing the
113 environmental sustainability of products obtained from the valorisation of sewage sludge with
114 virgin materials-based products. In these cases, Pradel et al. (2016) argue that part of the
115 environmental burden of the WWTP should be allocated to the sewage sludge. However, the
116 products from sludge valorisation do not only rely on the treatment of the wastewater to be
117 produced. They also rely on the production of the products ending up in the wastewater
118 streams (i.e., consumer goods). Therefore, the rationale of Pradel et al. (2016) could be
119 extended to the allocation of part of the environmental burden from consumer goods’
120 production to the products from sludge valorisation. The wastewater treatment chain is
121 viewed as a cascade system in which natural resources are first used to produce the
122 consumer goods and then partly used to produce new products from the valorisation of
123 sludge from wastewater. The sector of material recycling is already dealing with such a

124 situation and developed several approaches to allocate the impact of virgin raw material
125 processing to the different products of a cascading chain. These approaches also allocate
126 part of the impact of recycling to the products of the chain. In the context of the Product
127 Environmental Footprint (PEF) initiated by the European Commission (EC, 2013), Allacker et
128 al. (2017) present different “end-of-life formulas” commonly used in literature. An example is
129 the “adapted 50:50” approach which allocates 50% of the environmental burden of the virgin
130 raw material processing and recycling process to the material being recycled (Allacker et al.,
131 2017). The recovery of resources from consumer goods discarded by households in the
132 sewage system is similar to the recycling of materials. The used products enter a “recycling”
133 process, which starts with the WWTP discharging water and producing sewage sludge and
134 ends with the sludge treatment processes to obtain final products. Therefore, the “end-of-life
135 formulas” applied to recycled materials could also be applied to the products used by
136 households and used to produce products from sewage sludge valorisation.

137 This study aims to propose alternatives for the zero-burden assumption to consider the shift
138 from a linear to a circular economy in sustainability assessment studies. It starts by
139 rethinking the way wastewater and sludge treatment processes are considered in these
140 studies. Then, allocation approaches inspired by the so-called “end-of-life” formulas are
141 proposed to assess the resource footprint, i.e., the cumulative amount of natural resources
142 consumed, of products from sewage sludge valorisation and consumer goods. This
143 methodological approach is tested on two sewage sludge valorisation scenarios from the
144 WWTP of the city of Eindhoven (the Netherlands). The products recovered from sewage
145 sludge valorisation are compared with equivalent benchmark products.

146 **2. Materials and methods**

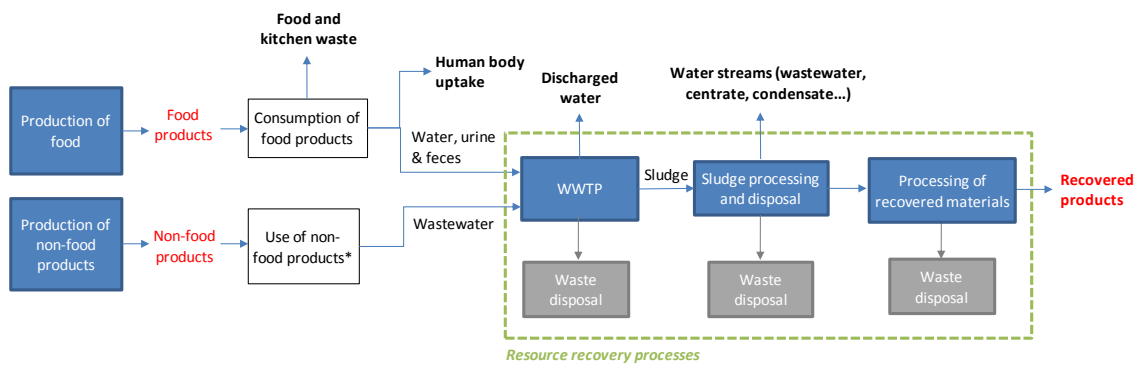
147 **2.1 A novel approach to assess the environmental sustainability of** 148 **wastewater-based products**

149 This section aims to present a new approach to assess the environmental sustainability of
150 wastewater-based products in the context of their comparison with the virgin material-based
151 equivalent based on LCA. In section 2.2, this approach is applied to the case of the
152 Eindhoven wastewater value chain.

153 **2.1.1. Rethinking typical wastewater value chains**

154 The value of any wastewater is the result of upstream processes, i.e., the production of the
155 products consumed and ending in the collection system. This paper proposes to consider
156 these processes as part of a “wastewater value chain” (Figure 1) to account for their
157 contribution to the value of the sludge-based products.

158 A “wastewater value chain” starts from the production of food and non-food products that will
159 end in the collection system. It includes the extraction of raw materials and their processing.
160 The products are consumed and part of the food ends up as food and kitchen waste. The
161 consumption of food allows fulfilling the needs of the human body through the uptake of
162 energy and nutrients and results in the production of a mix of water, urine and feces. In
163 parallel, the non-food products (e.g., laundry product) end up in the sewage system.



164
165

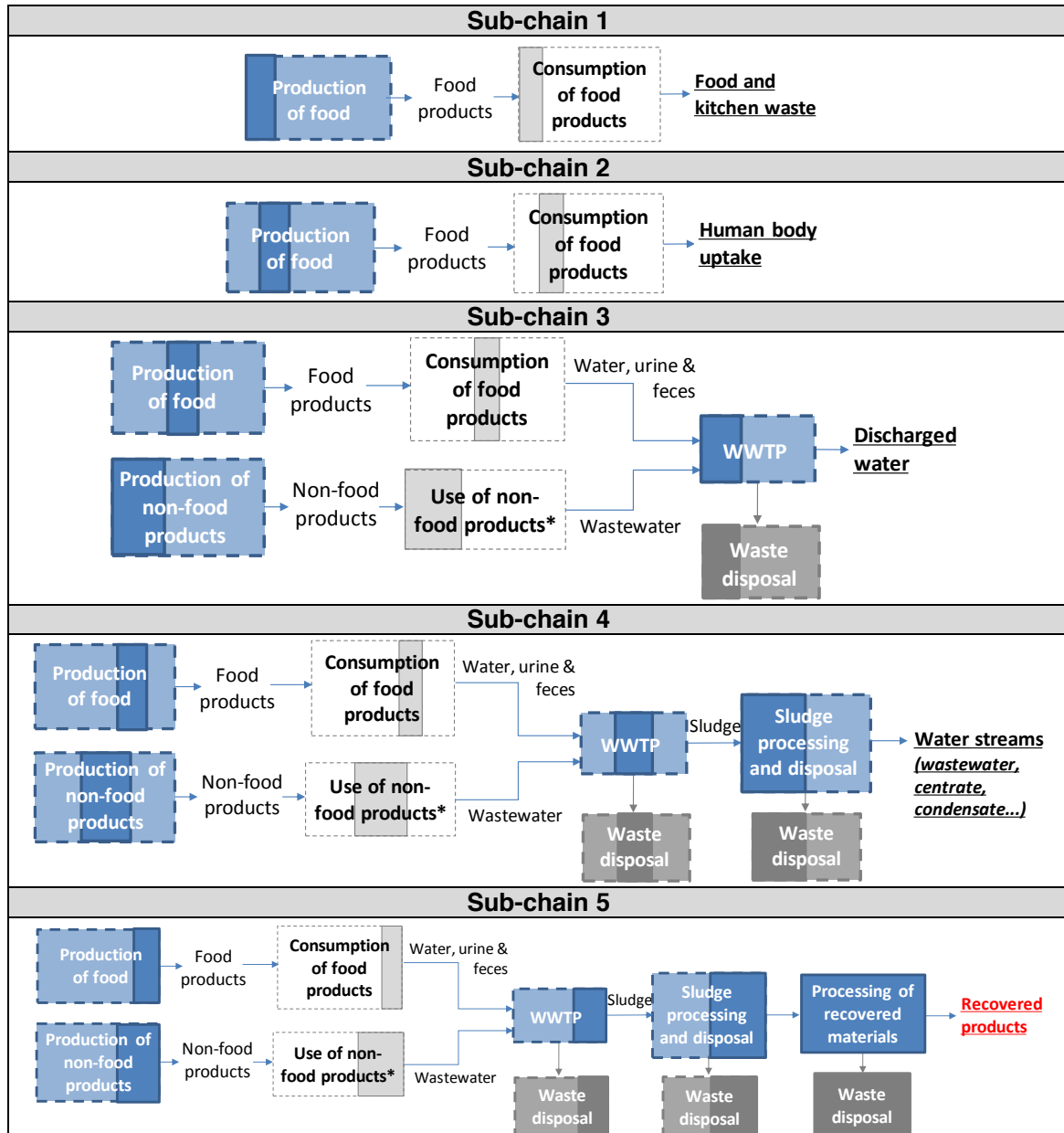
Figure 1: Wastewater value chain (* non-food products ending in the sewer).

166 The wastewater enters a recycling process named here “resource recovery processes” which
 167 consist of the wastewater treatment at the WWTP, the sludge processing and the processing
 168 of the recovered materials. Considering the new paradigm of waste-as-a-resource, several
 169 products are obtained along the wastewater value chain: the food and kitchen waste, the
 170 human body uptake, discharged and various water streams, and the recovered products
 171 (e.g., struvite). This paper focuses on comparing the environmental sustainability of-products
 172 recovered from wastewater streams with their virgin material-based equivalents. To focus on
 173 these products, a division of the value chain into sub-chains is necessary.

174 2.1.2. Partitioning of the wastewater value chain

175 In LCA studies, the division of a multi-outputs process chain into sub-chains to focus on the
 176 product of interest is common practice. It is generally referred as “allocation”. In this paper, in
 177 order to avoid any confusion with the next step of the proposed approach, the term
 178 “allocation” is replaced by “partitioning”. The partitioning of a process burden between its
 179 several outputs can be based on different flow properties, e.g., mass, energy, exergy and
 180 economic value. While the partitioning of process burdens between physical flows is
 181 common, it is not the case for partitioning human consumption between body uptake (which
 182 cannot be physically characterized), human excreta and food waste. As human food intake
 183 requirements are mostly characterized in terms of energy intake, the partitioning of human
 184 consumption can be based on the energy or exergy values of its different outputs. Once the

185 partitioning of the wastewater value chain has been made, several sub-chains are obtained
 186 (Figure 2). Sub-chain 5 can then be analysed to assess the sustainability of the recovered
 187 products.



188 **Figure 2:** Partitioning of the wastewater value chain presented in Figure 1 (the darker
 189 portions indicate the partitioning of the processes in each sub-chain; * non-food products
 190 ending in the sewer).

191 **2.1.3. Allocation of the burdens to the different products along the chain**

192 In sub-chain 5, resources are consecutively used to produce consumer goods and recovered
193 products. Then, a similar approach as followed in the sector of material recycling is
194 proposed. It allocates the burdens of the processes along the chain to the different products
195 of the chain (here the consumer goods and the recovered products). Allacker et al. (2017)
196 present 11 end-of-life formulas that can be applied to products used consecutively in a
197 cascade system. Some simply differ by considering avoided virgin production by the recycled
198 product. In this paper, we aim to compare the recovered products with benchmark products
199 so these methods are discarded. Moreover, Allacker et al. (2017) discuss four methods
200 based on the 100:100 principle, meaning that 100% of the impact of recycling is allocated to
201 the recycled products and 100% is allocated to the product producing the recycled material,
202 which results in a double counting of the impact when considering the overall system. To
203 keep a consistent system which results in “physically realistic modelling” (Allacker et al.,
204 2017), these end-of-life formulas were not considered in the analysis either. The five
205 remaining approaches are described in Table 1 and further detailed in Appendix D.

Allocation approach	Description
<i>0:100</i>	Full allocation of the recycling impact to the intended product and no burden allocated to downstream products using secondary materials.
<i>100:0</i>	Full allocation of the recycling impact to the product using secondary material, with no burden from recycling operations allocated to the intended product. This approach is usually followed in LCA. In this case study, it is different from the zero-burden assumption as the latter does not consider the WWTP as a resource recovery process while the 100:0 applied here does.
<i>50:50</i>	Allocation of the recycling impact to the intended product and 50% to the product using the secondary material.
<i>50:50 adapted</i>	Distributes the impacts due to recycling in a 50:50 manner over the different products in the overall product cascade system but

	also the virgin material and disposal impact.
<i>Linearly degressive</i>	Uses the 50:50 approach for the allocation of the recycling impact. Allocates the impact of the virgin material in a linearly degressive way to all products in the product cascade system, allocating the highest share of impact to the first product. Same approach with disposal, but allocating the highest share of impact to the last product.

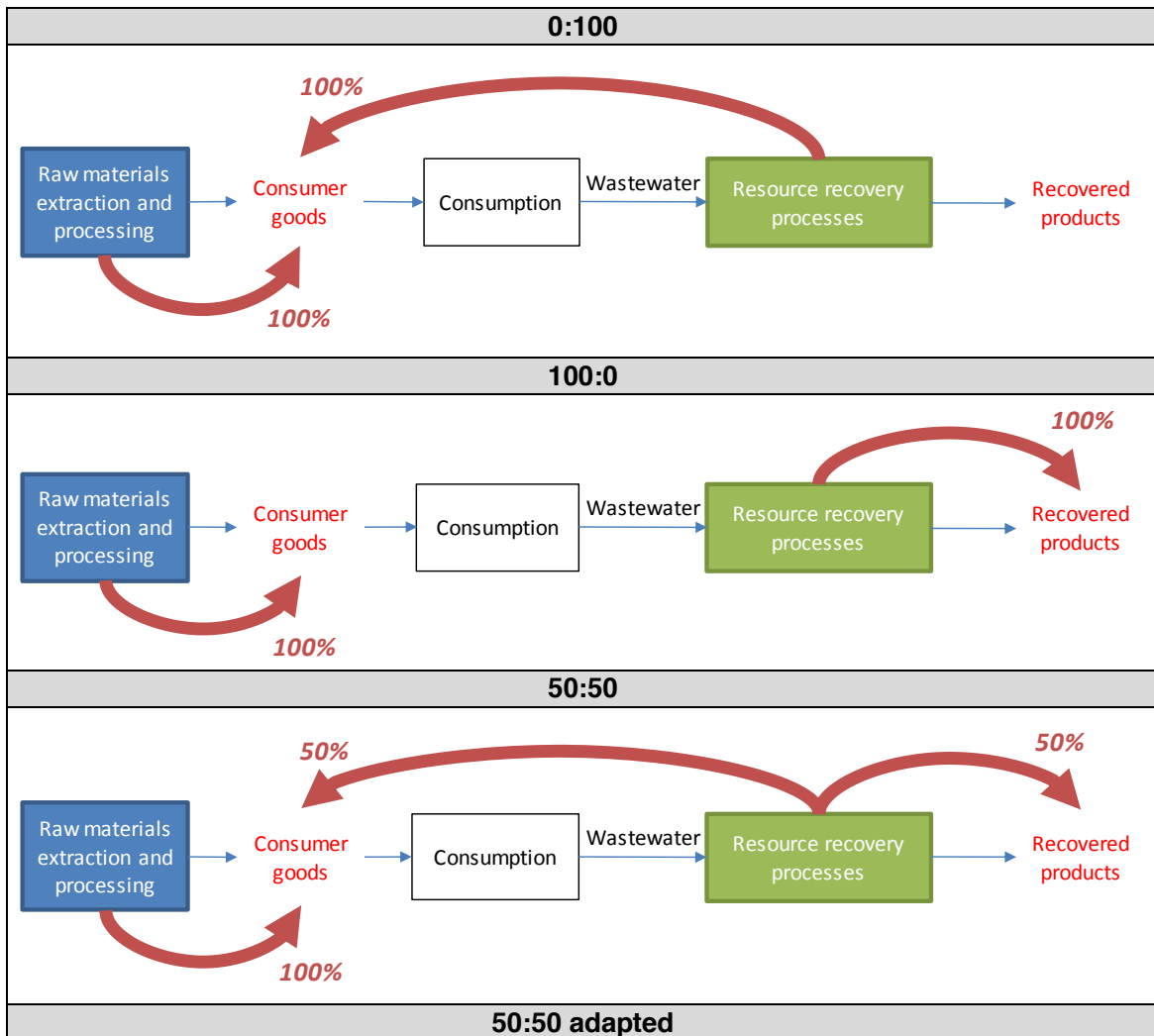
206 **Table 1:** Description of the selected allocation approaches

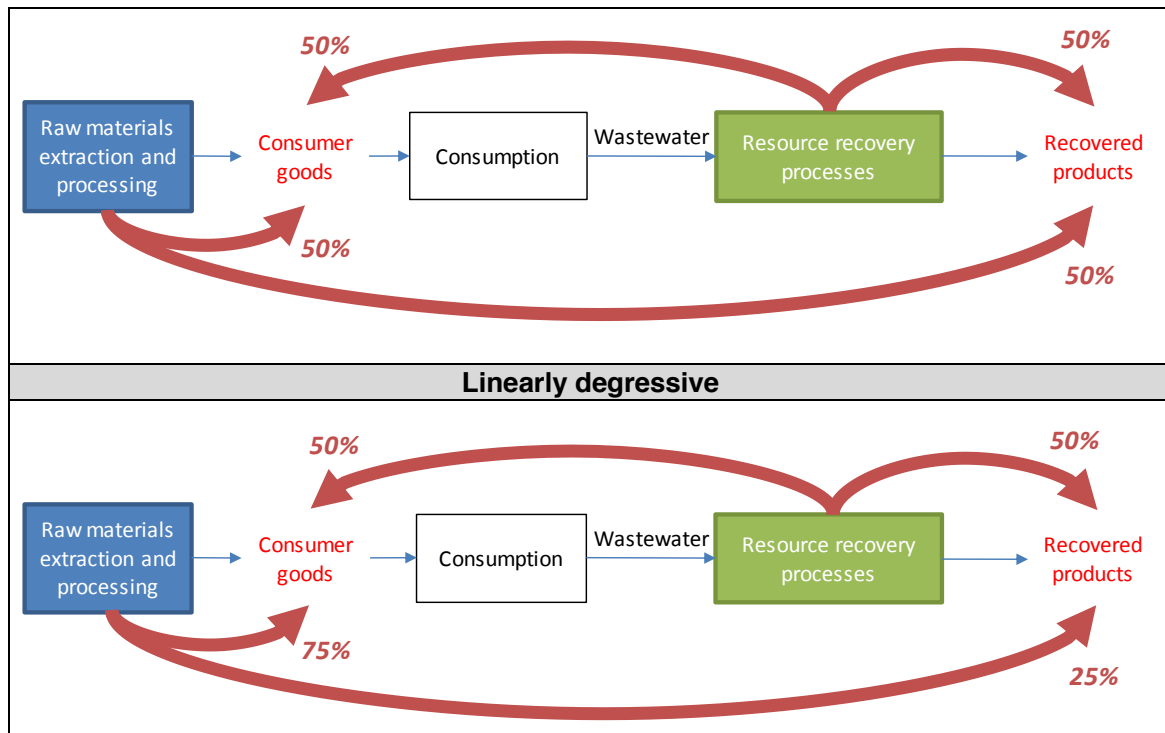
207 The 0:100, 50:50, “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive” approaches imply to know if the
208 recovered products are disposed of, or recycled after use. If recycled, the burden from
209 recycling should be fully or partly allocated to the recovered products. For example, it implies
210 knowing if roadfilling material obtained from sludge incineration ashes is disposed when the
211 lifetime of the road ends, or recycled/reused for another application. However, this study
212 aims to compare recovered and benchmark products for which the disposal or recycling
213 steps are the same so the impact of the downstream steps that should be allocated to the
214 recovered products can be excluded. This has a consequence for the “linearly degressive”
215 approach for which the percentage of impact allocated along the chain depends on the
216 number of times a product is recycled before final disposal. Most of the time, this information
217 cannot be known because of a lack of tracking of materials during their whole lifetime.
218 Therefore, the approach “linearly degressive” was slightly modified compared to the one
219 described in Allacker et al. (2017). Instead of being shared between all the products of the
220 chain until final disposal, the burden of the virgin material is shared between the virgin
221 material-based product (here the consumer goods) and the first product from recycling of this
222 material (the recovered products), but in a degressive manner. This allows applying the
223 principle of degressive allocation without having to know how the recycled products are then
224 used for. Allacker et al. (2017) propose to use the following factor to allocate the impact of
225 virgin material to the different products of the chain:

226

$$f = \frac{2 \times n - 1}{n^2} \quad (1)$$

227 Where n is the number of products along the chain. In a typical wastewater value chain, two
228 types of products are obtained (Figure 1): 75% of the burden of virgin material extraction and
229 processing is allocated to the virgin material-based product, and 25% is allocated to the
230 product obtained from the first recycling process. The responsibility of the recycling
231 processes is equally shared between both products. The approaches proposed are
232 presented in Figure 3 for the sub-chain 5.





233 **Figure 3:** Visualization of each allocation approach. Red arrows represent the allocation of
 234 the environmental burden of processes to specific products (in red: consumer goods or
 235 recovered products). Percentages represent the share of the environmental burdens.

236 The approach presented in Figure 3 should also be applied to the sub-chains 1, 2, 3 and 4 in
 237 order to quantify the burden from the downstream processes allocated to the consumer
 238 goods. The burden of the consumer goods in the sub-chains 1 to 5 are then summed up to
 239 obtain the total burden. Therefore, following the proposed allocation approach has an effect
 240 on the footprint of both the consumer goods and the recovered products.

241 **2.2 Application to the resource footprint of products recovered from** 242 **the wastewater treatment chain of the city of Eindhoven**

243 The proposed approach is tested to compare the resource footprint of products obtained
 244 from the wastewater treatment chain of the city of Eindhoven with their virgin material-based
 245 equivalents (i.e., benchmark products).

246 **2.2.1. Scenarios**

247 The value chain starts with the production of the consumer goods ending up in the sewage
248 system. Because the focus of this study is the testing of a new approach on the wastewater
249 treatment chain, food and kitchen waste are assumed to be incinerated (see section 4 for
250 discussion). Sewage ends up in the Eindhoven WWTP managed by Waterschap De
251 Dommel, which has a capacity of 680,000 person equivalent (PE; 1 PE defined as 150 g
252 COD day⁻¹). The effluent flows into the river Dommel. Primary and thickened secondary
253 sludge are pumped to a facility in Mierlo, where they are mixed with the sludge of four other
254 WWTPs and dewatered in centrifuges. The centrate is pumped back to Eindhoven WWTP.
255 Two scenarios of sludge treatment were then assessed (Figures 4 and 5).

256 *2.2.1.1. Baseline scenario*

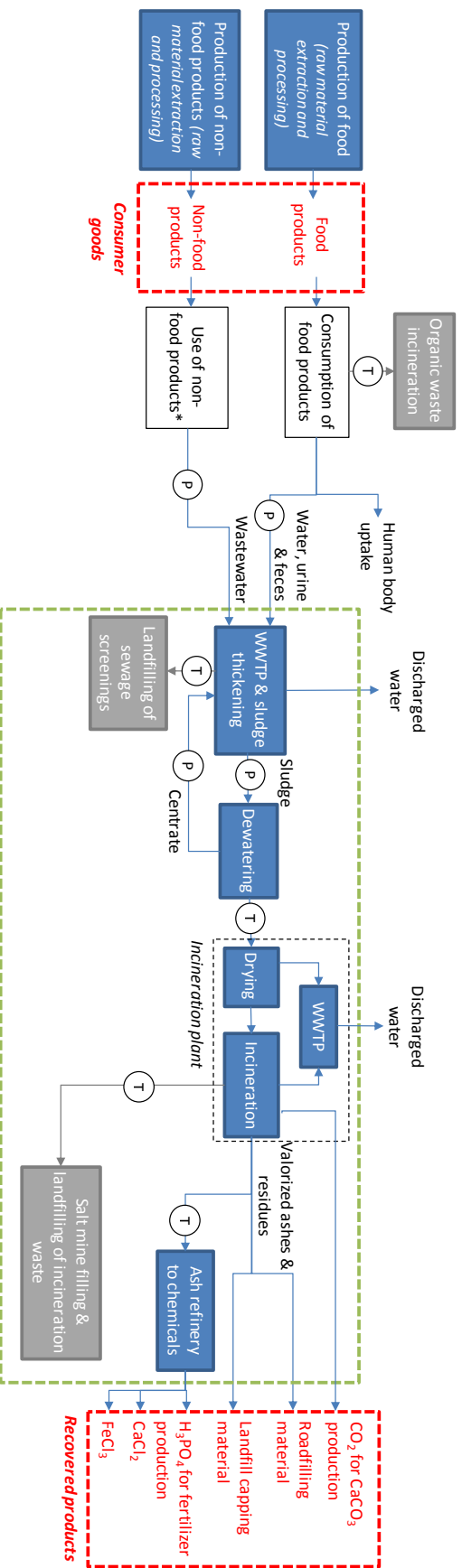
257 The dewatered sludge is transported by truck to an incineration plant in Moerdijk (N.V.
258 Slibverwerking Noord-Brabant (SNB)) where it is dried and incinerated. Part of the CO₂
259 produced during incineration is used by a neighboring plant to produce calcium carbonate
260 (CaCO₃). All the energy produced during incineration is consumed for drying. In 2013, 36,359
261 tons of incineration ashes were produced, 78% of which were used as building material (58%
262 as roadfilling material and 21% to produce landfill capping material) and 3% phosphoric acid
263 for fertilizer production in the EcoPhos plant (Dunkirk). The EcoPhos process produces two
264 other products: calcium chloride (CaCl₂) and an iron chloride (FeCl₃) solution. The remaining
265 fraction of ashes (18%) was transported to a salt mine in Germany for long-term storage and
266 the waste adsorbents were landfilled. The products of the treatment of sludge are called
267 “recovered products” and the processes from the WWTP to the production of the recovered
268 products are called the “resource recovery processes”, including the disposal of waste from
269 the incineration plant. The condensate from sludge drying is treated in the wastewater
270 treatment facility of the incineration plant and discharged.

271 2.2.1.2. *Alternative scenario*

272 The alternative scenario is based on upcoming improvements from Waterschap De Dommel.
273 This scenario consists in subjecting the output sludge of several WWTPs to anaerobic
274 digestion before incineration. The dewatered sludge is transported by truck from Mierlo to
275 Tilburg, pre-treated with a thermal hydrolysis process (THP) and then digested. The biogas is
276 pumped via pipelines to a company that purifies and compresses it to produce biomethane
277 used in city buses. The digestate is dewatered, and the residual sludge transported to the
278 incineration plant. The same valorisation pathways for ashes as in the baseline scenario are
279 considered. The reject water from dewatering is treated in a precipitation process to produce
280 struvite ($\text{MgNH}_4\text{PO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), a mineral slow-release fertiliser containing nitrogen and
281 phosphorus.

282 2.2.1.3. *Benchmark scenarios*

283 Both scenarios are compared with benchmark scenarios producing equivalent products. In
284 the benchmark scenarios, roadfilling material and landfill capping material are produced from
285 gravel (Birgisdóttir et al., 2007) and bentonite clay (Guyonnet et al., 2009), respectively. CO_2
286 is produced from the treatment of different industrial gases, H_3PO_4 , the FeCl_3 solution, CaCl_2
287 and the N and P fertilizers are produced as described in the ecoinvent database
288 (Frischknecht et al., 2005). The city buses run on diesel.



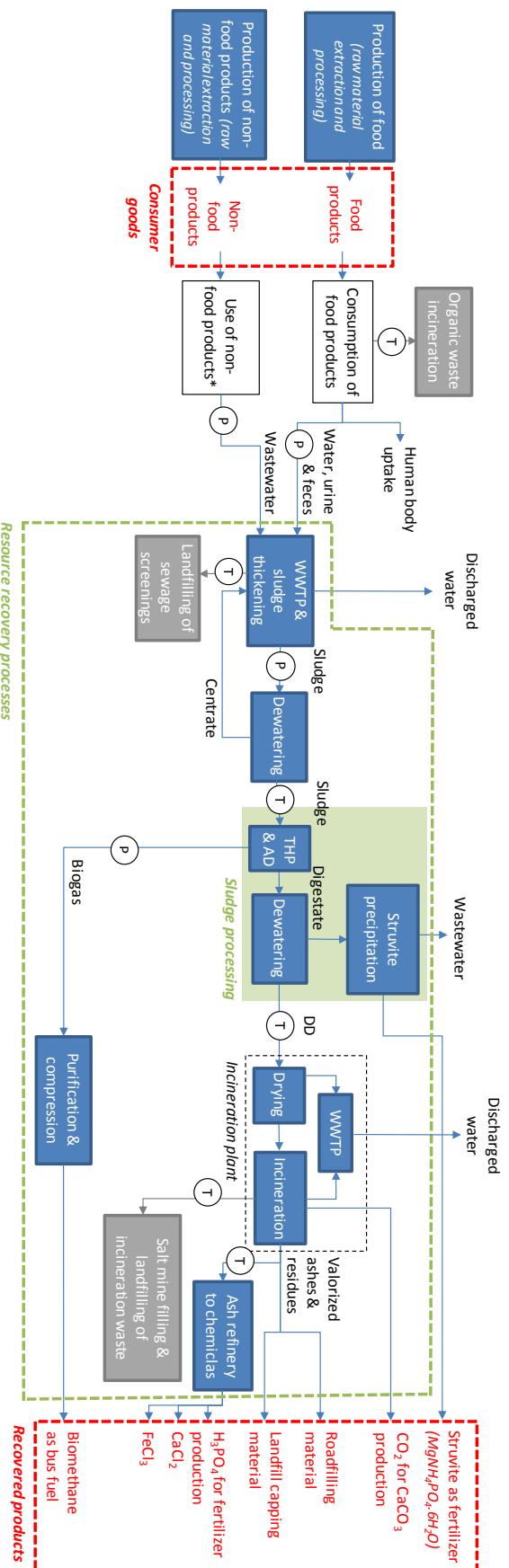
289

290 **Figure 4:** Baseline scenario (the grey boxes represent the disposal processes; the white process boxes are excluded from the system

291 boundaries; WWTP: Wastewater treatment plant; T: Transport by truck; P: Transport by pipeline; * non-food products ending in the sewer).

292

293 **Figure 5:** Alternative scenario (the grey boxes represent the disposal processes; the white process boxes are excluded from the system
 294 boundaries; WWTP: Wastewater treatment plant; THP: Thermo Hydrolysis Process; AD: Anaerobic Digestion; DD: Dewatered Digestate; T:
 295 Transport by truck; P: Transport by pipeline; * non-food products ending in the sewer).



297 **2.2.2. Life cycle assessment**

298 *2.2.2.1. Goal and scope*

299 The effect of the proposed approach is tested on the comparison of the resource footprint of
300 the recovered products with their virgin material-based equivalent. A first analysis is
301 conducted based on sub-chain 5 only and considers the basket of products recovered from
302 household sewage sludge from Eindhoven during one year (Table 2) as the functional unit.
303 The results of this first analysis are presented in section 3.1.
304 The water discharged by the WWTP and the incineration plant are not included in the basket
305 of products because it is released in the nearby rivers and not used in a downstream
306 industrial process. The output wastewater from the sludge processing steps is excluded as
307 not further valorized in an industrial process.

Products	Current scenario	Alternative scenario
Roadfilling material	2.1x10 ⁶	1.1x10 ⁶
Landfill capping material	7.3x10 ⁵	4.1x10 ⁵
Phosphoric acid (H ₃ PO ₄)	2.6x10 ⁴	2.1x10 ⁴
Calcium chloride (CaCl ₂)	6.6x10 ⁴	5.6x10 ⁴
Iron chloride solution 40% (FeCl ₃)	3.3x10 ³	2.8x10 ³
Carbon dioxide for CaCO ₃ production	2.5x10 ⁶	2.5x10 ⁶
Kilometres driven by city buses	0	2.6x10 ⁶ (*)
Phosphorus fertilizer, as P ₂ O ₅	0	1.1x10 ⁵
Nitrogen fertilizer, as N	0	2.2x10 ⁴

(*) km year⁻¹

308 **Table 2:** Basket of products chosen to compare the resource footprint of the current and
309 baseline scenarios with their benchmark scenarios (in kg year⁻¹ unless specified).

310 The production of biogas reduces the amount of carbon in the sludge so less CO₂ is
311 produced during the incineration of the sludge in the alternative scenario. However, the
312 amount of CO₂ delivered to produce CaCO₃ is assumed to remain the same as in the
313 baseline scenario as the CaCO₃ producer requires a continuous supply of CO₂.

314 In addition to having an impact on the resource footprint of these products, the allocation
315 approaches also have an impact on the resource footprint of the consumer goods. Therefore,
316 a second analysis was conducted considering the basket of consumer goods
317 consumed/used by the city of Eindhoven during one year and ending up in the sewage
318 system as a functional unit (Appendix A). The resource footprint of the consumer goods is
319 the sum of their resource footprint in sub-chains 1 to 5. The results are presented in section
320 3.2.

321 Figures 4 and 5 present the system boundaries. The packaging of consumer goods is
322 excluded as these do not end up in the sewage. The impact from food preparation is
323 neglected as it represents less than 5% of the resource footprint of food consumption
324 (Notarnicola et al., 2017). For non-food products, only the impacts from the ingredients and
325 their transport to the processing plant are included because of the negligible contribution of
326 their processing step (Golsteijn et al., 2015).

327 2.2.2.2. *Data inventory*

328 *Consumer goods production* - To estimate the resource footprint of the consumer goods, the
329 consumption patterns of food and non-food products released in the wastewater stream had
330 to be estimated. Based on RIVM (2011), 47 products were selected to represent the
331 complete diet of the Dutch population. Their production was modelled using the life cycle
332 databases ecoinvent version 3.3 (Frischknecht & Rebitzer, 2005), the Agri-footprint database
333 (version 3.0; Blonk Consultants (2017)) and the LCA Food database (2.-0 LCA Consultants,
334 2003). 10% of consumed food is assumed to be wasted (LNV, 2010) and the amount of
335 kitchen waste was estimated based on literature data (e.g., Mahmood et al. (1998) for potato
336 peel) and on the author's estimation.

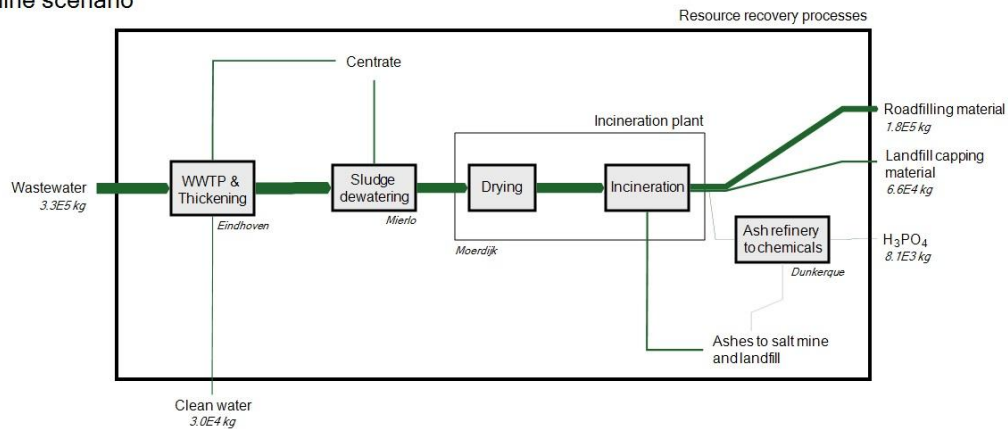
337 The non-food consumption patterns were estimated based on RIVM (2006), RIVM (2002)
338 and AISE (2014). The composition of the body and house care products was based on the

339 RIVM reports and Golsteijn et al. (2015). The transport of ingredients with renewable origin
340 were assumed to be transported by boat (8000 km) and the ingredients of non-renewable
341 origin by truck (2000 km) (Golsteijn et al., 2015).

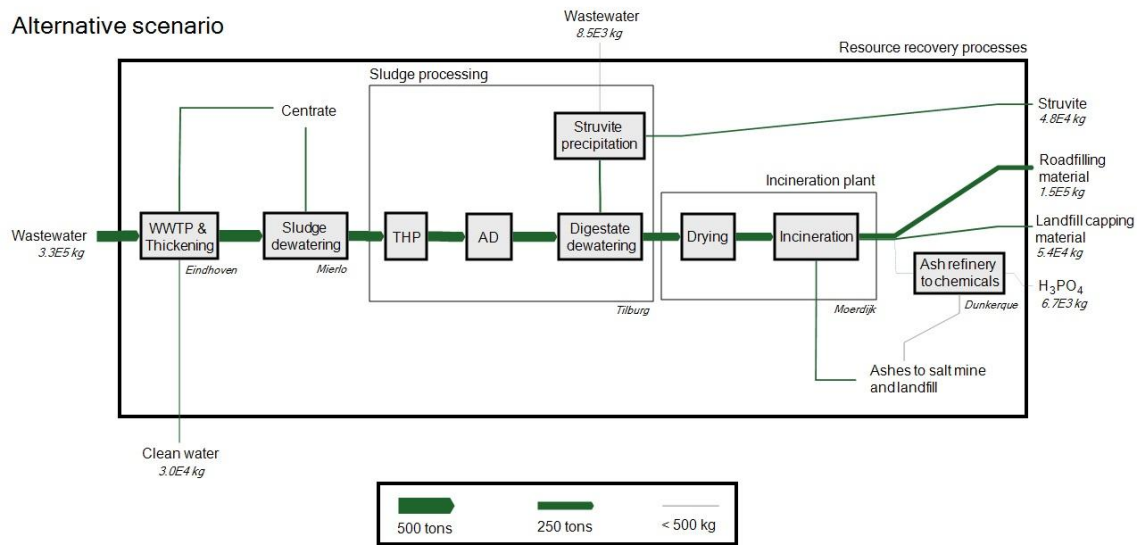
342 *Resource recovery processes* - Data of the facilities in Eindhoven and Mierlo were retrieved
343 from Blom (2013). The WWTP treats both household and industry water. The inventory from
344 the plant was allocated to the household stream based on the COD content (74%). Data for
345 digestate dewatering and struvite precipitation were taken from literature (see Appendices).
346 Data on inputs for the incineration and the destination of bottom ashes were extracted from
347 Sijstermans et al. (2013). Chemicals were not included in the assessment. The resource
348 consumption of the incineration plant (which also processes sludge from other WWTPs) was
349 allocated to the sludge from Eindhoven based on its dry solids contribution (13%). The ashes
350 valorized as landfill capping and roadfilling materials are used without any processing step.
351 Data for the EcoPhos process were taken from Jossa et al. (2015).

352 Based on the inventory, the phosphorus flows within the resource recovery processes were
353 estimated to obtain the final amount of P-containing products in the baseline and alternative
354 scenarios (Figure 6).

Baseline scenario



Alternative scenario



355

356 **Figure 6:** Phosphorus flows within the resource recovery processes, in kg per basket of
 357 recovered products (THP: Thermal Hydrolysis Process; AD: Anaerobic Digestion; WWTP:
 358 Wastewater Treatment Plant; italic numbers: amount of phosphorus; italic names: location of
 359 facilities).

360 *Background processes* - The background processes (e.g., production of electricity from the
361 grid and benchmark processes) are modelled based on the ecoinvent database version 3.1
362 (Frischknecht & Rebitzer, 2005). To be consistent with the co-products partitioning approach
363 of the foreground system, the ecoinvent modelling approach “allocation at the point of
364 substitution” is used.

365 Ashes used as roadfilling and landfill capping materials are assumed to replace their
366 equivalent products with a 1:1 ratio (Birgisdóttir et al., 2007). A 1:1 ratio is used to estimate
367 the equivalence between the recovered H_3PO_4 , FeCl_3 solution and CaCl_2 and the virgin
368 material-based products, as no impurities which could decrease their value are assumed to
369 be present in the recovered products. 1 Nm^3 of biogas is estimated to replace 0.7 kg of
370 diesel fuel and 1 kg of phosphorus contained in the struvite to replace 1 kg of phosphorus in
371 synthetic fertilizer (Amann et al., 2018; Ishii et al., 2015). The same approach is followed for
372 nitrogen.

373 **2.2.3. Partitioning of the wastewater value chain**

374 Several processes along the chain produce more than one product. As presented previously,
375 the system should be partitioned to allow evaluating the resource footprint of the basket of
376 recovered products only. The processes that produce several products are listed below:

- 377 • The consumption of food products produces the proper function of the human body
378 through nutritional uptake of a fraction of ingested food, and the feces and urine;
- 379 • The WWTP produces the discharged water and the sewage sludge;
- 380 • Sludge processing (alternative scenario, in green in Figure 5) produces biogas,
381 dewatered digestate sludge, struvite and wastewater;
- 382 • The incineration plant produces ashes, CO_2 and discharged water.

383 For each of these processes, partitioning factors need to be defined. As mentioned in section
384 2.1.2, basing the partitioning factors for food consumption on the energy or exergy value of

385 nutritional uptake and feces/urine is the most straightforward approach. Therefore, an
386 exergy-based partitioning is chosen for each of them to allow for consistency between
387 processes, but also with the exergy-based method chosen to account for resource
388 consumption (see 2.3.5).

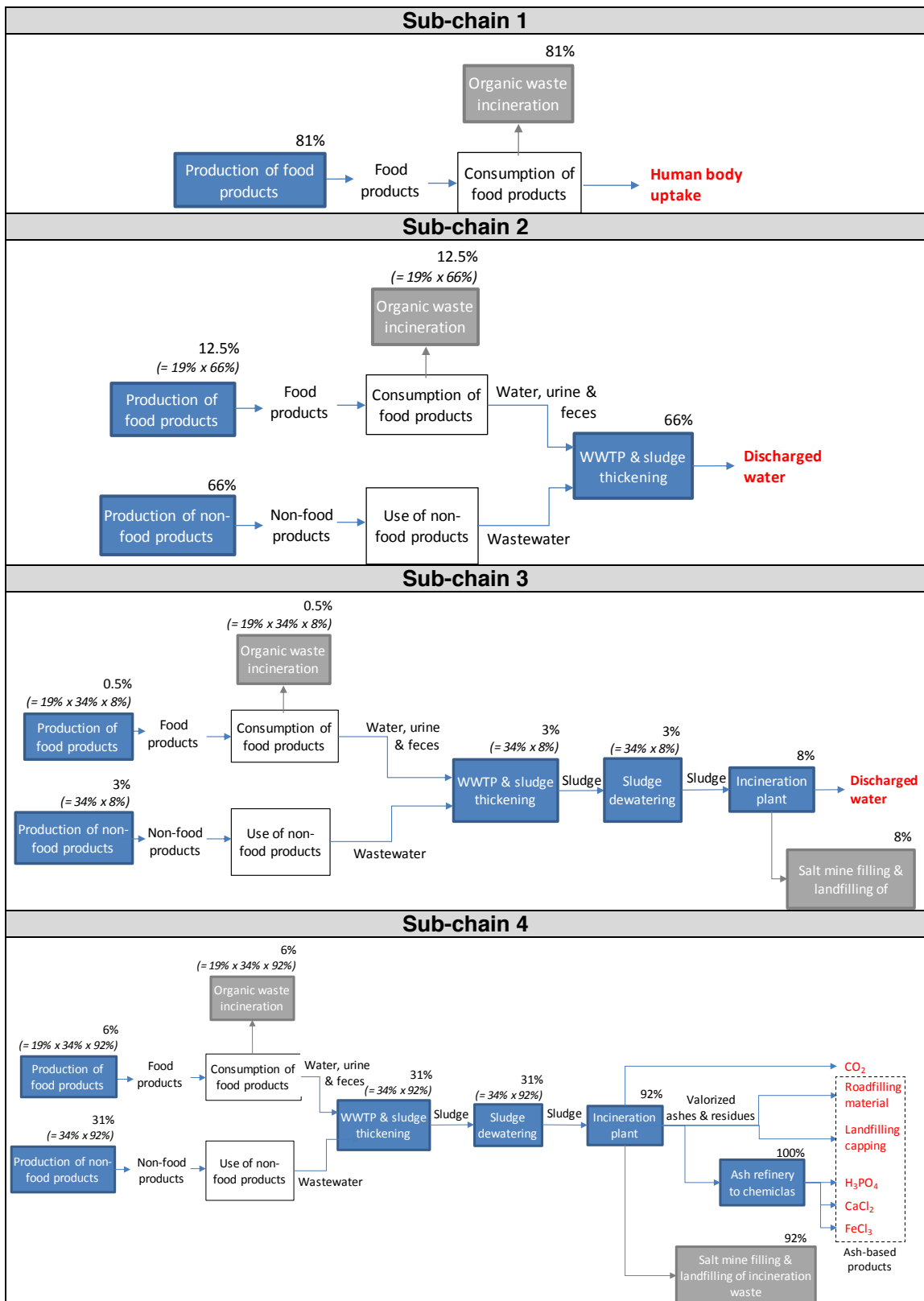
389 *Partitioning between nutritional uptake and feces/urine* - Based on Mady et al. (2013), the
390 ratio of the energy contained in feces and urine over the energy intake is used as a proxy to
391 estimate the partitioning factor (Appendix C). 19% of the intake energy ends up in the feces
392 and urine and is taken as partitioning factor.

393 *Partitioning between discharged water and sewage sludge* – The exergy value of the sewage
394 sludge and the discharged water are calculated, both based on a mass balance and the
395 COD value and water content of the input and discharged water (Blom, 2013). 34% of the
396 exergy of the wastewater ends up in the sewage sludge and is chosen as a partitioning
397 factor.

398 *Partitioning between the wastewater and the struvite, dewatered digestate sludge and biogas*
399 – 55.6%, 42.8% and 0.9% of the exergy of the input sludge ends in the biogas, the
400 dewatered digestate sludge and the struvite, respectively. Therefore, 99% of the input exergy
401 ends up in the struvite, dewatered digestate sludge and biogas.

402 *Partitioning between the ashes, CO₂ and the condensate* – 8% of the exergy of the input
403 sludge ends in the condensate so 92% of the exergy ends up in the ashes and CO₂.

404 The partitioning factors are represented in Appendice E. Applying the partitioning factors
405 results in dividing the process chain in sub-chains that each delivers one single product or
406 basket of products (see Figure 7 for the baseline scenario).



407 **Figure 7:** Partitioning of the studied system (baseline scenario) based on the partitioning
408 factors. The percentages represent the fraction of the resource footprint of the process
409 allocated to the product(s) of the sub-chain. The calculation between brackets refers to the
410 partitioning factors in Appendix E.

411 **2.2.4. Allocation between products along the chain**

412 The five allocation approaches proposed in section 2.1.3 are applied to the wastewater
413 treatment chain and are compared with the zero-burden assumption.

414 **2.2.5. Impact assessment**

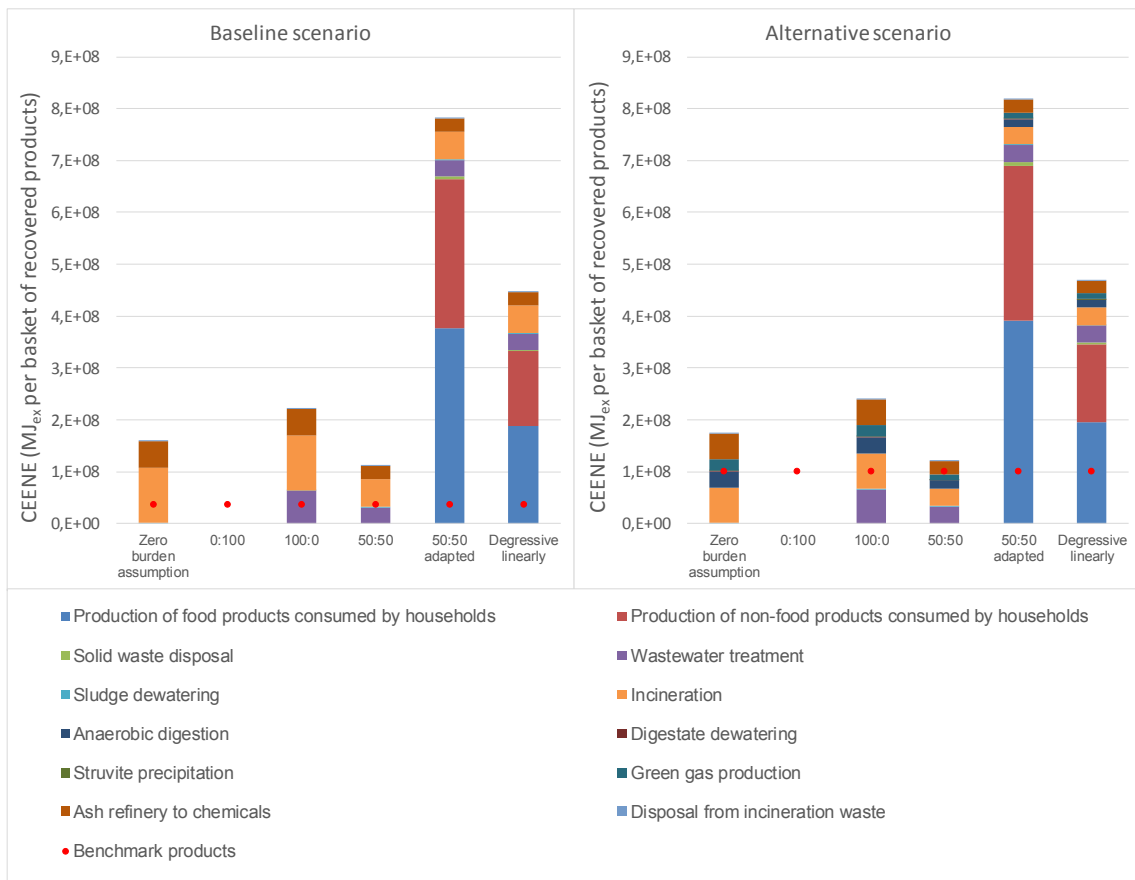
415 The resource-based impact assessment method Cumulative Exergy Extraction from the
416 Natural Environment (CEENE) is used. It considers seven resource categories: biotic
417 resources and land occupation, abiotic renewable resources, fossil fuels, nuclear energy,
418 metal ores, minerals and water resources (Dewulf et al., 2007).

419 **3. Results**

420 **3.1 Resource footprint of the recovered products**

421 Figure 8 shows the resource footprints of the recovered products following the different
422 allocation approaches. Two approaches result in a lower footprint of the recovered products
423 than with the zero-burden assumption: the 0:100 approach, which does not allocate any
424 impact from the resource recovery processes to the recovered products, and the 50:50
425 approach, which allocates 50% of the impact from the resource recovery processes to the
426 recovered products. For the baseline scenario, the footprint with the zero-burden assumption
427 is 28, 80 and 64% lower than with the 100:0, “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive”
428 approaches, respectively. This difference slightly decreases when implementing the

429 alternative scenario: it becomes 27, 78 and 62% lower than with the 100:0, “50:50 adapted”
 430 and “linearly degressive” approaches, respectively.
 431 With the 0:100, 100:0 and 50:50 approaches, no impact from consumer goods production is
 432 allocated to the recovered products. For the baseline scenario, the process mainly
 433 contributing to the resource footprint when following the 100:0 and 50:50 approaches is
 434 incineration (48% of the footprint). The second contributor is the WWTP (28%), followed by
 435 the EcoPhos process (23%).



436
 437 **Figure 8:** Comparison of the resource footprint of the recovered products (bars) and the
 438 benchmark products (red dots) for the baseline and alternative scenarios, following the zero-
 439 burden assumption and the five allocation approaches.

440 In the alternative scenario, the contribution pattern changes for the 100:0 and 50:50
441 approaches: the contribution of incineration decreases to 28%, followed by wastewater
442 treatment (27%), EcoPhos ash refinery (21%) and anaerobic digestion (12%). Including a
443 digestion step between sludge dewatering and incineration reduces the amount of sludge
444 sent to incineration and the contribution of incineration (e.g., with the 100:0 approach, the
445 impact from incineration decreases from 1.1×10^8 to 6.8×10^7 MJ_{ex} per basket of recovered
446 products).

447 With the “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive” approaches, part of the impact from the
448 production of consumer goods is allocated to the recovered products. The production of
449 consumer goods becomes the first contributor to the footprint, with 85 and 74% of the impact
450 for the baseline scenario for the “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive” approaches,
451 respectively. The share of the impact from food products is slightly higher than the share
452 from non-food products (e.g., 48 and 37% of the footprint for the baseline scenario following
453 the “50:50 adapted” approach).

454 The resource footprint of the benchmark products with the 0:100 approach is higher than the
455 recovered products for both scenarios. This is because no impact is allocated to the
456 recovered products. For all the other approaches, the resource footprint of the recovered
457 products is higher than for the benchmark products. For example, the footprint of the
458 recovered products with the zero-burden assumption in the baseline scenario is 77% higher
459 (1.6×10^8 MJ_{ex} and 3.7×10^7 MJ_{ex} for the recovered and benchmark products, respectively).
460 This is line with Linderholm et al. (2012) who compared the resource footprint of P fertilizer
461 from mineral sources and from the valorisation of the bottom ashes from wastewater sludge
462 incineration. The authors found that the burden of mineral P is around 85% lower than for P
463 fertilizer obtained from bottom ashes. In the case presented here, this difference decreases
464 when implementing the alternative scenario (e.g., the resource footprint of the recovered
465 products with the zero-burden assumption becomes 43% higher than the benchmark

466 products). This is due to the large resource footprint of bus diesel replaced by biogas (53% of
467 the avoided footprint) and synthetic fertilizers replaced by struvite (12% of the avoided
468 footprint). Moreover, the valorisation of the sludge as biogas reduces the amount of sludge to
469 be incinerated, and reduces the amount of resources consumed for incineration. The case
470 that shows the least difference with the benchmark products is the alternative scenario
471 following the 50:50 approach. In this case, the resource footprint is 17% higher than the
472 benchmark scenario.

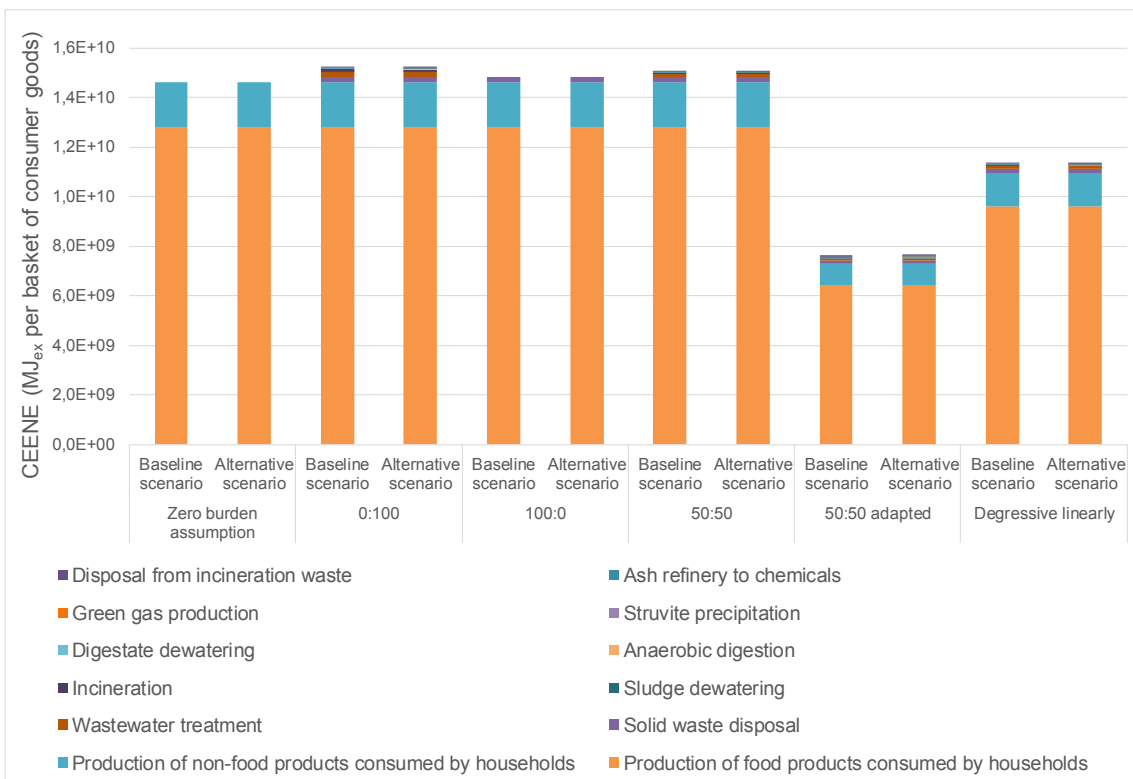
473 This case shows that for five out of the six allocation approaches, using products from the
474 valorisation of the ashes of wastewater sludge incineration consumes more resources than
475 using products from raw materials. However, it also shows that including valorisation steps
476 among the resource recovery processes reduces the resource footprint of the recovered
477 products. Other improvement options are still possible. For example, nitrogen is completely
478 lost during incineration, and the inclusion of nitrogen recovery steps such as air stripping of
479 ammonia could reduce the footprint of the recovered products. Moreover, Figure 6 shows
480 that a large fraction of phosphorus is valorized as roadfilling and landfill capping material
481 while it could be used for the production of higher value products.

482 As expected, allocating part of the resource use of consumer goods to the recovered
483 products strengthens the conclusions of the comparison and the potential of recovered
484 products to compete with the benchmark products becomes rather limited. However, in the
485 context of a circular economy, considering waste streams as resources is a requirement for a
486 successful implementation of the concept. This also implies that impact assessment
487 approaches account for this change of paradigm and discard the zero-burden assumption.
488 This is not favourable for the recovered products, which resource footprint becomes even
489 larger than the virgin material-based products. This is especially because the resource
490 footprint of consumer goods is more than 30 times higher than the one of the resource

491 recovery processes. It implies that measures to improve the footprint of recovered products
 492 should also include measures to reduce the contribution of consumer goods.

493 **3.2 Resource footprint of the consumer goods**

494 The order of magnitude of the resource footprint of the consumer goods is more than ten
 495 times higher than the one of the recovered products (Figure 9). This is due to the large
 496 resource footprint of their production, which represents more than 96% of their resource
 497 footprint.



498 **Figure 9:** Resource footprint of the consumer goods with the zero-burden assumption and
 499 the five allocation approaches.
 500

501 The first contributor is the production of the food products (84 to 88% of the footprint),
 502 followed by non-food products (12% for all approaches). With the zero-burden assumption
 503 and the 100:0 approaches, no impact from the resource recovery processes is allocated to

504 the consumer goods but for the latter, impact from solid waste disposal is allocated. The
505 0:100 and 50:50 approaches result in a slightly higher footprint as part of the impact from the
506 resource recovery processes is allocated to the consumer goods. However, they only
507 represent less than 3% of the footprint. The 0:100, 100:0 and 50:50 approaches result in a
508 footprint which is only 4, 2 and 3% higher than with the zero-burden assumption for both
509 scenarios. The “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive” approaches result in footprints 48
510 and 23% lower than with the zero-burden assumption for both scenarios. Therefore, while
511 allocating part of the impact of the resource recovery processes to the consumer goods
512 barely changes the resource footprint of these, allocating part of the impact of the consumer
513 goods production to the recovered products highly contributes to decrease the footprint of the
514 consumer goods.

515 **4. Discussion**

516 Choosing one allocation approach of environmental burden over another can appear
517 arbitrary. However, the compliance of the approaches with the concepts of industrial ecology
518 can still be discussed for this case study. Industrial ecology is based on the concept of
519 waste-as-a-resource. It considers products intended to be produced, and secondary
520 resources, which are unintended but can contribute to obtain new products and depend on
521 the intended products to be produced. On the other hand, the unintended secondary
522 resources should be safely managed as a consequence of the production of the intended
523 products. The concept of industrial ecology highlights a “hierarchy of intent” (intended
524 products and secondary resources), and a dependence of all products from the system to
525 one another. First, some allocation approaches do not allocate any impact of virgin raw
526 materials extraction and processing to the recovered products (the zero-burden, 0:100, 100:0
527 and 50:50 approaches). This does not reflect the dependence of the recovered products to

528 the intended products as they could not be produced without extraction and processing. On
529 the other hand, the 100:0 approach fully allocates the impact of this processing to the
530 recovered products while these processes are a consequence of the production of consumer
531 goods. Therefore, based on the concept of the producer's responsibility often used to
532 promote the implementation of the industrial ecology principles, part of the burden from
533 recovery processes should be allocated to the consumer goods. The "50:50 adapted"
534 approach allocates equally the impact from the raw materials extraction and processing to
535 the consumer goods and the recovered products, while the original goal of these processes
536 is to produce consumer goods. This approach considers the dependence of products but not
537 the "hierarchy of intent". The "linearly degressive" approach appears to consider both the
538 dependence of the products to one another and the "hierarchy of intent" and to translate best
539 the concepts of industrial ecology in the modelling.

540 In this study, the "linearly degressive" approach considers an allocation of the environmental
541 burdens based on a 75:25 ratio based on Allacker et al. (2017). Other approaches could be
542 investigated to define the values for allocating the impact along the chain. One possibility is
543 to consider the ratio of the gate fee at the entrance of the recovery processes over the cost
544 to run these processes. It could represent the share of the impact from these processes that
545 can be allocated to the waste treatment function, and allocated to the consumer goods. The
546 remaining fraction can be fully allocated to the recovered products. A similar approach can
547 be applied to allocate the impact of consumer goods production.

548 The results presented in this study are obtained using the resource-based method CEENE.
549 Sensitivity and uncertainty analyses could be conducted to identify the most important
550 parameters and the significance of the results. Moreover, other conclusions might be drawn
551 when using other resource-based methods that consider issues related to resource
552 availability or scarcity such as the ADP (van Oers et al., 2002) and the Ecological scarcity
553 (Frischknecht et al., 2013) methods. Using such methods could potentially change the

554 difference of resource footprint between the recovered and benchmark products. Similarly,
555 other results might be obtained when conducting an emission-based impact assessment in
556 which the emissions of the different processes along the chain (e.g., release of heavy metals
557 in the Dommel river after the WWTP) would be allocated to the different products.

558 Another point of attention when applying the proposed approach is the consistency of the
559 modelling approaches followed in the foreground and background systems. Several
560 allocation approaches were tested in the foreground system but the allocation approach used
561 to model the background system is “fixed” (“allocation at the point of substitution” from the
562 ecoinvent database). The approach “allocation at the point of substitution” should in principle
563 consider all waste streams as co-products of the process they are produced from. However,
564 some discrepancies and unclarity can be found with this approach. While the approach is
565 applied to municipal solid waste, it is not clear in what extend it is also applied to other waste
566 streams such as sewage sludge. Similarly, the end-of-life formulas applied in the foreground
567 system are not applied in the background system modelled with the ecoinvent database.
568 Applying them in the background system would make the study more consistent and
569 probably change the results of the analysis. However, the implementation of such an
570 approach in LCI databases would require a deep rethinking of how products and processes
571 are linked to each other.

572 In the two studied scenarios, solid waste from food consumption is assumed to be
573 incinerated without valorisation. This assumption was made to simplify the scenarios (in the
574 Netherlands, only 2.5% of municipal waste is disposed of without further valorisation; OECD
575 (2018)), as the focus was on the wastewater treatment chain and not solid waste
576 management. If solid waste valorisation is considered, the end-of-life formulas should also be
577 applied to the solid waste treatment processes. It highlights the complexity of the practical
578 implementation of the approach, especially for the calculation of the footprint of the consumer
579 goods.

580 Another point is that the approach presented in this study can only be applied when
581 comparing sewage sludge valorisation and benchmark products, or to account for the credits
582 of avoided production. A study that would not compare the recovered and benchmark
583 products and would not account for the credits from avoided production would require
584 knowing the fate of these products, i.e., if they are further recycled after use or disposed of.
585 Accounting for these steps might slightly change the difference of resource footprint between
586 the recovered and virgin material-based products. It is therefore important to keep in mind
587 that the analysis is conducted up to the gate of the recycled products, as indicated in the
588 system boundary section, which provides insights in the context of a comparison. This
589 means that the presented resource footprint of the products only represents the partial
590 resource footprint of these products, as it does not include downstream processes such as
591 further recycling or disposal. However, as highlighted in Allacker et al. (2017), the feasibility
592 to access downstream information is very low as producers most of the time lose track of
593 their products after use.

594 **5. Conclusion**

595 The paradigm shift from a linear to a circular economy is changing the practice of product
596 design, production and consumption. Similarly, the practice of sustainability assessment
597 should adapt to this new paradigm. The goal of this study was to propose a novel approach
598 to assess the environmental sustainability of products obtained from the valorisation of
599 household wastewater sludge. This approach was applied to the wastewater and associated
600 sludge treatment chain of Eindhoven. First, the process chain had to be partitioned based on
601 partitioning factors. Exergy-based factors were chosen. Secondly, five approaches presented
602 in Allacker et al. (2017) were tested. The results show that discarding the zero-burden
603 assumption and applying the different allocation approaches only has a large impact on the

604 resource footprint of the consumer goods when following the “50:50 adapted” and “linearly
605 degressive” approaches. However, it has large consequences on the footprint of the
606 recovered products. Except with the 0:100 and the 50:50 approaches, discarding the zero-
607 burden assumption results in a resource footprint 27 to 80% higher than with the zero-burden
608 assumption. While environmental impact assessment methods should apply the paradigm
609 shift from a linear to a circular economy by considering wastewater as a resource, the
610 interest of discarding the zero-burden assumption in this case becomes debatable for
611 stakeholders producing these recovered products. A discussion on the “fairness” of each of
612 these approaches resulted in selecting the “linearly degressive” approach as it shares the
613 impacts over the process chain the most consistently according to the principles of industrial
614 ecology. However, it is a data-intensive approach as data on consumer goods consumption
615 need to be gathered. The selection of an approach could depend on the incentives that
616 policy makers want to give to each of the actors along the chain. A similar idea is followed in
617 the BPX30-323-0, the French repository for good practices on communication of the
618 environmental impact of products. It proposes to choose different allocation factors to pull the
619 market of recycled products depending if the market for secondary materials is in equilibrium
620 or not. The 0:100 and 50:50 approaches are the most favourable for the producers of
621 recovered products compared to the zero-burden assumption followed today in LCA studies.
622 The “50:50 adapted” and “linearly degressive” approaches are the least favourable but might
623 be interesting approaches for policy makers as they provide an overview of the contribution
624 of consumption to the footprint of recovered products. The results of this analysis encourage
625 policy makers to take action towards less resource-intensive consumption patterns. An
626 interesting future analysis could be to evaluate the impact of those consumption patterns on
627 the resource footprint of the recovered products.

628 The study also shows that policy makers could more extensively use LCA results to
629 encourage resource recovery steps from sludge (e.g., anaerobic digestion, struvite

630 precipitation) and define a hierarchy for the management of sludge ashes (e.g., fertilizer
631 production prior to before roadfilling material, prior to landfilling). More studies should be
632 reviewed and conducted to support policy making in this way. Moreover, aiming for
633 recovered products with a lower footprint than virgin material-based equivalents with the
634 “linearly degressive” approach would strongly position the wastewater sector as a key player
635 of a sustainable circular economy.

636 **Acknowledgements**

637 The authors thank Ghent University for providing funding for this research. The authors thank
638 Alexandra Deeke from Waterschap De Dommel and Faezeh Mahdavi from Ghent University
639 for their help in data collection and scenario definition as well as Fabrice Mathieux from the
640 Joint Research Centre (European Commission), Arne Verliefde and Sue Ellen Taelman from
641 Ghent University and Gert Vanhoof and Diederik Schowanek from Procter & Gamble for their
642 valuable feedback on the manuscript.

- 644 2.-0 LCA Consultants. (2003). LCA Food Database. <http://www.lcafood.dk/>.
- 645 AISE. (2014). PAN-European consumer survey on sustainability and washing habits. Summary of
646 findings, 2014. [https://www.aise.eu/newsroom/newsroom/aise-releases-results-of-pan-](https://www.aise.eu/newsroom/newsroom/aise-releases-results-of-pan-european-consumer-habits-survey-2014.aspx)
647 [european-consumer-habits-survey-2014.aspx](https://www.aise.eu/newsroom/newsroom/aise-releases-results-of-pan-european-consumer-habits-survey-2014.aspx).
- 648 Allacker, K., Mathieux, F., Pennington, D., & Pant, R. (2017). The search for an appropriate end-of-life
649 formula for the purpose of the European Commission Environmental Footprint initiative. *The*
650 *International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 1-18. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/s11367-016-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11367-016-1244-0)
651 [1244-0](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11367-016-1244-0)
- 652 Alloul, A., Ganigué, R., Spiller, M., Meerburg, F., Cagnetta, C., Rabaey, K., & Vlaeminck, S. E. (2018).
653 Capture–Ferment–Upgrade: A Three-Step Approach for the Valorization of Sewage Organics
654 as Commodities. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 52(12), 6729-6742.
655 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b05712>
- 656 Amann, A., Zoboli, O., Krampe, J., Rechberger, H., Zessner, M., & Egle, L. (2018). Environmental
657 impacts of phosphorus recovery from municipal wastewater. *Resources, Conservation and*
658 *Recycling*, 130, 127-139. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2017.11.002>
- 659 Birgisdóttir, H., Bhandar, G., Hauschild, M. Z., & Christensen, T. H. (2007). Life cycle assessment of
660 disposal of residues from municipal solid waste incineration: Recycling of bottom ash in road
661 construction or landfilling in Denmark evaluated in the ROAD-RES model. *Waste*
662 *Management*, 27(8), S75-S84. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2007.02.016>
- 663 Blom, B. (2013). Milieuprestatie 2013 : beheren afvalwaterketen / Waterschap De Dommel.
664 <http://library.wur.nl/WebQuery/hydrotheek/1965591>.
- 665 Blonk Consultants. (2017). The Agri-footprint database. <http://www.agri-footprint.com>.
- 666 Chen, C., Habert, G., Bouzidi, Y., Jullien, A., & Ventura, A. (2010). LCA allocation procedure used as an
667 incitative method for waste recycling: An application to mineral additions in concrete.
668 *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 54(12), 1231-1240.
669 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2010.04.001>
- 670 Dewulf, J., Bösch, M. E., Meester, B. D., Vorst, G. V. d., Langenhove, H. V., Hellweg, S., & Huijbregts,
671 M. A. J. (2007). Cumulative Exergy Extraction from the Natural Environment (CEENE): a
672 comprehensive Life Cycle Impact Assessment method for resource accounting.
673 *Environmental Science & Technology*, 41(24), 8477-8483.
674 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1021/es0711415>
- 675 Djuric Ilic, D., Eriksson, O., Ödlund, L., & Åberg, M. (2018). No zero burden assumption in a circular
676 economy. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 182, 352-362.
677 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.02.031>
- 678 EC. (2013). Recommendations on the use of common methods to measure and communicate the life
679 cycle environmental performance of products and organisations. Official Journal of the
680 European Union. 2013/179/EU.
- 681 Ekvall, T., Assefa, G., Björklund, A., Eriksson, O., & Finnveden, G. (2007). What life-cycle assessment
682 does and does not do in assessments of waste management. *Waste management (New York,*
683 *N.Y.)*, 27(8), 989-996. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2007.02.015>
- 684 Ellen MacArthur Foundation. (2017). The Circular Economy: A Wealth of Flows - 2nd Edition.
685 [https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/publications/the-circular-economy-a-wealth-of-](https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/publications/the-circular-economy-a-wealth-of-flows-2nd-edition)
686 [flows-2nd-edition](https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/publications/the-circular-economy-a-wealth-of-flows-2nd-edition) (last accessed on 10-12-2018).

687 Finnveden, G. (1999). Methodological aspects of life cycle assessment of integrated solid waste
688 management systems. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 26(3), 173-187.
689 doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-3449\(99\)00005-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-3449(99)00005-1)

690 Frischknecht, R., & Büsler Knöpfel, S. (2013). *Swiss Eco-Factors 2013 according to the Ecological*
691 *Scarcity Method. Methodological fundamentals and their application in Switzerland*
692 (Environmental studies no. 1330). Retrieved from Bern, Switzerland:

693 Frischknecht, R., & Rebitzer, G. (2005). The ecoinvent database system: a comprehensive web-based
694 LCA database. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 13(13-14), 1337-1343.
695 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2005.05.002>

696 Golsteijn, L., Menkveld, R., King, H., Schneider, C., Schowanek, D., & Nissen, S. (2015). A compilation
697 of life cycle studies for six household detergent product categories in Europe: the basis for
698 product-specific A.I.S.E. Charter Advanced Sustainability Profiles. *Environmental Sciences*
699 *Europe*, 27(1), 23. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12302-015-0055-4>

700 Guyonnet, D., Touze-Foltz, N., Norotte, V., Pothier, C., Didier, G., Gailhanou, H., Blanc, P., &
701 Warmont, F. (2009). Performance-based indicators for controlling geosynthetic clay liners in
702 landfill applications. *Geotextiles and Geomembranes*, 27(5), 321-331.
703 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geotexmem.2009.02.002>

704 Ishii, S. K. L., & Boyer, T. H. (2015). Life cycle comparison of centralized wastewater treatment and
705 urine source separation with struvite precipitation: Focus on urine nutrient management.
706 *Water Research*, 79, 88-103. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2015.04.010>

707 ISO. (2006a). ISO 14040: Environmental Management – Life Cycle Assessment – Principles and
708 Framework. International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, Switzerland.

709 ISO. (2006b). ISO 14044: Environmental Management – Life Cycle Assessment – Requirements and
710 Guidelines. International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, Switzerland.

711 IWA. (2016). Water Utility Pathways in a Circular Economy. International Water Association 2016
712 (<http://www.iwa-network.org/>).

713 Jossa, P., & Remy, C. (2015). Life Cycle Assessment of selected processes for P recovery from sewage
714 sludge, sludge liquor, or ash. Deliverable 9.2 of the P-REX project (<http://www.p-rex.eu/>).

715 Linderholm, K., Tillman, A.-M., & Mattsson, J. E. (2012). Life cycle assessment of phosphorus
716 alternatives for Swedish agriculture. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 66, 27-39.
717 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2012.04.006>

718 LNV. (2010). Fact Sheet: Food Waste in the Netherlands. May 2010.
719 [http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/nr/sustainability_pathways/docs/4_Fact%20She](http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/nr/sustainability_pathways/docs/4_Fact%20Sheet%20Food%20Waste%20in%20the%20Netherlands.pdf)
720 [et%20Food%20Waste%20in%20the%20Netherlands.pdf](http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/nr/sustainability_pathways/docs/4_Fact%20Sheet%20Food%20Waste%20in%20the%20Netherlands.pdf) .

721 Mady, C. E. K., & Oliveira Junior, S. D. (2013). Human Body Exergy Metabolism. *International Journal*
722 *of Thermodynamics*, 16(2), 73-80.

723 Mahmood, A. U., Greenman, J., & Scragg, A. H. (1998). Orange and potato peel extracts: Analysis and
724 use as Bacillus substrates for the production of extracellular enzymes in continuous culture.
725 *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 22(2), 130-137. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(97)00150-6)
726 [0229\(97\)00150-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(97)00150-6)

727 Notarnicola, B., Tassielli, G., Renzulli, P. A., Castellani, V., & Sala, S. (2017). Environmental impacts of
728 food consumption in Europe. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 140(Part 2), 753-765.
729 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.06.080>

730 OECD. (2018). Environment Database - Municipal waste, Generation and Treatment.
731 <https://stats.oecd.org> (last accessed on 03-08-2018).

732 Oldfield, T., & Holden, N. M. (2014). An evaluation of upstream assumptions in food-waste life cycle
733 assessments. 926-933.

734 Pradel, M., Aissani, L., Villot, J., Baudez, J. C., & Laforest, V. (2016). From waste to added value
735 product: towards a paradigm shift in life cycle assessment applied to wastewater sludge - a
736 review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *131*, 60-75.
737 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.05.076>

738 Puyol, D., Batstone, D. J., Hülsen, T., Astals, S., Peces, M., & Krömer, J. O. (2017). Resource Recovery
739 from Wastewater by Biological Technologies: Opportunities, Challenges, and Prospects.
740 *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *7*(2106). doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.02106

741 RIVM. (2002). Factsheet Cosmetica. Ten behoeve van de schatting van de risico's voor de consument.
742 RIVM rapport 612810013/2002. http://www.rivm.nl/en/Topics/C/ConsExpo/Fact_sheets.

743 RIVM. (2006). Cleaning Products Fact Sheet To assess the risks for the consumer. RIVM report
744 320104003/2006.

745 RIVM. (2011). Dutch National Food Consumption Survey 2007-2010. Diet of children and adults aged
746 7 to 69 years. <http://www.rivm.nl>.

747 Sijstermans, L., & van der Stee, M. (2013). Milieujaarverslag 2013. N.V. Slibverwerking Noord-
748 Brabant. R.14.002/Milieujaarverslag 2013.

749 Spinosa, L., Ayol, A., Baudez, J.-C., Canziani, R., Jenicek, P., Leonard, A., Rulkens, W., Xu, G., & Van
750 Dijk, L. (2011). Sustainable and Innovative Solutions for Sewage Sludge Management. *Water*,
751 *3*(2), 702.

752 van Oers, L., de Koning, A., Guinée, J. B., & Huppes, G. (2002). *Abiotic resource depletion in LCA*.
753 Retrieved from Leiden:

754 Vanrolleghem, P. A., & Vaneckhaute, C. (2014). Resource recovery from wastewater and sludge:
755 modelling and control challenges. Global Challenges : Sustainable Wastewater Treatment
756 and Resource Recovery, IWA Specialist conference, Papers. Presented at the IWA Specialist
757 conference on Global Challenges : Sustainable Wastewater Treatment and Resource
758 Recovery, International Water Association (IWA).

759 Verstraete, W., Clauwaert, P., & Vlaeminck, S. E. (2016). Used water and nutrients: Recovery
760 perspectives in a 'panta rhei' context. *Bioresource Technology*, *215*, 199-208.
761 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2016.04.094>

762 Verstraete, W., & Vlaeminck, S. E. (2011). ZeroWasteWater: short-cycling of wastewater resources
763 for sustainable cities of the future. *International Journal of Sustainable Development & World
764 Ecology*, *18*(3), 253-264. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13504509.2011.570804>

765 Weidema, B. P., Bauer, C., Hischier, R., Mutel, C., Nemecek, T., Reinhard, J., Vadenbo, C. O., &
766 Wernet, G. (2013). Overview and methodology. Data quality guideline for the ecoinvent
767 database version 3.

768

Table 1

Allocation approach	Description
<i>0:100</i>	Full allocation of the recycling impact to the intended product and no burden allocated to downstream products using secondary materials.
<i>100:0</i>	Full allocation of the recycling impact to the product using secondary material, with no burden from recycling operations allocated to the intended product. This approach is usually followed in LCA. In this case study, it is different from the zero-burden assumption as the latter does not consider the WWTP as a resource recovery process while the 100:0 applied here does.
<i>50:50</i>	Allocation of the recycling impact to the intended product and 50% to the product using the secondary material.
<i>50:50 adapted</i>	Distributes the impacts due to recycling in a 50:50 manner over the different products in the overall product cascade system but also the virgin material and disposal impact.
<i>Linearly degressive</i>	Uses the 50:50 approach for the allocation of the recycling impact. Allocates the impact of the virgin material in a linearly degressive way to all products in the product cascade system, allocating the highest share of impact to the first product. Same approach with disposal, but allocating the highest share of impact to the last product.

Table 1: Description of the selected allocation approaches

Table 2

Products	Current scenario	Alternative scenario
Roadfilling material	2.1×10^6	1.1×10^6
Landfill capping material	7.3×10^5	4.1×10^5
Phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4)	2.6×10^4	2.1×10^4
Calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$)	6.6×10^4	5.6×10^4
Iron chloride solution 40% ($FeCl_3$)	3.3×10^3	2.8×10^3
Carbon dioxide for $CaCO_3$ production	2.5×10^6	2.5×10^6
Kilometres driven by city buses	0	2.6×10^6 (*)
Phosphorus fertilizer, as P_2O_5	0	1.1×10^5
Nitrogen fertilizer, as N	0	2.2×10^4

(*) $km\ year^{-1}$

Table 2: Basket of products chosen to compare the resource footprint of the current and baseline scenarios with their benchmark scenarios (in $kg\ year^{-1}$ unless specified).

Figure 1

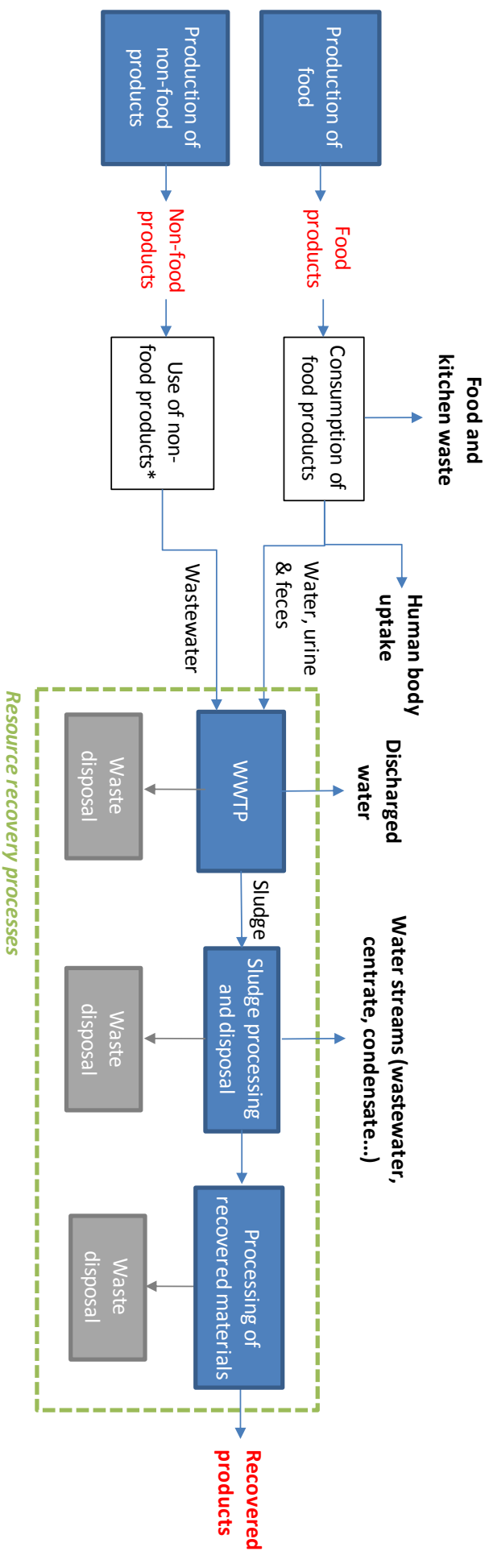


Figure 1: Wastewater value chain (* non-food products ending in the sewer).

Figure 2

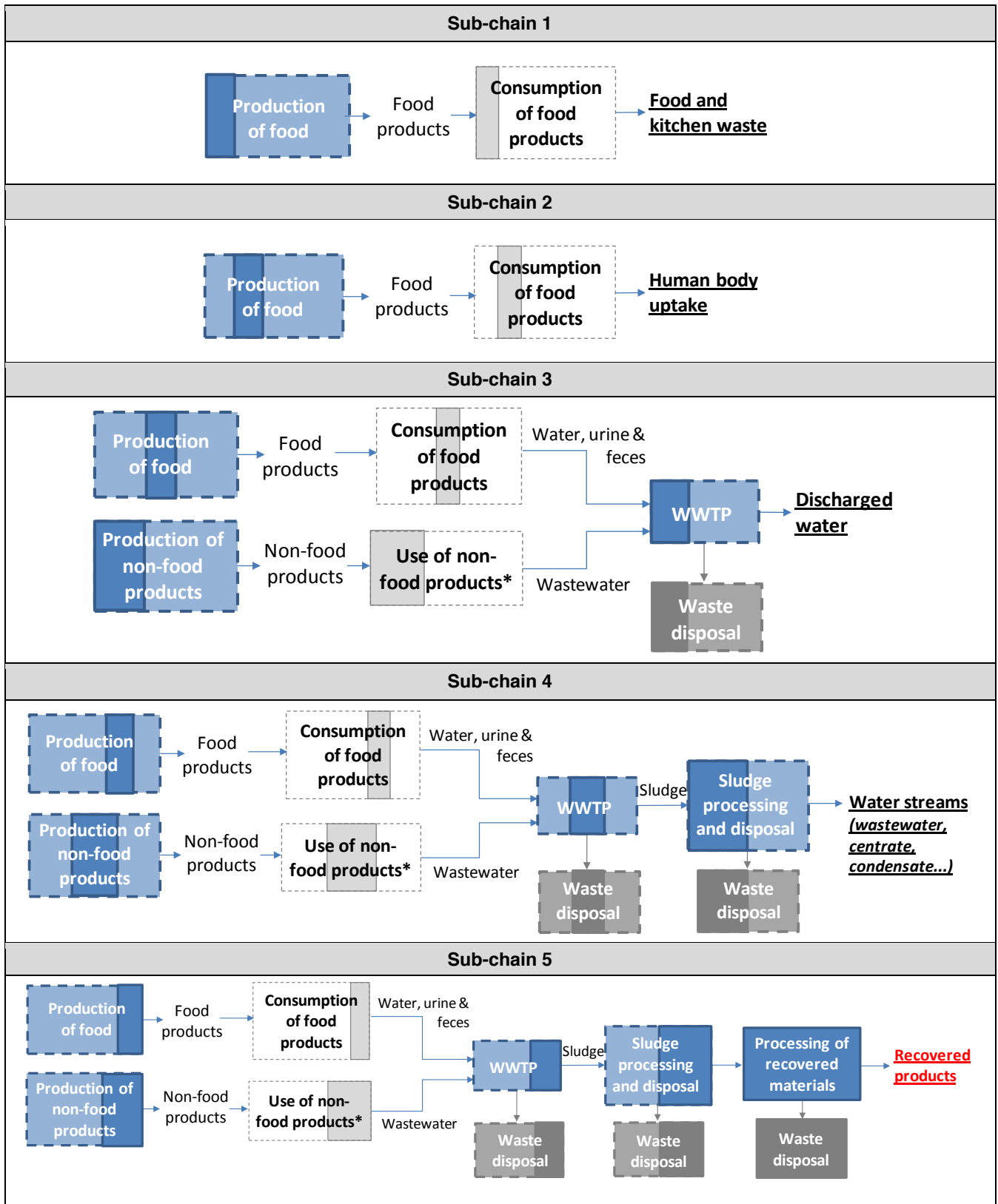


Figure 2: Partitioning of the wastewater value chain presented in Figure 1 (the darker portions indicate the partitioning of the processes in each sub-chain; * non-food products ending in the sewer).

Figure 3

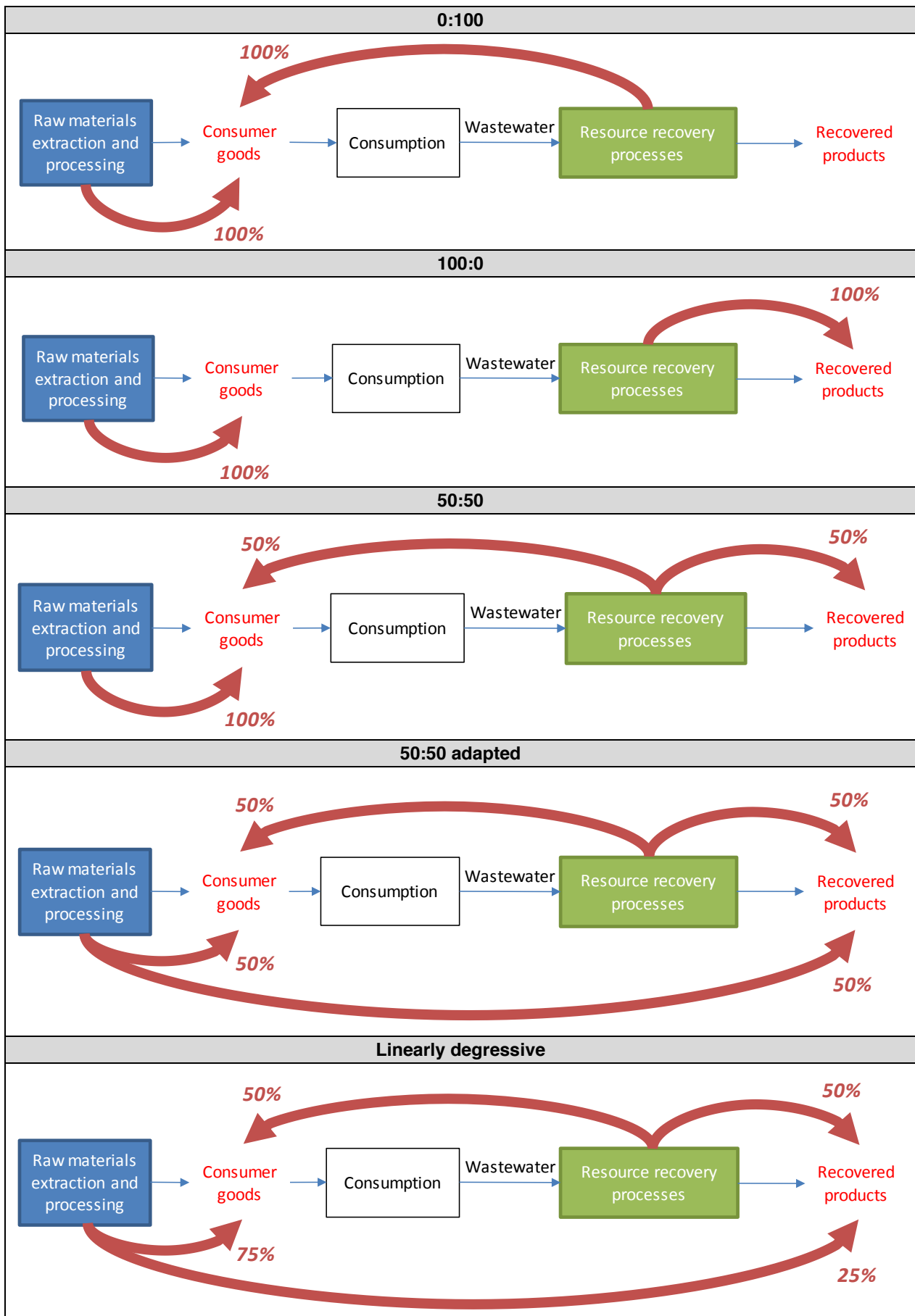


Figure 3: Visualization of each allocation approach. Red arrows represent the allocation of the environmental burden of processes to specific products (in red: consumer goods or recovered products). Percentages represent the share of the environmental burdens.

Figure 4

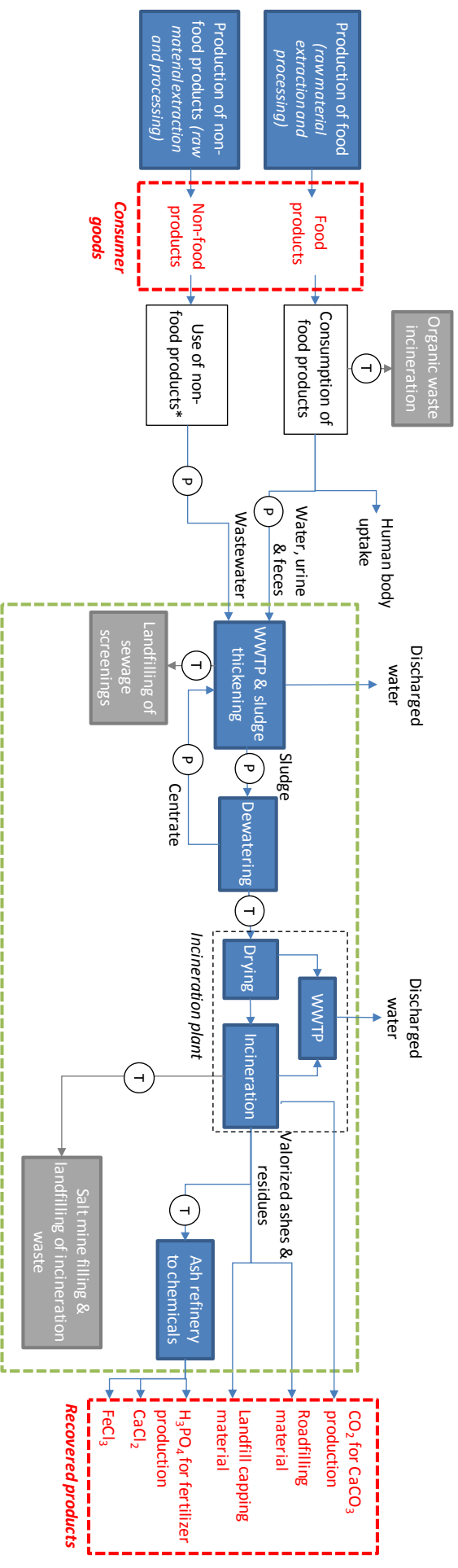


Figure 4: Baseline scenario (the grey boxes represent the disposal processes; the white process boxes are excluded from the system boundaries; WWTP: Wastewater treatment plant; T: Transport by truck; P: Transport by pipeline; * non-food products ending in the sewer).

Figure 5

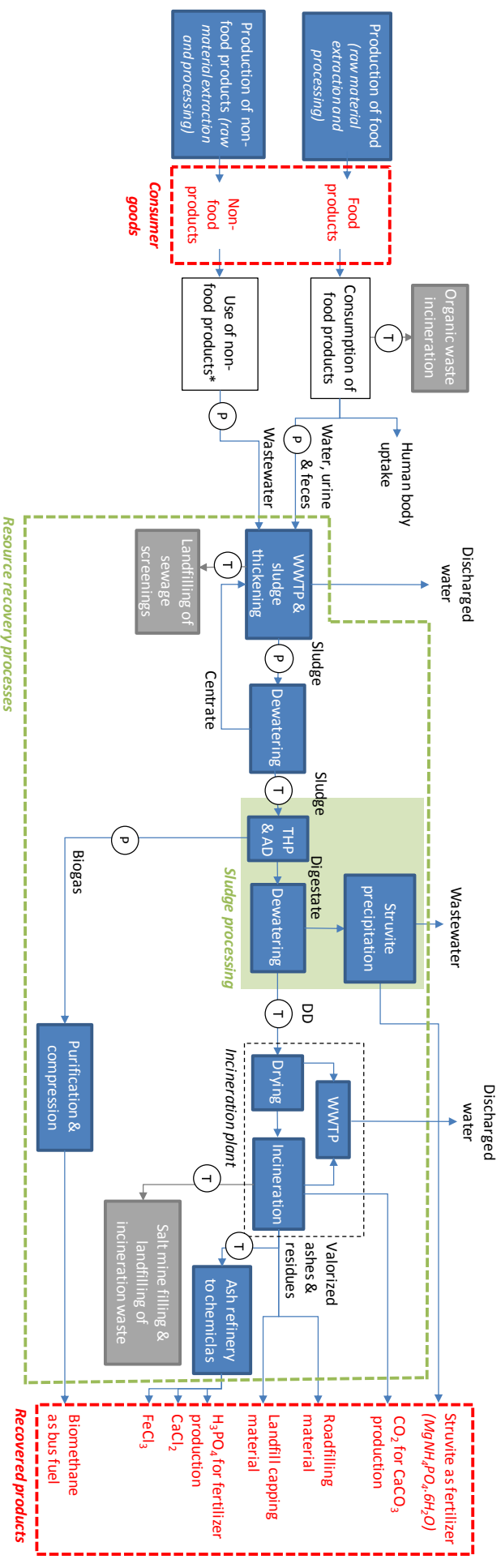
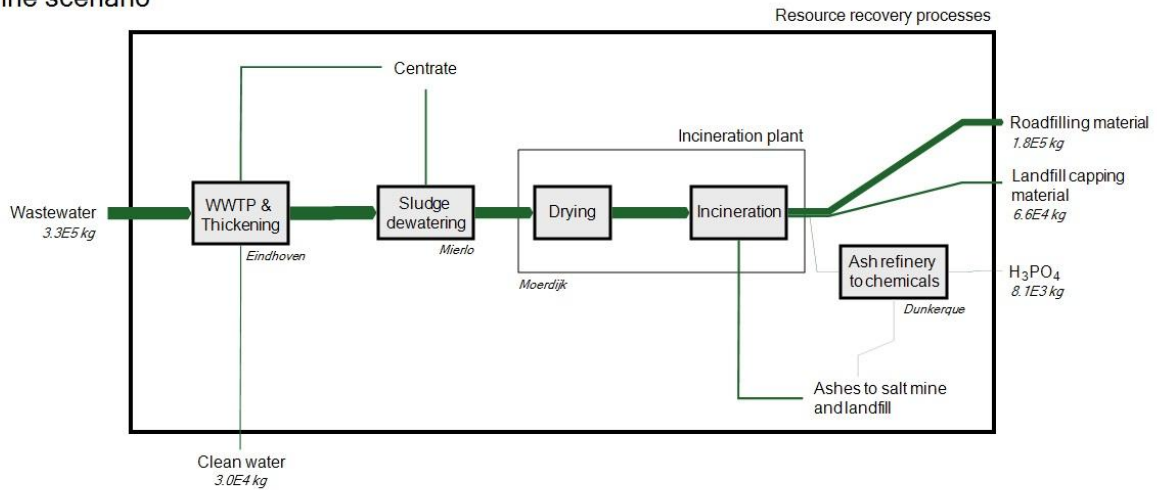


Figure 5: Alternative scenario (the grey boxes represent the disposal processes; the white process boxes are excluded from the system boundaries; WWTP: Wastewater treatment plant; THP: Thermo Hydrolysis Process; AD: Anaerobic Digestion; DD: Dewatered Digestate; T: Transport by truck; P: Transport by pipeline; * non-food products ending in the sewer).

Figure 6

Baseline scenario



Alternative scenario

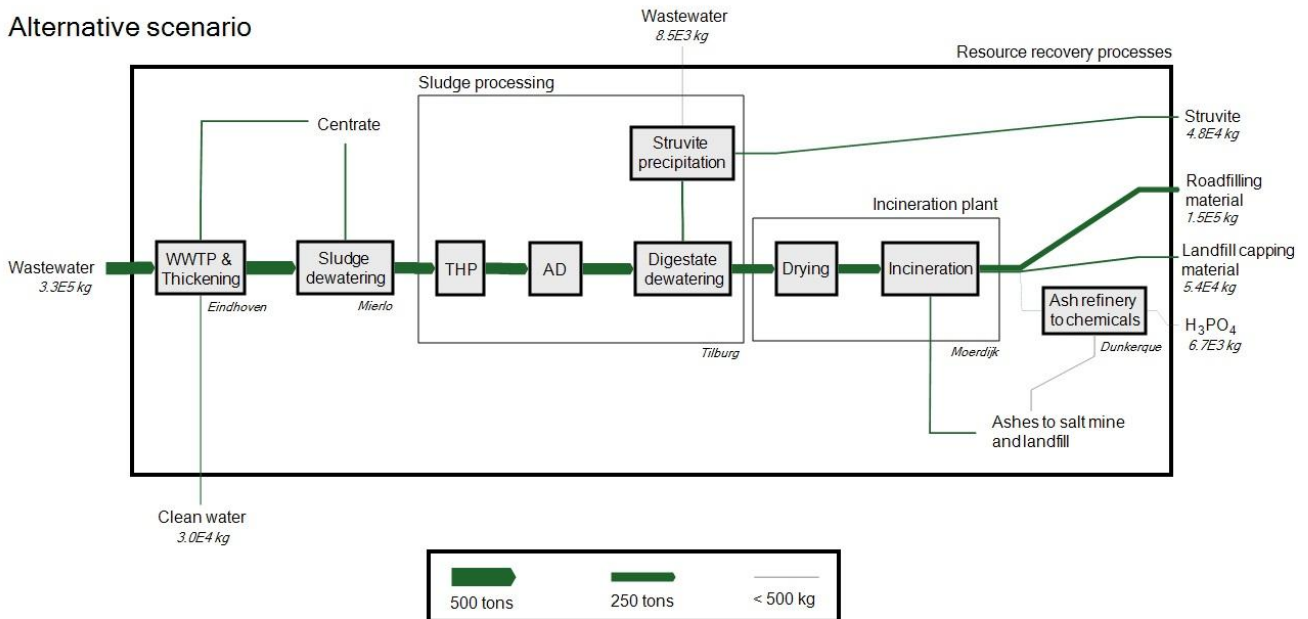


Figure 6: Phosphorus flows within the resource recovery processes, in kg per basket of recovered products (*THP: Thermal Hydrolysis Process; AD: Anaerobic Digestion; WWTP: Wastewater Treatment Plant; italic numbers: amount of phosphorus; italic names: location of facilities*).

Figure 8

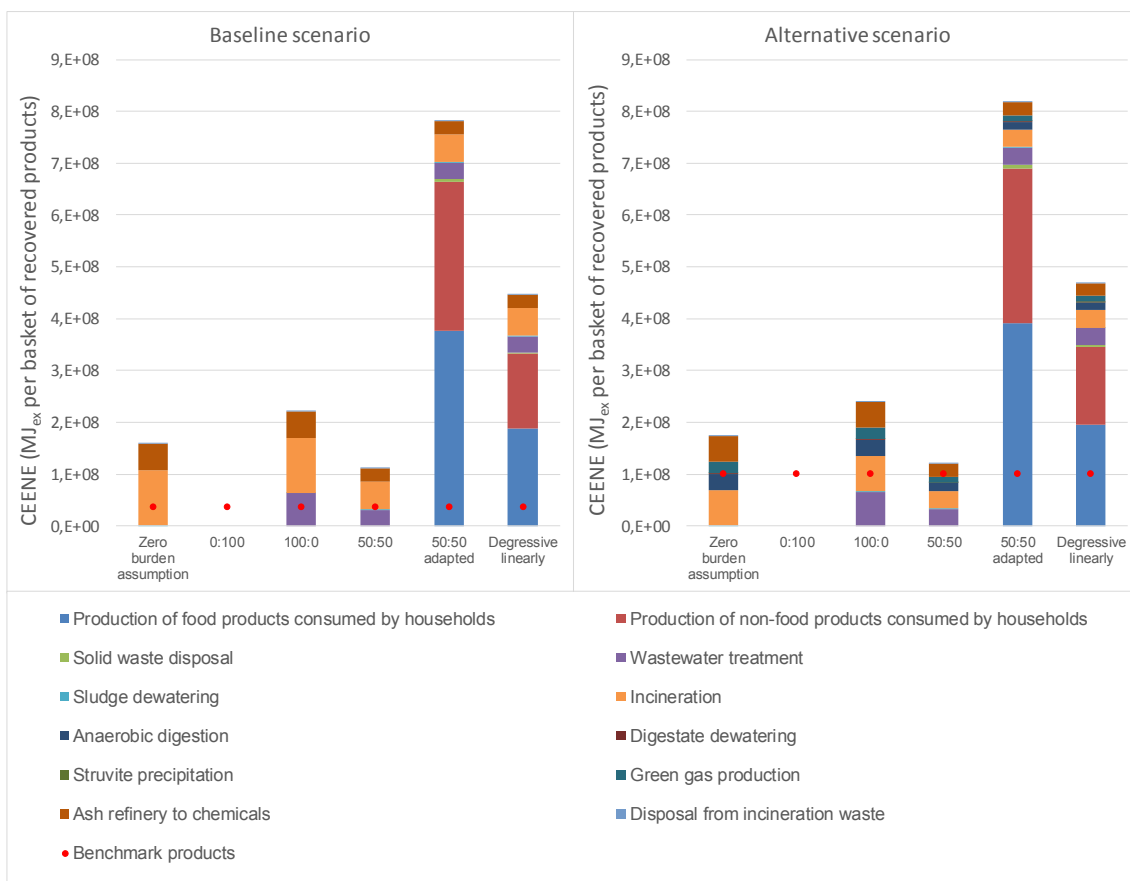


Figure 8: Comparison of the resource footprint of the recovered products (bars) and the benchmark products (red dots) for the baseline and alternative scenarios, following the zero-burden assumption and the five allocation approaches.

Figure 9

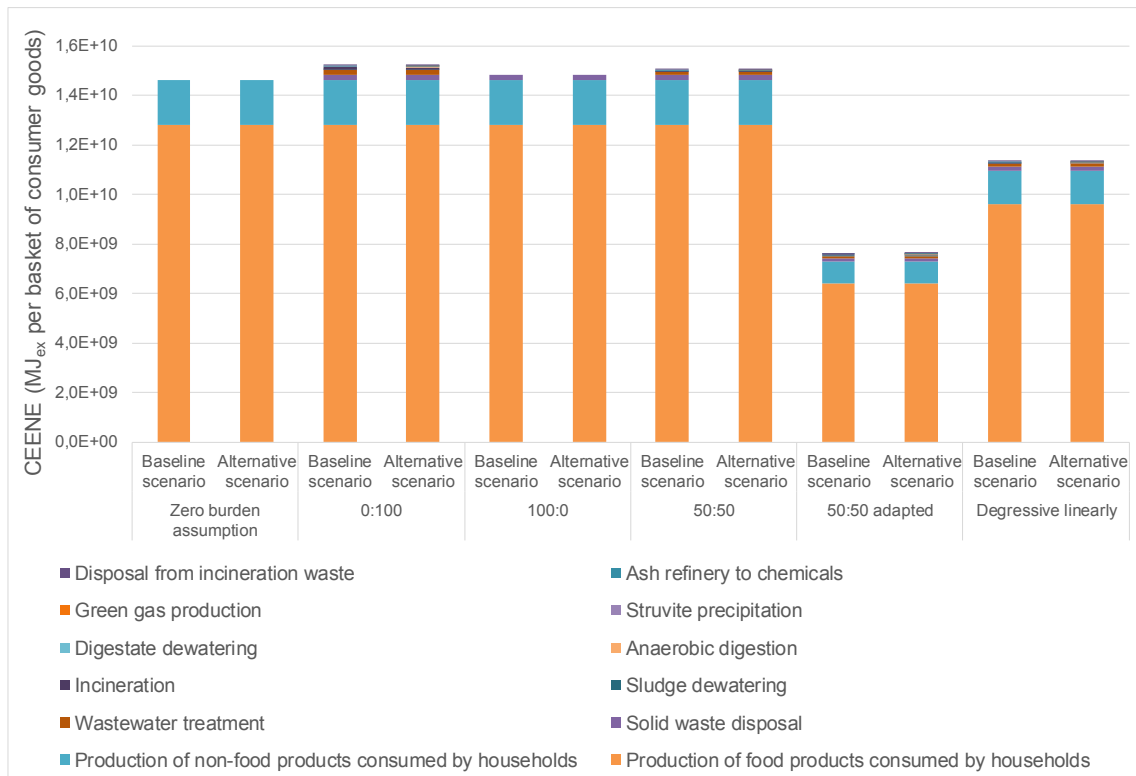


Figure 9: Resource footprint of the consumer goods with the zero-burden assumption and the five allocation approaches.