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1 **Eco-efficient process improvement at early development stage: identifying environmen-**
2 **tal and economic process hotspots for synergetic improvement potential**

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17 **Abstract**

18

19 We present here a new eco-efficiency process improvement method to highlight combined
20 environmental and costs hotspots of the production process of new material at a very early
21 development stage. Production specific and scaled-up results for life cycle assessment (LCA)
22 and production costs are combined in a new analysis to identify synergetic improvement po-
23 tentials and trade-offs, setting goals for the eco-design of new processes. The identified
24 hotspots and bottlenecks will help users to focus on the relevant steps for improvements from
25 an eco-efficiency perspective and potentially reduce their associated environmental impacts
26 and production costs. Our method is illustrated with a case study of nanocellulose. The results
27 indicate that the production route should start with carrot pomace, use heat and solvent recov-
28 ery and deactivate the enzymes with bleach instead of heat. To further improve the process,
29 the results show that focus should be laid on the carrier polymer, sodium alginate, and the
30 production of the *GripX* coating. Overall, the method shows that the underlying LCA scale-up
31 framework is valuable for purposes beyond conventional LCA studies and is applicable at a
32 very early stage to provide researchers with a better understanding of their production pro-
33 cess.

34

35

36 **Keywords**

37 scale-up, sustainable chemistry, sustainable innovation, eco-design, eco-efficiency, process
38 improvement

39 **Introduction**

40

41 Life cycle assessment (LCA) has been established as an internationally accepted tool to meas-
42 ure the environmental impact of processes, products and services. As such, it is helpful in as-
43 sessing and informing the development of new materials and processes that aim to achieve a
44 more sustainable profile. During the early development stages of R&D, the degree of flexibil-
45 ity is still high and changes can be implemented at relatively low costs.¹ Throughout the vari-
46 ous phases from laboratory research to possibly mini- and then pilot-plant before finally
47 building a large-scale production plant, the incurring costs for altering the process increase
48 drastically.² As a consequence, it seems recommendable to define and find the right proce-
49 dures as early in the development process as possible.

50 The problems with early stage assessments are threefold: a) the lack of data;³ b) particularly
51 for chemical processes, final large-scale production plants (machineries, reactors, pipes, etc.)
52 are not at all comparable to their respective early stage lab-scale processes. This makes it im-
53 practical to use extrapolation factors from the laboratory results to predict environmental im-
54 pacts; and c) the lab-scale process has not yet been optimized and lacks the economies of
55 scales of a production plant. An LCA of a new product under development does not therefore
56 sufficiently reflect its potential environmental impact.

57 In the literature, several studies and methods can be found that aim at integrating environmen-
58 tal impacts into process design. Sugiyama and co-workers presented a stage-gate decision
59 framework for chemical process design.⁴ They rely on the assumption that energy loss (during
60 reaction and separation) is an indicator of potential environmental impacts and financial costs
61 and is composed of five weighted values, namely the presence of water, product concentra-
62 tion, min. boiling point difference, inherent waste amount and reaction energy.⁵ Specifically
63 for the laboratory stage, a quick preliminary assessment of chemical processes was presented
64 based on the aforementioned stage-gate decision framework.⁶ In this method, five weighted

65 economic and environmental parameters contribute to the final score. Other approaches pro-
66 posed to model lifecycle inventory data and certain LCA impact categories of chemicals by
67 only looking at the molecular structure of the target molecule.^{7,8} In a review of early stage en-
68 vironmental assessment of bio-based chemicals, 33 methods were examined and categorized
69 into two groups; full assessments and early stage methods.⁹ The latter was thereby further
70 broken-down into single- and multi-indicator methods. The authors concluded that the full as-
71 sessments have a broad coverage of the environmental assessment issues. However, since
72 those assessments are data intensive, it is difficult to apply them during R&D, especially at an
73 early stage. On the other hand, early stage methods offer a limited coverage but can be more
74 easily applied. It is stressed that the primary goal should be to identify critical issues as early
75 as possible and steer the R&D in the right direction.

76 None of the cited articles assessed potential environmental impacts through the modeling of a
77 scaled-up cradle-to-gate production plant of the specific lab process. Azapagic and co-
78 workers describe in their methodology how to include sustainability consideration into pro-
79 cess design during the various design stages.¹⁰ Only in the detailed design stage is a cradle-to-
80 gate LCA of the process included. However, this takes place at a more advanced stage and no
81 indication on how the laboratory process can be translated into large-scale production is giv-
82 en. Having such a detailed LCA study already in the preliminary stage of the process design,
83 would therefore help in improving the process design.

84 Studies to determine scaling laws for LCA with empirical data of different energy equipment
85 have already been published.^{11,12} The comparison of empirical data with theoretical engineer-
86 ing-based values helped to distinguish between learning and scaling effects.¹³ For cases where
87 a pilot plant has been installed and an LCA study of it has been performed, a scale-up method
88 for chemical processes has been presented.^{14,15} However, this requires an existing pilot plant
89 which is only built in an advanced developmental stage. In order to fill this gap and include a
90 scale-up during what would be the preliminary design stage, we developed an LCA scale-up

91 framework.¹⁶ The framework provides an indication in the form of mathematical formulas, es-
92 timates and generic data on how a chemical laboratory process can be scaled-up for lifecycle
93 assessment studies of a large-scale production plant.

94 For a product to be successful on the market, the economic side is of decisive importance..
95 Hence, when assessing the sustainability of a material or product, the economic aspects
96 should never be neglected. To predict the costs of a product at a commercial scale while it is
97 still in the laboratory stage, similar difficulties occur as with the assessment of potential envi-
98 ronmental impact. In order to obtain a comprehensive cost estimate, a lot of detailed
99 knowledge about the production process is needed that is usually only available at an ad-
100 vanced stage. The literature offers a wide range of methods to estimate product costs. Niazi
101 and co-workers classify these into four techniques, namely the intuitive and analogical as well
102 as the parametric and analytical technique.¹⁷ The first two are qualitative whereas the last two
103 are quantitative techniques. They propose a decision support model to decide which technique
104 should be chosen based on data quality and design stage. The qualitative techniques are used
105 in the early design stages and mostly based on past data of similar processes. For case-based
106 reasoning approaches – an intuitive technique that uses information on design, cost and time
107 of previous products – neural networks have been used to estimate the cost of new product
108 development.¹⁸ In a recent publication, a model to simulate life cycle costs has been presented
109 that uses an algorithm that relies on similar products.¹⁹ Other quantitative methods include
110 mathematical models for regression analysis.^{20,21} The qualitative techniques on the other side,
111 are more suitable for more advanced stages as detailed information is needed. Such tech-
112 niques include methods such as operation- or activity-based approaches where a product is
113 decomposed into components.^{22,23} Galli and co-workers performed an economic assessment
114 of a new lab-scale chemical production process to better understand the cost behavior with
115 differing operating conditions.²⁴

116 Eco-efficiency analysis is an attempt to combine environmental and economic aspects and
117 was first introduced by Schaltegger and Sturm.^{25,25} The goal of this approach is to optimize a
118 process or product in both aspects, meaning that profits are maximized while the environmen-
119 tal impact minimized. Eco-efficiency analyses can be applied to technologies at the micro-
120 level or at the macro-level to explore its possible implications on wider society.²⁶ BASF has
121 been developing and using such an eco-efficiency approach on numerous projects by combin-
122 ing LCA with life cycle costing (LCC).^{27,28} In this approach, BASF applied a normalization of
123 the LCA and LCC, which is then mostly used to inform alternative selection. For example, to
124 choose the best indigo dye production and dyeing process or to assess alternative curing and water
125 packaging systems.²⁹ Eco-efficiency analyses have also proven to be useful for procurement port-
126 folio optimization.^{30,30} Most of these examples, however, include the assessment of already exist-
127 ing processes. A more recent study applied a methodology to combine the environmental and
128 economic assessment of a new lab-scale process for eco-design purposes.³¹ It helped to find the
129 optimal operative conditions while optimizing both, costs and the environmental impact. Their re-
130 sults show the importance of performing the two assessments combined as they conclude that ap-
131 plying the evaluations independently would result in different operative conditions.

132 To include a similar assessment at a very early laboratory development stage for the purpose of
133 highlighting eco-efficiency hotspots and bottlenecks for process design, the above-described eco-
134 efficiency analyses are limited. To assess potential environmental impacts at the industrial pro-
135 duction of a new material or process that is still in the laboratory research stage, a framework
136 to scale-up chemical processes for LCA studies has been developed by these authors.¹⁶ The
137 results showed that the impact per output unit can be reduced considerably after scale-up.³²
138 Even more importantly, it demonstrated that the contributions of the single production steps
139 can change drastically between laboratory and industrial scale. This leads to different hotspots
140 in the two LCAs. An LCA based on the lab results only could therefore lead to inefficient or
141 even wrong prioritization for process improvement. The same can be said about the costs and

142 thus the eco-efficiency analysis. This means that to improve a production process from an
143 eco-efficiency perspective at a very early stage, it is of pivotal importance to include scale-up
144 calculations.

145 In this manuscript, we present a specific method to improve the projected eco-efficiency of
146 the industrial production of a given production process even though it only exists at the labor-
147 atory scale. Our scale-up framework developed for LCA purposes is expanded to include var-
148 iable production costs. This new method actually consists of combining eco-efficiency analy-
149 sis and this expanded scale-up framework. Instead of focusing on alternative comparison and
150 selection, our new method mainly targets and recognizes synergetic improvement potentials
151 of a given process and helps therefore to set design goals by highlighting hotspots and bottle-
152 necks at a very early research stage. A case study of nanocellulose illustrates the method.

153

154 **Method for estimation of scaled-up production costs and eco-efficiency analysis**

155 A comprehensive cost estimation of a production plant includes all involved costs, which are
156 separated into capital and operating expenditures. Capital expenditure (or investment) com-
157 prises all costs that are incurred before production plus those incurred through maintaining the
158 production operable, while operating expenditure comprises all costs incurred through the
159 running of a production operation. Operating expenditures can further be separated into fixed
160 and variable costs, which are characterized by their independency from or ligation to the pro-
161 duction output, respectively. Variable costs thus comprise costs of the resources used for the
162 production, such as raw material, energy and electricity inputs. Labor can, depending on the
163 case, be part of the fixed or variable costs or even both.

164 Estimation of capital expenditure and fixed costs is difficult at such an early stage of devel-
165 opment. The information obtained from the scale-up is insufficient and these expenses are
166 highly case and site specific, i.e. they depend on the specific plant design, which normally
167 takes place after the process has been established at a more advanced developmental stage.

168 The same is true of the estimation of labor, which is why it is excluded from the variable cost
169 assessment in this paper. Including prices of capital expenditures (e.g. reactors) would also
170 mean that the longevity and production output of the plant over its entire lifespan would re-
171 quire inclusion, information that is difficult to obtain or estimate at such an early state and that
172 would go beyond the scope of the presented eco-efficiency analysis specifically designed for
173 early stage process design.

174 However, an estimation of the variable costs (without labor) is possible with the available in-
175 formation from the scale-up. Analogously to the case of the environmental impact, hotspots
176 can be identified and recommendations for improvements are possible.

177 By applying the LCA scale-up framework,¹⁶ a lot of useful information about the process is
178 obtained beyond the fundamental purpose of LCA. Hence, the results offer the possibility to
179 include economic calculations by estimating the costs related to production. This is due to the
180 fact that the scale-up provides detailed quantitative data about each process step. With a sim-
181 ple conversion of the quantitative input and output data into their respective prices, a first es-
182 timation of the variable production costs is obtained. So far, the scale-up framework does not
183 include detailed estimation of the impact of all reactors and equipment but uses a consolidated
184 average value for the entire infrastructure. In addition to the above-mentioned reasons and in
185 order to be congruent with the environmental impact values and keep efforts of this eco-
186 efficiency simple, the capital expenditures are not added on the economic portion. If one
187 chooses to add such data, established methods can be used to estimate capital costs, such as
188 those that have been applied in other studies.²⁴

189 The LCA results and such cost estimations for the production phase can then be combined to
190 an eco-efficiency analysis. We developed such an analysis that is used in combination with
191 the LCA scale-up framework and applied for process improvement at a very early laboratory
192 stage. By applying this new method at an early development stage, it helps to highlight and
193 identify hotspots for synergetic improvement potential and trade-offs and thus will influence

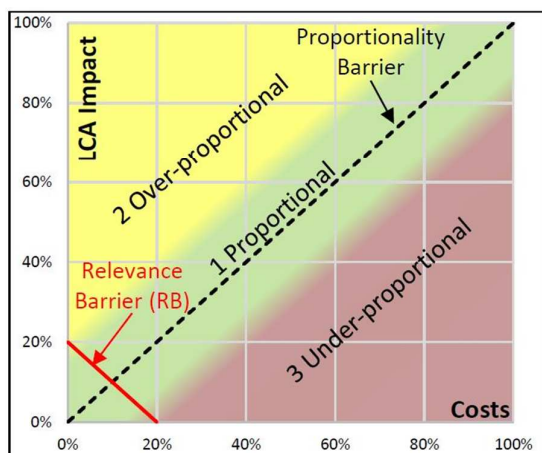
194 the eco-design of a new material, being the main goal of this analysis. The application of this
195 method offers a competitive advantage to yield a more sustainable product.

196

197 The relative contribution (in %) of a component (e.g. an entire process step or a specific in-
198 put) towards the overall results of the environmental impact (i.e. LCA results) is plotted
199 against its contribution (in %) to the costs. Such a plot graphically illustrates the environmen-
200 tal-to-costs-behavior of every single component. Such a component has one of three states: it
201 behaves proportionally (1), over-proportionally (2) or under-proportionally (3) in relation to
202 environmental impact towards financial costs. That behavior describes components with
203 equal, higher or lower relative LCA results compared to relative costs, respectively. The se-
204 cond group has a higher potential to reduce the environmental impact while the third group is
205 more likely suitable for cost reduction. The closer a value is to group 1, the higher is the po-
206 tential for a synergetic effect, reducing both at the same time. Therefore, components within
207 (or close to) group 1 seem to be the most interesting for improvement opportunities, as they
208 are attractive from an economic as well as an environmental perspective.

209 Focusing on proportionality alone, does not give any information about the relevance of a
210 component. Hence, a certain minimal contribution (e.g. 20 %) has to be defined for each case.
211 The minimal contribution is defined as the sum of the two contributions (i.e. LCA and costs).
212 If it exceeds that minimal contribution, it is regarded as relevant for consideration to improve
213 the process. The further a data point is located away from this relevance barrier, the higher it
214 should be prioritized for a more detailed analysis. This procedure automatically gives an equal
215 weighting factor to the potential environmental impact and financial costs. Since the aim is to
216 evaluate and improve a production process relative to its momentary state, we suggest that
217 this equal weighting for the process improvement should be used, allowing for an equal rela-
218 tive improvement of both impacts.

219 The minimal contribution has to be defined in each case according to the goals of the analysis.
220 As a default mode, we suggest to calculate it as 200 % (potential environmental impact and
221 financial costs each 100 %) divided by the number of steps/data points that are evaluated.
222 This procedure easily highlights which data points are above average.
223 The weighting of the relevance barrier can also be changed based on the preference of the as-
224 sessor who has to define the priorities. This is important to consider as there is no normaliza-
225 tion with an external reference value. A higher weighting of the environmental impact would
226 flatten the slope of the relevance barrier while a higher weighting of the costs would steepen
227 it. As a result, also the proportionality barrier would change as it is always perpendicular to
228 the relevance barrier. This also means that the distance to the proportionality barrier should be
229 considered relative to the weighting.
230 The results are best illustrated graphically (Figure 1). The proportionality barrier divides the
231 three groups, while the relevance barrier (here 20 %), running orthogonally to it, defines the
232 case specific minimal amount at which a component becomes relevant for improvement con-
233 siderations. Every component that lies on or above the relevance barrier is treated as relevant
234 whereas those that are below are regarded as not relevant in relation to the entire process. The
235 relevance barrier is therefore used to choose the components (e.g. process steps) that should
236 be prioritized when addressing improvement efforts since they bear a higher potential (due to
237 the larger contribution). Therefore, for process design aimed at improving environmental and
238 financial costs impacts simultaneously, the components towards the upper right corner (close
239 to proportionality barrier and far above the relevance barrier) allow for the greatest potential.
240



241

242

Figure 1. Developed eco-efficiency analysis based on the scale-up results.

243

244 Once a component has been identified, measures should be applied to improve it. As a result,

245 the entire process should become more favorable from an eco-efficiency perspective. However,

246 er, this has to be performed and monitored systematically to ensure that the targeted im-

247 provement measures do indeed lead to a more eco-efficient process. Figure 2 shows an exam-

248 ple of the position of a process step that has been identified as a hotspot. After improvement

249 measures have been undertaken, the point will most likely shift in this graph. This can include

250 six different scenarios. In the ideal case, both impacts have been lowered, meaning that a clear

251 improvement (++) has been achieved and the measures were successful. The opposite scenar-

252 io would yield higher values for both impacts and thus a worsened process (--). In between

253 these extreme scenarios, there is the possibility that one impact (e.g. LCA) has been lowered

254 while the other (e.g. costs) increased. In such a case, it is not as clear whether an overall im-

255 provement has been achieved, as it requires the comparison of two factors that are not compa-

256 rable *per se*. To be comparable, a monetary value must be given to the potential environmen-

257 tal impact (or vice versa), which is subject to a separate field of research. This evaluation is

258 therefore in many cases subjective depending on the importance that an assessor gives to each

259 potential impact. Our suggestion is to use the relevance barrier, which already includes a

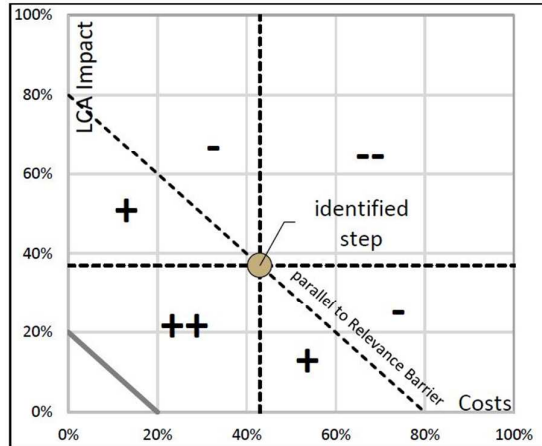
260 weighting. Based on this weighting, the indifference line which runs parallel to the relevance

261 barrier and through the identified step should be used as threshold. Everything that lies below

262 this line (+) is therefore considered as an overall improvement of the examined step while the
 263 contrary is the case above the line (-).

264 While the previous point holds true in most cases, an improved eco-efficiency of an identified
 265 step does not guarantee that the process has been improved overall. Changes to that step
 266 might affect (positively or negatively) other steps in the process. However, as the step has
 267 been identified as a hotspot with large contribution, it is unlikely that the production process
 268 as a whole is affected negatively. To assure that this case is excluded, an alternative assess-
 269 ment of the entire process is performed as a last step. The difference with an alternative as-
 270 sessment is that two different processes are compared on an absolute scale (i.e. points and Eu-
 271 ros (EUR)). Here, a relevance barrier does not seem useful. Therefore, it is only distinguished
 272 between a clear process improvement (++) or impairment (--). No conclusive recommenda-
 273 tion is given for the areas in between, leaving it in the competence of the assessor.

274



275

276 **Figure 2.** Graphical illustration of areas of improvement as well as impairment.

277

278

279 Case study

280

281 The case study considers a specific nanocellulose production process that uses food waste as a
 282 starting material and is still in the laboratory development stage. The process has already been
 283 scaled up by the authors, using the LCA scale-up framework to perform a cradle-to-gate LCA

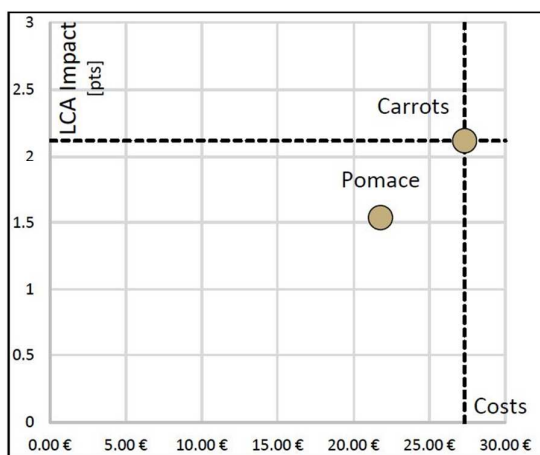
284 study.³² Those data are, on the one hand, used for the assessment of potential environmental
285 impact through the here-described eco-efficiency analysis and, on the other side, serve as the
286 basis to calculate the production costs.

287 Only two production routes are compared from an eco-efficiency perspective to choose the
288 more promising in the first step. Then, this selected alternative is used to illustrate the applica-
289 tion of the eco-efficiency method. As a result, targeted recommendations are given to improve
290 the production process. After implementation of the improvements, the results are recalculat-
291 ed for comparison and validation of the measures.

292

293 **Eco-efficiency analysis and improvement potential.** All data about the scale-up and the
294 LCA impact using the ReCiPe endpoint indicator³³ are obtained from our LCA scale-up
295 study.³² As a background database, the *ecoinvent* v3.1 with the cut-off system model was
296 used³⁴ and the live cycle impact assessment was calculated with the *OpenLCA* v1.4.1 soft-
297 ware. As a cradle-to-gate study, the functional unit is 1 kg of produced nanocellulose yarn
298 starting from the carrot waste source. The system boundaries for the LCA include all the steps
299 including the solvent recycling and waste treatment steps whereas the obtained by-products
300 from the enzymatic step are cut-off. A flow chart with the system boundaries can be found in
301 the supporting information. In order to estimate the costs, we used the life cycle inventory
302 (LCI) of the scaled-up nanocellulose production process. Every input was translated into its
303 purchase price using average prices. However, the outputs, such as waste, were excluded. De-
304 tails about prices and sources for chemicals, electricity and other inputs, are specified in the
305 supporting information. Two alternatives are compared that only differ in the starting materi-
306 als used as cellulosic sources, i.e. whole carrot waste and carrot pomace. The used LCA im-
307 pact data excludes the infrastructure to be in line with the costs. Furthermore, besides the ex-
308 clusion of the waste treatment, the costs have the system boundaries as the environmental
309 impact for the functional unit of 1 kg of produced nanocellulose yarn.

310 According to the above-described method, we first choose the more eco-efficient of the two
311 alternatives. Hereby, the eco-efficiency analysis clearly shows that the pomace is the prefera-
312 ble material given that it has a lower impact from both perspectives, environmental and costs
313 (Figure 3). Hence, the pomace case is chosen as the more eco-efficient alternative and will be
314 used in the following steps to improve the process itself.
315



316
317 **Figure 3.** Eco-efficiency per kg of produced nanocellulose yarn comparison of alternative starting materials.
318

319 Figure 4 displays environmental-cost-behavior of the pomace case, divided into process steps.
320 The relevance barrier was defined at 20 % with an equal weighting.
321 The analysis of the process steps reveals that only two steps are located above the relevance
322 barrier, the *GripX* production – a coating copolymer that is synthesized separately and used to
323 functionalize the cellulose – and the sodium alginate – the carrier polymer for the cellulose
324 yarn spinning. Of these, the former can be found much further from the relevance barrier and,
325 at the same time, displays an almost perfect proportionality. This makes it an ideal candidate
326 for synergetic process improvement. Sodium alginate, on the other hand, is characterized by
327 an under-proportional behavior. Therefore, the highest improvement potential can be obtained
328 through focusing on the *GripX* (5) first and then the sodium alginate (6) which is why, for the
329 next step, we focus on the improvement of the *GripX* step.
330

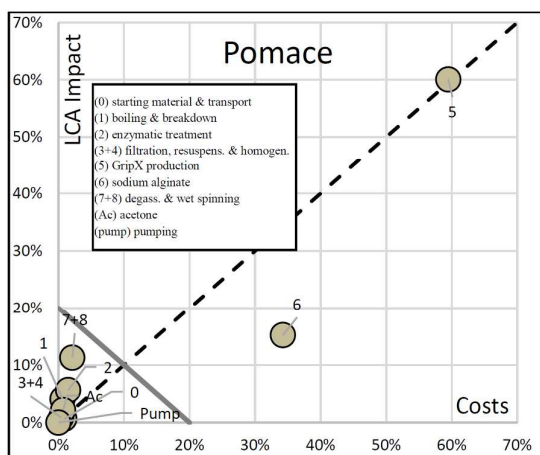
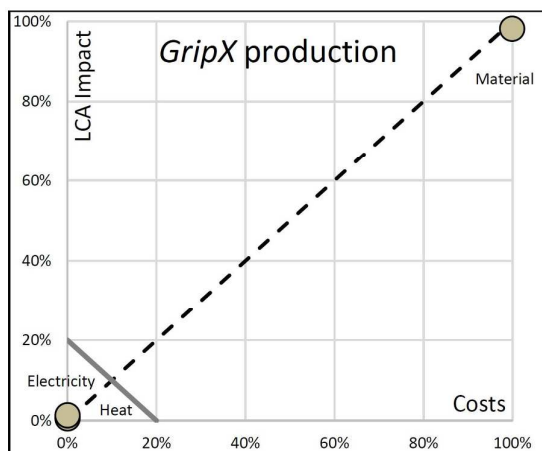


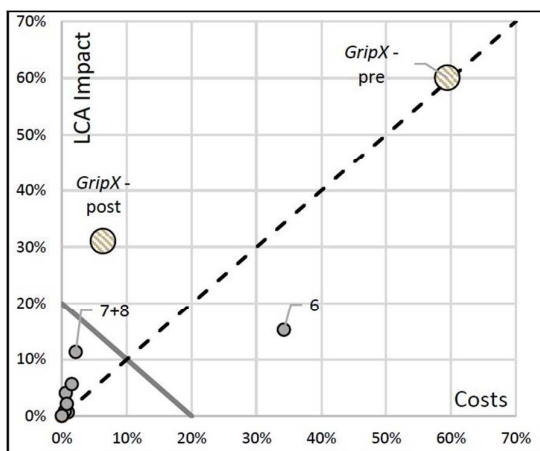
Figure 4. Eco-efficiency analysis of the NanoCelluComp technology divided into process step.

In order to improve the *GripX* production step, an eco-efficiency analysis of this step split into inputs sources is performed (Figure 5). Here the picture is clear that the materials used in the process contribute almost exclusively to the entire impact of both. When looking more closely into the production process this becomes more evident as vast amounts of solvents, especially ethanol with 1000 l/batch and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) with 500 l/batch, are processed and disposed of afterwards. As a logical improvement step, the amount of these materials must be reduced. As these solvents are not part of the product but only used as processing materials, the implementation of measures to regain and reuse them appears to be feasible. Therefore, a distillation of the solvent waste seems to be a good option, although this will require additional heating energy.



347
348 **Figure 5.** Eco-efficiency analysis of the *GripX* production (5) step divided into input sources.
349

350 The distillation has been included and the results recalculated (see supporting information for
351 further specifications). Figure 6 shows the shift of step 5 after the improvement measure. The
352 values are left relative to the overall impacts of the process without distillation for compara-
353 bility reasons. Including the distillation has the effect that the *GripX* production comes closer
354 to the barrier and switches from a proportional to clearly over-proportional behavior. It is also
355 visible that, based on the assumptions, all the other steps are not influenced by this measure.
356 Sodium alginate is now the component with the largest distance to the relevance barrier. This
357 distance is mainly due to the large cost contribution, which is evidenced by the high degree of
358 under-proportionality. Since step 5 is clearly improved from both perspectives and none of the
359 other steps are affected, it is obvious that the overall impact of the entire process has been im-
360 proved from an eco-efficiency perspective. This would make the last step, the alternative
361 comparison before and after the measure, unnecessary. However, for the sake of completeness
362 and illustration purposes, an alternative comparison is performed here to verify whether an
363 eco-efficiency improvement has occurred. As anticipated, Figure 7 shows that after the inclu-
364 sion of the distillation the eco-efficiency of the entire process has been improved.

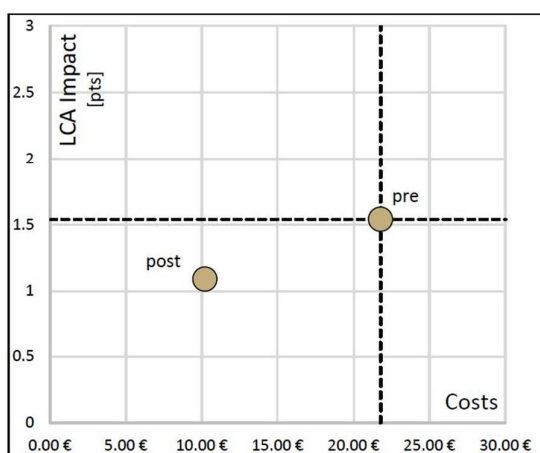


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Figure 6. Eco-efficiency shift of the GripX production step after (post) inclusion of distillation.



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371

372

Figure 7. Eco-efficiency per kg of produced nanocellulose yarn comparison before (pre) and after (post) inclusion of distillation.

373 The presented procedure could now potentially be applied again for further process improve-
 374 ment with the sodium alginate (6) and the GripX (5) steps being the most likely to be ad-
 375 dressed.

376 With solvent recovery, sodium alginate becomes a main cost factor in the yarn production.

377 Given that the costs for the microfibrillated cellulose (MFC) production (steps 1-5) are signif-
 378 icantly lower, spinning a yarn with a higher MFC/alginate ratio would result in lower costs.

379 However, this is restricted by the technical feasibility of altering that ratio. Also, a higher ratio

380 would mean a larger amount of GripX needed, as its quantity is coupled to the MFC, ultimate-

381 ly resulting in a greater potential environmental impact.

382

383 While the above-described case was used as an illustrative example using two of the calculat-
 384 ed scenarios (i.e. 1P and 3P), the scaled-up nanocellulose production process has already been
 385 simulated and investigated from an LCA perspective using various additional production
 386 route scenarios.³² Therefore, we applied the eco-efficiency analysis to compare all the scenar-
 387 ios and select the most promising one, of which, briefly, recommendations about the im-
 388 provement potential are given. Details about the translation into costs of the different scenari-
 389 os (Table 1) can be found in the supporting information.

390

391 **Table 1.** *Explanation of the different nanocellulose production systems. Adapted from Piccinno, F.; Hischier, R.;*
 392 *Seeger, S.; Som, C. Predicting the environmental impact of a future nanocellulose production at industrial scale:*
 393 *Application of the life cycle assessment scale-up framework. Journal of Cleaner Production 2018, 174, 283–*
 394 *295).*³² Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

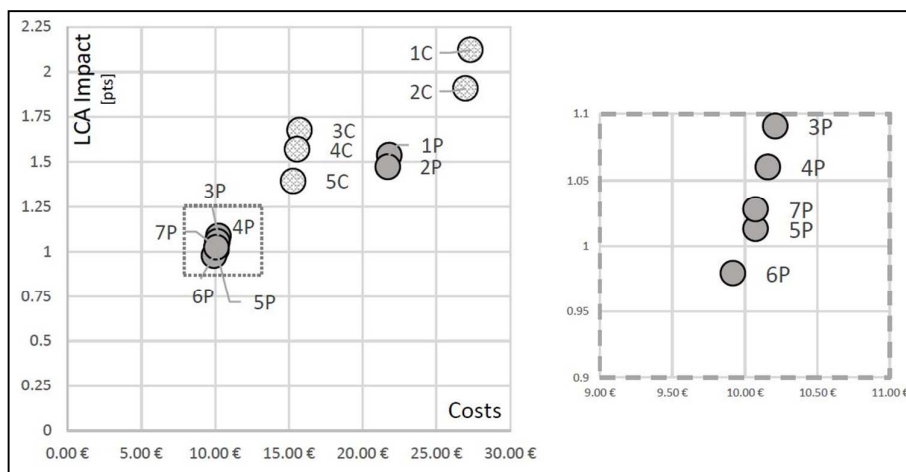
Name	Starting Material	Enzyme Deactivation	Distillation*	Heat recov. from steps	Acetone scenario
1 C	Waste of whole carrots	heat	-	-	Emission to air
2 C	Waste of whole carrots	ClO ₂	-	-	Emission to air
3 C	Waste of whole carrots	heat	68/95 %	-	Emission to air
4 C	Waste of whole carrots	heat	68/95 %	1 & 2	Emission to air
5 C	Waste of whole carrots	ClO ₂	68/95 %	1	Emission to air
1 P	Carrot pomace waste	heat	-	-	Emission to air
2 P	Carrot pomace waste	ClO ₂	-	-	Emission to air
3 P	Carrot pomace waste	heat	68/95 %	-	Emission to air
4 P	Carrot pomace waste	heat	68/95 %	1 & 2	Emission to air
5 P	Carrot pomace waste	ClO ₂	68/95 %	1	Emission to air
6 P	Carrot pomace waste	ClO ₂	68/95 %	1	No acetone used
7 P	Carrot pomace waste	ClO ₂	68/95 %	1	Combustion of acetone vapor

*recycling rates of solvents: H₂O and AcOH 68 %; DMSO and EtOH 95 %

395

396 A comparison of the various scenarios shows that the pomace cases with the solvent recovery
 397 (3P–7P) are clearly favorable (Figure 8) from an eco-efficiency perspective as both impacts
 398 are clearly improved. The inclusion of heat recovery (4P–7P) and deactivation of the enzymes
 399 with ClO₂ (5P–7P) instead of heat further improves the process. The difference between the
 400 three most promising scenarios (5P–7P) lies only in the handling of the acetone for solvent
 401 exchange while spinning the yarn. However, although it is the least favorable of those three,
 402 the system where the acetone vapor is burned (7P) seems to be the most realistic for imple-
 403 mentation. Also the heat recovery from the acetone burning step is not considered, which

404 would improve the results slightly. Therefore, the eco-efficiency analysis for the process im-
 405 provement recommendations is performed with system 7P.
 406



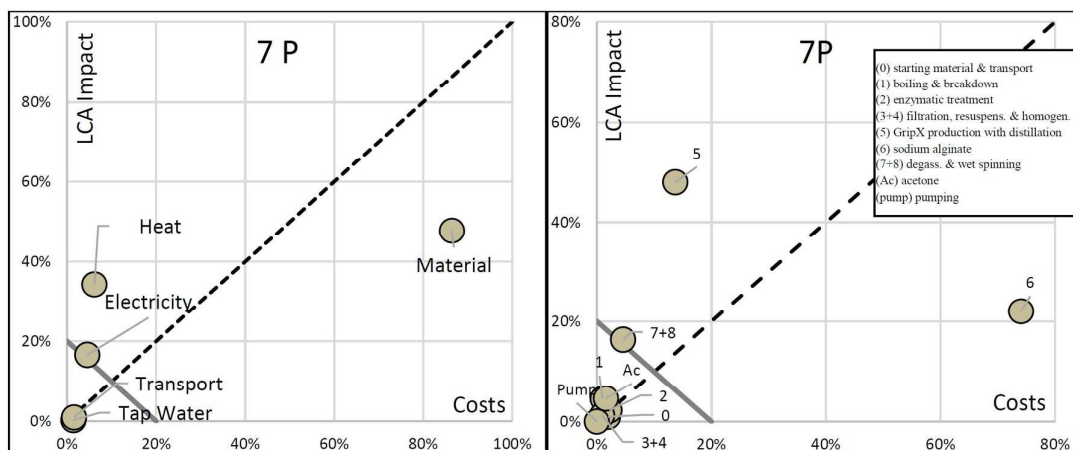
407

408 **Figure 8.** Eco-efficiency alternative comparison of nanocellulose production process routes per kg nanocellu-
 409 lose yarn.
 410

411 The separation by source clearly shows that the material accounts for the greatest contribution
 412 (Figure 9). It displays an under-proportional behavior, hence its contribution to the potential
 413 environmental impact is lower in comparison to financial costs. Reducing the material con-
 414 sumption through various measures (e.g. recycling, higher yield, etc.) could have a large ef-
 415 fect from a cost perspective, while still having a meaningful reduction of the potential envi-
 416 ronmental impact. However, if cost reduction should be targeted through the exchange of a
 417 material with an alternative of a cheaper unit price, this might cause a higher potential envi-
 418 ronmental impact (depending on the material), changing the results of this eco-efficiency
 419 analysis. This is the reason why a before-after comparison is always recommendable. Heat
 420 and electricity are the other two impact sources regarded as relevant. Both behave over-
 421 proportionally, especially in the case of heat. The use of less heating energy would thus main-
 422 ly result in a relevant reduction of the potential environmental impact. The impact of the elec-
 423 tricity consumption only surpasses the relevant state by a small amount.

424

425



426

427 **Figure 9.** Eco-efficiency analysis of the NanoCelluComp technology divided into source (left) and process steps
 428 (right).

429

430

431 The analysis of the process steps reveals that sodium alginate (6), as well as the *GripX* pro-
 432 duction (5), are the two components with the highest relevance. However, the respective pro-
 433 portionalities are not ideal, which limits the synergetic optimization potential of the single
 434 process steps. The combination of both steps results in a very high synergetic potential given
 435 that one behaves clearly under-proportional, while for the other the opposite is the case. The
 436 alginate's distance to the relevance barrier is mainly due to the large cost contribution deriv-
 437 ing from its high purchase price, evidenced by the high degree of under-proportionality. The
 438 opposite is the case for the over-proportional *GripX* where the cost contribution has been low-
 439 ered considerably thanks to the distillation. However, its contribution to the potential envi-
 440 ronmental impact stays relatively high due to the heating involved. The third relevant process
 441 step, that just surpasses the relevance barrier, is the spinning and degassing step (7+8). The
 442 over-proportional behavior is explained by the high electricity use within this step.

443 Overall, the highest improvement potential of system 7P based on the analysis can therefore
 444 be obtained through first focusing on sodium alginate (6) and *GripX* (5) together and to a
 lesser extent, the degassing and spinning step (7+8).

445 Possible measures that should be investigated to improve the impact of the alginate include
446 replacing it with a different carrier polymer, improving the yield, buying in larger amounts to
447 reduce the purchase price and, as mentioned above, spinning at higher MFC/alginate ratio.

448 The impact of the *GripX* production might be reduced by replacing the solvents with other
449 more environmentally-benign alternatives, regaining the heat from the distillation (not yet in-
450 cluded in the calculations) and improving the yield. In contrast to the sodium alginate meas-
451 ure, a lower MFC/alginate spinning ratio would improve the impact caused by the *GripX* it-
452 self. Therefore, if technically feasible, the state after the improvement has to be compared as a
453 whole to see whether changing the ratio in any direction makes sense at all.

454 Lastly, the spinning and degassing step might be improved through higher yields and re-
455 placement of the wet spinning with a different spinning technique.

456

457 **Discussion**

458 The case study demonstrates that the here presented new method for eco-efficiency analysis at
459 very early development stages can provide highly valuable information to inform the priori-
460 tization of possible approaches for process improvement. The scale-up framework behind it is
461 crucial in predicting the potential environmental impact and financial costs of the production
462 process at a large scale. One of its advantages lies in the fact that new hotspots might be iden-
463 tified that would otherwise, by only looking at the lab-scale process, been missed. However,
464 the scale-up framework for a theoretically scaled-up and predicted production plant has an in-
465 fluence on the quality of the data and leads to some degree of uncertainty. Hence, the results
466 of this method should rather be regarded as indicators than as exact values, meaning that if
467 two data points lie close to one another then they should be regarded as equal for the here de-
468 scribed procedure.

469 While the method does include certain aspects of BASF's method, such as the two-
470 dimensional plotting of costs versus LCA impact, by graphically illustrating the results, it is

471 clear how our analysis differs. Our method focuses on the improvement of the production
472 process, i.e. from cradle to gate only, meaning that no use phase or end-of-life consideration is
473 included for the assessment of potential environmental impact or financial costs. This differs
474 from other methods as they used life cycle costs or purchase prices as well as the full LCA
475 where possible.²⁹ Furthermore, our method includes a procedure on how to obtain the required
476 environmental and costs data but does not contain a normalization factor for these results.

477 The eco-efficiency analysis is specifically designed to be used with the scale-up data at an
478 early development stage. Although it could also be applied without a scale-up on an existing
479 process, we do not see its advantage over other eco-efficiency analyses in this regard. Hence,
480 we strongly suggest to use it with the scale-up as that is where it differentiates itself from oth-
481 er eco-efficiency analyses and can provide additional insights. The application of the present-
482 ed eco-efficiency method without performing the scale-up procedure, i.e. using the lab values,
483 could lead to inefficient improvement recommendations. This has already been shown with
484 the data in the LCA scale-up study of the same case where the relative contributions of the
485 single steps have shifted considerably.³² The same is true for the scaled-up variable costs and
486 ultimately the eco-efficiency analysis. For that reason, the same limitations that apply to the
487 scale-up framework are also limiting factors for this eco-efficiency method. Those include the
488 limitation to only certain types of processes as well as the uncertainty of predicting future
489 processes.

490 One key advantage over many other methods is that our method provides data with a higher
491 degree of detail at such an early stage. Although it can be applied at a very early stage, i.e. the
492 preliminary design stage according to Azapagic and co-workers,¹⁰ the results in terms of de-
493 gree of detail can be positioned between the early stage and full assessment methods.⁹ Also,
494 the costs are obtained without using a separate method to the LCA assessment, meaning that
495 the scale-up is useful for both, resulting in a more straightforward procedure. However, the
496 cost calculation is very simple and limited to considering only variable costs. Expansion of

497 the costs modeling through inclusion of fixed costs and capital expenditures – possibly
498 through combination with existing and established methods – could be a goal for further im-
499 provement. However, one needs to bear in mind that this would result in greater complexity as
500 well.

501 The described analysis provides additional insights and information when compared to a
502 study focusing on the LCA results or costs only. This is not as evident in the here presented
503 case study as the results for improvement recommendations are similar to the LCA scale-up
504 study. However, even in this study, the advantage can be seen. When comparing the LCA im-
505 pact of sodium alginate (6) with the degassing and spinning (7+8) step for the 7P scenario, the
506 values are close to each other making it difficult to identify a clear favorite (especially when
507 uncertainty of the results is considered). However, as soon as the eco-efficiency is assessed
508 the relevance of the sodium alginate becomes much greater and should therefore be priori-
509 tized.

510 We deliberately chose not to include any normalization calculations linked to external data
511 (e.g. environmental impact of a geographical area) as this constitutes a different field of re-
512 search and compromises the results. In our opinion, at this stage the relevance of the impacts
513 is best judged by the assessor him or herself. As it would be reasonable to include a normali-
514 zation step for the alternative selection to put the impacts into relation, this is not necessarily
515 true for the process improvement analysis, which constitutes the core part of this method. As a
516 new process or material – making it difficult to find a normalization reference (especially for
517 the costs) –, we mainly see the contribution of the single steps towards the entire process to be
518 the most relevant part. The advantage hereby is that an optimization from the point of the as-is
519 state is achieved.

520 A broader range of real-case applications of the method will hopefully help to further refine it
521 in future by pointing out its limitation.

522 The presented process improvement eco-efficiency analysis method for process improvement
523 should be applied whenever an LCA scale-up study is performed. Only the addition of the
524 economic perspective allows to obtain a more holistic picture and understanding of the pro-
525 duction process and helps in setting design goals towards more eco-efficiency and, thus, sus-
526 tainability. Given that all this can be achieved with minor efforts once a scale-up study has
527 been performed, our method is a valuable additional step for process eco-design at a very ear-
528 ly stage already.

529 **Supporting Information**

530 Background data for the various production systems and the cost calculations can be found in
531 the Supporting Information document.

532

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536

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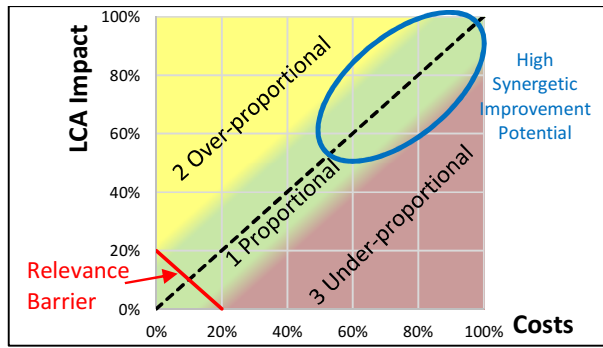
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