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Published in:
Waste Management

Link to article, DOI:
[10.1016/j.wasman.2014.06.011](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2014.06.011)

Publication date:
2015

Document Version
Peer reviewed version

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

Citation (APA):
Astrup, T. F., Tonini, D., Turconi, R., & Boldrin, A. (2015). Life cycle assessment of thermal Waste-to-Energy technologies: Review and recommendations. *Waste Management*, 37, 104-115.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2014.06.011>

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Life Cycle Assessment of Thermal Waste-to-Energy Technologies: Review and Recommendations

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“NOTE: this is the author’s version of a work that was accepted for publication in *Waste Management* journal. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Minor changes may have been made to this manuscript since it was accepted for publication. A definitive version is published in *Waste Management*, vol 37, pp 104-115, doi:10.1016/j.wasman.2014.06.011”

23 **Abstract**

24 Life cycle assessment (LCA) has been used extensively within the recent decade to
25 evaluate the environmental performance of thermal Waste-to-Energy (WtE)
26 technologies: incineration, co-combustion, pyrolysis and gasification. A critical review
27 was carried out involving 250 individual case-studies published in 136 peer-reviewed
28 journal articles within 1995 and 2013. The studies were evaluated with respect to
29 critical aspects such as: i) goal and scope definitions (e.g. functional units, system
30 boundaries, temporal and geographic scopes), ii) detailed technology parameters (e.g.
31 related to waste composition, technology, gas cleaning, energy recovery, residue
32 management, and inventory data), and iii) modeling principles (e.g. energy/mass
33 calculation principles, energy substitution, inclusion of capital goods and uncertainty
34 evaluation). Very few of the published studies provided full and transparent descriptions
35 of all these aspects, in many cases preventing an evaluation of the validity of results,
36 and limiting applicability of data and results in other contexts. The review clearly
37 suggests that the quality of LCA studies of WtE technologies and systems including
38 energy recovery can be significantly improved. Based on the review, a detailed
39 overview of assumptions and modeling choices in existing literature is provided in
40 conjunction with practical recommendations for state-of-the-art LCA of waste-to-
41 energy.

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Energy recovery from waste is an essential part of modern waste management. Within
45 the last decades, waste management has changed from being a sector primarily focusing
46 on treatment and final disposal of residual streams from society to now being a sector
47 that contributes significantly to energy provision and secondary resource recovery. In

48 the transition towards more sustainable energy supply, energy recovery from waste is
49 gaining increasing interest as an option for reducing dependence on imported fossil
50 fuels. In a future with higher shares of intermittent energy sources such as wind and
51 photo voltaic, and phase-out of coal, energy recovery from waste may provide an
52 alternative to increased used of constrained non-fossil resources such as biomass.

53 Within the recent decade, life cycle assessment (LCA) has been used extensively
54 to evaluate the environmental benefits and drawbacks of waste management, including
55 energy recovery technologies. Both individual waste-to-energy (WtE) technologies
56 (among the others Scipioni et al., 2009, Boesch et al., 2014, Turconi et al., 2011, Tonini
57 et al., 2013, Møller et al., 2011) as well as the role of these technologies within the
58 entire waste management systems (among the others Eriksson et al., 2007, Finnveden et
59 al., 2007, Finnveden et al., 2005, Fruergaard et al., 2010, Moberg et al., 2005, Manfredi
60 et al., 2011, Christensen et al., 2009, Merrild et al., 2012, Song et al., 2013, Tunesi,
61 2011, Bernstad and la Cour Jansen, 2011, Rigamonti et al. 2014) have been assessed.
62 While anaerobic degradation of organic waste is a well-established technology, today
63 energy recovery based on thermal conversion of waste is the most widespread WtE
64 technology (ISWA, 2012). The main thermal technologies are: i) waste incineration at
65 dedicated plants, ii) co-combustion with other fuels, iii) thermal gasification, and iv)
66 thermal pyrolysis. While mass-burn waste incineration generally is the most robust
67 technology accepting a wide range of waste materials (size, sources), also other
68 technologies such as fluidized-bed incineration exist (a more homogeneous waste input
69 is needed here). Co-combustion, gasification, and pyrolysis are generally less
70 widespread and mainly applied on pre-treated waste or sub-streams of urban waste (e.g.
71 Solid Recovered Fuels, SRF, or Refuse Derived Fuels, RDF).

72 Although LCA as an assessment tool is fairly mature and overall assessment
73 guidelines exist outlining the main assessment principles, relatively little
74 methodological consistency exist between individual LCA studies in literature as
75 highlighted by Laurent et al. (2014a, 2014b). Technology modeling principles, LCA
76 principles (e.g. attributional vs. consequential assessment), choices of impact
77 assessment methodologies, key WtE technology parameters (e.g. energy recovery
78 efficiencies), emission levels, and choices related to the environmental value of energy
79 substitution varies significantly between LCA studies (Laurent et al., 2014a). Existing
80 LCA guidelines (e.g. ISO 2006a and ISO 2006b) attempt to overcome these
81 inconsistencies by providing a more standardized framework for performing and
82 reporting LCA studies. However although these guidelines are extremely valuable, the
83 concrete implementation of the provided assessment principles still allow ample room
84 for interpretation. Consequently, in some cases LCA results can be found in literature
85 indicating that anaerobic digestion is preferable (e.g. Khoo et al., 2010) while waste
86 incineration may appear optimal in other cases (e.g. Manfredi et al., 2011, Fruergaard
87 and Astrup, 2011), seemingly based on similar waste types or similar technologies.
88 Methodological challenges and inconsistencies in relation to LCA is not specific for
89 WtE technologies (Laurent et al., 2014a, 2014b); however as WtE technologies may
90 play an increasingly important role in many countries, a detailed and systematic review
91 of assessment choices and inventory data specifically related to thermal WtE
92 technologies are needed. Reaching robust and widely accepted conclusions based on the
93 variety of results in existing LCA studies of WtE technologies requires detailed insight
94 and understanding of the specific systems modeled in the studies as well as the LCA
95 modeling principles applied in the individual studies. This substantially limits the
96 usability of LCA results for decision-makers and opens for yet other LCA case-studies

97 which may not provide novel insights from a research perspective. Consequently, this
98 situation may significantly limit the overall value of LCA studies for future
99 implementation of WtE technologies in society.

100 The demand for consistency and transparency within waste LCA is increasing
101 dramatically and to perform state-of-the-art LCA studies, a systematic overview of
102 modeling and assessment choices is needed. The aim of this paper is to provide such an
103 overview based on a critical review of existing LCA studies of WtE in literature,
104 focusing on thermal WtE technologies. The specific objectives are: i) to critically
105 analyze existing LCA studies involving WtE technologies with respect to key
106 assessment choices, ii) to identify the most important methodological aspects and
107 technology parameters, and iii) to provide recommendations for state-of-the-art LCA of
108 WtE technologies.

109

110 **2. Methodology**

111 **2.1. Selection of papers for review**

112 LCA of waste management technologies and systems has gained momentum within the
113 last 10-15 years and the approaches used have developed significantly in the same
114 period (Laurent et al., 2014a, 2014b, Ekvall et al., 2007, Finnveden et al., 2009).
115 Existing literature therefore covers considerable variations with respect to focus and
116 approach. To ensure consistency, literature included in the review was selected based on
117 the following overall criteria: i) the study was published in a peer-reviewed scientific
118 journal; ii) the LCA study focused on waste management and included at least one
119 thermal WtE technology as a key part of the study; iii) an impact assessment was
120 performed and more than one impact category was included; and iv) the study was
121 reported in English. Studies published until December 2013 were included.

122

123 **2.2. Review approach**

124 The review addressed the following main aspects: i) definition of goal and scope of the
125 study, ii) description of technical parameters and life cycle inventory (LCI) data, iii)
126 methodological choices of LCA modeling. An overview of these aspects is provided in
127 Table 1.

128 In relation to “goal and scope definition”, it was assessed whether a clear and
129 comprehensive description of the study context was provided. The aim was thereby to
130 qualitatively evaluate how appropriate the LCA modeling described the system in
131 question. The description of technical parameters concerning thermal WtE processes
132 and the influence of these parameters on the results were evaluated. The waste input to
133 the WtE technology was evaluated with respect to the description of the waste type (all
134 waste types typically addressed in "waste management studies" were included: e.g.
135 households waste, mixed municipal solid waste, RDF/SRF, combustible industry waste,
136 or single fractions), waste composition (i.e. presence of individual material fractions
137 and their chemical composition) and the origin of these data. Key technology aspects of
138 the WtE processes were evaluated relative to thermal technology, energy recovery, and
139 residue management: i) plant type, ii) energy recovery and type of energy output, iii)
140 flue gas cleaning techniques (e.g. air-pollution-control: dust removal, acid gas
141 neutralization, deNO_x, etc.), and iv) residue types, generation and management. Finally,
142 available quantitative data for emissions and consumption of energy/materials were
143 extracted from the reviewed studies.

144 Key methodological aspects of the reviewed studies were addressed focusing on:
145 i) the overall modeling approach and whether the study accounted for and balanced
146 mass and energy flows, ii) inclusion of capital goods, iii) energy substitution principles,

147 and iv) inclusion of uncertainty and/or sensitivity analysis. Finally, overall trends in
148 results between the reviewed studies were identified and discussed.

149

150 **3. Results and discussion**

151 A total of 136 journal articles were identified, including 250 individual case-studies of
152 technologies for thermal treatment of waste (Figure 1). The complete list of studies is
153 provided in the supplementary material (Table S13). Only few studies were performed
154 prior to 2002, no studies before 1995 was found. Throughout the following sections,
155 comparability between studies is discussed and understood as the possibility for the
156 reader to appreciate the LCA results based on transparent reporting of assumptions,
157 assessment methodology, technical parameters, etc.

158

159 **3.1 Goal and scope definition**

160 Goal and scope definition includes specification of the aim of the study, its functional
161 unit (FU, quantitatively and qualitatively describing the service provided by the
162 assessed system), and the corresponding system boundaries. Goal and scope definitions
163 are fundamental for the interpretation of results and thereby for the outcome of LCA
164 studies (Laurent et al., 2014b, Finnveden et al., 2009, ISO 2006a, ISO 2006b). Most of
165 the reviewed case-studies applied an FU defined with respect to the waste input, e.g. as
166 a unit mass of waste received at the WtE facility (58 % of the case-studies). This FU
167 indicates an assessment perspective related to "waste management" or "treatment of X
168 Mg of waste", which subsequently allows comparison between individual "treatment
169 technologies". About 28 % of the case-studies had a FU represented by the waste
170 generation in a given area or region. Relatively few case-studies had FUs related to
171 specific inputs or outputs from the WtE facilities, or did not define the FU at all. About

172 68 % of the LCA case-studies either compared several WtE technologies against each
173 other, or compared WtE with other waste management options. In addition to the 68 %
174 of case-studies comparing specific technologies, about 26 % of the studies included
175 WtE as an integrated part of a waste management system in combination with other
176 technologies, e.g. Arena et al. (2003) and Tonini and Astrup (2012). Very few studies
177 applied LCA for process optimization: only 12 case-studies (5%) used LCA for
178 improvement of specific sub-units of individual plants (e.g. Scipioni et al., 2009, Møller
179 et al., 2011). Figure 2 provides an overview of goal and scope related aspects.

180 The waste input to the WtE facility is the starting point of the energy recovery
181 process and is therefore essential for the LCA study (Laurent et al., 2014a, 2014b).
182 Within the reviewed case-studies, a wide variety of waste materials have been
183 addressed: from mixed household waste to single material fractions. About 38 % of the
184 studies defined the waste input as "mixed municipal waste" and "residual municipal
185 waste", while another 16 % addressed pre-treated waste (e.g. Solid Recovered Fuels,
186 SRF) and yet another 27 % focused on single material fractions in the waste.

187 Time horizon, geographical and temporal scopes are important within LCA for
188 the applicability of the results and comparability with similar studies (Laurent et al.,
189 2014a, 2014b, Finnveden et al., 2009, ISO 2006a, ISO 2006b, Finnveden, 1999,
190 Turconi et al., 2013). Most of the studies did not define the time horizon (75 %),
191 thereby not transparently reporting the included emissions and/or addressing the
192 dynamics e.g. related to long-term emissions from solid residues. A little less than half
193 (43 %) of the studies did not specify the temporal scope, i.e. the time period that the
194 technology and assessment addressed. Conversely, most studies (96 %) mentioned the
195 country or regional settings of the study.

196 Overall, relatively few (i.e. 41 case-studies or 16 %) of the reviewed LCA
197 studies managed to provide full descriptions of the goal and scope (i.e. including
198 detailed and transparent descriptions of the functional unit, the goal of the study, the
199 time horizon, the geographical and temporal scopes), thereby essentially preventing
200 direct comparison of results between studies and at the same time limiting the
201 possibilities for full apprehension of the provided conclusions.

202

203 **3.2 Key technical parameters**

204 **3.2.1 Waste composition**

205 While the waste type addressed in the studies is important for the overall framework of
206 the study, the detailed composition of the waste may be critical with respect to the
207 emissions from the WtE facilities (e.g. Astrup et al., 2011). While 70 % of the case-
208 studies provided a detailed description of the material fractions present in the waste (i.e.
209 quantities of plastic, paper, organic materials, etc.), only 44 % provided information
210 about the chemical composition of the waste and/or material fractions (see Figure 3).
211 About 18 % of the studies provided no description at all regarding chemical
212 composition, while 8 % provided only very limited description. This clearly represents a
213 limitation with respect to the LCA modeling as many emissions from thermal processes
214 (e.g. metals) are affected by the waste input chemistry (i.e. the emission represents a
215 certain fraction of the input quantity, e.g. Astrup et al., 2011). Although the lower
216 heating value (LHV) of the waste can be considered a critical parameter in relation to
217 WtE, LHV was reported in only 57 % of the case-studies, ranging between values such
218 as 1.4 MJ/kg ww (food waste, Nakakubo et al., 2012) and 46.9 MJ/kg ww (PET plastic,
219 Xie et al., 2013).

220 For those studies actually including waste composition data, the traceability of
221 the included data was limited. Of the studies including composition data, 18 % did not
222 report the origin of the data for material fractions, and 40 % did not specify the origin of
223 data for chemical composition (i.e. providing a clear reference to publications providing
224 the information). Omitting waste composition data in relation to LCA of WtE
225 technologies significantly reduces the transparency of the study, but also render the
226 results questionable as i) it may be unclear to which extent the study addresses
227 contaminants in the waste, and ii) essentially prevent reproducibility of the study.

228

229 **3.2.2 Thermal technologies**

230 Mass-burn incineration based on moving grate systems was the most frequently
231 assessed technology. About 82 % of the case-studies focused on incineration; about half
232 of these specified that the technology involved a moving grate (Figure 4). Significantly
233 less attention has been placed on other WtE technologies such as pyrolysis, gasification,
234 co-combustion in power plants and in cement-kilns. For a more balanced understanding
235 of the environmental performance of WtE technologies, this clearly suggests that more
236 studies are needed focusing on other technologies than incineration.

237 Generally, air-pollution-control (APC) systems were very poorly described.
238 Figure 5 illustrates that more than 50 % of the case-studies did not describe the specific
239 technology applied. This essentially prevents verification of the inventories (if
240 provided) for emissions and material/energy consumption, thereby preventing the
241 applicability of the studies to be evaluated. Omitting information about gas cleaning
242 also significantly reduces transparency with respect to geographical and temporal scope,
243 i.e. whether the technology is typical for the region and time period assessed. Only a
244 few case-studies clearly specified that individual gas cleaning units were not present,

245 e.g. in the case of poor or old plants (Morselli et al., 2007, Liamsanguan and Gheewala,
246 2007).

247

248 **3.2.3 Energy recovery**

249 Energy recovery is one of the most important technical aspects of WtE technologies and
250 critical for the outcome of LCA studies (e.g. Boesch et al., 2014, Turconi et al., 2011,
251 Tunesi, 2011, Turconi et al., 2013). Figure 6 presents an overview of how energy
252 recovery was included in the reviewed case-studies. Energy recovery was included in
253 about 83 % of the studies, with electricity recovery being most important (73 % of the
254 case-studies), while heat was the only energy type recovered in 10 % of the studies.
255 About 5 % of the studies clearly stated that no energy recovery was performed at the
256 plant. About 12 % of the studies did not mention energy recovery at all. Of the 183
257 case-studies including electricity as an energy recovery option, 37 % stated the gross
258 electric efficiency, while 52 % mentioned the net electricity efficiency. Of the case-
259 studies including heat recovery, 59 % reported the net heat recovery used in the
260 modeling (if no details were provided, net heat recovery was assumed).

261 An overview of the reported recovery efficiencies is provided in Table 2,
262 including average values calculated for individual technologies. The numerical
263 variations are considerable, most likely as a result of geographical and temporal
264 differences between studies. For those studies reporting the temporal scope of the LCA
265 (i.e. 43 %), the recovery efficiencies were plotted against the temporal scope of the
266 study (see Figure S2 in the supplementary material). No clear trends for temporal
267 developments could be identified; however, large variations could be observed within
268 similar temporal scopes, suggesting that other factors had a larger influence on the
269 energy recovery efficiencies than temporal scope of the study.

270 For incineration, energy recovery efficiencies varied from 0 to 34 % (electricity)
271 and 0 to almost 88 % (heat), illustrating the wide variety of specific technologies and/or
272 facilities assessed in the reviewed studies. Although only very few studies of other
273 technologies than incineration existed, electricity efficiencies for co-combustion
274 appeared to be in the upper end of the range for incineration, while heat efficiencies
275 appeared to be significantly lower than for incineration. Gasification and pyrolysis
276 efficiencies could not be compared directly as the reported efficiencies were based on
277 gas-to-energy output conversion, excluding the syngas generation itself. Difference in
278 heat recovery between incinerators may not necessarily be related to technological
279 features, but may also be a consequence of local heat markets (e.g. Fruergaard et al.,
280 2010). About 59 % of the case-studies related the energy recovery to the energy content
281 of the waste itself, while 31 % of the studies did not specify how the energy calculations
282 were performed. A few cases used default values from literature (2 %) or measured data
283 (4 %).

284

285 **3.2.4 Residue management**

286 Residue management was included only in about half of the case-studies (see Figure S3,
287 supporting material). About 34 % did not specify whether or how residues were
288 included in the modeling. Only in 11 % of the cases, the studies specified that residue
289 management was intentionally excluded. In these cases, the justification was generally
290 that residue management was not a "significant issue" overall; however, without
291 providing evidence or support for the statement.

292 Of the studies providing information about residue management, the fate of the
293 residues was generally poorly described (see Figure 7). Regarding APC residues
294 (considered a combination of neutralization products and fly ashes unless otherwise

295 specified) and sludge from treatment of wastewater, more than 60 % of the case-studies
296 did not specify the management. Bottom and fly ashes were somewhat better addressed
297 with, respectively, around 42 % and 55 % of the studies specifying the management of
298 these ashes, respectively. In both cases, landfilling was the most commonly used option,
299 rather than recovery and material utilization. While the reviewed studies focusing on
300 WtE technologies may cover residue management only to a limited extent, a few studies
301 in literature provide dedicated LCA modeling of the management of APC residues (e.g.
302 Fruergaard et al., 2010) as well as utilization vs. landfilling of bottom ashes (e.g.
303 Birgisdottir et al., 2007).

304

305 **3.2.5 Material/energy and emissions inventories**

306 Input-output inventory tables are typically used to provide overview of all relevant
307 inputs (e.g. material and energy consumption) to WtE technologies as well as outputs
308 (e.g. air emissions). Only 14 % of the case-studies provided detailed inventory data.
309 About 57 % of the cases provided part of the inventories, in several cases limited to
310 very few data.

311 Besides completeness, the origin and quality of the inventory data may be of
312 significant importance. For about 32 % of the case-studies, no information concerning
313 the origin of inventory data was provided. About 20 % and 6 % of the studies applied
314 data from literature and databases, respectively (see Figure S4, supplementary material).
315 In only about 34 % of the case-studies, actual emission data originating from specific
316 measurements related to the assessed system was included; the data mainly originated
317 from full-scale facilities (i.e. 30 %).

318 For most parameters, extremely large variations (up to >10 orders of magnitude
319 in some cases) could be observed across the reviewed studies (see Table S10,

320 supplementary material). These large variations were especially pronounced for
321 emissions of trace compounds to air (e.g. PCDD/F, Hg, Cd, and As), but also for in-
322 plant consumption of electricity and auxiliary fuels. These discrepancies in inventory
323 data can only partly be explained by technological differences and variations in
324 geographical and temporal scope of the studies. For example, systematic comparisons of
325 historical developments in air-pollution-control systems (Damgaard et al., 2010) have
326 demonstrated far less variations in air emissions, and thereby also environmental
327 impacts, than the variations indicated by the reviewed studies.

328 While not possible to examine based on the reviewed studies themselves, some
329 of the observed differences in inventory data may be potential mistakes, either related to
330 the data generation or the manuscript writing. Examples are PCDD/F emissions in the
331 order of 600 mg/Mg of waste (Hong et al., 2006), Hg emissions of 15 g/Mg of wood
332 waste in case of steam gasification (Khoo et al., 2009), and oil consumption of more
333 than 300 kg/Mg of waste in a fluidized bed reactor (Ning et al., 2013). These values are
334 significantly higher than most other studies and the values should at least have been
335 argued relative to typical values found in literature.

336 Inventory data can be considered critical for the transparency of an individual
337 study. But as specific inventory data from one study are often re-used by other studies
338 in new LCA modeling contexts, the need for critical evaluation of values and
339 comparison with well-documented studies in literature, before LCA modeling, should
340 be evident.

341

342 **3.3 Key methodological choices**

343 **3.3.1 LCI modeling approach**

344 The approach used for modeling of emissions and energy recovery in LCA of WtE
345 technologies is potentially more important than in other types of LCA (Damgaard et al.,
346 2010, Hellweg et al., 2001, Turconi et al., 2011), as these two aspects represent the
347 main environmental loads and potential benefits. In 55 % of the case-studies, the LCI
348 data appeared or was claimed to be based on mass and energy balances (see Figure 8).
349 In about 30 % of the cases, transfer coefficients (TC) were used to correlate the waste
350 input composition (chemistry and energy content) with the outputs from the WtE
351 process. Very few of these studies applied TCs to balance only mass or only energy (2
352 % and 8 %, respectively, of all cases). Another third of the case-studies (27 %) did not
353 mention applying any form of mass and energy balancing, suggesting that emissions
354 and/or flows in these cases could be inaccurate. The remaining third of the studies (33
355 %) applied some level of mass and/or energy balancing, but without specifying
356 correlations between inputs and outputs. In such cases, the LCA modeling results may
357 not be directly applicable to situations where the same WtE technology is used in the
358 context of different waste input compositions. Without sufficient information about the
359 modeling approach, the results may potentially include a significant (but unquantifiable)
360 error.

361

362 **3.3.2 Capital goods**

363 The environmental impacts related to capital goods, i.e. facilities and equipment, have
364 only very recently been addressed systematically (e.g. Brogaard et al., 2013). In relation
365 to WtE technologies, capital goods may have a significant influence on the LCA results,
366 in particular for impact categories such as resource depletion, eutrophication and
367 toxicity related impact categories (Brogaard et al., 2013). Only 19 % of the reviewed
368 case-studies included capital goods (see Figure 9), while about 58 % of the studies did

369 not specify whether capital goods were included. About 23 % of the case-studies
370 reported that capital goods were intentionally excluded based on an argument that the
371 contribution was negligible overall. Based on recent literature, however, this conclusion
372 is questionable if an LCA involves aspects such as resource depletion, eutrophication
373 and toxicity related impacts.

374

375 **3.3.3 Avoided burdens from energy production**

376 Of the 238 case-studies in which energy recovery was considered (assuming that energy
377 was recovered unless explicitly stated as “not recovered”), substitution of energy within
378 the energy system was modelled in 83 % of the cases by means of system expansion
379 (see Figure 10, left). In 6 % of the case-studies, energy substitution was not included
380 and environmental benefits from avoided production of energy and saving of fuels were
381 not addressed. Only in 11 % of the case-studies energy substitution was included but
382 not specified. Considering the importance of energy substitution for the overall LCA
383 results (Finnveden et al., 2005, Moberg et al., 2005, Laurent et al., 2014a, 2014b,
384 Finnveden et al., 2009), the high share of studies including avoided energy production is
385 encouraging.

386 Various approaches for quantification of the substituted energy exist in literature
387 (e.g. Münster et al., 2013, Mathiesen et al., 2009, Fruergaard et al., 2009); this may at
388 least partly be related to the overall LCA assessment approach, i.e. whether attributional
389 or consequential modeling is applied. While attributional studies may include a mix or
390 average of energy sources in a region, consequential LCA studies should involve the
391 marginal technologies responding to an induced change in the energy system
392 (Weidema, 2003, Weidema et al., 1999).

393 In 197 case-studies energy substitution was included. Of these about 46 %
394 applied the local energy mix for the substitution, while 34 % used a marginal energy
395 technology (Figure 10, middle). In 9 % of the studies, energy substitution was modeled
396 as direct substitution of a fuel, e.g. in the case of avoided consumption of coal in case of
397 co-combustion in cement-kilns or power plants. However, as the overall modeling
398 approach (attributional vs. consequential) was specified only in relatively few cases, it
399 was not possible to assess whether energy substitution was performed consistently with
400 the modeling approach.

401 Very few case-studies, 3 % (Figure 10, right), based decisions regarding energy
402 substitution on energy modeling (e.g. Bergsdal et al., 2005). Involving energy
403 modeling, i.e. modeling the consequences of an induced change in the energy supply
404 system from WtE, indicates a consequential approach to quantification of the
405 environmental impacts from WtE and an interest in regional conditions covered by the
406 energy model. A more generic approach would be to quantify energy substitution based
407 on scenario analysis, e.g. testing different possibilities for substituted fuels (e.g. Tonini
408 et al., 2013). About 33 % of the case-studies applied scenario analysis as basis for
409 energy substitution, while 43 % of the cases involved an energy mix based on literature
410 data. In 21 % of the cases, no explanation was provided regarding energy substitution.

411

412 **3.3.4 Sensitivity and uncertainty analysis**

413 Several approaches for assessing uncertainties within waste LCA exist (e.g. Wang and
414 Shen, 2013, Clavreul et al., 2013, Clavreul et al., 2012). Accepting the validity of the
415 mathematical models involved in the LCA calculations, studies should address both
416 scenario and parameter uncertainties to evaluate the robustness of the LCA conclusions.
417 Although recommended in international guidelines (e.g. Hauschild et al., 2012), 46 % of

418 the case-studies did not include any assessment of uncertainties (see Figure 11). About
419 29 % of the cases included sensitivity analysis on selected parameters, while scenario
420 uncertainties were only evaluated in 41 % of the case-studies. Detailed quantification of
421 uncertainties, i.e. uncertainty propagation, was included in only 5 % of the case-studies.
422 This clearly indicates that the robustness of the majority of LCA results provided in
423 literature for WtE technologies is very poorly evaluated and the applicability of results
424 may be questionable.

425

426 **3.4 Overall conclusions from the LCA results**

427 Most of the reviewed studies focused on comparing WtE technologies with other
428 alternatives or included WtE as part of mixed scenarios with a variety of waste
429 technologies. For this reason, and because of possible variations in the technological
430 system (e.g. waste composition, technical performance, and framework conditions), it
431 was therefore not possible to single out one WtE technology over another. However,
432 some overall trends could be observed (see Table S12, supplementary materials).

433 The majority of studies (25 out of 29 scientific articles) comparing recycling and
434 landfilling with WtE confirmed the waste hierarchy (recycling > WtE > landfilling) for
435 the waste materials investigated. The remaining studies concluded that WtE was
436 preferable or comparable to recycling of paper and plastic (e.g. Manfredi et al., 2011).
437 Generally, these differences were a consequence of differences in assumptions
438 regarding energy recovery efficiencies and the substituted energy (e.g. substituting
439 natural gas or an average mix decreased the environmental benefits associated with
440 WtE). Regardless of assumptions, all studies recommended that recycling of WEEE,
441 metals and C&D waste was preferable over incineration (e.g. Hirschier et al., 2005, Ortiz
442 et al., 2010, Scharnhorst et al., 2006, Wäger et al., 2011). This was mainly due to the

443 significant environmental savings from avoided virgin production and low energy
444 recovery from these fractions.

445 Most studies (25 out of 29 scientific articles) clearly indicated WtE as preferable
446 over landfilling. A few studies concluded landfilling to be preferable for specific
447 material fractions and under specific assumptions for the energy systems: plastic bags
448 (Khoo et al., 2010), specific material fractions such as paper and plastic when a limited
449 LCA time horizon was considered (Moberg et al., 2005), packaging waste (Wollny et
450 al., 2001), and RDF when the substituted energy was based on natural gas (Montejo et
451 al., 2013). Most of these results are not surprising: state-of-the-art landfilling may
452 induce significant CO₂ and other environmental savings related to carbon sequestration
453 and energy recovery, and may perform comparable to WtE for specific waste fractions
454 and/or under specific energy system conditions as documented in e.g. Tonini et al.
455 (2013), Manfredi et al. (2011), and Manfredi et al. (2009).

456 Only few studies compared pyrolysis and gasification with direct combustion,
457 incineration, and co-combustion in power plants or cement kilns (Saft, 2007, Bientinesi
458 and Petarca, 2009, Nakakubo et al., 2012, Assefa et al., 2005, Gunamantha and Sarto,
459 2012, Hellweg et al., 2005). Overall these studies found pyrolysis and gasification
460 preferable over incineration and co-combustion in cement kilns. Only one case
461 (Nakakubo et al., 2012) pyrolysis and co-combustion in cement kilns were found
462 comparable (sludge treatment). In another case (Hellweg et al., 2005), incineration and
463 gasification were found comparable for the non-toxic impact categories, but gasification
464 appeared better for the toxic categories due to an advanced metal recovery system for
465 slags. In all cases, the assumptions regarding energy and metal recovery efficiencies
466 were crucial for the results. Often, the inventory data applied for incineration did not

467 represent state-of-the-art technologies and the technological scope of the compared WtE
468 technologies were not always consistent.

469 No clear recommendation regarding RDF co-combustion in power plants or
470 cement kilns compared with direct incineration of untreated MSW could be found.
471 Three studies (Arena et al., 2003, Belboom et al., 2011, Houillon and Jolliet, 2005)
472 indicated incineration as preferable, while four (Cherubini et al., 2009, Blengini et al.,
473 2012, Rigamonti et al., 2012, Ning et al., 2013) highlighted co-combustion as the best
474 option. Following this trend, also Tsiliyannis (1999) and Fruergaard and Astrup (2011)
475 showed a comparable performance for the non-toxic impact categories, mainly related
476 to the energy recovery. However, Fruergaard and Astrup (2011) also highlighted that
477 the improved flue-gas cleaning at waste incinerators (stricter emissions limits for Hg,
478 As, heavy metals, dioxins, etc.) may outperform that of coal-fired power plants, thus
479 inducing important savings in the toxic categories.

480

481 **3.5 Critical inconsistencies in existing literature**

482 Overall, very few of the reviewed LCA studies provided sufficient description of goal
483 and scope of the LCA modeling and of the technologies included in the assessment.
484 Omitting this information prevents the necessary linking between the functional unit,
485 the waste composition and the WtE technology assessed, and further renders it
486 impossible to evaluate whether selected technical parameters match the temporal and
487 geographical scope of the assessment. Most studies in literature omitted key parts of the
488 technology system in the LCA modeling, e.g. air-pollution-control, residue
489 management, and capital goods, which may significantly affect the overall LCA results.
490 In cases where specific technology elements (e.g. air-pollution-control systems) were in

491 fact included, or appeared to be included, the underlying data were often very poorly
492 described.

493 In addition to the scope and technology aspects, also the description of the LCA
494 modeling approaches was often weak. This means that the validity of calculation
495 principles could not be assessed and ultimately reproduced. With energy recovery
496 modeling as an example, only 39 % of the studies provided both the LHV of the waste
497 input and heat and electricity efficiencies, thereby allowing the reader to reproduce
498 calculations. In all other cases, the validity of the energy calculations could not be fully
499 examined.

500 While the LCA field has developed tremendously over the recent two decades
501 and an acceptance of the complexities related to waste LCA modeling is increasing, this
502 review clearly suggests that the quality of the peer-review process involved in scientific
503 publishing of WtE LCA studies may be questionable.

504

505 **3.6 Recommendations for state-of-the-art LCA of WtE technologies**

506 Based on the reviewed literature, a range of practical recommendations for performing
507 state-of-the-art LCA of WtE technologies and systems were identified:

508

- 509 • The LCA assessment approach, i.e. consequential or attributional, should be
510 clearly stated. Most of the reviewed studies omitted this.
- 511 • The functional unit should not only describe the service provided by the system
512 (e.g. utilization of 1 Mg of waste) but should be supplemented with a transparent
513 description of temporal, geographical, and technological scope.
- 514 • Choice of technologies and recovery efficiencies should reflect the geographical,
515 temporal, and technological scope. New emerging technologies not yet

516 demonstrated in full-scale, should be compared with alternative technologies
517 appropriate for the time period when a full-scale installation of the technology
518 can be expected (e.g. Tonini et al., 2013). This means that performance, plant
519 capacity, efficiencies, emission control, etc. of alternative technologies should
520 be forecasted and matched, and the comparison not be based on old landfills or
521 poorly performing incinerators represented by obsolete technologies and
522 datasets.

523 • LHV, material and preferably chemical composition of the waste should be
524 reported, or alternatively a clear reference to the data source should be provided.
525 Similar for the inventory data (particularly air emissions and consumption data).
526 For green accounts and other non-peer-reviewed sources, (current) web links
527 should be provided with the reference.

528 • Energy substitution principles (marginal vs. average mix) should reflect the
529 LCA assessment approach (consequential vs. attributional) and the temporal
530 scope. Future marginal energy sources could be identified for example based on
531 national energy plans or projections from energy agencies (e.g. IEA). Political
532 targets could also be used to justify energy substitution as such targets may
533 likely promote technology implementation/phase-out.

534 • Detailed descriptions of mass, substance and energy flows in the WtE
535 technology system should be provided (e.g. in supporting materials). Examples
536 of consistent and transparent LCI reporting could be found in Blengini et al.
537 (2012) or Rigamonti et al. (2012).

538 • Uncertainty aspects should be systematically addressed, either by sensitivity
539 analysis or by propagation of uncertainties. The type of uncertainty assessment
540 should be clearly described (e.g. following the principles by Clavreul et al.,

541 2012). Examples of this can be found in Clavreul et al. (2013), Clavreul et al.
542 (2012), and Tonini et al. (2012).

543 • Environmental impacts from capital goods should be addressed if possible,
544 either as part of a sensitivity analysis or by specifically including capital goods
545 in the assessment (Brogaard et al., 2013, Brogaard and Christensen, 2012). Data
546 on capital goods, however, are relatively scarce and inventory data are needed
547 for several waste technologies (e.g. gasification, pyrolysis, mechanical-
548 biological treatment, recycling facilities including unit separation equipment).

549 • Environmental impacts associated with toxic emissions and resource depletion
550 should be addressed. While climate change related impacts are typically affected
551 by energy recovery efficiencies and energy substitution, specific differences
552 between efficient state-of-the-art waste technologies are more likely to be
553 observed in relation to resource depletion and toxicity related impacts (see
554 Tonini et al., 2013). Including only non-toxic impact categories may therefore
555 be insufficient.

556

557 **4. Conclusions**

558 The review included 136 peer-reviewed journal articles involving life cycle assessment
559 (LCA) of the following waste-to-energy (WtE) technology types: incineration, co-
560 combustion, pyrolysis, and gasification. In total, these journal articles reported results
561 from 250 individual case-studies or scenarios. By far the most case-studies assessed
562 incineration, while relatively few studies addressed technologies such as
563 pyrolysis/gasification and co-combustion in detail. Very few of the reviewed studies
564 provided a sufficient description of i) goal and scope of the assessment, ii) the
565 technologies included, and the iii) the calculation principles applied for quantification of

566 emissions and energy recovery. Consequently, the LCA results reported in the studies
567 could be verified only in very few cases. This clearly questions the peer-review process
568 involved prior to publication of the studies, but also significantly limits the applicability
569 of inventory data and LCA results provided by the existing studies. The overview of
570 assumptions and data applied in existing LCA literature offered by this review provides
571 a consistent platform for future studies to ensure transparency and clear argumentation
572 for assessment choices when addressing WtE technologies.

573

574 **Supplementary Material**

575 The supplementary material includes: i) a full list of references of the 136 reviewed
576 journal articles, ii) detailed review-metrics for all 250 case-studies, iii) list of extracted
577 inventory data, and iv) overview of main conclusions in the LCA studies.

578

579 **Literature**

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783

784

785

786 Table 1. Overview of the aspects addressed in the review. The classification of each aspect is listed supplemented with a brief description (*italic*)
 787 when relevant. MSW indicates Municipal Solid Waste representing waste typically collected from households and small business/industry.

| Element | Classifications used in this study (description in <i>Italic</i>) |
|---|--|
| Goal and scope | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Functional unit 1 Mg, Generation (<i>waste generated in a Region</i>), Input (<i>amount of waste entering a treatment facility</i>), Output (<i>amount of energy produced</i>), Not specified - Type of LCA study WtE comparison, WtE vs. other (<i>WtE vs. other technologies</i>), Mixed scenarios (<i>different technologies in the same scenarios</i>), Optimization (<i>-oriented</i>), Not specified - Time horizon <i>Time horizon of the LCA study (e.g. 100 years)</i> - Geographical scope Globe, Continent, International, Nation, Region, Municipality, Plant, Sub-plant (<i>a section of a plant, e.g. air-pollution-control system</i>), Not specified - Temporal scope <i>Temporal scope of the study (e.g. the study focuses on conditions and technologies for 2014, or for 2020, or for 2050, etc)</i> |
| Technical parameters and inventory data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Waste input <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Waste type Mix household (<i>no source-segregation</i>), Residual household (H) (<i>household left-over after source-segregation</i>), Mix Municipal (<i>mixed MSW</i>), Residual Municipal (<i>MSW after source-segregation</i>), Industrial (I), Sludge (S), Mix H-I, Mix H-S, Mix I-S, Mix H-I-S, Single fraction, Pre-treated (<i>SRF, etc.</i>), Not specified o Waste composition Material fraction + full chemical (<i>>20 elements</i>), Material fraction + partial chemical (<i>< 10 elements</i>), Only material fraction, Only full chemical, Only partial chemical, Very limited description, No description o Data origin Sampling (<i>own data</i>), Literature, Database, Not specified, Mix literature/database, Mix measured/literature - Technology <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Type of thermal treatment Incineration, pyrolysis, gasification, co-combustion (power plant or cement kiln) o Plant capacity <i>Amount of waste potentially treated or of power output (e.g. Mg/year)</i> o Type of reactor Inc - Moving grate, Inc - Rotary kiln, Inc - Fluidised bed, Gas - updraft, Gas - Downdraft, Gas - Rotary kiln, Gas - Fluidised bed, Not specified o Dust removal Cyclone, Electrostatic precipitators (ESPs), Fabric or bag house filters, High efficiency Ventury scrubbers, Not specified o Treatment of acid gases Wet, Semidry, Dry, Not specified o PCDD/F removal Activated carbon, Catalytic bag, Not specified o deNOx system SNCR (<i>Selective non catalytic reactor</i>), SCR (<i>Selective catalytic reactor</i>), Not specified o Data origin Full-scale, Pilot-scale, Lab-scale, Literature, Database, Mix literature/database, Mix measured/literature, Not specified o Gas combustion system Engine, boiler, Gas turbine, Not specified - Energy recovery <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Type of energy recovered Electricity and heat, Only electricity, Only heat, No recovery, Transport fuel, Not specified o Energy recovery efficiency Based on LHV, Based on literature, Not specified o Availability of district heating Available, Not available, To be built, Not specified, Heat not recovered - Management of residues <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Bottom ash Landfill, Road construction, Other recycling/reuse, Not specified o APC residues Landfill, Stabilization + landfill, Other recycling/reuse, Not specified o Fly ash Landfill, Stabilization + landfill, Other recycling/reuse, Together with APC (<i>i.e. considered all together</i>), Backfilling old mines, Not specified o Sludge from WW treatment to WWTP, Intentionally excluded, Not specified, Not relevant, Landfilled - Inventory data <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Air emissions <i>Selected air emissions (NO_x, N₂O, SO_x, CO, dust, PCDD/F, Hg, Pb, As, Cr, Cu, Cd, Mn, Ni) when reported</i> o Input of energy <i>Auxiliary fuels, electricity, and heat consumed in the process</i> o Input of materials <i>Materials and chemicals consumed in the process</i> |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| Methodological choices in LCA modeling | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - LCA modeling approach <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Mass/Energy balance - Capital goods - Savings from energy production <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Type of energy substituted o Energy substitution model - Uncertainty/sensitivity analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Type of uncertainty analysis | <p>Mass+energy (TC), Only mass (TC), Only energy (TC), Mass+energy, Only mass, Only energy, No balance. <i>TC: transfer coefficients (the balance explicitly uses transfer coefficients related to input of mass and chemicals, or energy)</i></p> <p>Included, Intentionally excluded, Not specified</p> <p><i>Fuel source (or mix of fuels) substituted by the electricity recovered in the scenario under assessment</i></p> <p>Marginal, Average mix, Not specified</p> <p>Sensitivity on parameters only, Scenario analysis only, Uncertainty propagation only, Sensitivity+scenario, Sensitivity+propagation, Scenario+propagation, All, None</p> |
|--|--|---|

788

789

790 Table 2. Overview of energy recovery efficiencies in case-studies reporting such data.

791 Average and standard deviation (st.dev.) is provided when more than two case-studies

792 was available. Gasification and pyrolysis efficiencies are based on gas-electricity and

793 gas-heat conversions only.

| | Gross electricity efficiency | | | Net electricity efficiency | | | Net heat efficiency | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------|----------------------|----------------------------|-----------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------------|
| | N. case-studies | Range (%) | Average ±st.dev. (%) | N. case-studies | Range (%) | Average ±st.dev. (%) | N. case-studies | Range (%) | Average ±st.dev. (%) |
| Incineration | 61 | 0-34 | 21±7.0 | 87 | -2-30 | 19±7.5 | 68 | 0-87.7 | 44±28.4 |
| Co-combustion in cement-kilns | 1 | 4.38 | - | 0 | - | - | 0 | - | - |
| Co-combustion in power plants | 2 | 34-40 | - | 2 | 34.0 | - | 3 | 26-40 | 31±8.1 |
| Gasification | 2 | 33-34 | - | 5 | 14.5-27.2 | 20±5.3 | 2 | 33-45.5 | - |
| Pyrolysis | 1 | 18.0 | - | 1 | 15.25 | - | 1 | 70.3 | - |
| Pyrolysis-gasification | 1 | 35.0 | - | 0 | - | - | 1 | 40.0 | - |

794

795

796 **List of figure captions**

797

798 Figure 1. Temporal development of LCA case-studies on thermal WtE technologies.

799 Bars indicate number of case-studies in individual years, left y-axis, while diamonds
800 represent the cumulative number of case-studies (244), right y-axis.

801

802 Figure 2. Overview of functional unit, goal of the LCA and waste types included in
803 the reviewed case-studies.

804

805 Figure 3. Overview of information provided on waste composition in the reviewed
806 case-studies.

807

808 Figure 4. Overview of thermal technologies included in the reviewed case-studies.

809

810 Figure 5. Overview of technical aspects related to air-pollution-control (APC) systems
811 in the reviewed case-studies.

812

813 Figure 6. Overview of energy recovery options and calculation principles in the
814 reviewed case-studies.

815

816 Figure 7. Overview of residues management in the reviewed case-studies.

817

818 Figure 8. Overview of overall LCI modeling approaches included in the reviewed
819 case-studies (TC: transfer coefficients).

820

821 Figure 9. Overview of capital goods modeling in the reviewed case-studies.

822

823 Figure 10. Overview of energy substitution approaches in the reviewed case-studies.

824

825 Figure 11. Overview of sensitivity/uncertainty analysis in the reviewed case-studies.

826

Figure 01

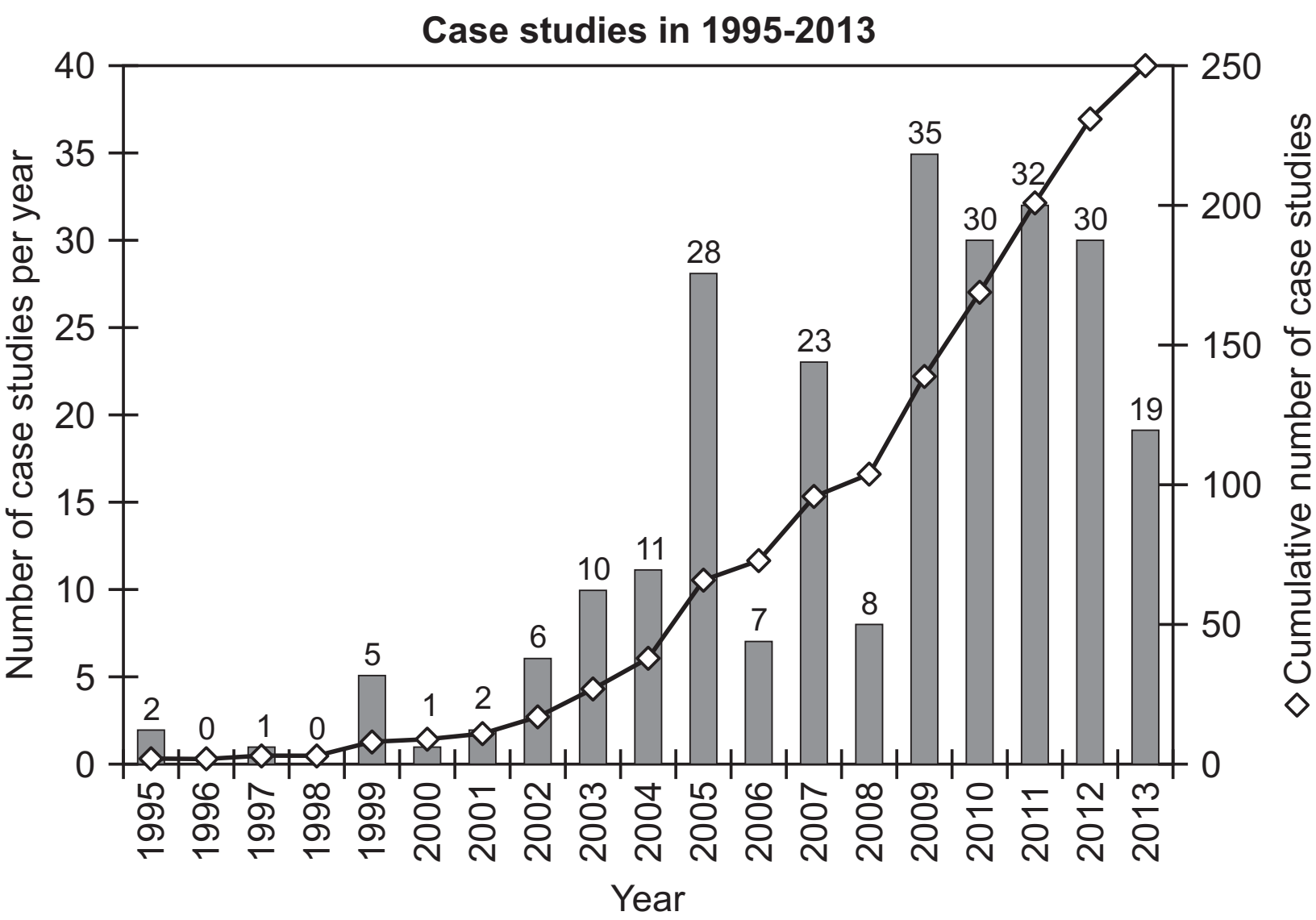


Figure 02

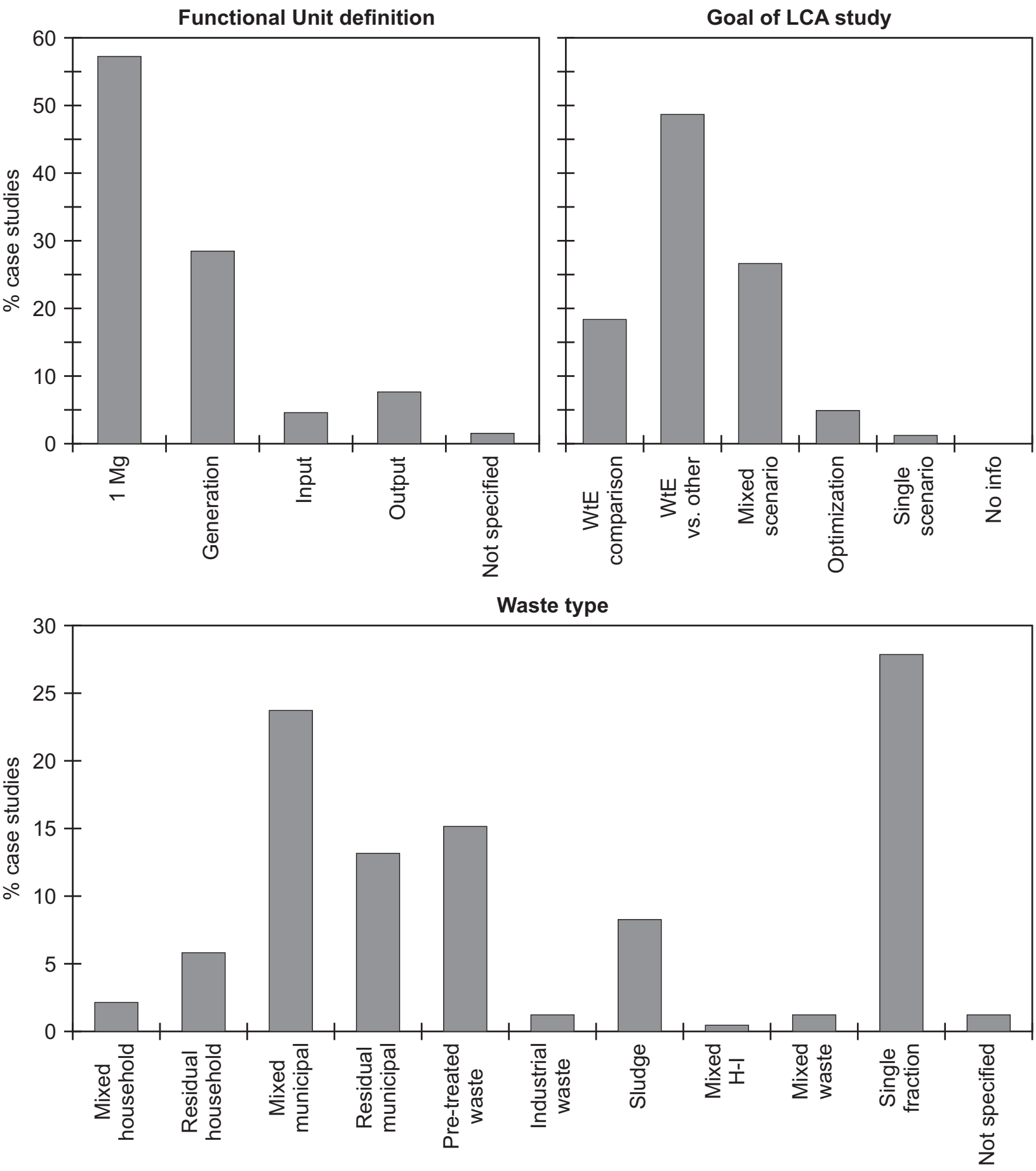


Figure 03

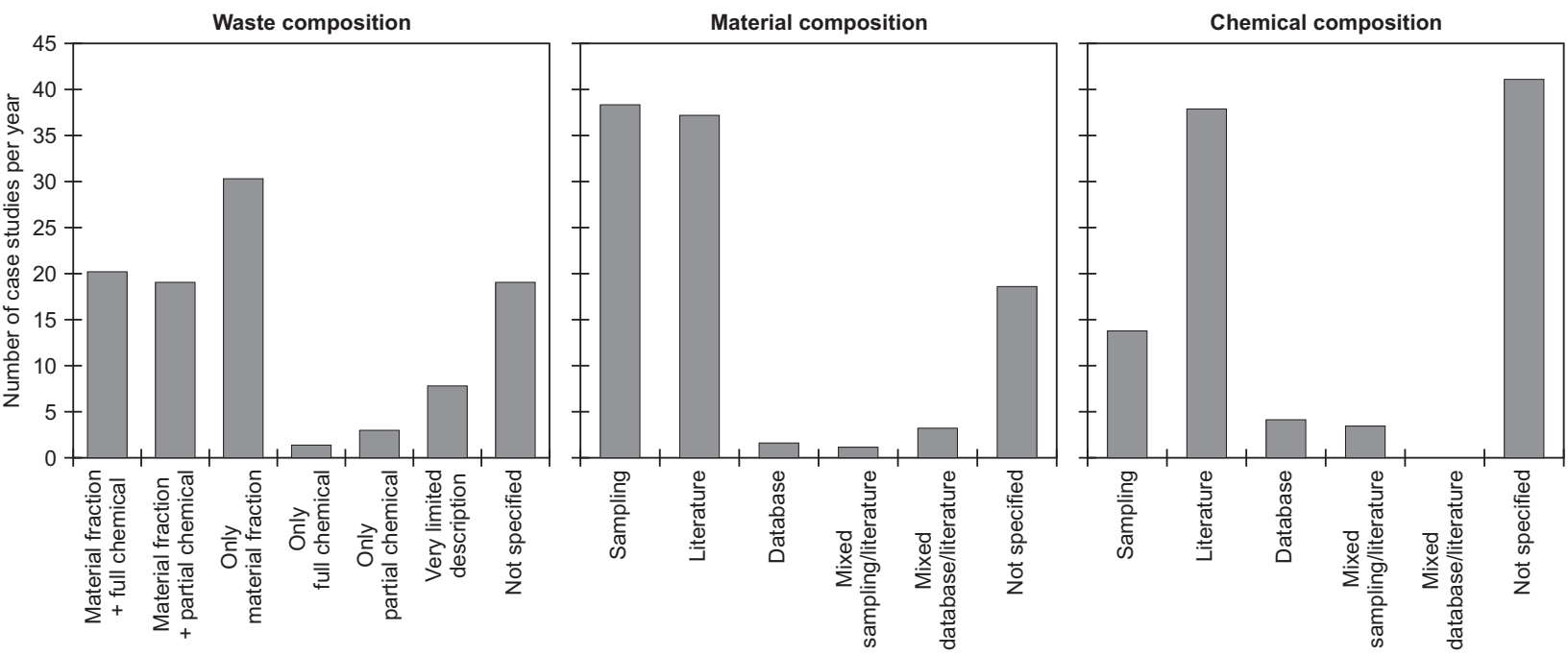


Figure 04

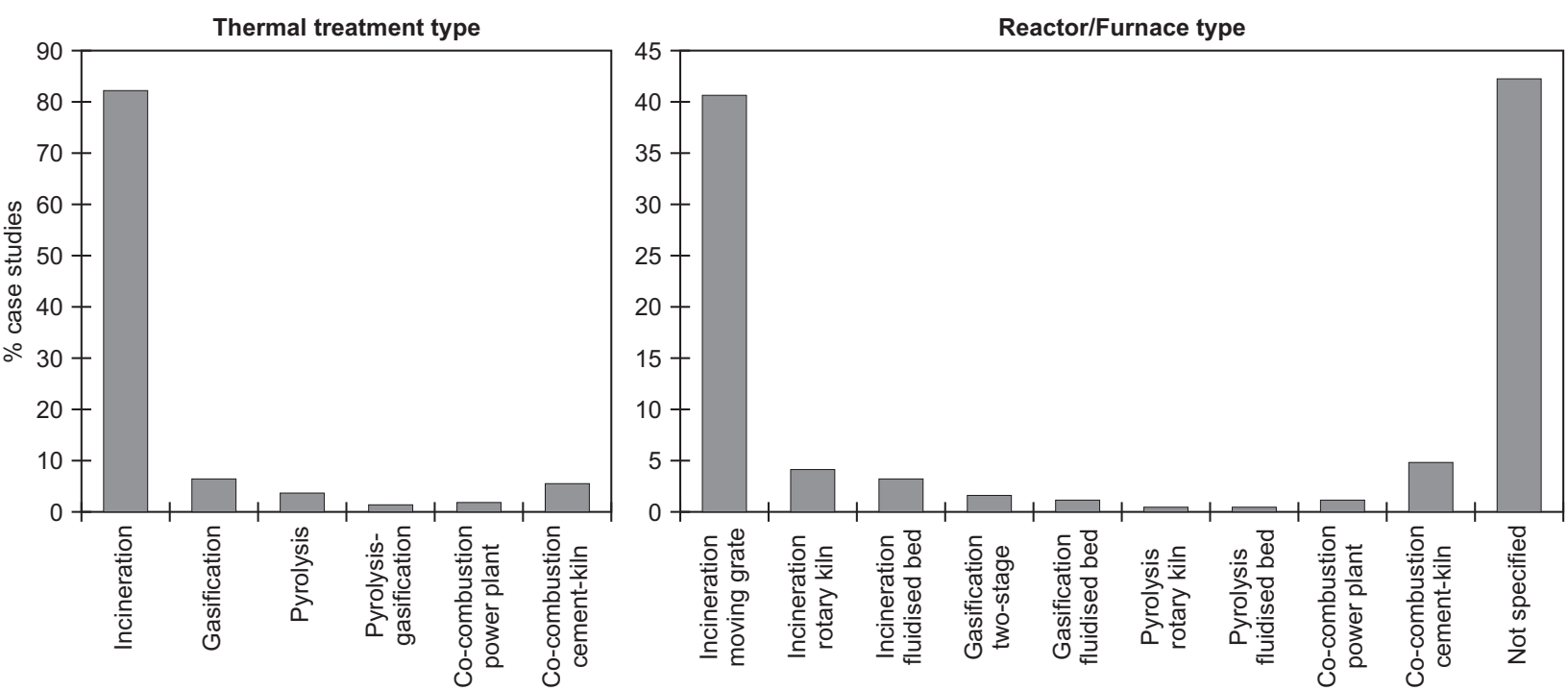


Figure 05

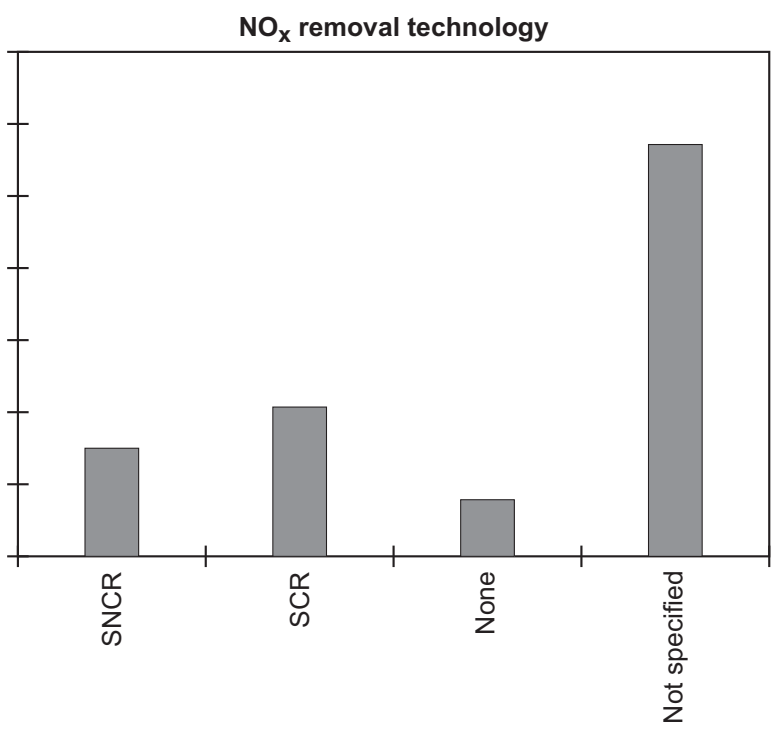
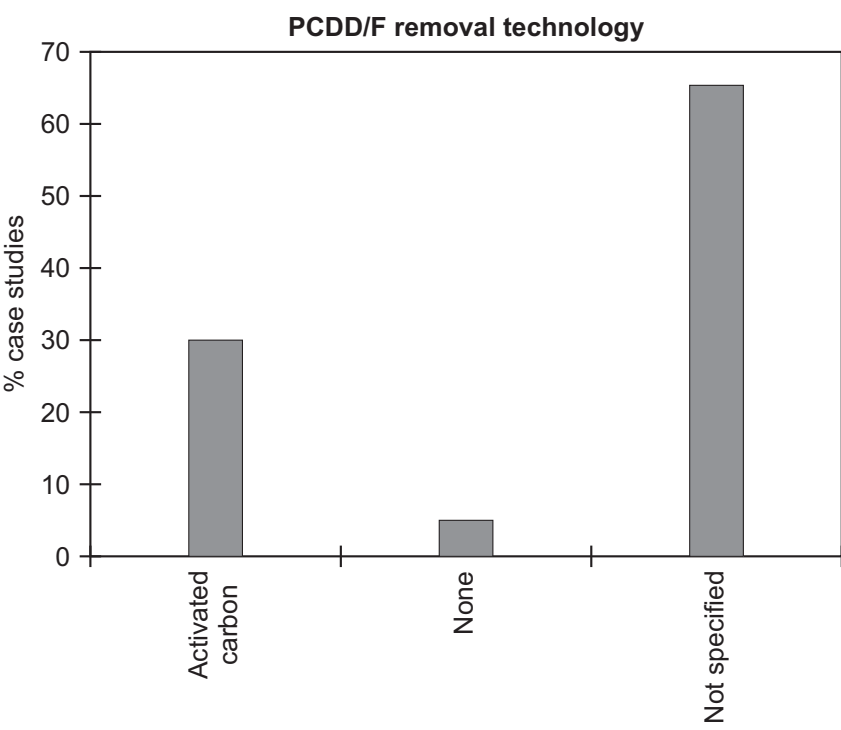
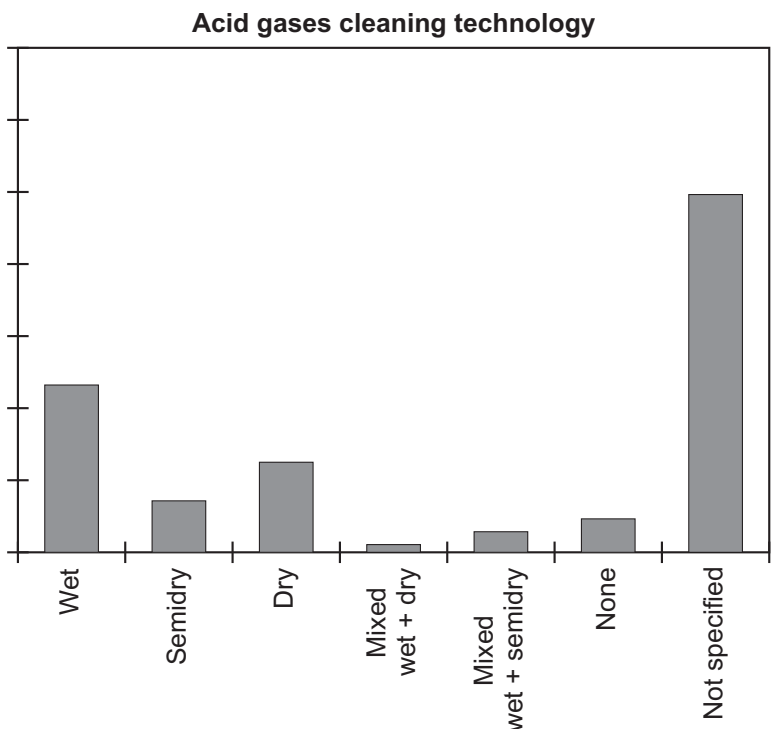
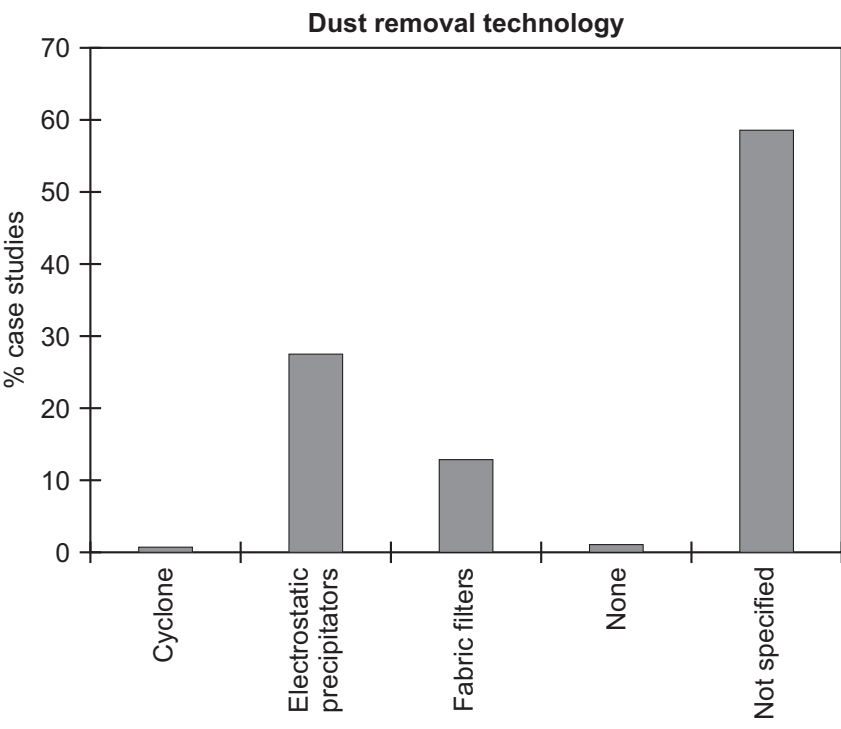


Figure 06

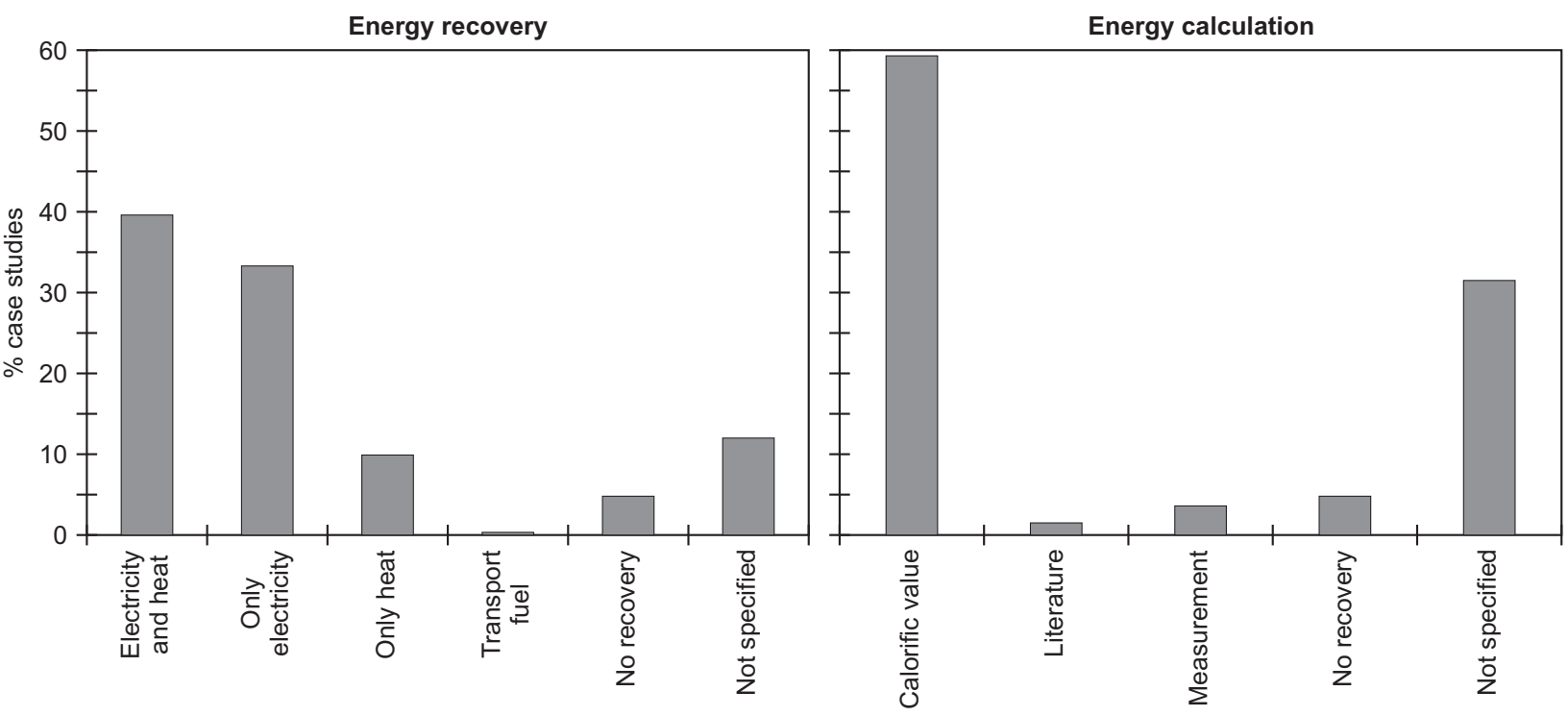
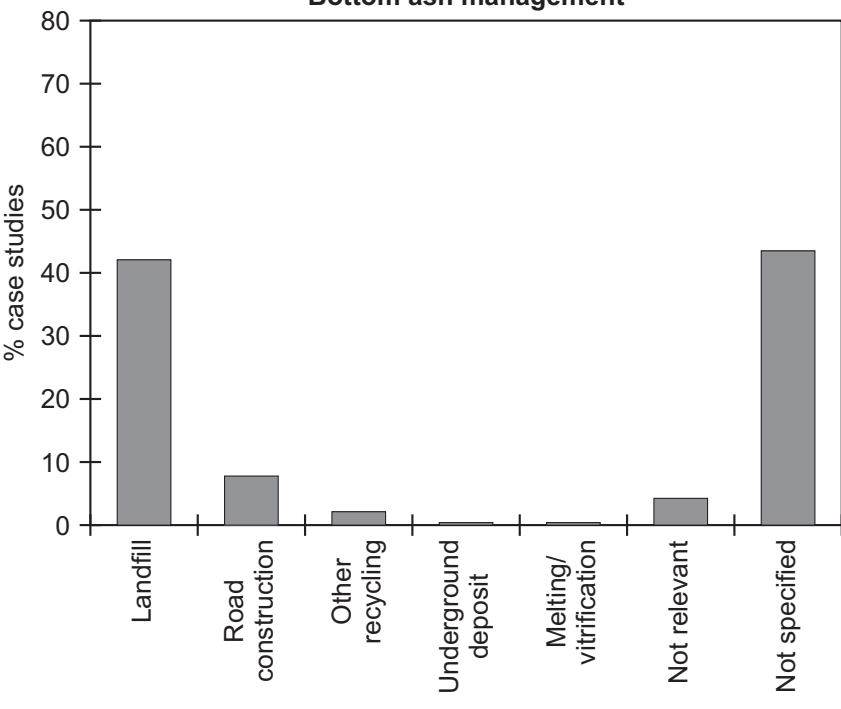
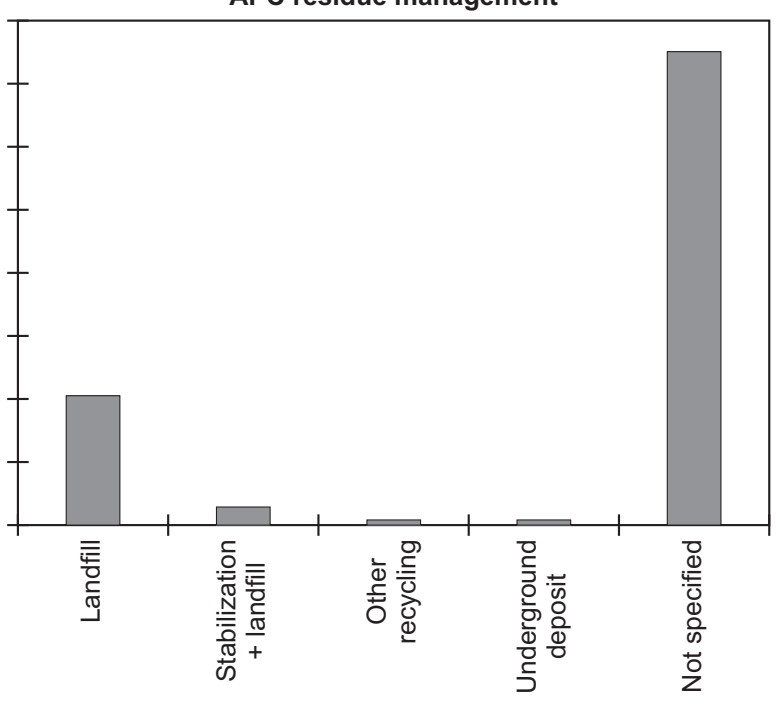


Figure 07

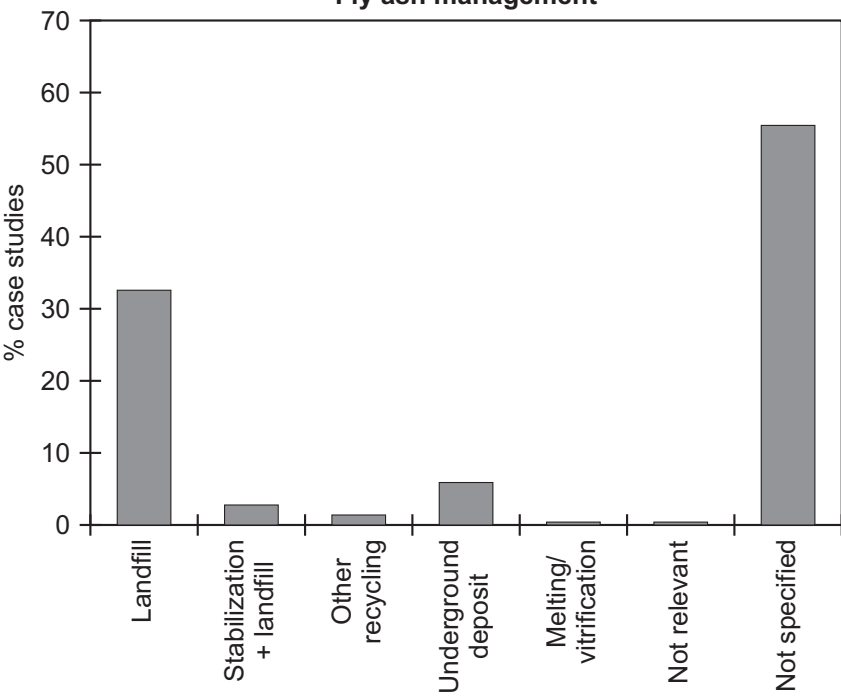
Bottom ash management



APC residue management



Fly ash management



Sludge management

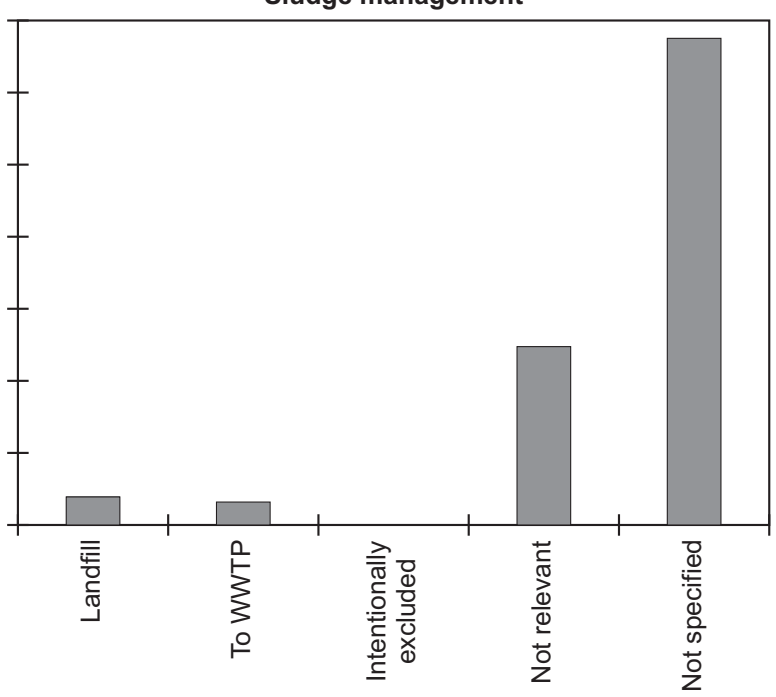
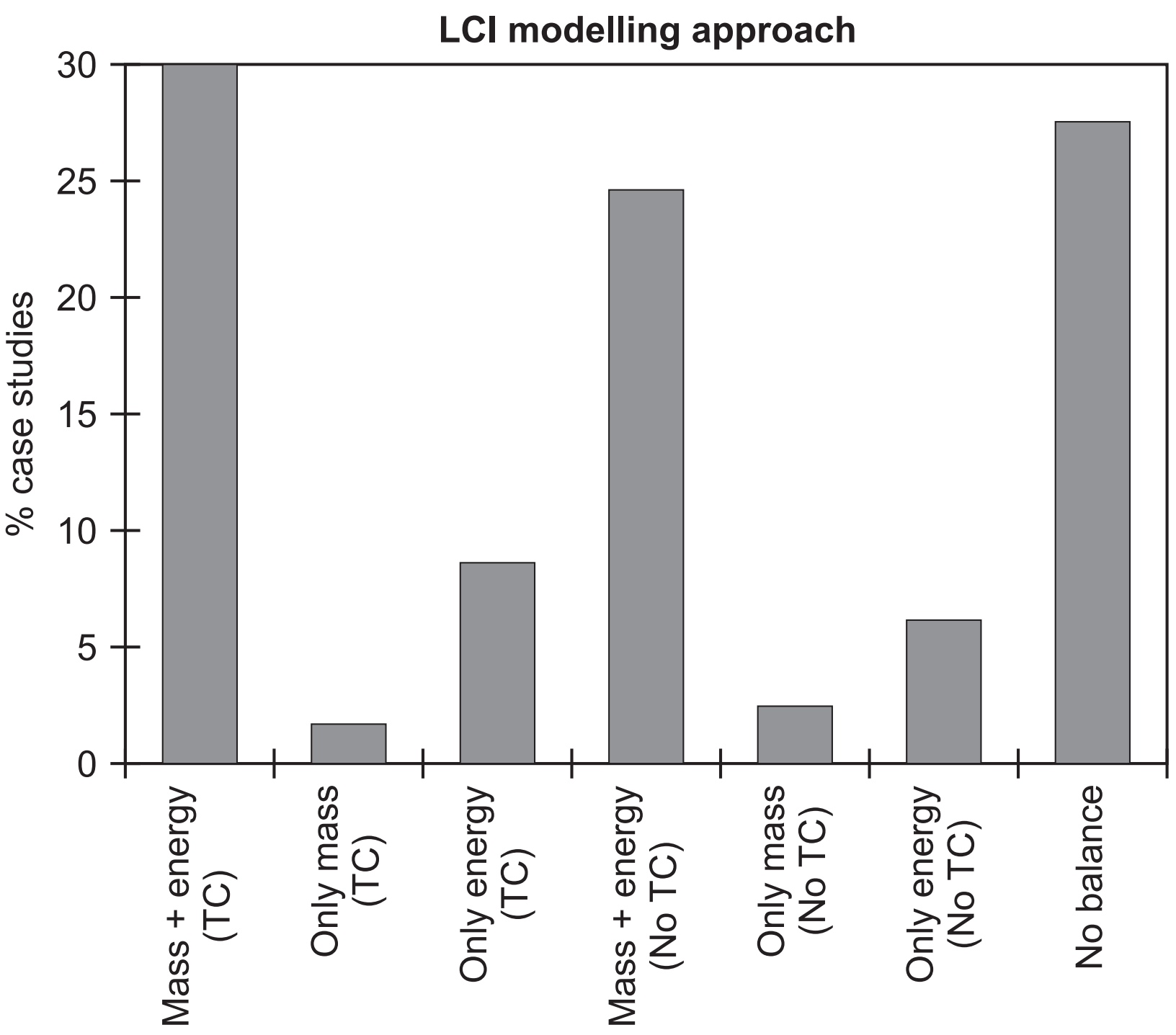


Figure 08



Capital goods

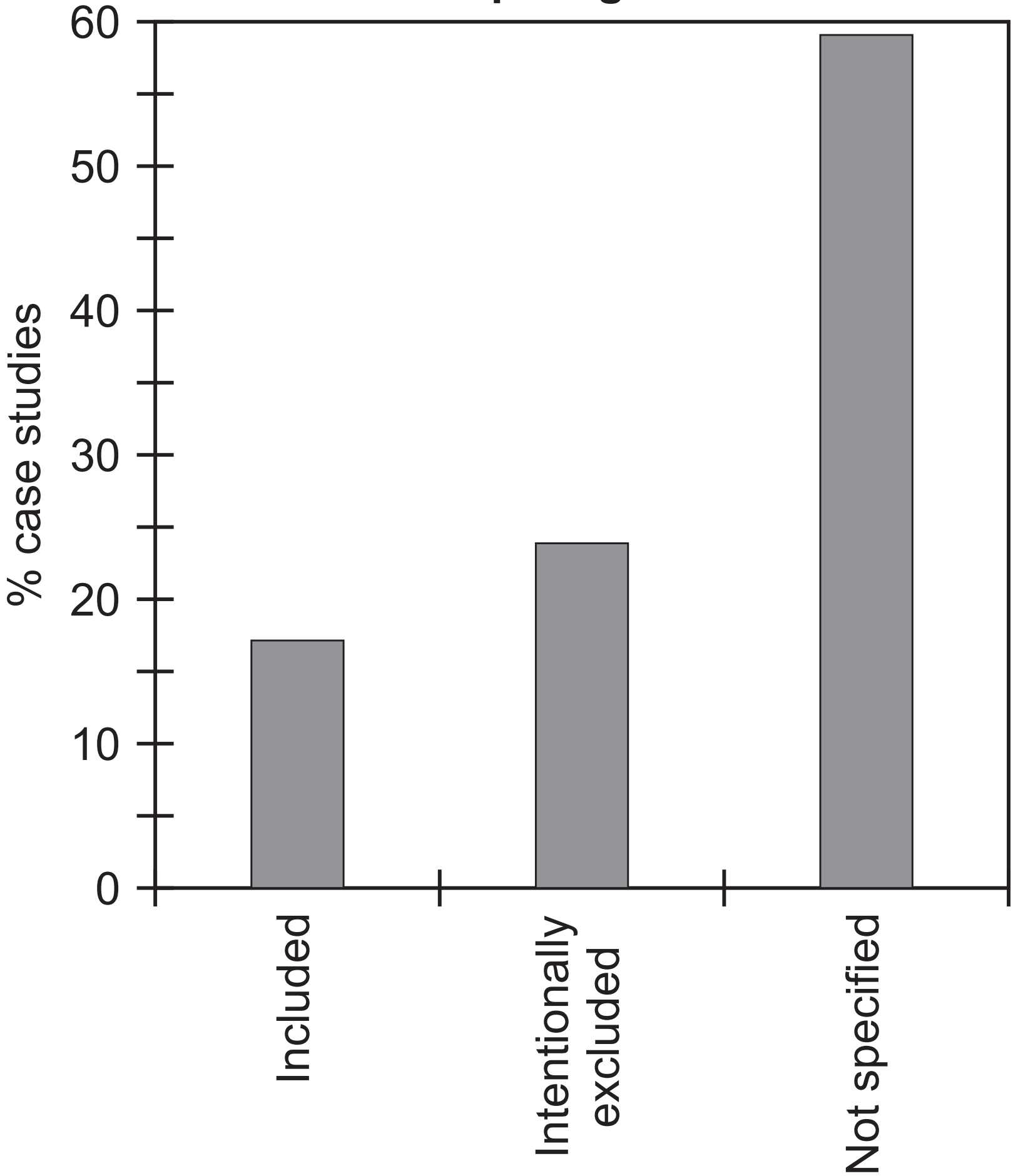


Figure 10

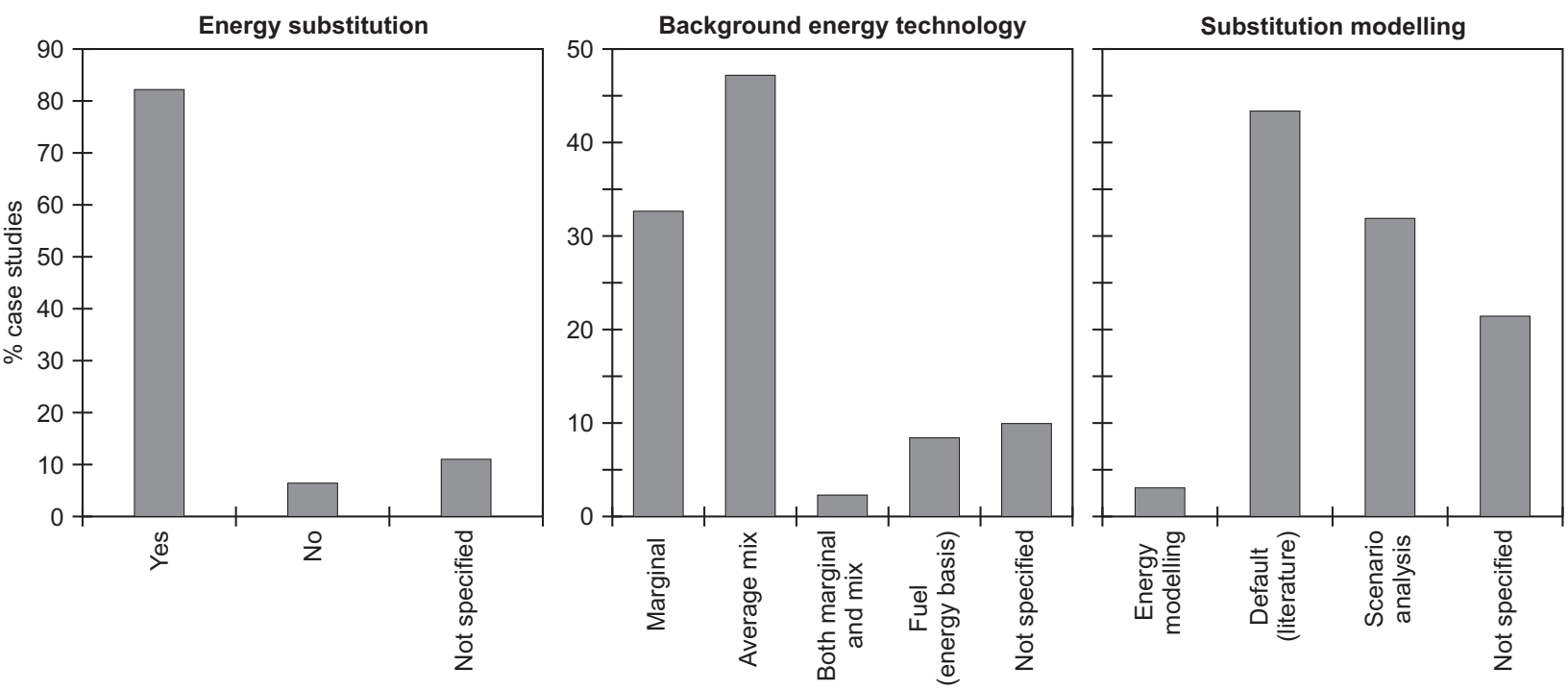


Figure 11

