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Life cycle assessment of biochar and hydrochar derived from sewage sludge: Material or energy utilization?

Fabian Gievers, Matia Mainardis, Arianna Catenacci, Achim Loewen, Michael Nelles

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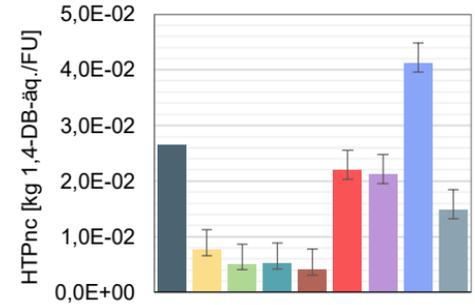
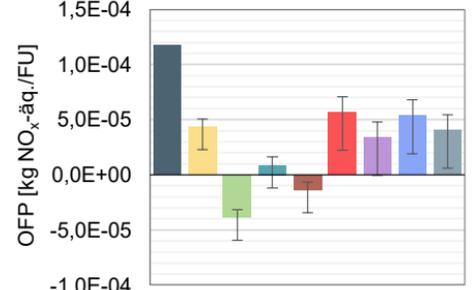
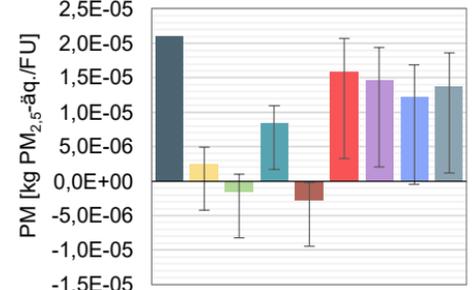
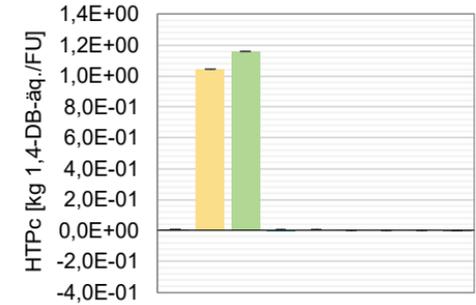
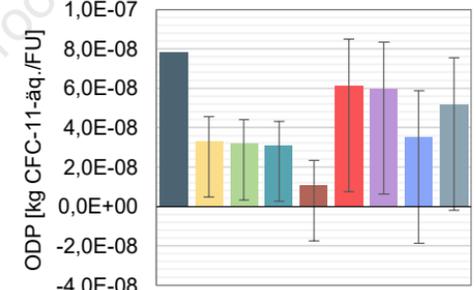
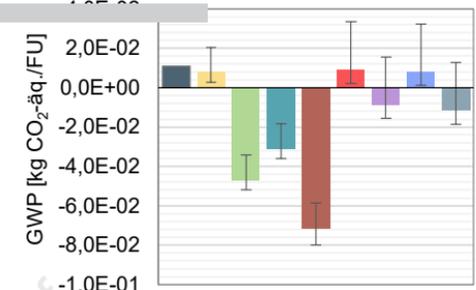
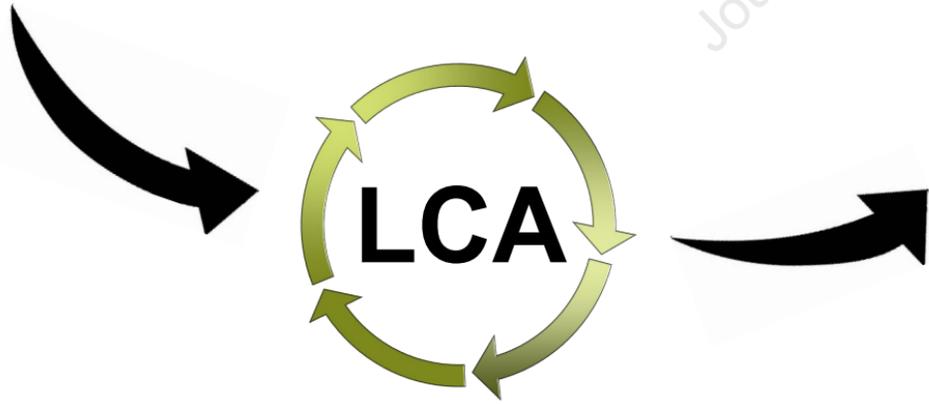
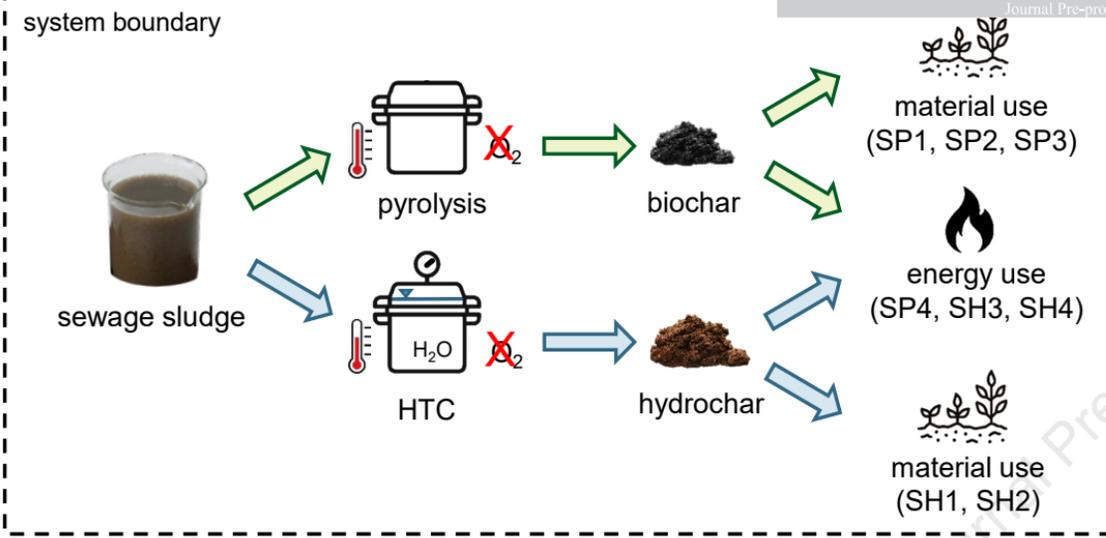
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■ Benchmark ■ SH1 ■ SH2 ■ SH3 ■ SH4 ■ SP1 ■ SP2 ■ SP3 ■ SP4

Abstract: In this work, alternative process chains for sewage sludge treatment by hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) and pyrolysis and the subsequent utilization of biochar and hydrochar were investigated by means of a comparative life cycle assessment (LCA). The mono-incineration of sewage sludge was defined as the benchmark process, being the main valorization route in several countries. The results revealed an advantage for HTC compared to pyrolysis and mono-incineration in most environmental impact categories, thanks to the higher char yield and the lower energy request. The global warming potential (GWP) of using hydrochar ranged from -71.4 to 7.7 g CO₂-eq. kg⁻¹ sewage sludge. However, the direct material application of the hydrochar in agriculture showed an increased toxicity potential, so that an energy utilization appears to be more environmentally friendly. For the pyrolysis route, a slightly higher energy demand and thus a higher environmental impact was determined, whereby GWP was between -11.7 to 9.1 g CO₂-eq. kg⁻¹ sewage sludge. The direct material application of the biochar in agriculture also showed low toxicity potentials while achieving nutrient recycling for phosphorus and a long-term carbon sequestration potential. Overall, ecological advantages were demonstrated for both thermochemical processes, making pyrolysis and HTC promising alternatives for sustainable sludge management.

Keywords:

sewage sludge utilization, nutrient recycling, environmental impact, carbon sequestration, pyrolysis, hydrothermal carbonization

Word count: 7754

1 Introduction

In recent decades, the increase in the world's population and global economic growth has led to a higher demand for resources, drastically raising the volume of produced wastewater and the resulting environmental pollution [1]. For this reason, wastewater treatment plants are built and operated to purify wastewater and minimize damages to the environment and human health [2]. The main by-product of each wastewater treatment process is sewage sludge, which contains valuable nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorus that make it suitable for use as a fertilizer [3–5]. The agricultural reuse of sewage sludge could theoretically replace up to 50% of the mineral phosphate fertilizer that is applied annually in European agriculture [6]. A long-term strategy is therefore required to enable waste-based nutrient recycling, especially for critical raw materials such as phosphorus.

At the same time, however, sewage sludge also contains potentially harmful substances such as heavy metals, organic pollutants, and pathogens that can accumulate in the

37 receiving soils [7], requiring the development of alternative treatment and recycling
38 processes [8–10]. One of these possibilities is sewage sludge incineration (i.e., combustion
39 with energy recovery). However, the high water and ash content of the sludge leads to an
40 overall low calorific value, requiring energy-intensive pre-treatment to enable autothermal
41 combustion [11]. Nevertheless, new facilities for sewage sludge mono-incineration are
42 currently being built, despite significant technical and economic uncertainties regarding
43 phosphorus recovery from ashes, as the necessary processes have not yet been widely
44 established on an industrial scale [12–15].

45 Given the current growing demands for reducing pollutant and greenhouse gas (GHG)
46 emissions, recovering nutrients, generating clean energy and implementing circular
47 economy principles, it is important to rethink the conventional ways of utilizing sewage
48 sludge to tap into its largely unexploited environmental and economic potential [1]. As an
49 alternative to mono-incineration, different thermochemical processes, in particular pyrolysis
50 and hydrothermal carbonization (HTC), have recently been tested at the laboratory or pilot
51 scale, and even in some full-scale facilities [5,14,16]. Pyrolysis consists of an endothermic
52 conversion of complex substances in an oxygen-free environment, and is normally
53 performed at 500-700 °C, while HTC takes place in aqueous phase and at lower
54 temperatures (150-350 °C), and thus is specifically adapt to wet biomasses, as it does not
55 require an intense preliminary drying step [4,17]. Through thermochemical processes, the
56 sludge is mostly converted to solid products called biochar or hydrochar, which can be used
57 as agricultural amendments, fuels, additives to the anaerobic digestion (AD), or even
58 adsorbents for gaseous pollutants [17].

59 However, the ecological effects of these alternative treatment processes (HTC and
60 pyrolysis) are still largely unexplored. It is unclear whether the alternative process chains
61 offer ecological advantages over mono-incineration and which application paths for the
62 resulting biochar and hydrochar will enable a sustainable circular economy for critical
63 resources while achieving the lowest possible emissions profile [11,18]. Recently, it was
64 demonstrated that biochar and hydrochar produced from straw and manure positively
65 influence soil physicochemical properties with hydrochar outperforming biochar thanks to
66 GHG emission reduction and degradation of cellulose, lignin and chitin [19]. However, the
67 results strongly depend on the specific characteristics of the processed biomass.

68 Therefore, a thorough environmental assessment is urgently required to identify the most
69 suitable treatment method for sewage sludge, including the subsequent use of the resulting
70 products, providing useful indications for stakeholders. In this sense, life cycle assessment

71 (LCA) can help to broaden the perspective beyond waste management. The environmental
72 impacts of waste management often depend more on the effects on surrounding systems
73 than on the emissions from waste management itself [20]. Consequently, the focus on the
74 development of resource and waste management strategies has recently shifted from
75 weight-based recycling targets to impact-oriented measures [21]. LCA is now ubiquitous as
76 an integrative component for further development of waste management and a virtuous
77 utilization of natural resources, including the adjacent energy industries [22–26]. Thanks to
78 circular economy principles, the need to produce useful products or energy from sewage
79 sludge through thermochemical conversion has become more attractive and has been
80 investigated in several LCA studies. For example, Huang et al. (2022) [27] investigated
81 different options to produce activated carbon (AC), biochar or bio-oil from sewage sludge by
82 fast pyrolysis, while Xia et al. (2024) [28] examined various feedstock-based biochars as
83 soil amendments with an LCA approach. Mannarino et al. (2022) [29] evaluated the
84 environmental performance of sewage sludge HTC, and Ogunleye et al. (2024) [30]
85 reviewed different hydrochar utilization pathways through their life cycle performance.
86 However, most of the studies focus exclusively on pyrolysis [27,31] or HTC [9,29] of sewage
87 sludge, while a fruitful comparison of HTC and pyrolysis, with useful insight to stakeholders,
88 is seldom performed [11], requiring further studies on this outstanding topic.

89 In fact, to the authors' knowledge, there are no studies to date that evaluate and compare
90 the environmental impact of different thermochemical treatments of sewage sludge,
91 including the direct material or energy utilization of the resulting materials beyond landfilling.
92 In this article, a LCA is therefore carried out in which the environmental impacts of various
93 thermochemical sewage sludge treatment processes are evaluated by considering eight
94 different recycling routes of the resulting biochar (agriculture, horticulture, AD amendment +
95 agriculture, co-incineration) and hydrochar (agriculture, horticulture, mono-incineration, co-
96 incineration), comparing the results with the conventional mono-incineration process.
97 Finally, a scenario and a sensitivity analysis are performed to determine the influence of
98 energy supply, process water treatment and flocculant type on the model results and to
99 understand the sensitivity of the LCA results to key input parameters. The results of this
100 study can be used to integrate environmental aspects into the early development stages of
101 a sustainable framework for sewage sludge treatment with valuable resource recovery, as
102 it allows optimal process selection and thus contributes to sustainable decisions in waste
103 management strategies.

104

105 **2 Materials and methods**

106 **2.1 Modelling Framework**

107 The LCA was conducted in accordance with the ISO 14040:2006 standard [32], using the
108 software GaBi from Sphera Solutions Inc. (Version 10.6) to model and compare the process
109 chains. In the context of LCA application to new technologies, the main objective is typically
110 to apply a consistent approach that includes substituted systems and identifies marginal
111 processes directly related to the modeled processes [33]. In the ISO 14044:2006 standard
112 [34], this method is referred to as a system extension, as the further fate of the by-products
113 and the resulting changes (substitutions) are not cut off by the allocation [35,36].

114

115 *2.1.1 Goal and Scope*

116 The definition of the assessment goal serves as a guideline for all aspects of the scope of
117 the study, providing the framework for the life cycle inventory (LCI) and the resulting life
118 cycle impact assessment (LCIA) [37]. Given that an LCA is particularly useful to investigate
119 new technologies or systems for which only limited or no data is available at an industrial
120 scale [38], this paper investigates some relatively novel thermochemical conversion
121 technologies. The LCA results can be used to determine whether the technologies under
122 consideration represent an ecological improvement compared to existing technologies or
123 whether the latter already represent the best solution. The focus is twofold: choosing the
124 optimum disposal strategy in terms of energy and materials, and closing material cycles
125 while minimizing pollutant emissions into the environment. The study compares pyrolysis
126 and HTC with mono-incineration, but other new or hybrid technologies for sludge treatment,
127 which were not the subject of this study, could also offer competitive advantages. Moreover,
128 although many environmental impact categories were considered, the LCA might not fully
129 encompass all potential environmental impacts, such as social and economic externalities
130 or impacts on biodiversity, which are equally important in assessing overall sustainability.

131

132 *2.1.2 Functional Unit*

133 The LCA of a waste treatment system usually focuses on the end-of-life phase of a product
134 or waste, considering only the processes required to manage this waste [25,39]. The
135 functional unit is therefore defined based on the system input, in this case, the amount of
136 sewage sludge to be disposed of [39]. The functional unit (FU) was thus defined as
137 "treatment of 1 kg of sewage sludge after anaerobic digestion with a total solids (TS) content
138 of 5% and a volatile solids (VS) content of 48% TS" for all systems under investigation. The

139 TS and VS content were derived from the mono-incineration process used by the Ecoinvent
140 database, which served as the benchmark treatment.

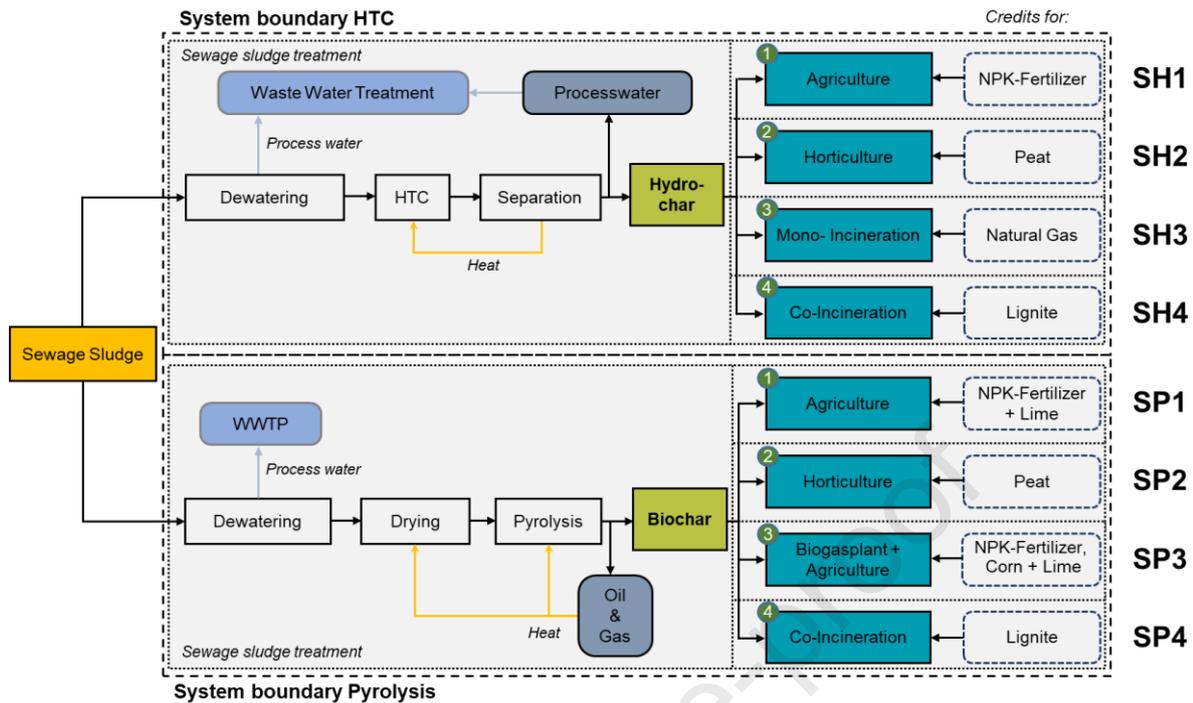
141

142 *2.1.3 Definition of the system boundaries*

143 The waste treatment system evaluated in this work included different thermochemical
144 treatment processes for digested sewage sludge as a waste product. Therefore, the
145 previous life cycle stages of the wastewater treatment can be omitted from the assessment
146 [35], and the sewage sludge enters the modeled system after the anaerobic digestion stage
147 without emissions from the upstream processes [20,39]. For all other material and energy
148 flows associated with the investigated process chains, the complete cradle-to-grave life
149 cycles were modeled. When modeling the individual process chains based on the
150 assumptions made and literature results, an effort was made to comprehensively record the
151 relevant material and energy flows, ensuring that at least 95% of these flows were accounted
152 for. To keep the balancing effort within a manageable framework, operations that were not
153 used exclusively for the process chains under consideration were cut off. Examples include
154 infrastructure and investment items, such as the life cycle of the roads used to transport the
155 chars or the manufacture of the tractor used to spread the char. Many studies have shown
156 that the emissions from reactor manufacturing and plant components over the entire life
157 cycle are low compared to the emissions from energy provision, and therefore show limited
158 environmental impact [2,22,25,40]. Therefore, the materials for the reactors and system
159 components were not part of this study.

160 The modeled system includes sludge treatment by HTC and pyrolysis as well as four
161 different use scenarios for each produced char (Figure 1). Two material use scenarios were
162 evaluated for the hydrochar: agricultural use (SH1) with potential substitution of fertilizers,
163 and peat replacement in a growing media for horticulture (SH2). The energy utilization of
164 the hydrochar was modeled as a mono-incineration process substituting energy from natural
165 gas (SH3) and a co-incineration process in a lignite power plant (SH4). As for pyrolysis,
166 three material utilizations of the biochar were investigated: agricultural use (SP1) with a
167 substitution of fertilizers and lime, peat replacement in horticulture (SP2) and the cascade
168 agricultural use, including biochar dosage in a biogas plant to boost anaerobic digestion and
169 the subsequent utilization on agricultural land (SP3). For the biochar energy use, only co-
170 combustion was energetically possible, which was modeled as co-incineration in a lignite-
171 fired power plant (SP4), analogous to SH4. A detailed description of the processes for the
172 utilization of the chars is presented in the Supplementary Materials (Figures S1-S8).
173

174



175

176 **Figure 1:** Simplified system boundaries of the modeled process chains of sewage sludge
 177 thermochemical treatment and subsequent biochar and hydrochar utilization in the HTC
 178 (SH1-SH4) and pyrolysis (SP1-SP4) scenarios [adapted from [41]].

179

180 2.1.4 Geographical scope

181 The aim of the LCA was not to use detailed data from a single plant, but rather to derive
 182 generally applicable conclusions about different technologies and their potential emission
 183 behavior. Based on an evaluation at the national level, Germany served as the reference
 184 geographical framework. In the case of background data from the databases, the
 185 geographical scope of the aggregated processes is generally broader, as in some cases
 186 only European or global average processes were available. In order to extend the scope of
 187 the study in the sensitivity analysis, the conditions were later adapted to Swedish, Italian
 188 and Spanish contexts by adjusting the national electricity mixes.

189

190 2.1.5 Life cycle impact assessment (LCIA)

191 The impacts evaluated in the LCA included the influence on climate change, the
 192 eutrophication and acidification potential resulting from nutrients release into the
 193 environment, the stratospheric ozone depletion and ground-level ozone formation.
 194 Moreover, the human toxicity and ecotoxicity potentials were evaluated due to pollutants
 195 occurring in the process chains, as well as particulate matter emissions from combustion

196 processes. Finally, the resource consumption was assessed due to the use of fossil fuels
 197 and raw materials. The ReCiPe 2016 method was selected to evaluate the overall
 198 environmental impacts [42]. The corresponding impact categories are shown in Table 1.

199

200 **Table 1:** Midpoint impact categories evaluated according to the ReCiPe methodology

Life Cycle Impact Category	Unit
Global warming potential (GWP)	[kg CO ₂ -eq.]
Particulate matter formation potential (PM)	[kg PM _{2,5} -eq.]
Fossil fuel potential (FFP)	[kg oil-eq.]
Freshwater ecotoxicity potential (FETP)	[kg 1,4-DB-eq.]
Freshwater eutrophication potential (EP)	[kg P-eq.]
Ionising radiation potential (IRP)	[Bq. Co-60-eq.]
Ozone depletion potential (ODP)	[kg CFC-11-eq.]
Photochemical oxidant formation potential: ecosystems (OFP)	[kg NO _x -eq.]
Terrestrial acidification potential (AP)	[kg SO ₂ -eq.]
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	[kg 1,4-DB-eq.]
Human toxicity potential, cancer (HTPc)	[kg 1,4-DB-eq.]
Human toxicity potential, non-cancer (HTPnc)	[kg 1,4-DB-eq.]

201

202 The potential long-term storage of the stable carbon amount contained in pyrolytic biochars
 203 offers an opportunity to remove carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, effectively
 204 counteracting global warming. One option for mapping the sequestered carbon quantities
 205 and their influence on the GWP in LCA would be not to include the quantity of sequestered
 206 CO₂-eq. emissions in the balance for the GWP, but to explicitly show this quantity separately
 207 or to relate the emissions to an amount of sequestered CO₂-eq. by using the functional unit
 208 [43,44]. However, since the aim of this work was to compare different waste treatment
 209 methods rather than the potential carbon sequestration performance, the proportion of
 210 carbon sequestration was integrated into LCIA to determine the GWP, aligning with current
 211 accounting practice [22,28,45–48]. The amount of sequestered CO₂ was calculated with the
 212 molar mass ratio of CO₂ and C (3.67 g g⁻¹), the biochar C content and a permanence
 213 coefficient of 0.65 for 100 years [49].

214

215 2.1.6 Data basis

216 As an inherent requirement for conducting a LCA, data is necessary for the material and
 217 energy flows of all the life cycle stages and underlying processes under consideration. The
 218 data is divided into foreground processes, which mainly represent the individual modeled
 219 process chain links, and background processes, which are based on generic data sets from
 220 the LCA databases. For this study, the GaBi and Ecoinvent (version 3.6) databases were
 221 used. However, due to the lack of practical data for the various investigated process chains,
 222 data from a variety of sources was used to model the foreground processes. Although the

223 current literature provides useful information on the most important material and heat flows
224 of the investigated technologies, the variance within data is significant and the overall data
225 amount is limited, particularly concerning direct plant emissions [50]. Thus, industrial data
226 from different plants, including research projects and personal communications, were
227 integrated into the balancing to ensure the representation of the broadest possible spectrum
228 of current technological situation.

229

230 **2.2 Life cycle inventory (LCI)**

231 The process chains were modeled according to the scenarios and system boundaries
232 defined in Section 2.1. Before the digested sewage sludge is sent for thermochemical
233 treatment, it is mechanically dewatered to a TS content of 20% using a screw press, as a
234 common practice in wastewater treatment plants. The inventory of this process step and of
235 the processes for downstream hydrochar and biochar utilization are described in the
236 Supplementary Materials.

237

238 *2.2.1 HTC*

239 The digested and dewatered sewage sludge was considered as input material for the HTC
240 process. The selected process conditions resulted from the consideration of a wide range
241 of parameters from a diverse number of sources that have been analyzed in detail. On the
242 one hand, the aim was to maximize the TS content while minimizing energy input. To
243 achieve this, the selected process temperature should not be too high or too low and the
244 treatment time should be adequate [4]. At the same time, good treatability of the resulting
245 process water should be ensured by keeping the temperature as low and the treatment
246 duration as short as possible to prevent the accumulation of refractory organic compounds
247 and potential biological inhibitors [51]. On the other hand, the treatment should lead to a
248 comprehensive removal of organic pollutants such as pharmaceutical residues, requiring
249 the highest possible treatment temperature and duration. Following these preliminary
250 considerations, the treatment temperature was set to 200 °C with a retention time of 1 hour.
251 The modeling of the heat required for the specific material flow was initially based on
252 mathematical considerations by Barber (2020) [52] (Equation 1). The results were then
253 compared with industry and literature data published for similar substrate properties and
254 plant configurations (Table S1), validated and adjusted whenever necessary (Table 2).

255

$$Q_{heat} = (c_{p_w} * m_w * \Delta T + c_{p_s} * m_s * \Delta T) \quad (1)$$

256 With: Q_{heat} = required amount of heat [kJ]; c_p = specific heat capacity [$\text{kJ kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$] of water
 257 (w) and solids (s); m = mass [kg] of water (w) and solids (s); ΔT = temperature difference
 258 between input and treatment temperature [K].

259

260 **Table 2:** Energy flows of the HTC process

Parameter	Value	Unit	Source
Input			
Dewatered sewage sludge	1	kg	
Heat recovery	0.192	MJ	Calculated with data by [53]
External heat demand	0.467	-	Calculated
Exergy of the HTC process	98	%	Calculated with data by [53,54]
Electricity	0.072	MJ	[55,56]
Total heat demand	0.659	MJ	calculated
Output			
HTC Sludge	1	kg	
Heat losses	0.132	MJ	Calculated with data by [53,55–57]

261

262 After the HTC, the resulting hydrochar was separated using a chamber filter press, stored
 263 at the plant, transported and utilized in four different scenarios (SH1-SH4) (Figure 1).

264

265 2.2.2 Pyrolysis

266 The pyrolysis process was modeled using different plant parameters from pilot and industrial
 267 scale studies. Data from various pyrolysis plants, pilot projects and publications on biochar
 268 were used. The optimal treatment temperature and duration were set at 550 °C and two
 269 hours, respectively, to achieve the most complete removal of the organic pollutants while
 270 keeping a high phosphorus availability for crops [58–60]. Compared to HTC, the sewage
 271 sludge to be carbonized must be dried to at least 80% TS content before pyrolysis to
 272 optimize the process. For the start-up time of the pyrolysis reactor (2 hours) after weekly
 273 maintenance, the existing biogas boiler was used. The thermal energy required for start-up
 274 is 2.07 kJ kg^{-1} TS (sludge). Continuous operation of the pyrolysis plant requires 1.23 MJ kg^{-1}
 275 TS (sludge) of heat, which is provided by the combustion of the produced pyrolysis oils
 276 and gases. This amount of thermal energy includes the radiation and convection losses. To
 277 operate all ancillary units, 0.25 MJ kg^{-1} TS (sludge) of electrical energy is required.

278 Due to the heterogeneous and highly variable sewage sludge characteristics, it was difficult
 279 to obtain specific data for the modeled thermochemical conversion path with regard to the
 280 material and thermal properties of the resulting pyrolysis oils, gases and biochars.
 281 Nevertheless, an attempt was made to identify these core parameters for the selected
 282 process conditions based on literature data. The parameters selected for the modeled
 283 process (Table 3) were derived from a consolidated, quantitative analysis of various

284 sources, from which the most plausible mean values were extracted and used for modeling
 285 [61–73]. The selected process conditions resulted in a mass-related proportion of products
 286 consisting of 51% biochar, 13% pyrolysis gas, and 36% pyrolysis oil (not condensed) in
 287 relation to the dry matter content of the input sludge. Potential gaseous emissions, which
 288 arise due to leaks in the pyrolysis reactor and process control [74,75], were allocated to the
 289 combustion process inventory. Following the pyrolysis process, the biochar was then stored
 290 at the plant, transported and utilized in four different scenarios (SP1-SP4).

291

292 **Table 3:** *Inventory of the pyrolysis process*

Parameter	Value	Unit	Source
Input			
Dried sewage sludge	1	kg	
Electrical energy	0.249	MJ kg ⁻¹ TS	[76]
Thermal energy	1.23	MJ kg ⁻¹ TS	Calculated after [76]
Thermal energy (start-up)	0.0021	MJ kg ⁻¹ TS	Calculated
Biochar share	51	%	[71,72]
Pyrolysis gas share	13	%	[71,72]
Pyrolysis oil share	36	%	[71,72]
Output			
Biochar	0.408	kg	Calculated
Pyrolysis gas	0.104	kg	Calculated
Pyrolysis oil (in gas phase)	0.288	kg	Calculated
Water vapor	0.2	kg	Calculated
Calorific value of biochar	8.6	MJ kg ⁻¹	[70–72]
Calorific value of pyrolysis oil	13.8	MJ kg ⁻¹	[71,72]
Calorific value of pyrolysis gas	15.8	MJ kg ⁻¹	[71,72]

293

294 2.2.3 Biochar and hydrochar utilization scenarios

295 The use of the biochar and hydrochar produced by the two thermochemical conversion
 296 processes potentially offers various opportunities to mitigate the overall environmental
 297 burdens. For example, the long-term stable carbon storage through biochar soil application
 298 can counteract global warming and finite resources such as phosphorus can be recovered
 299 by closing material cycles with hydrochar and biochar. In addition, the energy use of the
 300 products can contribute to bioenergy production, thereby reducing reliance on fossil fuels.
 301 The selected scenarios were equally drawn up for both conversion processes to facilitate
 302 comparison (Figure 1). The detailed inventories of the processes in the various utilization
 303 scenarios can be found in the Supplementary Materials (Tables S5-S12).

304

305 2.3 Scenario and sensitivity analysis

306 Two methods were used to determine the sensitivity and uncertainty of the LCA model: first,
 307 a scenario analysis was performed, where different processes in the treatment chain and

308 their background data were varied, considering the initial assumptions. For example, the
309 thermal energy source (natural gas, electricity or biogas), or the electricity mix of the specific
310 location may have a major influence on the emission characteristics of the overall system.
311 The results from individual scenarios were then compared to the baseline to determine the
312 model sensitivity to the individual input data. Additionally, alternative scenarios investigated
313 the use of different flocculants, process water treatments (aerobic, anaerobic and wet
314 oxidation), thermal energy supplies (biogas, natural gas, electricity) and electricity mixes
315 (Sweden, Italy and Spain) for the thermochemical processes.

316 A sensitivity analysis was later performed through the variation of significant input
317 parameters, examining their influence on the emission potentials in selected impact
318 categories. In the sensitivity analysis, the identified parameters were varied within realistic
319 bandwidths, considering the most recent literature data. The results within the various
320 impact categories with parameter changes of $\pm 10\%$ (increased and decreased) of the initial
321 value were evaluated and compared to the baseline. Parameters with an absolute result
322 change of less than $\pm 2.5\%$ were classified as irrelevant, corresponding to an average model
323 sensitivity to individual parameters [77]. The input parameters considered in the sensitivity
324 analysis included the variation of the recovery rates of thermal energy within the treatment
325 processes, the amount of flocculant used and peat to be substituted as well as the nutrient,
326 heavy metal and carbon concentrations and the heating values of the produced hydrochar
327 and biochar (Tables S17-S18).

328 Together, sensitivity and scenario analysis can support the validation of LCA results by
329 highlighting data limitations and underpinning conclusions [35,78,79].

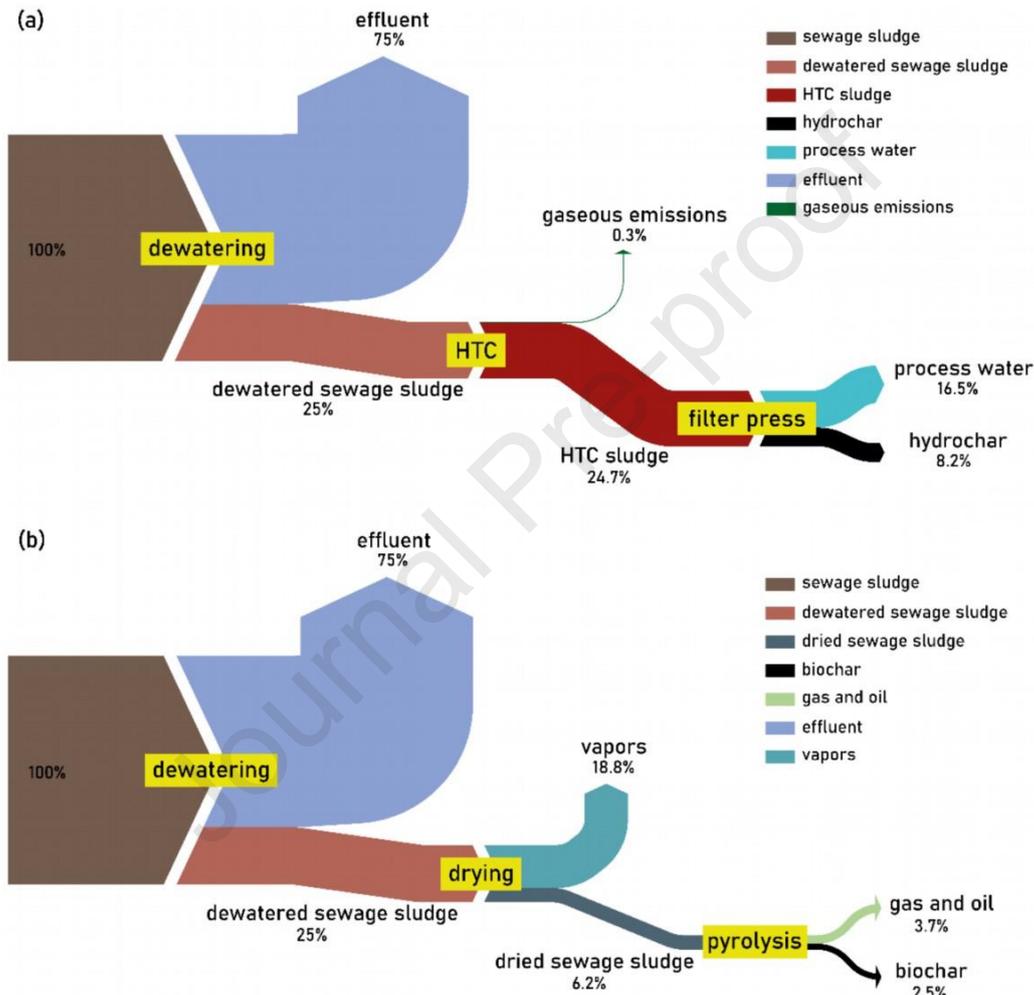
330

331 **3 Results**

332 **3.1 Material flows within the treatment processes**

333 The evaluation of the mass flows provides an initial reference point to assess the factors
334 mostly influencing the emissions within the selected thermochemical conversion processes.
335 The mass flows of both thermochemical processes show that a large fraction of the water
336 initially contained in the sewage sludge can be separated by the first dewatering step, both
337 for HTC and pyrolysis (see Figure 2). Efficient sludge dewatering is known to have a positive
338 impact on downstream, typically energy-intensive, process steps, as higher dry substance
339 contents enhance the overall efficiency and thus reduce the environmental impact and costs
340 of the thermochemical processes [93,94]. In the specific case, the dewatered sewage sludge
341 only accounts for around 25% of the initial amount of sludge from a mass balance

342 perspective. In the HTC process chain, the dewatered sludge can be thermochemically
 343 treated directly, whereas pyrolysis requires prior drying. At the end of the process chain,
 344 8.2% of the digested sludge from the HTC is available as hydrochar with a TS content of
 345 60%, whereas for the pyrolysis, only 2.5% of the initial mass is converted into biochar, which
 346 is almost free of moisture.
 347
 348



349
 350 **Figure 2:** Mass flow of the modeled sewage sludge treatment by: (a) HTC and
 351 (b) pyrolysis [adapted from [41]]
 352

353 The evaluation of energy and mass flows indicates that the mass flows for biochar
 354 determined in this work align well with the literature values. Indeed, Ledakowicz et al. (2019)
 355 [69] report a biochar yield of only 1.75% for pyrolysis, but the pyrolysis process temperature
 356 selected for this work was lower (550 versus 800 °C), and higher temperatures are typically
 357 associated with lower biochar yields [4]. In an energy and material evaluation of process

358 chains for the HTC of digested sewage sludge, Hämäläinen et al. (2021) [54] determined a
359 similar hydrochar yield of 8% (50% TS) as derived in this work.

360

361 **3.2 Environmental impacts of the HTC process chains**

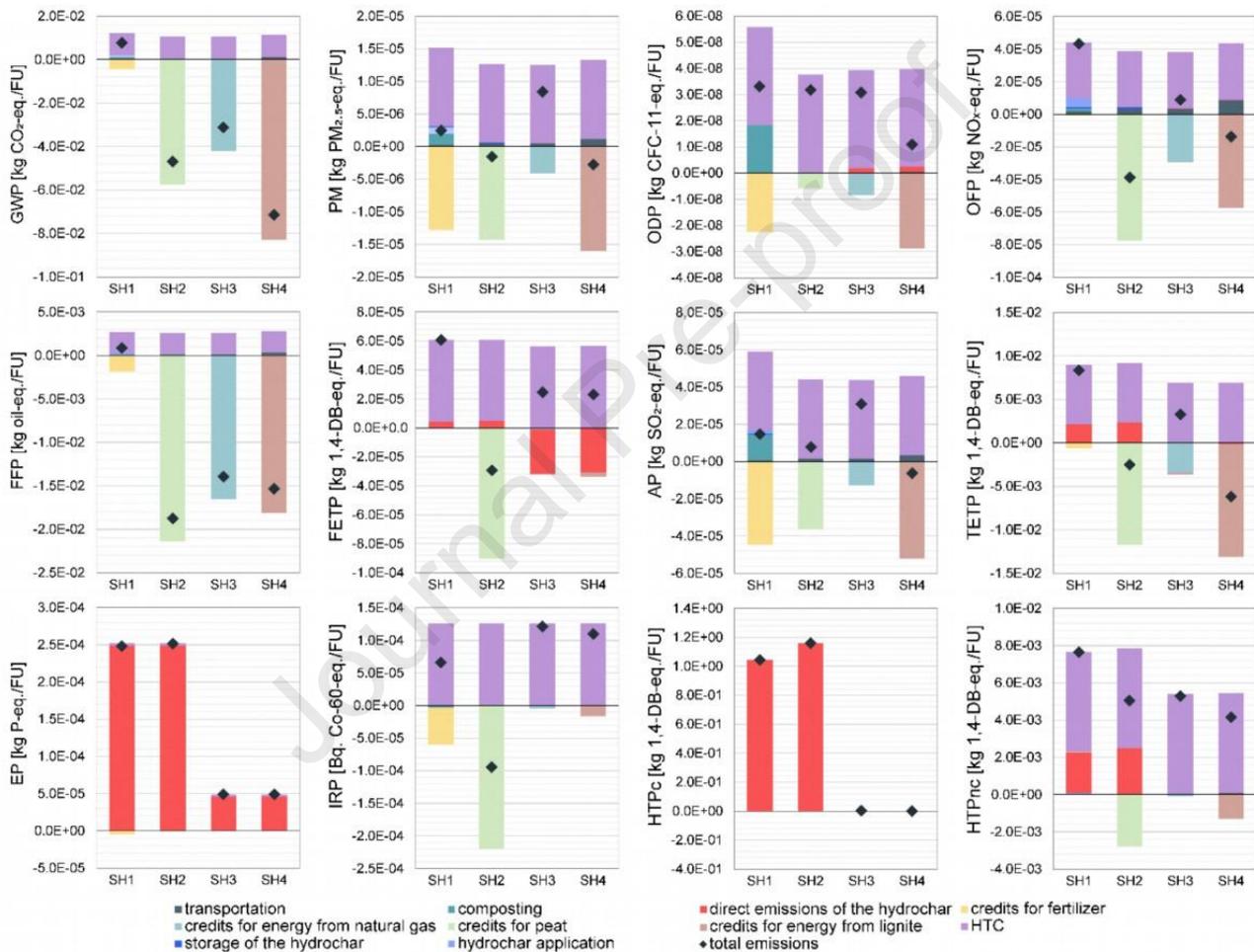
362 *3.2.1 Hydrochar utilization scenarios*

363 The GHG emissions from the HTC of sewage sludge are largely related to the provision of
364 the energy required for the process, which leads to total emissions of 10.2 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹
365 (Figure 3). The provision of thermal and electrical energy for operating the HTC alone
366 causes 62% of the GWP (Figure S9).

367 The scenarios SH3-SH4 show that the greatest savings in GHG emissions are achieved by
368 substituting fossil raw materials and energy, ranging from -71.4 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹ (SH4)
369 to -31.3 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹ (SH1). In contrast, hydrochar use in agriculture (SH1) generates
370 much lower credits from fertilizer substitution. The results indicate that the influence of the
371 HTC treatment on the overall emissions is rather low. Carbonization in the aqueous medium
372 saves the energy-intensive water evaporation that is required in pyrolysis processes and
373 produces hydrochar with a high dry matter content. This reduces the energy required
374 compared to drying and thus lowers GHG emissions. On the other hand, the credits for the
375 substitution of fossil raw materials in the hydrochar application scenarios show that achieved
376 emission savings largely depend on the reference scenarios with fossil-based background
377 processes. Accordingly, the scenario for the substitution of energy from lignite (SH4) offers
378 the highest emission reduction of FFP, while scenario SH1 exhibits the highest emissions
379 overall.

380 For PM, the evaluation of the impact assessment shows that the emissions largely originate
381 from the generic background process needed to provide the heat required for the HTC
382 process. The credits for the energy from natural gas are minimal, as natural gas combustion
383 generally releases lower particulate matter emissions than lignite (SH4). Therefore,
384 particulate emissions are largely dependent on the selected form of substituted fossil
385 resources. The results for the impact category EP show that the modeled phosphorus flows
386 are mainly responsible for the occurring emissions. The biochar phosphorus content
387 therefore not only leads to the desired fertilizing effect, but also contributes to a (desired)
388 increase in the EP category in the material scenarios. In contrast to the EP, the evaluation
389 for IRP shows that it is mainly influenced by selected electricity mix and, in the case of the
390 biochar material application, the avoided emissions from fertilizer supply and peat extraction.

391 In toxicity potential assessments (FETP, TETP, HTPc and HTPnc), emissions mainly stem
 392 from polymer flocculant use and filtrate treatment prior to thermochemical conversion
 393 (Figure S9). In general, TETP shows higher emission potentials than FETP. The evaluation
 394 of the various scenarios regarding human toxicity highlights a predominant presence of
 395 organic pollutants such as polychlorinated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs)
 396 contained in the hydrochar for the carcinogenic effect fraction (HTPc). However, the
 397 elimination of pollutants through incineration contributes to emission reduction in scenarios
 398 SH3 and SH4.



399

400 **Figure 3:** Environmental impacts of the different hydrochar utilization scenarios (SH1-SH4)
 401 for the HTC process chains [adapted from [41]].

402

403 3.2.2 Scenario and sensitivity analysis

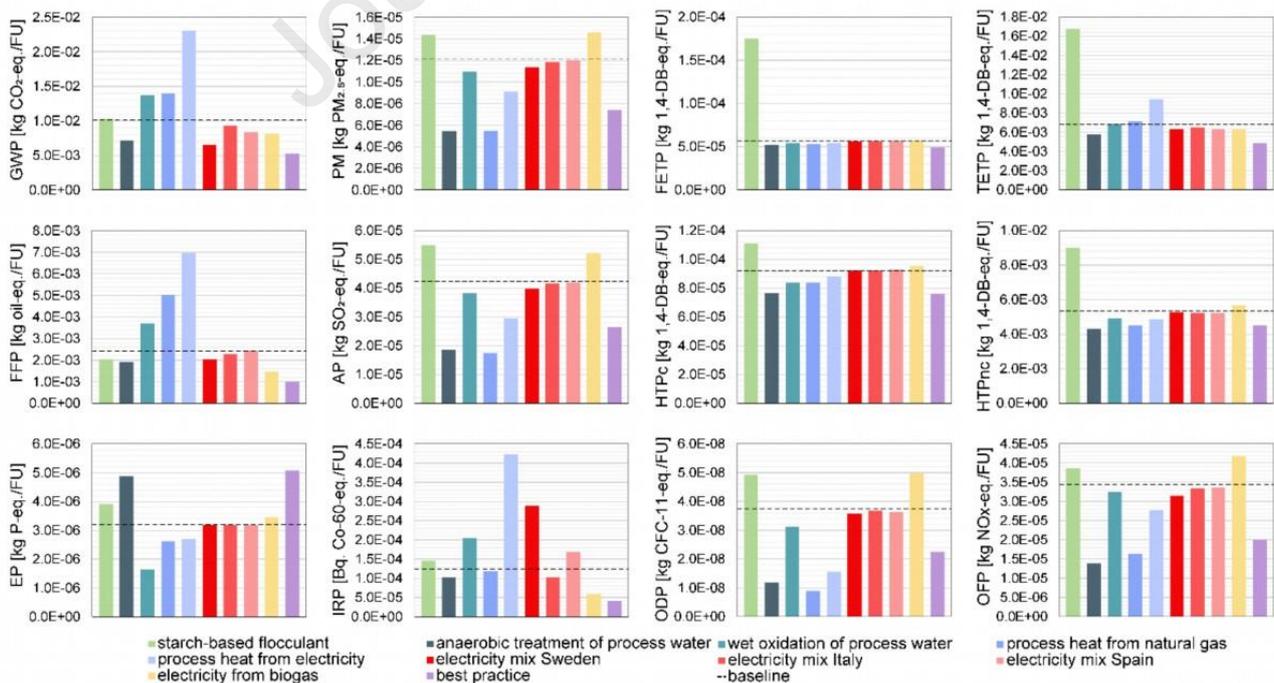
404 The LCIA results for the various process scenarios are illustrated in Figure 4, with dashed
 405 lines marking the results of the baseline scenario and bars representing the emissions
 406 resulting from the respective scenarios.

407 Replacing the polyacrylamide-based flocculant with the starch-based flocculant does not
 408 significantly alter the GWP, but leads to increased emissions in the impact categories PM,
 409 AP, EP, IRP, ODP and OFP, due to generally lower performance and higher chemical
 410 consumption. Compared to all other measures, the use of a starch-based flocculant shows
 411 the highest increase in the ecotoxicity (FETP and TETP) and human toxicity (HTPc and
 412 HTPnc). For anaerobic process water treatment, high emission savings are achieved in
 413 almost all impact categories, resulting in emission reductions. For wet oxidation treatment,
 414 instead, higher emissions are computed in the GWP, FFP and IRP categories due to the
 415 increased electricity requirements for oxidant production. For the PM, AP, EP, ODP and
 416 OFP categories, on the other hand, the integration of wet oxidation process water treatment
 417 leads to emission reductions compared to the baseline.

418 The shift of HTC's heat supply from biogas to natural gas reveals that in some impact
 419 categories the emissions decrease by up to 76% (ODP), whereas GWP and FFP increase
 420 by 37% and 108% respectively. Overall, the highest GWP increase of all scenarios occurs
 421 in the provision of the thermal energy required for HTC from electricity.

422 Transitioning to alternative European electricity mixes (Sweden, Spain, Italy) shows a
 423 decrease of GWP emissions by 9% (Italy) to 34% (Sweden), whereas the IRP emissions
 424 increase by 130% for Swedish conditions due to the high share of nuclear power. In the
 425 "best practice" scenario of HTC (Table S15), GWP is nearly halved (49%).

426
427



428

429 **Figure 4:** Environmental impact assessment of the various process adaptations for the
430 HTC process chain [adapted from [41]].

431

432 In contrast to the uncertainty associated with the HTC treatment, the model sensitivity to the
433 hydrochar utilization scenarios reveals in some cases a high dependency on individual
434 impact categories (Figure S11). However, in most cases, the highest and lowest emissions
435 are attributable to the use of alternative process steps within thermochemical treatment
436 rather than to specific parameter variations in the utilization, underscoring the overall
437 dispersion of the results.

438

439 **3.3 Environmental impacts of the pyrolysis process chains**

440 *3.3.1 Biochar utilization scenarios*

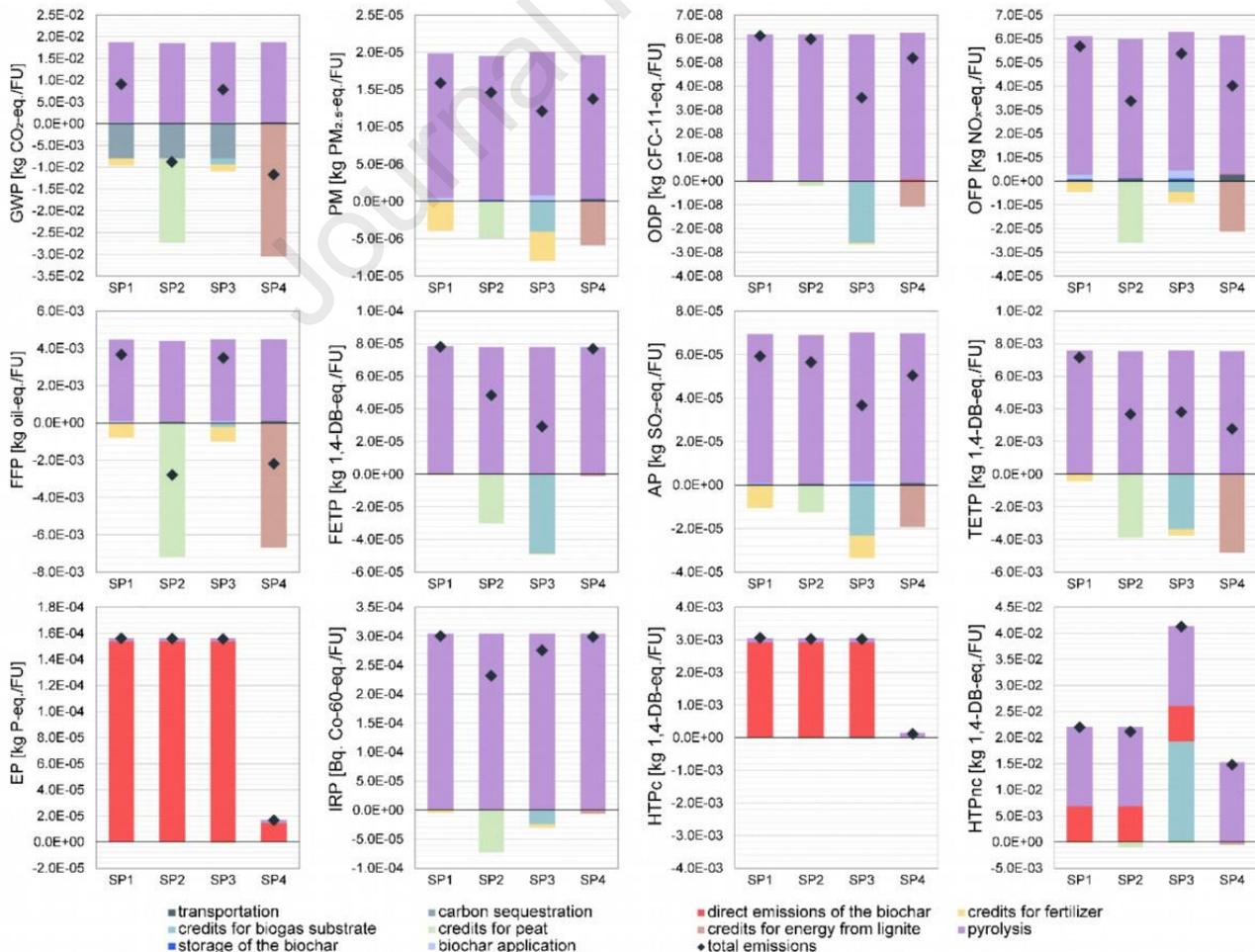
441 The environmental impact of pyrolysis is assessed across the twelve selected environmental
442 impact categories. Pyrolysis without biochar use yields a GWP of 0.2 kg CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹
443 (Figure 5), whereby the largest shares are attributable to the generic background processes
444 of providing thermal energy from biogas and electrical energy from the electricity mix for
445 sludge drying (Figure S10). For the pyrolysis scenarios, the GWP shows that the two
446 applications in agriculture have the highest emissions overall at 9.1 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹ and
447 7.9 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹ (Figure 5). Due to the credits for the substituted peat, biochar use in
448 horticulture (SP2) generates emission savings of 8.8 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹. All three material uses
449 (SP1-SP3) also offer the advantage that biochar use results in carbon sequestration, which
450 is offset against GHG emissions with a negative emission of 8.1 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹. However,
451 the highest savings and thus the lowest total emissions of -11.7 g CO₂-eq. FU⁻¹ result in the
452 scenario SP4, in which biochar use as an energy source replaces fossil energy production
453 using lignite. Other ancillary processes in the individual scenarios, such as biochar
454 transportation to the respective application sites, biochar application and incorporation to
455 the fields as well as biochar direct emissions, only play a subordinate role for the GWP.
456 For PM, the results show that the largest proportion within the individual process chains
457 results from the pyrolysis process itself. The credits in the agricultural scenarios (SP1 and
458 SP3) are mainly caused by the avoidance of sulphur dioxide emissions in the provision of P
459 fertilizer and, to a lesser extent, by direct dust emissions.

460 The FFP shows that the greatest savings can be achieved in scenarios in which biochar
461 replaces fossil raw materials, whereas the majority of emissions in the FETP category
462 comes from the upstream pyrolysis process, in which the production of the flocculant

463 polymer accounts for a high emissions fraction. The EP indicates a clear dominance of direct
 464 phosphorus emissions from the biochar for all scenarios. Accordingly, the influence of the
 465 biochar phosphorus content and its leachability can be directly read from the EP, as
 466 observed by the material use of hydrochar.

467 The results of the impact assessment for AP, ODP, OFP and IRP underline that the decisive
 468 influence occurs during the pyrolysis process chain and thus it accounts for the largest share
 469 of the respective life cycle emissions for all scenarios. In the case of HTPnc, the heavy metal
 470 emissions from the application scenarios are decisive for the emission characteristics. Since
 471 the heavy metals from the biochar are not released into the environment during energy use,
 472 the toxicity potential in SP4 is the lowest compared to the material use scenarios.
 473 Interestingly, the direct heavy metal emissions from the biochar have less influence on the
 474 emission potential than the emissions from the background processes in all material
 475 utilization scenarios (SP1-SP3). The HTPc shows a clear dominance of a single material
 476 flow (very low residual amount of dioxins in the biochar after pyrolysis) which can be omitted
 477 through biochar incineration (SP4).

478
 479



480

481 **Figure 5:** Environmental impacts of the different biochar utilization scenarios (SP1-SP4) for the
482 pyrolysis process chains [adapted from [41]].

483

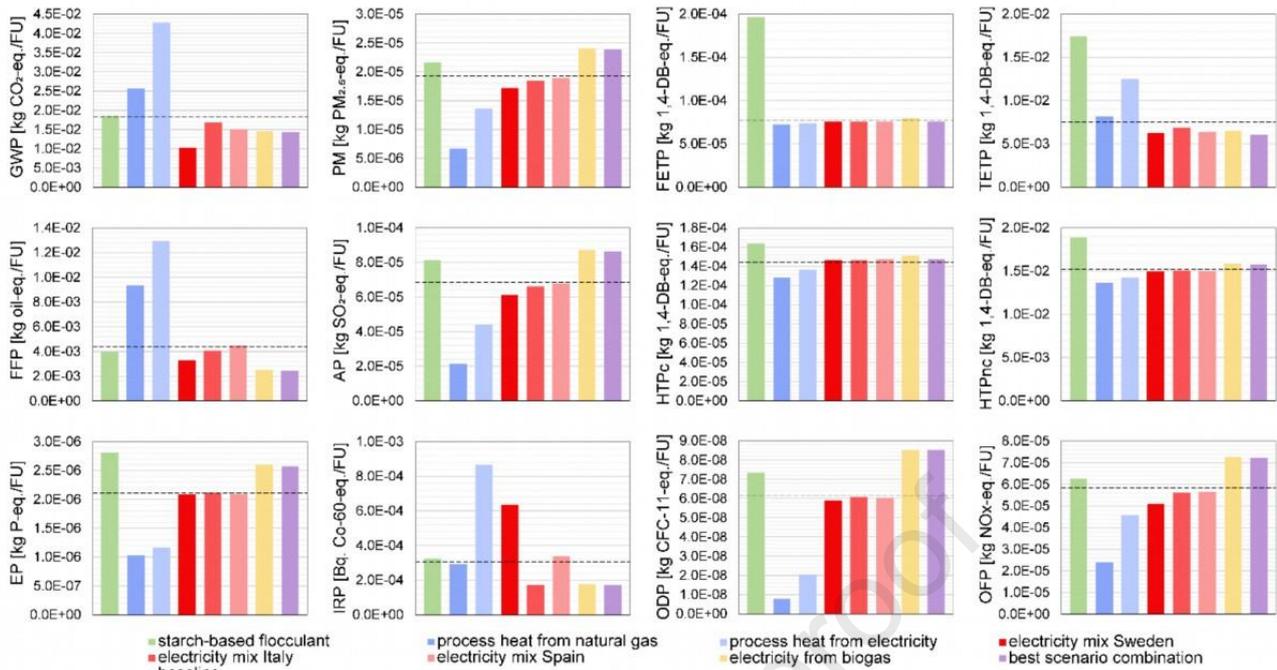
484 3.3.2 Scenario and sensitivity analysis

485 The model sensitivity to individual plant configurations and future developments in energy
486 supply is determined on the basis of the modification of individual processes within the
487 process chain for sludge pyrolysis. The evaluation of model sensitivity to individual plant
488 configurations reveals for the use of a starch-based flocculant no significant change in GWP,
489 as shown in the sensitivity analysis of the HTC process (Figure 6). In the impact categories
490 PM, AP, EP, IRP, ODP, FETP, TETP, HTP and OFP, the emissions increase, whereas fossil
491 resource consumption (FFP) is reduced. Converting the heat supply to natural gas leads to
492 an increase in emissions in the impact categories GWP (39%) and FFP (114%). If electrically
493 operated heating elements are used to provide the energy required to operate the pyrolysis
494 plant and the upstream drying process, emissions increase by 132% (GWP) to 197% (FFP),
495 whereas for the remaining categories, emission reductions up to 67% (ODP) occur. The
496 switch to other European electricity mixes (Sweden, Spain, Italy) results in emission
497 reductions of 44% (Sweden) to 9% (Italy) for the GWP, whereas the IRP increases for a
498 Swedish electricity mix by 108% and decreases for the Italian electricity mix by 41%. The
499 results for the use of electrical energy from biogas to operate the overall system show that
500 emission savings are achieved for the GWP, FFP and IRP, while an increase of 23% to 38%
501 is observed in the other categories.

502 The parameter variations of the complete process chains (SP1-SP4) exhibit similar high
503 sensitivities to HTC scenarios (SH1-SH4), particularly concerning the amount of substituted
504 fossil-based resources (Figure S12).

505

506



507

508 **Figure 6:** Environmental impact assessment of the various process adaptations for the pyrolysis
 509 process chain [adapted from [41]].

510

511 3.4 Comparison of different utilization paths

512 The comparison of the various scenarios for hydrochar (SH1-SH4) and biochar utilization
 513 (SP1-SP4) along with the emission characteristics of the benchmark process is illustrated in
 514 Figure 7. Particularly in the impact categories of GWP and FFP, the pyrolysis scenarios
 515 produce higher emissions than HTC scenarios. However, the GHG emissions in all modeled
 516 scenarios are below those of the benchmark process and for the FFP only scenario SP1
 517 and SP3 show a higher fossil resource consumption. In addition, all scenarios with
 518 substitution of fossil resources (SH2-SH4, SP2 and SP4) show emission reductions for both
 519 HTC and pyrolysis, whereby the credits for the substitution of fossil resources are higher for
 520 HTC due to the larger amount of hydrochar and substituted energy. For the scenarios of
 521 agricultural use of biochar and hydrochar, all process chains are at a similar level and show
 522 overall positive emissions. Therefore, the fertilizer substitution and the cascade use of
 523 biochar generate lower credits for the GWP than the substitution of fossil raw materials such
 524 as peat, natural gas and lignite. In addition, the optimal measures used in the sensitivity
 525 analysis, which characterize the lower end of the bandwidth, show that the emissions and
 526 credits almost balance each other out, giving thermochemical processes a clear advantage
 527 over mono-incineration. Therefore, both the pyrolysis and the HTC process chains have
 528 ecological advantages over mono-incineration for impact categories of GWP, PM, AP, ODP,

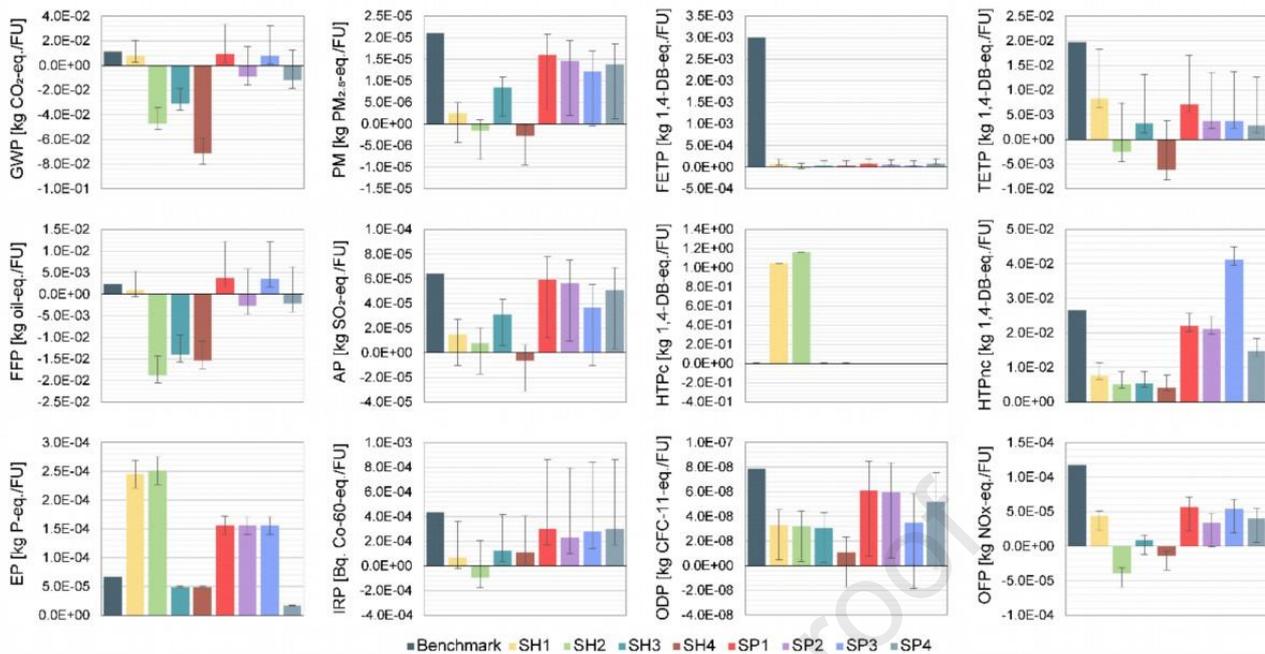
529 IRP and OFP, regardless of whether the biochar or hydrochar is used for energy or material
530 application. Overall, the HTC process chains show a clear advantage over the pyrolysis
531 ones, mainly due to the elimination of the energy- and emission-intensive drying process. In
532 addition, the comparison shows that there is no clear preference for the material or energy
533 use of biochar, as different rankings in the emission characteristics occur both within the
534 thermochemical processes and the impact categories, depending on the application
535 scenario and the assumptions made.

536 When considering EP, the scenarios for the material use of biochar and hydrochar show a
537 much higher impact potential than the scenarios for energy use due to the quantities of
538 nutrients released into the environment. This emission potential is even higher for the HTC
539 material scenarios (SH1 and SH2) than for the pyrolysis ones (SP1-SP3), as the plant
540 availability of phosphorus in hydrochar is higher than in biochar and, in addition, during HTC
541 part of the P is discharged with the process water.

542 The high toxicity potential in the HTPc category is attributed to the content of PCDD/Fs in
543 hydrochar. While HTC treatment can somewhat reduce PCDD/Fs levels compared to raw
544 sludge, specific HTC process conditions may exacerbate their toxicity potential [91,92]. The
545 evaluation revealed that over 99% of the total toxicity potential is due to PCDDs emissions,
546 while emissions of copper, cadmium, and zinc have a smaller impact when hydrochar is
547 used as a material. In contrast, organic pollutants are largely eliminated during pyrolysis and
548 incineration due to the higher process temperatures [58], resulting in much lower toxicity in
549 these scenarios. For impact categories TETP, FETP and HTPnc, both thermochemical
550 processes have lower emissions than the benchmark process in almost all scenarios
551 However, the emission values can vary depending on the specific origin of the sewage
552 sludge, with more contaminated sludge likely increasing the toxicity potential. In addition,
553 the accumulation of persistent heavy metals could increase soil toxicity over decades, which
554 is not reflected in the LCA study carried out.

555

556



557

558 **Figure 7:** Results of the LCIA of various process chains for the production and use of hydrochar
 559 (SH1-SH4) and biochar (SP1-SP4) compared to mono-incineration (benchmark). The whiskers
 560 reflect the maximum and minimum values of the sensitivity analysis for each scenario and impact
 561 category [adapted from [41]].

562

563 4 Discussion

564 Due to the higher temperatures and therefore stricter process conditions of pyrolysis, a much
 565 larger proportion of the dry substance is transferred to the gas and liquid phase compared
 566 to HTC. In HTC, part of the organic matter ends up in the process water, which can also be
 567 used to generate energy through subsequent anaerobic digestion [54,80,81] and thus
 568 represents a valuable resource. In general, less biochar is obtained with pyrolysis compared
 569 to HTC. For this reason, and due to the higher calorific value of hydrochar compared to
 570 biochar, the credits that are achieved from the substitution of fossil energy are generally
 571 higher in the HTC than in the pyrolysis scenarios. Although pyrolysis produces by-products
 572 (pyrolysis oil and gas), that can directly provide part of the heat required for pyrolysis and
 573 sludge drying due to their high energy content, HTC integration as an alternative for sludge
 574 drying offers energy advantages, positively impacting the emission characteristics of the
 575 thermochemical process used (see Figure 3 and Figure 5 as well as Figure S9 and Figure
 576 S10). In addition, pyrolysis integration enables synergies within the occurring energy and
 577 material flows through the local provision and use of thermal energy embedded in the
 578 sludge. However, factors such as the local energy supply and its emissions demonstrate the
 579 influence of site-specific conditions on the overall environmental impact.

580 A limitation to consider when including credits from substituted fossil fuels through
581 combustion processes is that the results of an LCA sometimes favour incineration over
582 material recycling due to higher credits generated by replacing fossil energy [82]. However,
583 through a fast transition towards renewable energies, material recycling may represent the
584 better long-term alternative.

585 Moreover, although the credits from carbon sequestration are insufficient to offset the
586 emissions generated in the process chains and the carbon sequestration potential of biochar
587 produced from sewage sludge is generally low compared to other feedstocks [28], it can
588 contribute to an effective carbon sink, especially in future defossilized energy systems.

589 Conducting a comprehensive comparison between different LCAs of pyrolysis or HTC,
590 including the various (other) application pathways of the resulting chars, is challenging. Each
591 researcher applies distinct methodologies, resulting in variations in functional units,
592 allocations, impact categories and methods, thereby complicating comparisons [83].
593 Therefore, to thoroughly evaluate the impact of alternative sewage sludge processes, all
594 specific HTC and pyrolysis parameters, as well as the selected LCIA methods, must be
595 taken into account. This complexity makes discussing the current results in relation to the
596 literature particularly complex and makes direct numerical comparisons nearly impossible.

597 However, in an LCA of various sewage sludge treatment methods, Tarpani et al. (2020) [84]
598 determined that the highest GHG emissions of all investigated scenarios occurred in the
599 pyrolysis scenario. This was based on sewage sludge drying using natural gas and biochar
600 landfilling without crediting the carbon sequestration. In the impact categories related to
601 toxicity assessment (FETP and HTP) as well as for PM and AP, however, pyrolysis achieved
602 savings compared to incineration. Havukainen et al. (2022) [85] reached a similar
603 conclusion, finding that co-pyrolysis of sewage sludge and wood waste caused higher
604 emissions than sludge incineration, not only for the GWP, but also for the impact categories
605 PM, TETP and EP.

606 Mayer et al. (2021) [11] conducted a LCA of HTC, pyrolysis and mono-incineration of
607 digested sewage sludge, including the subsequent biochar incineration and P recovery from
608 the ashes. Their results showed lower environmental impacts for HTC than for direct sludge
609 application, whereas pyrolysis caused higher emissions than mono-incineration and direct
610 agricultural sludge application. Analogously to the present results, the HTC process chain
611 therefore showed the lowest emissions and the main reason for the high GWP of pyrolysis
612 was the provision of the required amount of heat for sludge drying by natural gas. A high
613 variance in the results was also observed across all impact categories. The highest

614 emissions for the HTPnc resulted from mono-incineration, whereas the values for pyrolysis
615 and HTC were comparatively low, consistently with the current results.

616 One reason for the wide variability of literature results is the definition of system boundaries.
617 Although a LCA should always analyze the entire system from cradle to grave, the analyses
618 often differ in terms of where the system begins and ends [86,87]. Other differences that
619 make a direct comparison difficult are the technical assumptions made and the limited data
620 availability resulting from a lack of full-scale experience for biochar and hydrochar production
621 and utilization [2,85,88], mainly associated to legal hurdles [4,89].

622 Moreover, sewage sludge composition, which can vary greatly, has a major impact on the
623 energy and pollutant content of the resulting chars and the energy flows for the treatments
624 due to carbon and ash content, moisture level, and pollutants preloading. Therefore, even
625 with the same treatment processes, LCA results can differ significantly [90]. The obtained
626 results thus provide an initial assessment of the different recycling paths and show the
627 differences between the possible advantages and disadvantages of material and energy use
628 of the chars. In addition, due to the complex, interdependent parameter relationships and
629 the generally high variability in the input materials, treatment parameters and final treatment
630 products [79], the results are difficult to transfer to individual wastewater treatment plants.

631 In this study, the effects of plant construction and infrastructure creation were not taken into
632 account, as high energy flows generally occur in thermochemical processes and therefore
633 the influence of plant construction on environmental impacts is low. However, the smaller
634 the plant and the less energy-intensive the process, the greater the influence of construction
635 and demolition on the environmental impact [35].

636 In addition, allocation problems can arise in LCA for wastewater treatment paths and
637 sewage sludge recycling [36], which can lead to different conclusions depending on the
638 objective of the study. It is therefore a major challenge to transfer the results obtained to
639 individual conditions. While HTC and pyrolysis are promising technologies, the technological
640 maturity of these processes and legislative restrictions on the use of the products could still
641 hinder their widespread adoption.

642 Nevertheless, the results show that the recovery of valuable materials and energy can have
643 a positive environmental impact on sewage sludge treatment, whereby the extent of the
644 benefit largely depends on the specific sludge characteristics, the various application
645 scenarios and the different impact categories. For a comprehensive sustainability
646 assessment, however, further studies should examine techno-economic and social aspects

647 in addition to environmental impacts to evaluate the benefits and downsides of different
648 treatment pathways for optimum sludge management.

649

650 **5 Conclusions**

651 HTC process chains generally show lower emissions than pyrolysis and both
652 thermochemical treatments (HTC and pyrolysis) show lower emissions than the benchmark
653 process of incineration in almost all impact categories. Moreover, biochar energy
654 applications perform better in some categories than the material reuse in agriculture. The
655 advantages of HTC and pyrolysis are even clearer when taking into account an optimum
656 plant configuration.

657 The material use of hydrochar in agriculture and horticulture shows an increased toxicity
658 potential due to the organic pollutants, which should be critically monitored to avoid soil
659 contamination deriving from pre-polluted sewage sludge. This is particularly true for low-
660 temperature conversion processes such as HTC, which do not completely remove harmful
661 pollutants such as PCDD/PCDFs. Therefore, in addition to incineration, a further
662 thermochemical treatment would be beneficial to reduce the negative effects on the toxicity
663 potential due to organic contaminants. However, a combined or cascade treatment, where
664 first HTC and then (high-temperature) pyrolysis is applied, poses an economic challenge
665 that must be investigated in future studies. For other pollutants, no significant increases in
666 toxicity potential were determined for either process. Although biochar can store carbon in
667 the long term, the level of carbon storage was too low to compensate for the GHG emissions
668 generated within the process chain. In addition, direct nutrient recycling is possible using
669 the char from both thermochemical conversion processes, substituting mineral fertilizers.
670 The results from the energy application of chars show that the credits achieved through the
671 substitution of fossil supply for both HTC and pyrolysis offers ecological advantages in
672 almost all environmental impact categories. With a properly tailored recycling strategy, both
673 pyrolysis and HTC offer advantages over mono-incineration. Finally, in future defossilized
674 energy systems, material recycling may be the better long-term alternative to energy use, if
675 the pollutant content of the chars complies with the limits, thus continuous and careful
676 material characterization will be mandatorily required. In addition, it is essential for the
677 implementation of the proposed disposal paths that the legislative framework conditions
678 must be adapted to enable these recycling paths accordingly.

679

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687

688 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

689 Conceptualization: Fabian Gievers, Achim Loewen, Michael Nelles, Matia Mainardis and
690 Arianna Catenacci; Methodology: Fabian Gievers; Formal analysis and investigation: Fabian
691 Gievers; Writing - original draft preparation: Fabian Gievers, Matia Mainardis and Arianna
692 Catenacci; Writing - review and editing: Michael Nelles and Achim Loewen; Visualization:
693 Fabian Gievers; Supervision: Achim Loewen and Michael Nelles; Funding acquisition:
694 Achim Loewen.

695

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1 **Highlights:**

- 2 • HTC has energy advantages over pyrolysis and therefore lower emissions
3 • The material use of the chars enables nutrient recycling and carbon sequestration
4 • HTC and pyrolysis chains have a lower environmental impact than mono-incineration
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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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