

# Sustainable Chemistry Measurements

# Green and Sustainable Chemistry: Is there a difference?

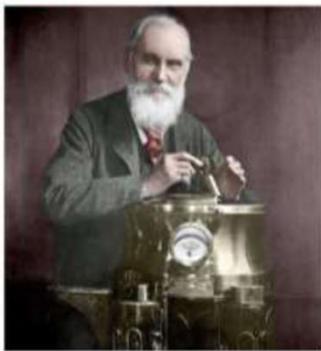
- Sustainable Chemistry: maintenance and continuation of ecologically sound development; must fulfil the meta-principle that "*human activities should not exceed critical eco-system capacity such as resource depletion, ecological degradation and transgression of local, regional and planetary boundaries*"
- Green Chemistry : Design, synthesis, manufacture and use of chemicals and chemical processes that have little or no pollution potential or environmental risk and are both economically and technologically feasible

*B. R. Bakshi, et. al., ACS Sustainable Chemistry and Engineering, 2018, 6, 3632;  
O.Hutzinger, Environ. Sci & Pollut. Res., 1999, 6, 123*

# Why do we need to measure?

**"To measure is to know"**

**"If you cannot measure it, you cannot improve it."**



William Thomson, 1st Baron Kelvin (1824–1907)  
British physicist and engineer

- The first step is to measure whatever can be easily measured. This is fine.
- The second step is to disregard that which cannot be easily measured or to give it an arbitrary quantitative value. This is artificial and misleading.
- The third step is to presume that what can not be measured easily is not important. This is blindness.
- The fourth step is to say that what can not be easily measured really does not exist. This is suicide

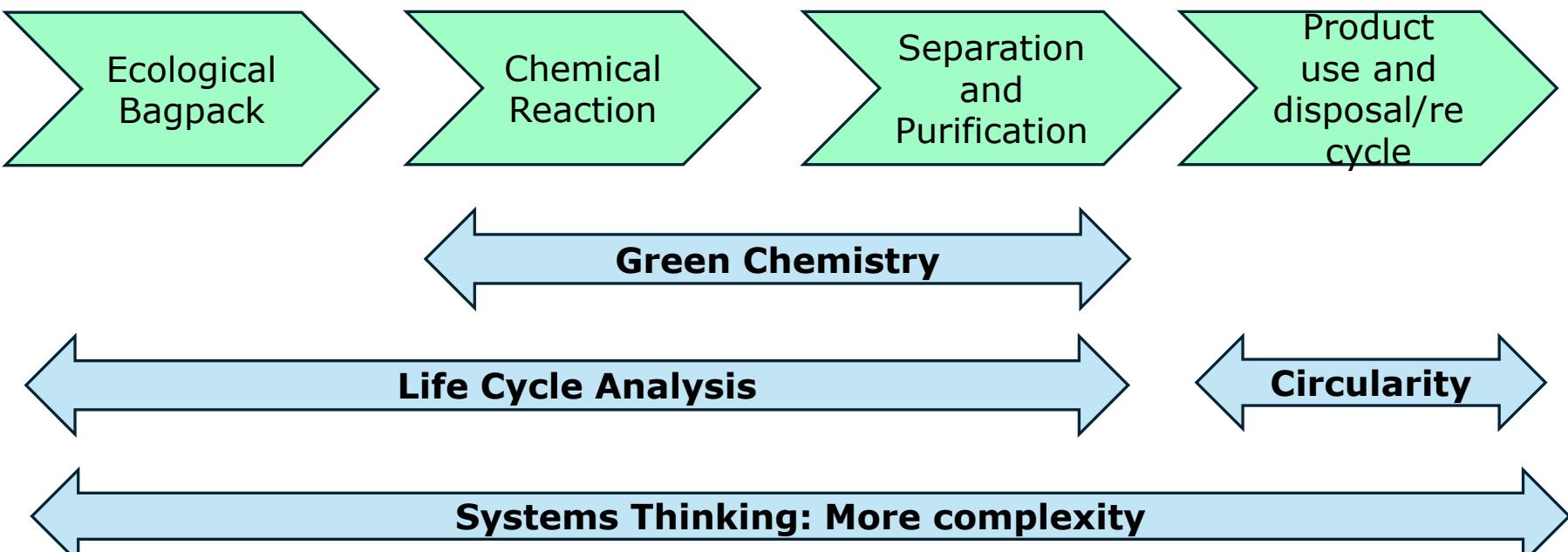
*Daniel Yankelovich, "Corporate Priorities: A continuing study of the new demands on business", 1972.*

## McNamara Fallacy

The tendency to make the measurable important rather than making the important measurable.

# Scope of Sustainability Assessments

- Green Chemistry Metrics helps optimize linear production chains (**A Chemist's View**)
- Life Cycle Analysis quantifies the whole-of-life environmental (energy and material) impacts (**A Regulator's View**)
- Circular Economy provides an umbrella framework for transforming whole systems and presents a real world picture outside the factory gate (**A Society's View**)



# Green Chemistry Metrics

## Percent (Chemical) Yield:

$$\text{Chemical Yield} = \frac{\text{mols (g) pdt obtained}}{\text{mols (g) pdt possible}} \times 100\%$$

**Atom Economy** (*Barry Trost, , Science, 1991, 254, 1471*):

$$\text{Atom Economy} = \frac{\text{MW}_{\text{desired pdt}}}{\square \text{MW}_{\text{starting materials}}} \times 100\%$$

- ✓ How much of the reactants remain in the final product
- ✓ Does not account for solvents, reagents, catalysts, reaction yield, and reactant molar excess

# Calculation Atom Economy

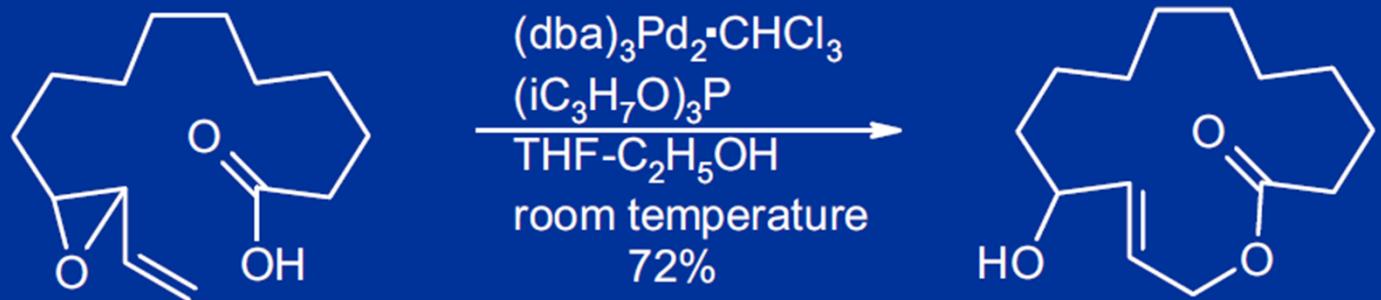


Reagents Formula	Reagents FW	Utilized Atoms	Weight of Utilized Atoms	Unutilized Atoms	Weight of Unutilized Atoms
1 C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>9</sub> OH	74	4C,9H	57	HO	17
2 NaBr	103	Br	80	Na	23
3 H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	98	—	0	2H,4O,S	98
<b>Total</b> 4C,12H,5O,BrNaS	275	4C,9H,Br	137	3H,5O,Na,S	138

## ◆ Palladium catalysts

### ■ Allylic alkylations with high atom economy

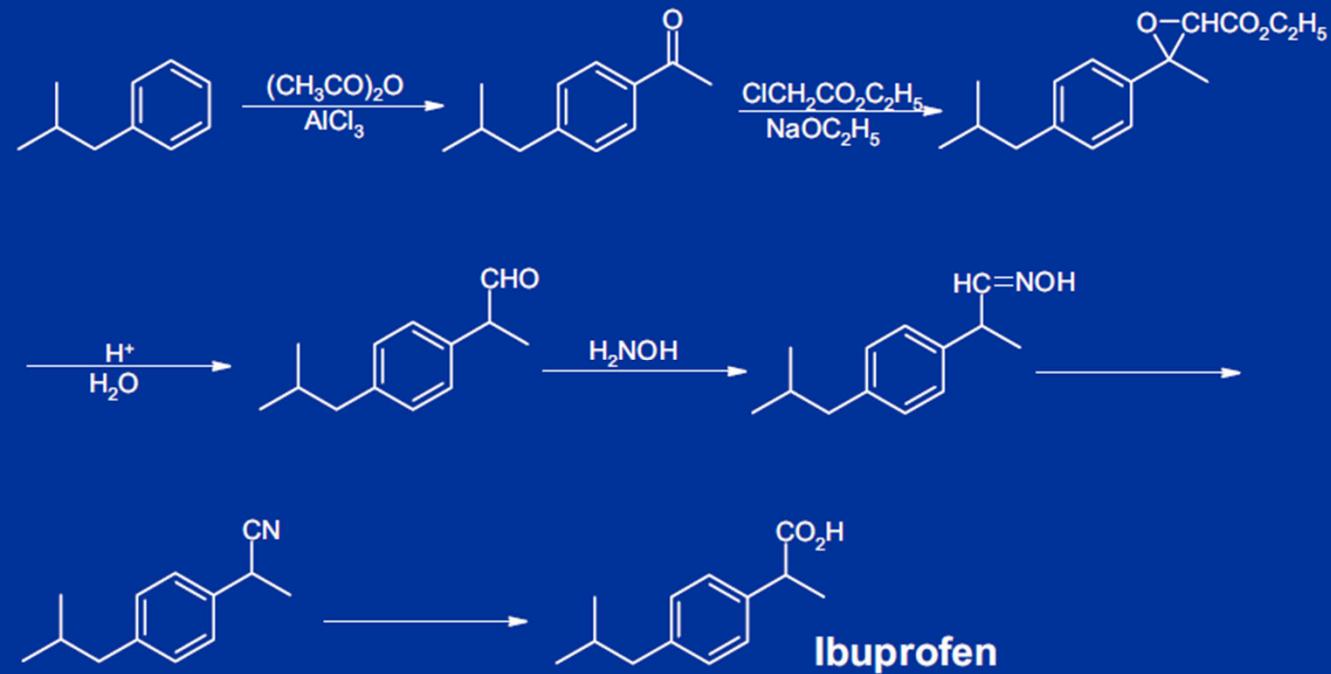
Trost, Stanford University



100% atom economy

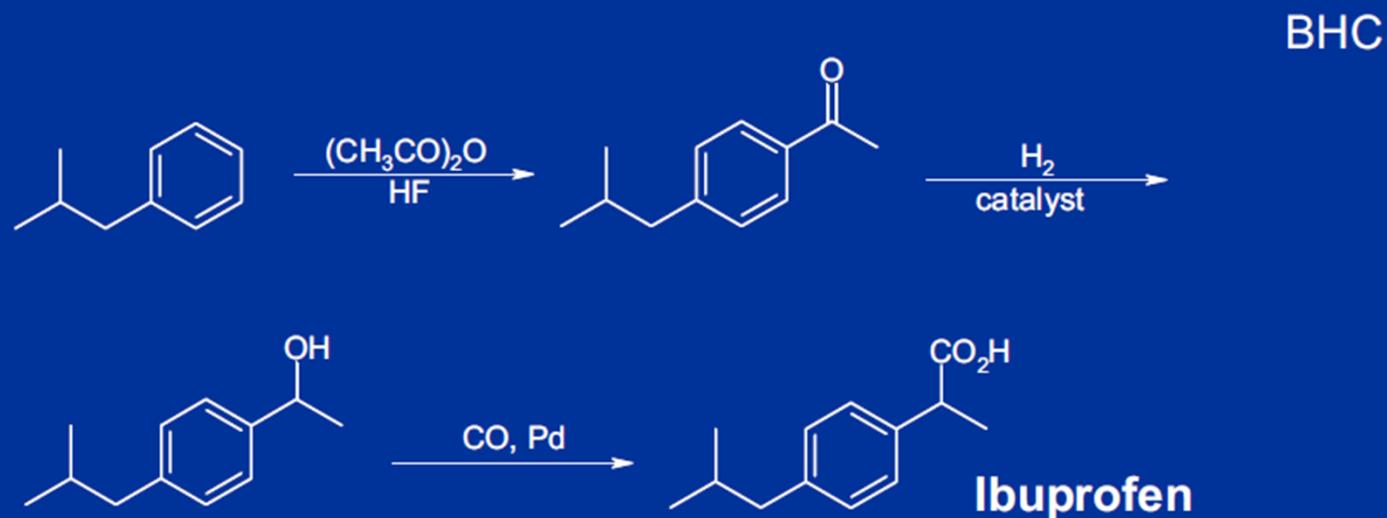
## ◆ Traditional synthesis of ibuprofen

- 6 stoichiometric steps
- <40% atom utilization

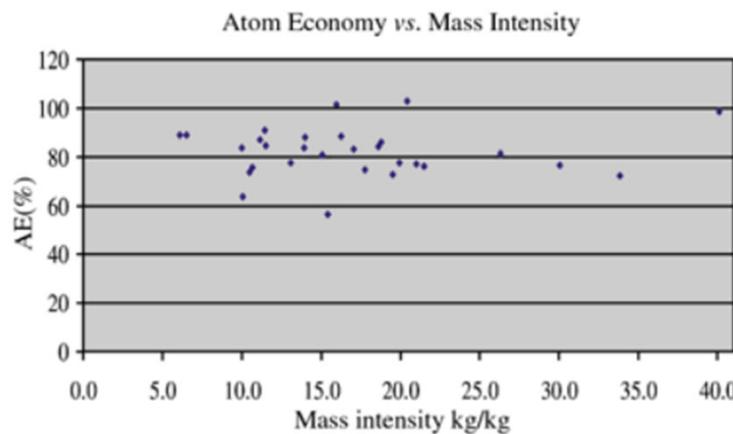


## ◆ Catalytic synthesis of ibuprofen

- 3 catalytic steps
- 80% atom utilization (99% with recovered acetic acid)



# Other Green Chemistry Parameters



- **Process Mass Intensity:** PMI =  $\frac{\text{Mass of all materials used [kg]}}{\text{Mass of desired products [kg]}}$   
^ Reagents +reactants + catalysts + solvents + work-up chemicals
- **Atom Efficiency:**  
Atom Efficiency = (% Yield)(Atom Economy)
  - ✓ Applicable to individual steps
  - ✓ Assumes the use of stoichiometric quantities of starting materials and disregards solvents and other chemicals that do not appear in the stoichiometric equation

# Other Green Chemistry Parameters

## Process

React benzyl alcohol (10.81 g, 0.10 mol, FW 108.1) with *p*-toluenesulfonyl chloride (21.9 g, 0.115 mol, FW 190.65) in toluene (500 g) and triethylamine (15 g, FW 101) to give the sulfonate ester (FW 262.29) isolated in 90% yield (0.09 mol, 23.6 g)

$$\text{Mass intensity} = (10.81 + 21.9 + 500 + 15)/23.6 = 23.2 \text{ g/g}$$

$$\text{Reaction mass efficiency} = 23.6/(10.81 + 21.9) \times 100 = 70.9\%$$

$$\text{Atom economy} = 262.29 / (108.1 + 190.65 + 101) \times 100 = 65.8\%$$

The atom economy is <100% due to formation and neutralisation of the HCl by-product. The reaction mass efficiency also takes into account the 90% yield and the need for a 15% molar excess of *p*-toluenesulfonyl chloride.

# E-Factor and C-Factor

- **E-Factor** (*R.A. Sheldon, Chem.& Ind., 1992. 903*) :

$$\text{E - Factor} = \frac{\text{Total Waste (Kg)}}{\text{Product (Kg)}}$$

- ✓ Typically split into 2 sub-categories: organic & aqueous waste
- ✓ Higher E factor implies greater negative environmental impact
- ✓ Applicable to multi-step processes

- **C-Factor** (*C.H.C Christenson, et.al., ChemSusChem, 2009, 2, 1152*) :

$$\text{C-Factor} = \frac{\text{Total Mass of Carbon Dioxide Emitted}}{\text{Mass of Product Formed}}$$

# E-factor and C-Factor

Industry Sector	Tons per annum	E Factor
Oil refining and Petrochemicals	$10^6$ to $10^8$	<0.1
Commodity Chemicals	$10^4$ to $10^6$	<1-5
Fine Chemicals	$10^2$ to $10^4$	5- to <50
Specialty Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals	10 to $10^2$	25 to <100

R.A. Sheldon, *Chem. & Ind.*, 1992, 903

# Environmental Impact on Waste

- Mass efficiency metrics do not provide a weightage to wastes depending on the nature of the waste
- All wastes do not have the same environmental impact. e.g., 1 kg of NaCl does not have the same impact as 1 kg of dichloromethane or 1 kg of a chromium (VI) compound
- This deficiency can be overcome by introducing the term “environmental quotient” ( $E \times Q$ ), where “Q” is an arbitrary “unfriendliness” factor or weighting factor
- Many approaches to estimating “Q” values for organic reactions have been developed over the years

*Environmental Assessment Tool for Organic Synthesis (EATOS) ( M. Eissen and J.O. Metzger, Chem. Eur. J. 2002, 8, 3580 ( Software can be downloaded at <http://www.metzger.chemie.unioldenburg.de/eatos/english.htm> Ecoscale , a semi empirical quantitative tool to select an organic preparation based on economical and ecological parameters, Beilstein J. Org. Chem. 2006, 2, 1*

# Toxicity and Safety Matrices

- **Hazard Metric**

$$\text{Hazard} = 1 - \frac{\sum \text{Hazard}_{coeff} \times \text{Mass}_{Materials}}{\text{Mass of all materials}}$$

Hazard Coefficient parameter is obtained from Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) in terms of harmful materials, irritant, corrosive, explosive and flammable

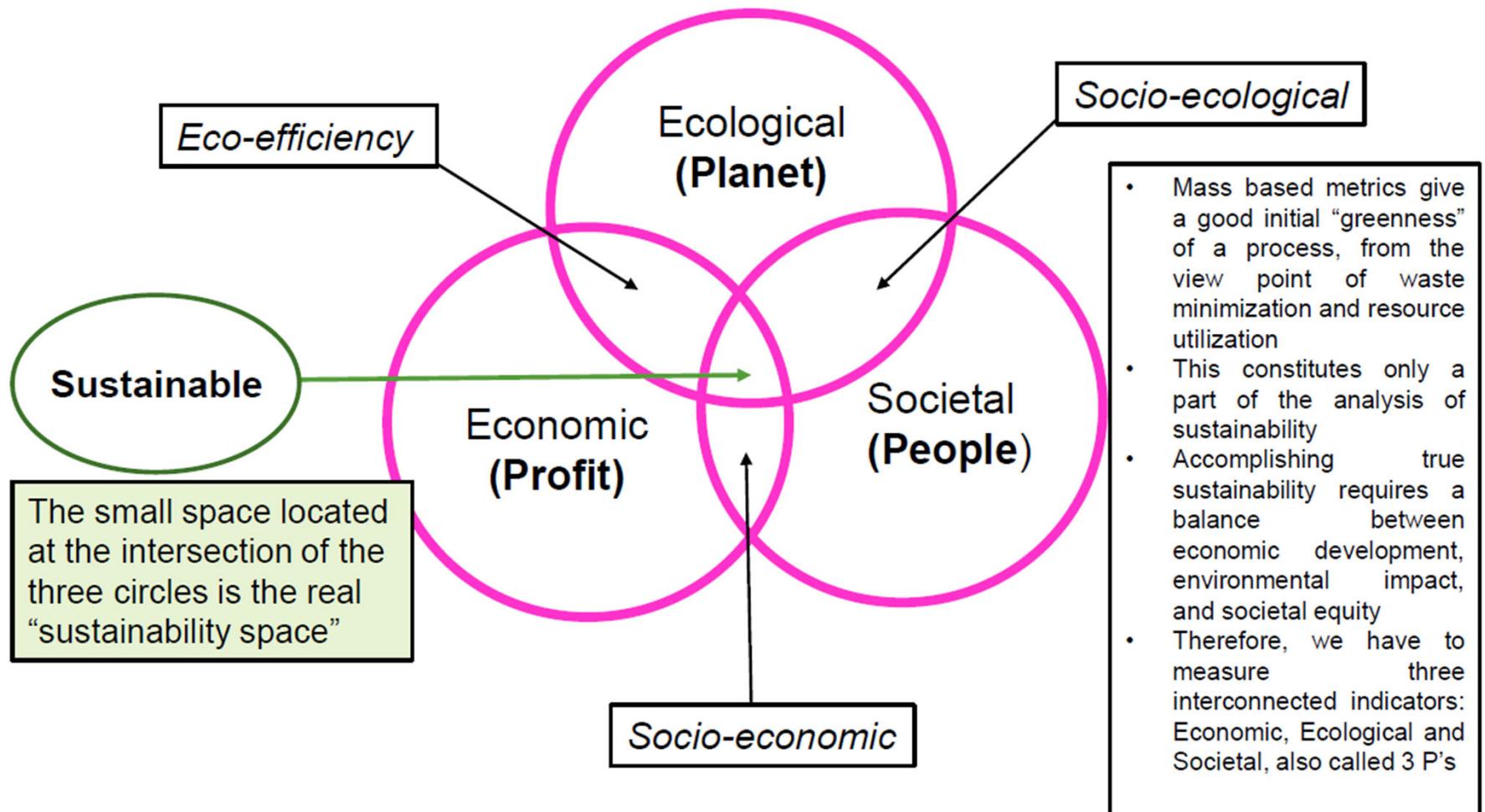
- **Toxicity Metric**

$$\text{Toxicity} = 1 - \frac{\sum (\text{Toxicity}_{coeff} \times \text{Mass}_{Materials})}{\text{Mass of all materials}}$$

Toxicity Coefficient parameter is also obtained from MSDS

- **Risk**

$$\text{Risk} = F_n [\text{Hazard or Toxicity Coefficient} \times \text{Exposure Time}]$$



# Carbon Footprint

- Interest in the carbon footprint has been driven by concerns about anthropogenic climate change due to emission of greenhouse gases and their increasing atmospheric concentration.
- In addition to CO<sub>2</sub>, other major greenhouse gases (GHGs) include methane, nitrous oxide, and various chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) and hydrochlorofluorocarbon (HCFC)
- Since the contribution of each GHG to radiative forcing is different, to determine the overall impact all GHG emissions are represented in terms of carbon dioxide equivalents (CO<sub>2</sub>eq).

Common name	Chemical formula	GWP for given time horizon		
		20-yr	100-yr	500-yr
Carbon dioxide	CO <sub>2</sub>	1	1	1
Methane	CH <sub>4</sub>	72	25	7.6
Nitrous oxide	N <sub>2</sub> O	289	298	153
CFC-11	CCl <sub>3</sub> F	6730	4750	1620
Carbon tetrachloride	CCl <sub>4</sub>	2700	1400	435
HCFC-22	CHClF <sub>2</sub>	5160	1810	549
HFC-134a	CH <sub>2</sub> FCF <sub>3</sub>	3830	1430	435
Sulfur hexafluoride	SF <sub>6</sub>	16,300	22,800	32,600
Methyl chloride	CH <sub>3</sub> Cl	45	13	4

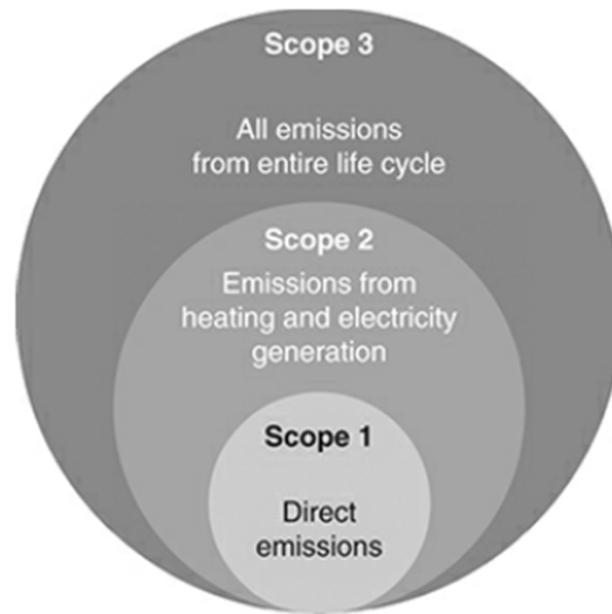
# Calculation Carbon Footprint

Example: A life cycle inventory consists of the following emissions: 20 kg of CO<sub>2</sub>, 0.001 kg of CFC-11, 0.5 kg of N<sub>2</sub>O, and 2 kg of NO<sub>2</sub>. Determine the GWP using a 100-year time horizon. The GWP of these emissions is

Common name	Chemical formula	GWP for given time horizon		
		20-yr	100-yr	500-yr
Carbon dioxide	CO <sub>2</sub>	1	1	1
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$$\begin{aligned} \text{GWP} &= (20 \times 1) + (0.001 \times 4750) + (0.5 \times 298) \\ &= 173.8 \text{ kg CO}_2\text{eq} \end{aligned}$$

# Scope of Carbon Footprint Calculations



- The boundary of carbon footprint calculations is often classified as Scope 1, 2, or 3.
- Scope 1 is a narrow boundary that considers direct GHG emissions from only selected processes
- Scope 2 includes GHG emissions in generating the electricity and those caused by the heating that is used in the processes included in Scope 1
- Scope 3 is the full life cycle GHG emissions.

**Table 11.3** Carbon footprint in gCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kWh of some pathways for generating electricity in the USA [6].

Item	C footprint
Coal – fluidized bed	1144
Coal – integrated gasification combustion cycle	903
Coal – pulverized	989
Coal – supercritical	768
Natural gas – natural gas combined cycle	449
Natural gas – natural gas combustion turbine	588
Nuclear – boiling water reactor	13
Nuclear – light water reactor	9
Nuclear – pressurized water reactor	12
Wind – offshore and onshore	11
Hydropower	7
Geothermal – enhanced geothermal system	25
Geothermal – flash steam	56
Concentrated solar power – dish	22
Concentrated solar power – tower	33
Concentrated solar power – trough	27
Photovoltaic – monocrystalline Si, ground-mounted	40
Photovoltaic – monocrystalline Si, rooftop	40
Photovoltaic – polycrystalline Si, ground-mounted	69
Photovoltaic – polycrystalline Si, rooftop	46
Biopower – agricultural residues	37
Biopower – animal wastes	40
Biopower – forest residues	34
Biopower – herbaceous crops	50
Biopower – mill wastes	15
Biopower – other wastes	51
Biopower – urban wastes	37
Biopower – woody crops	43
Biopower – cofiring	48
Biopower – direct combustion	35
Biopower – gasification	47

# Water Footprint

- The water footprint approach provides insight into the direct and indirect dependence of products, processes, and other systems on water
- Such insight is increasingly important, particularly for water-intensive activities in water-stressed regions of the world.
- The water footprint relies on the concept of virtual water, which is the water used to make a product or service.
- Water use is defined as the water in the product and the water that cannot be used directly for any other purpose.
- For example, the virtual water use in thermal power is mainly due to evaporative losses and leaks, and the virtual water in a beverage is the water contained in it.

use in the region.

**Example 11.4** The production of 1 kg of product E withdraws 200 liters of water from a river, and returns 150 liters at a downstream location. The manufacture of 1 kg of this product also requires 0.2 kg of A, 5 kg of B, and 1 kg of C. These resources, A, B, and C, use 100, 10, and 80 liters of water per kilogram, respectively. Determine the virtual water required for making 1 kg of E, and its water footprint.

### Solution

Since the virtual water includes only the direct water use, the virtual water requirement of E is  $V_E = 200 - 150 = 50$  liters.

The water footprint of E considers both the direct and indirect use. We may define a boundary that includes the resources A, B, and C needed to make product E but ignores activities beyond these resources. Then, the water footprint of E may be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}F_{W,E} &= 50 + (0.2 \times 100) + (5 \times 10) + (1 \times 80) \\&= 200 \text{ liters}\end{aligned}$$

To account for different sources of water and changes in quality, most water footprint calculations consider the following three categories of water.

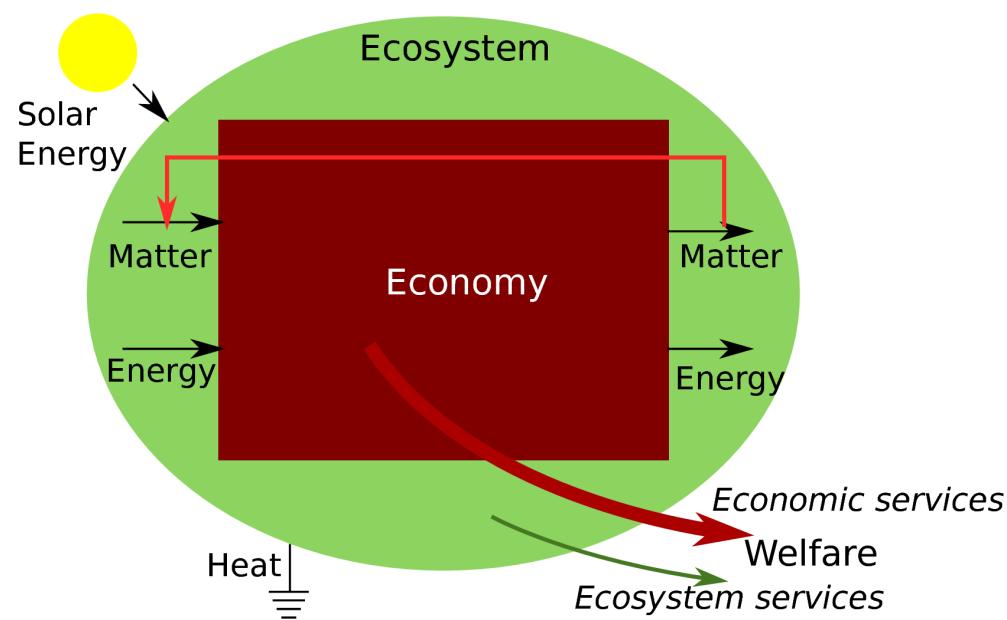
surface in rivers,

# Water Footprint for Selected Products

Item	Quantity	Water foot-print (L)
Apple	1 (150 g)	125
Banana	1 (200 g)	160
Beef	1 kg	15,415
Beer	1 glass (250 ml)	74
Corn ethanol	1 liter	2854
Cheese	1 kg	3178
Chicken meat	1 kg	4325
Cotton	1 shirt (250 g)	2495
Leather (bovine)	1 kg	17,093
Pizza	1 pizza	1259
Pork	1 kg	5988
Rice	1 kg	2497

# Measuring Material and Energy Flows

- Our present economy is dependent on a massive inward flow of natural resources. This is followed by a reverse flow of economically spent and dilute matter back to the ecosphere.
- Sustainability problems are determined largely by these economy-ecosphere material and energy flows which is predominantly linear in fashion today



*How do we **measure** the in-flow and the out-flow and establish a material/energy balance ?*

# Motivation – Why Energy Footprint?

- Energy is required for all activities – ecological and industrial – a universal currency
- All systems involve transformation of energy
- Can analysis of energy flow help in improving processes and life cycles?
- Can an energy footprint help?

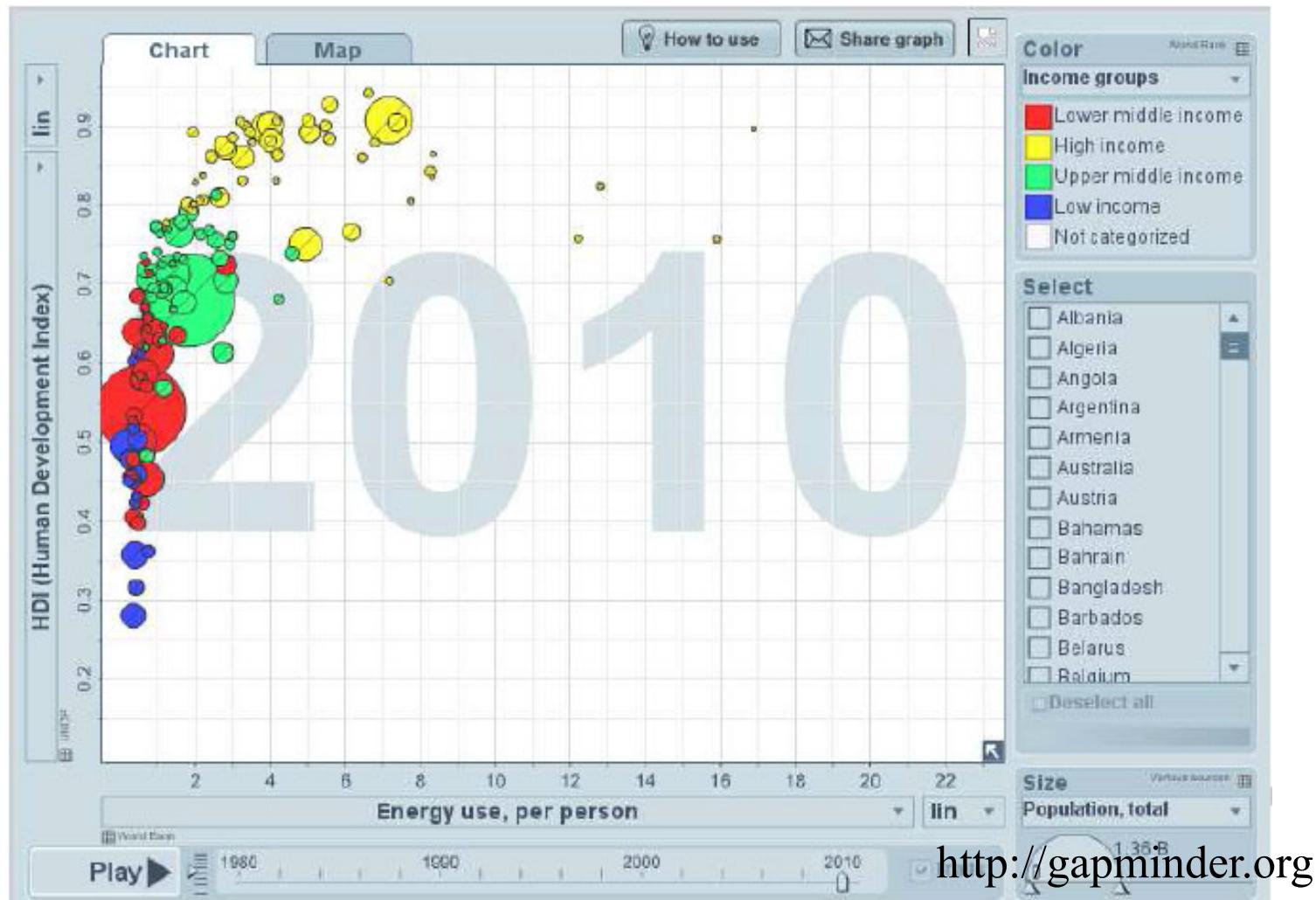
# What is Energy?

- Term created by Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) by joining *εν* (in) and *εργον* (work)
- Aristotle said that every object's existence is maintained by *energeia* related to the object's function
- Energy is used in the context of force, power, and in many other ways
- Most common definition
  - “Energy is the capacity for doing work”
- Many types of energy
  - Kinetic, gravitational, chemical, nuclear, electrical, thermal
- Can convert from one form to another

# Calculations

- Thermal energy, enthalpy
  - $\Delta H = mc_p\Delta T$
- Kinetic
  - $E_k = 0.5mv^2$
- Potential
  - $E_p = mgh$
- Chemical, heat of reaction
  - $\Delta H_r$
- Energy Efficiency = (Energy output) / (Energy input)

# Energy and Human Well-Being



# Energy Flows and Equations



- $E_f + E_{pr} = E_p + E_w$
- Efficiency,  $\eta = E_p/(E_f+E_{pr})$
- Energy return on investment,  $EROI = E_p/E_{pr}$
- Net energy,  $E_{net} = E_p - E_{pr}$

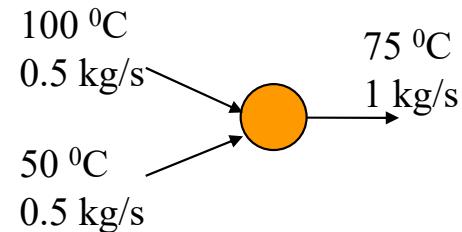
# Different Types of Energy

Activity	Feedstock energy, $E_f$	Product energy, $E_p$	Processing energy, $E_{pr}$
Coal Mining	Coal under ground	Coal above ground	Energy for bringing coal above ground from the mine
Refining crude oil			
Cheetah hunting a gazelle			

# Example

- Thermal mixing process

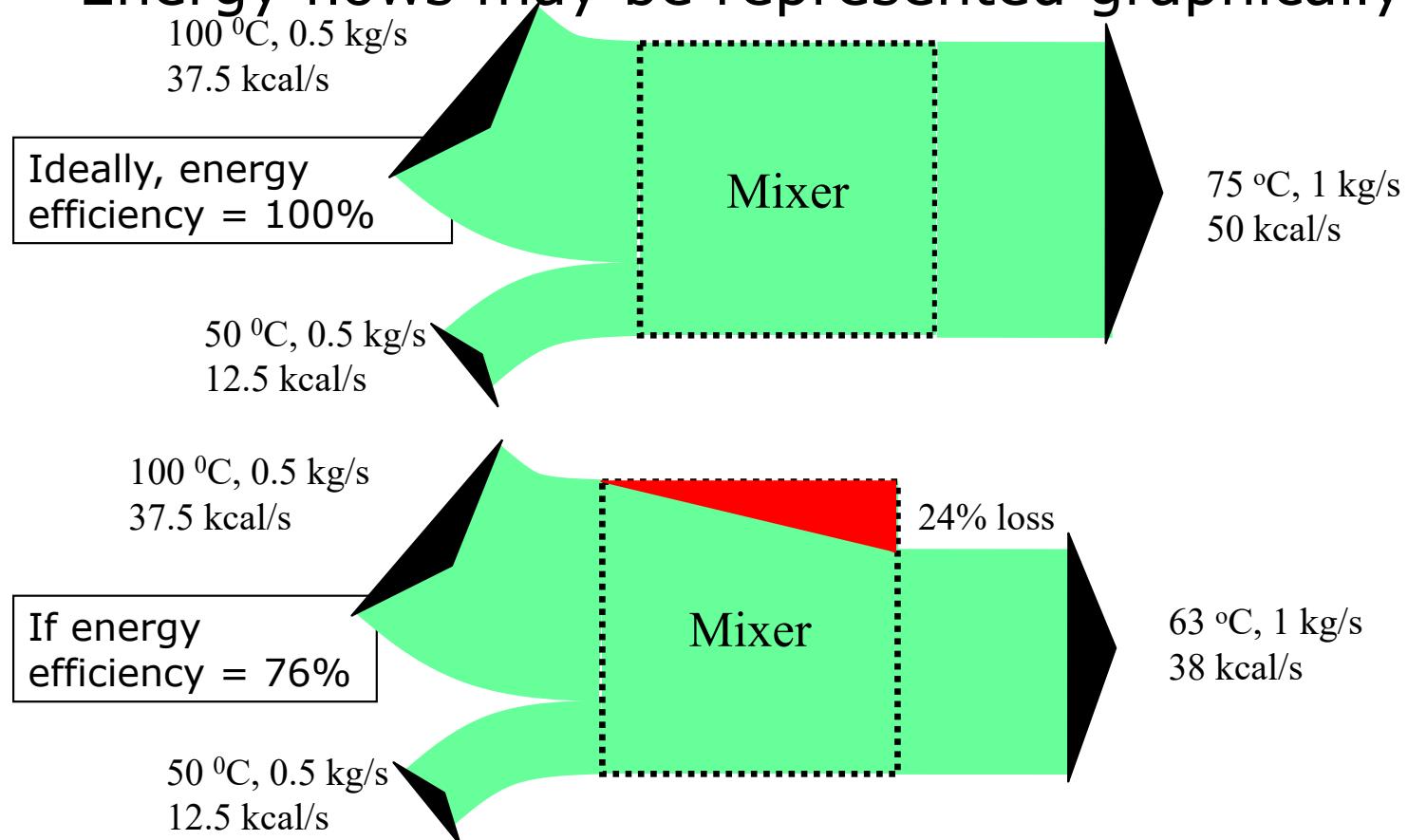
0.5 kg/s of water at 100 °C and 1 atm is mixed adiabatically and isobarically with 0.5 kg/s of water at 50 °C and 1 atm



- Reference is 25 °C, 1 atm
- $H_{hot} = m_1 C_p (T_1 - T_{ref}) = 37.5 \text{ kcal/s}$
- $H_{cold} = 12.5 \text{ kcal/s}$
- $H_{mix} = 50 \text{ kcal/s}$
- Ideal energy efficiency = 100%

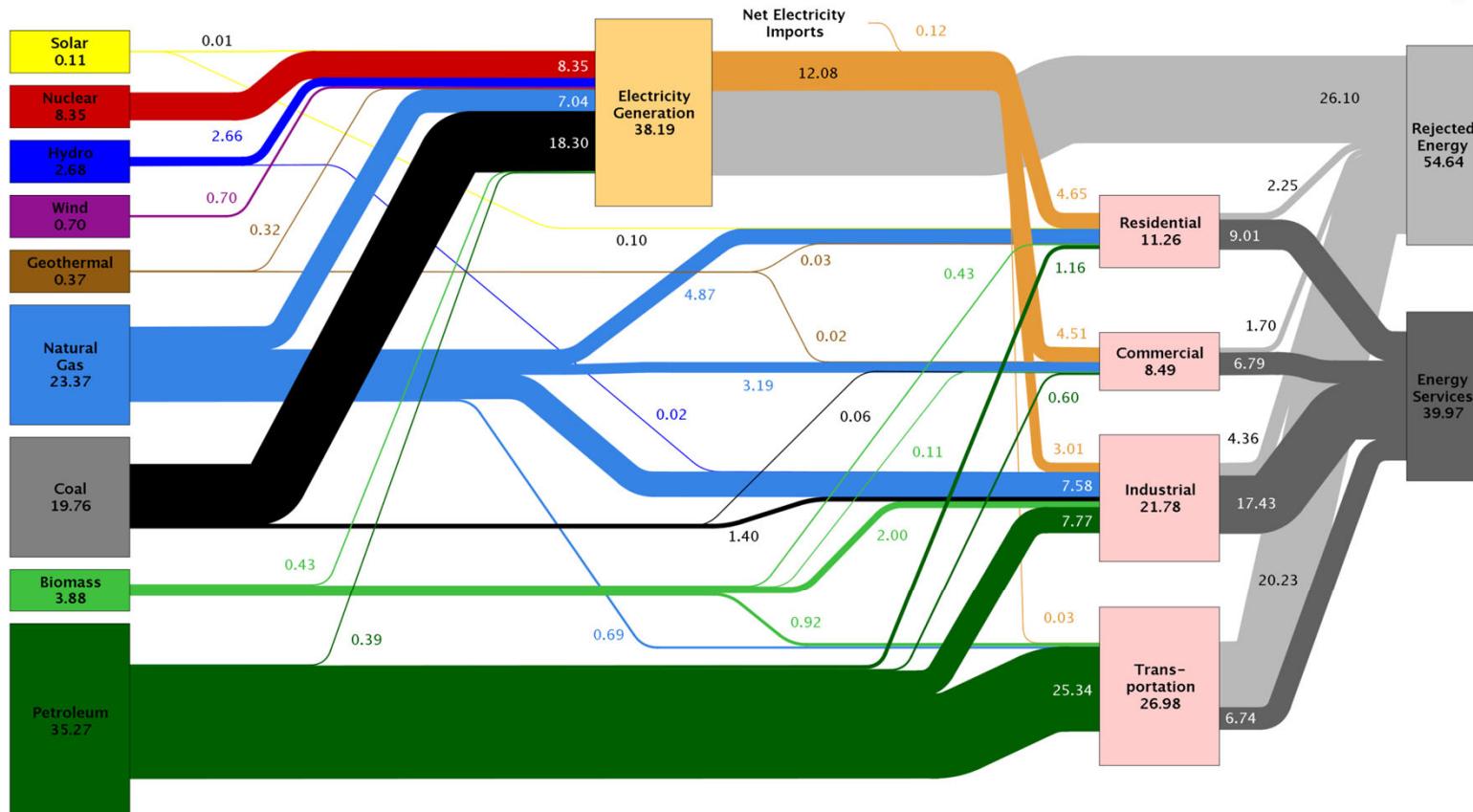
# Sankey Diagram

- Energy flows may be represented graphically



# U.S. Energy Use

Estimated U.S. Energy Use in 2009: ~94.6 Quads



Source: LLNL 2010. Data is based on DOE/EIA-0384(2009), August 2010. If this information or a reproduction of it is used, credit must be given to the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory and the Department of Energy, under whose auspices the work was performed. Distributed electricity represents only retail electricity sales and does not include self-generation. EIA reports flows for non-thermal resources (i.e., hydro, wind and solar) in BTU-equivalent values by assuming a typical fossil fuel plant "heat rate." The efficiency of electricity production is calculated as the total retail electricity delivered divided by the primary energy input into electricity generation. End use efficiency is estimated as 80% for the residential, commercial and industrial sectors, and as 25% for the transportation sector. Totals may not equal sum of components due to independent rounding. LLNL-MI-410527

# Energy Return on Investment

- Energy is needed for converting feedstock into desired product
- $\text{EROI} = \text{Energy in Product} / \text{Processing Energy}$
- Net Energy = Energy in Product – Processing Energy
- EROI should be more than one for being energetically “profitable”
- EROI of 10 indicates 10 J produced for every J used in processing



# EROI of Fuels

- EROI of selected fuels (approximate)
  - Crude Oil (1930) 100
  - Crude Oil (2000) 20
  - Coal (1950) 100
  - Coal (2000) 80
  - Gasoline 8
  - Corn ethanol 1.2
  - Oil Shale 3
  - Coal Liquefaction 2
  - Shale gas >70

From Cleveland, C. J., *Energy*, 30, 769-782, 2005

# EROI of Fuels

Resource	Year	Region	EROI
Oil and gas production	1950	USA	100
Oil and gas production	1970	USA	20
Oil and gas production	1999	Global	35
Oil and gas production	2006	Global	18
Oil and gas production	2010	China	10
Natural gas	1993	Canada	38
Natural gas	2000	Canada	26
Natural gas	2009	Canada	20
Coal	1950	USA	100
Coal	2000	USA	80
Coal	2007	USA	60
Shale oil	*	*	5
Shale gas	*	*	>70
Nuclear	n/a	USA	5-15
Hydropower	n/a	n/a	>100
Wind	n/a	n/a	18
Photovoltaic	n/a	n/a	6-12
Gasoline	n/a	n/a	8
Sugarcane ethanol	n/a	n/a	0.8-10
Corn ethanol	n/a	n/a	0.8-1.6

# Features of Energy Analysis

- Pros

- Appealing approach because energy is the common currency in all systems
- Can be used for analysis of systems at any scale – equipment, life cycle, economy, ecosystem
- Relatively easy to understand
- Easier to calculate than LCA

- Cons

- Is energy all that matters?
- What about material use?
- Primary focus is on fossil fuels – is that adequate?
- Does energy really represent the “capacity for doing work”?
- Can different types of energy be added?

# Quality of Energy

- Net energy analysis adds fuel content of crude oil, coal and natural gas
- What are the implications of adding these fuel values?
  - Substitutability between these fuels
  - Is a joule of coal equivalent to a joule of crude oil or natural gas?
- How to account for differences in quality of resources?

# Quality of Energy

- Would you prefer 1 kW of work or 1 kW of heat?
- How about 1 kW water at 80 °C vs. 1 kW water at 50 °C?
- Some intuitive facts
  - Work can be converted to heat completely (no loss)
  - Can heat be converted back to work without loss?
- No, heat cannot be converted to work without loss
  - Work increases molecular motion (randomness) due to heat
  - The randomness cannot be put back in order without additional work
- Heat is a lower *quality* of energy than work
- As temperature decreases, heat becomes less useful
- Difference between heat and work is captured by concept of *entropy*

# The Concept of Exergy

- Exergy is the *maximum* energy available for doing work
  - Also called availability
- It is “entropy free” energy
- Measured with respect to a reference state
  - Ambient environment is popular reference state for environmental applications
- In general,
  - $B = (H - H_0) - T_0(S - S_0)$

This equation looks similar to the equations for free energy.  
So is exergy the same as free energy?

# Exergy and Free Energy

$$B = (H - H_0) - T_0(S - S_0)$$

**Exergy.** If the reference state is the environment, the above equation calculates exergy.

Temperature: 25 °C, Pressure: 1 atm, Minerals: Concentration of first kilometer of Earth's crust, Other materials: Concentration of sea water

**Gibbs free energy.** If the reference state is the final state of a chemical reaction, and pressure and volume are held constant along the path toward this state, then above equation becomes the Gibbs free energy.

# Life-Cycle Assessment: Motivation

- Methods discussed so far focus on either univariate measures or aggregate metrics
- Do not consider all emissions, resource use and their impact

Approach	Multivariate?	Resources?	Emissions?	Ecosystem Services?
C footprint	No	No	GHG	No
H <sub>2</sub> O footprint	No	Water	Gray water	No
Energy	Partially	Fossils	No	No
Exergy	Partially	Materials & Energy	No	Partially
LCIA	Yes, hierarchical	Many	Many	No (being developed)

# Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)

- LCA is a process to asses the environmental impact of a product in all stages of its “ From acquisition of raw materials through production and use to end of life treatment and disposal or recycling (cradle to grave)”
- Includes mass and energy balances, and environmental impact categories, such as, global warming potential, ozone depletion, acidification, eutrophication, smog formation, human and eco toxicity
- The methodology for LCA is available as a standard, ISO 14040 2006
- Use of the Standard builds trust and credibility of the assessment
- It is a widely used decision making tool both by Government and industry, especially the regulatory bodies
- Conducting full LCA is both time and cost intensive and will require high quality of data. This can be done only at the end of the design stage of a product and its manufacturing

# Steps in LCA Analysis

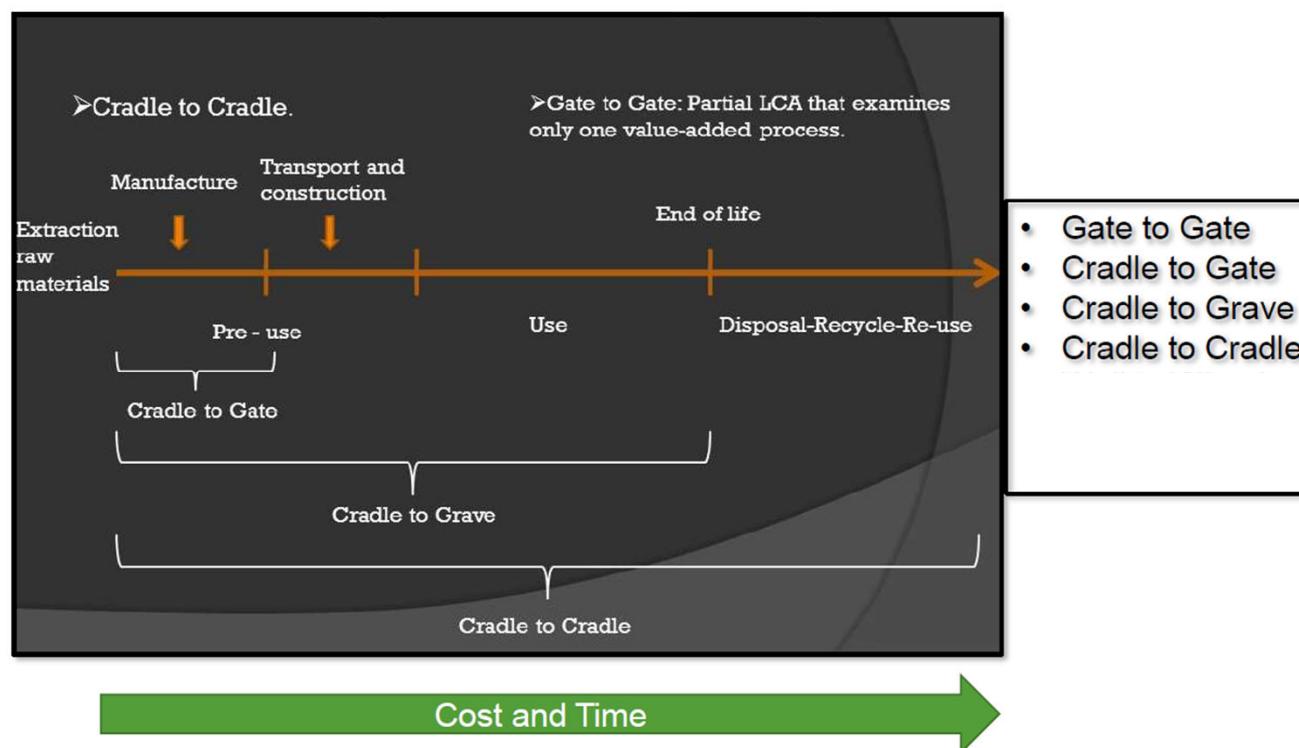
LCA is an iterative process consisting of four phases:

1. Definition of goal, system boundaries and scope
2. Inventory analysis, material flow analysis, environmental impact of chemicals
3. Impact assessment
4. Interpretation

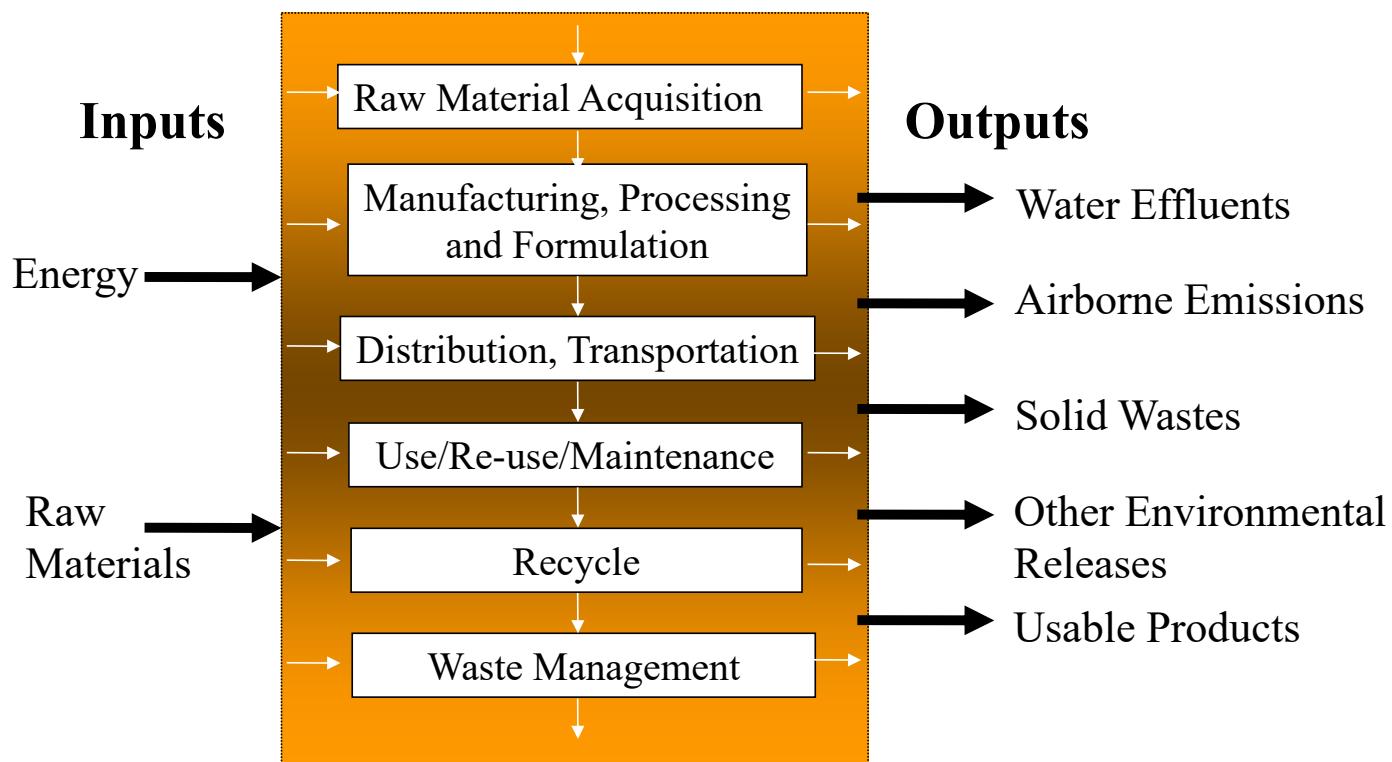
Conducting full scale cradle to grave LCA in the development phase of a process is generally difficult

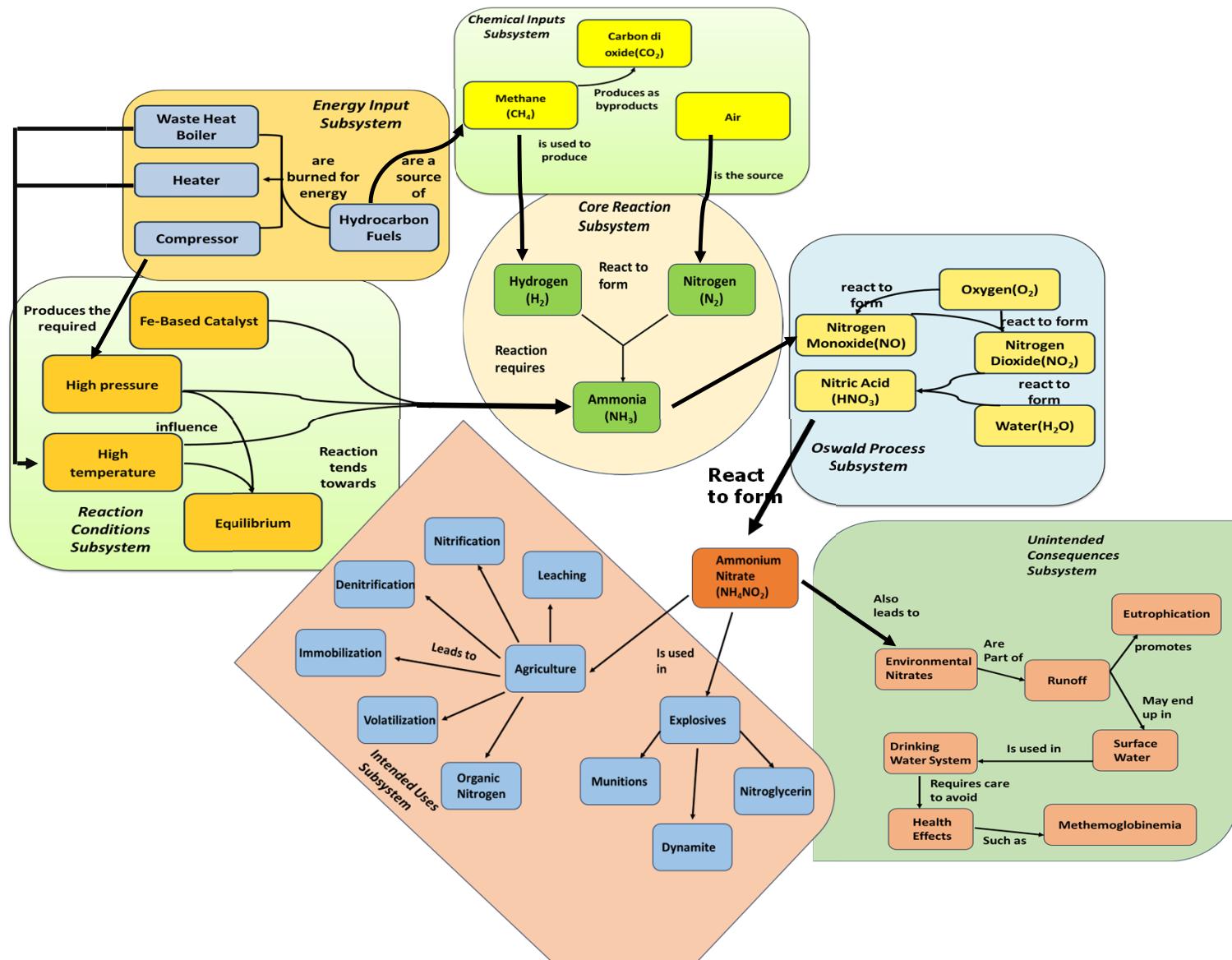
One can limit the LCA to a chemical process (gate to gate)

# LCA: Scope and System Boundaries



## Step 2: Inventory Analysis

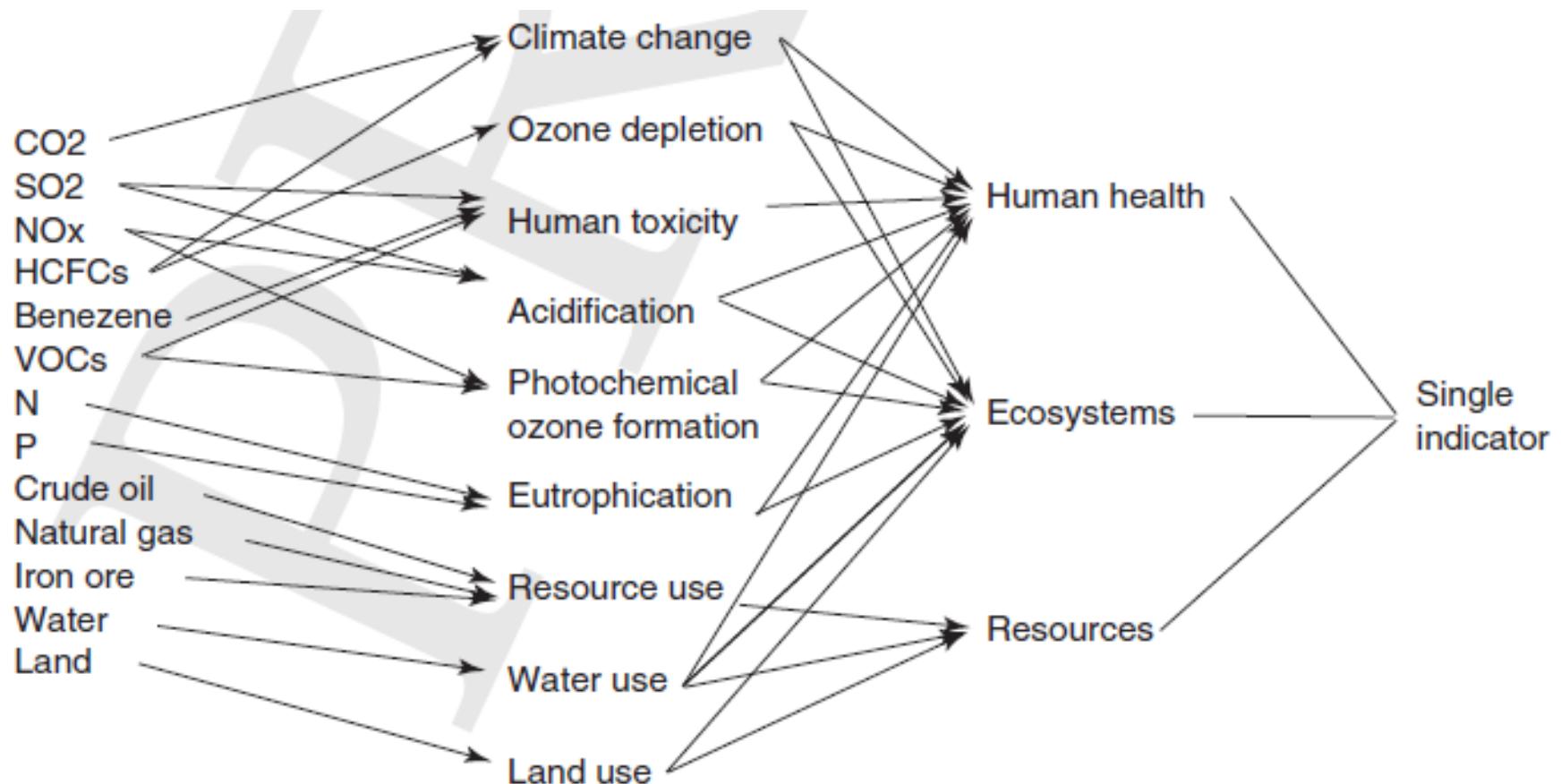




# Sustainability Matrices Categories

Category	Measurement Unit
Net mass of materials used	kg
Net energy used	MJ
Green house gas equivalent	kg CO <sub>2</sub> equivalent
Fossil fuel used for material manufacture	kg
Acidification potential	kg SO <sub>2</sub> equivalent
Eutrophication potential	kg PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>-3</sup> equivalent
Photochemical ozone creation potential	kg ethylene equivalent
Total organic carbon (TOC) load in waste water	

# Life Cycle Impact Assessment



# Limitations of LCA

- Compiling life cycle inventory data can be expensive and time consuming
- Unavailability of data and uncertainties in assumption can impact the conclusions
- LCA needs us to choose one of the impact categories. Choosing another set of impact category can lead to another view of sustainability
- The results will depend upon the weightage method used to calculate a single environmental score; this could be subjective
- LCA does not consider social and economic impacts

Because of these complexities, it may be difficult to determine the best performing alternative in a comparative context. Outcomes of LCA must be supplemented by other decision making tools



The Life Cycle of a Jean

Understanding the  
environmental impact of a  
pair of Levi's 501 Jeans

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<https://www.levistrauss.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/Full-LCA-Results-Deck-FINAL.pdf>

# Life Cycle of Levi's Jeans

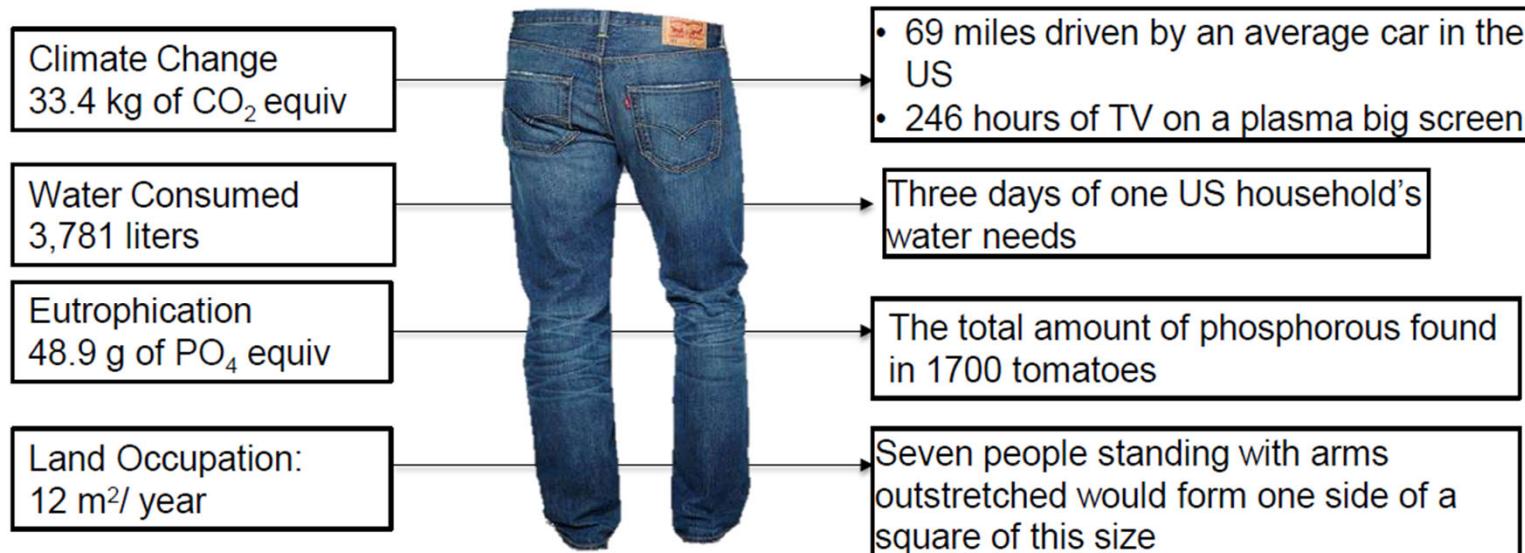


# Impact Categories

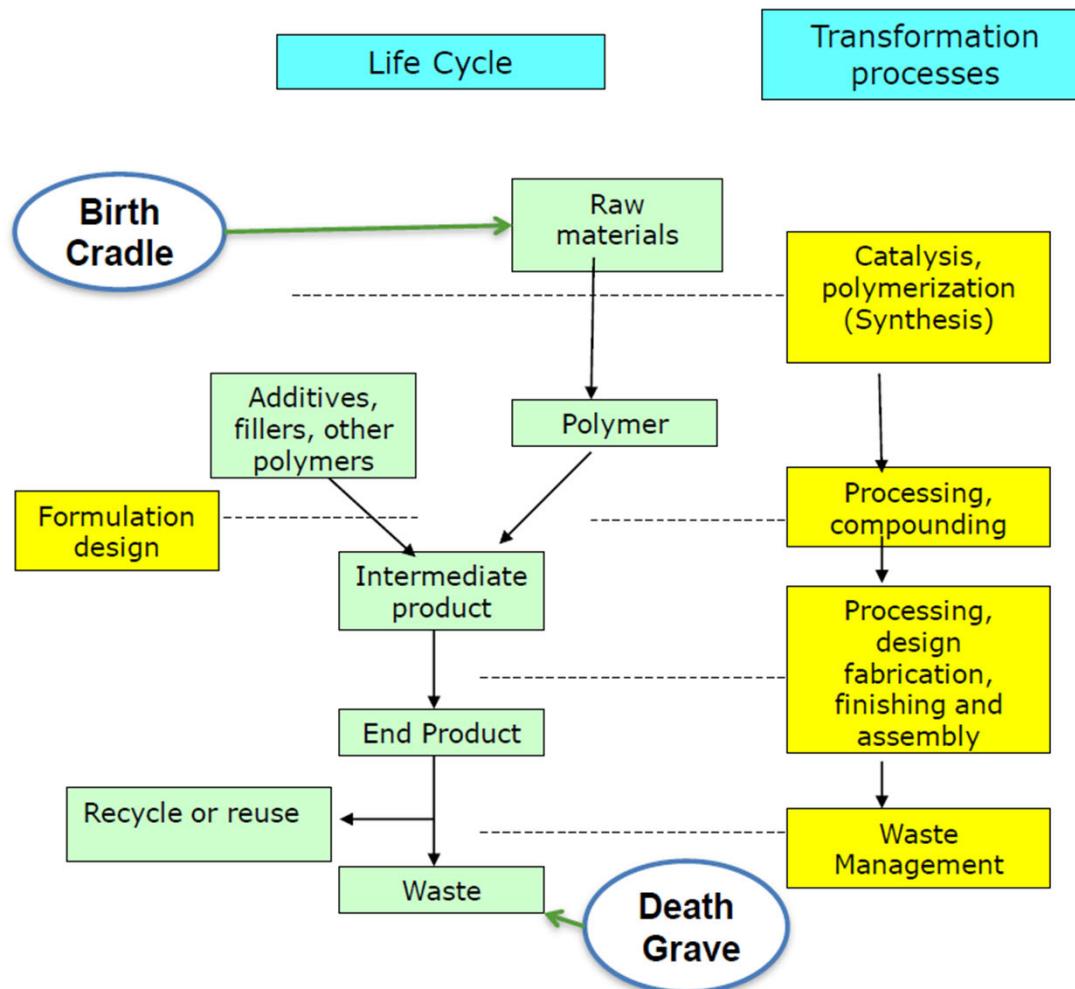
- Climate change
- Fresh water intake from the environment
- Water consumption: Net water taken minus water returned to the same watershed at the same quality
- Eutrophication: Oxygen depletion in fresh water environment
- Land Occupation: Land occupied to support the product
- Abiotic depletion: A measure of depletion of natural resources

# Life Cycle Impact

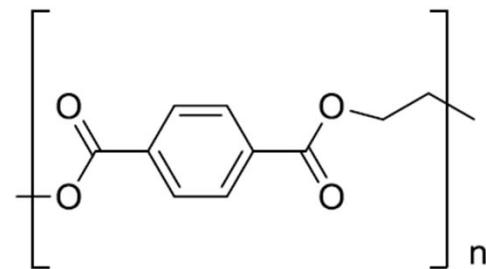
The entire life time of a one pair of jean equates to



# Life-Cycle and Transformation



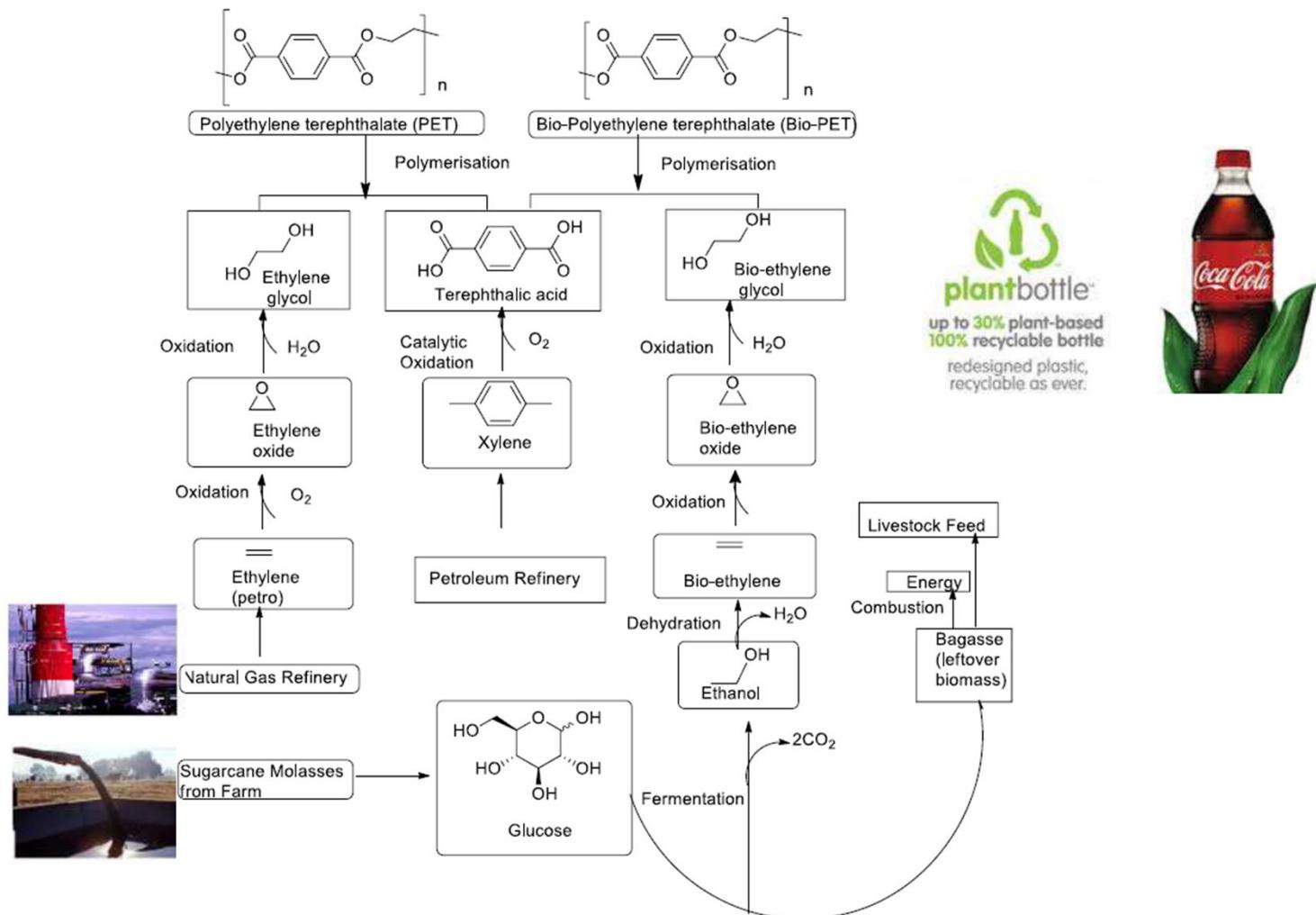
# PET: POLY(ETHYLENETEREPHTHALATE)



Purified Terephthalic Acid (PTA) and Mono-Ethylene Glycol (MEG) Content : 67.8 and 32.2 wt%

- One among the “Top Ten” Synthetic Polymers
- Accounts for about 25 % of world polymer production
- Global demand: Over 75 million tons
- Applications: Packaging films, fibers (filament and staple), PET bottle

# Bio-PET: Are they Sustainable?



# Impact Comparison

	Atom Economy, %	Carcinogens, kg benzene eqv/L	Non-Carcinogens, kg toluene eqv/L	Respiratory Effects, kg PM2.5 eqv/L	Ecotoxicity, kg benzene eqv/L	Cumulative Energy Demand, MJ Eqv/L	% Renewable Material	Distance of feedstocks
Polymer								
PET	80	$1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	62.9	$4.9 \times 10^{-3}$	5.72	123.8	0	Intern
Bio-PET	62	$1.3 \times 10^{-2}$	72.7	$5.7 \times 10^{-3}$	6.98	146.2	15	Intern

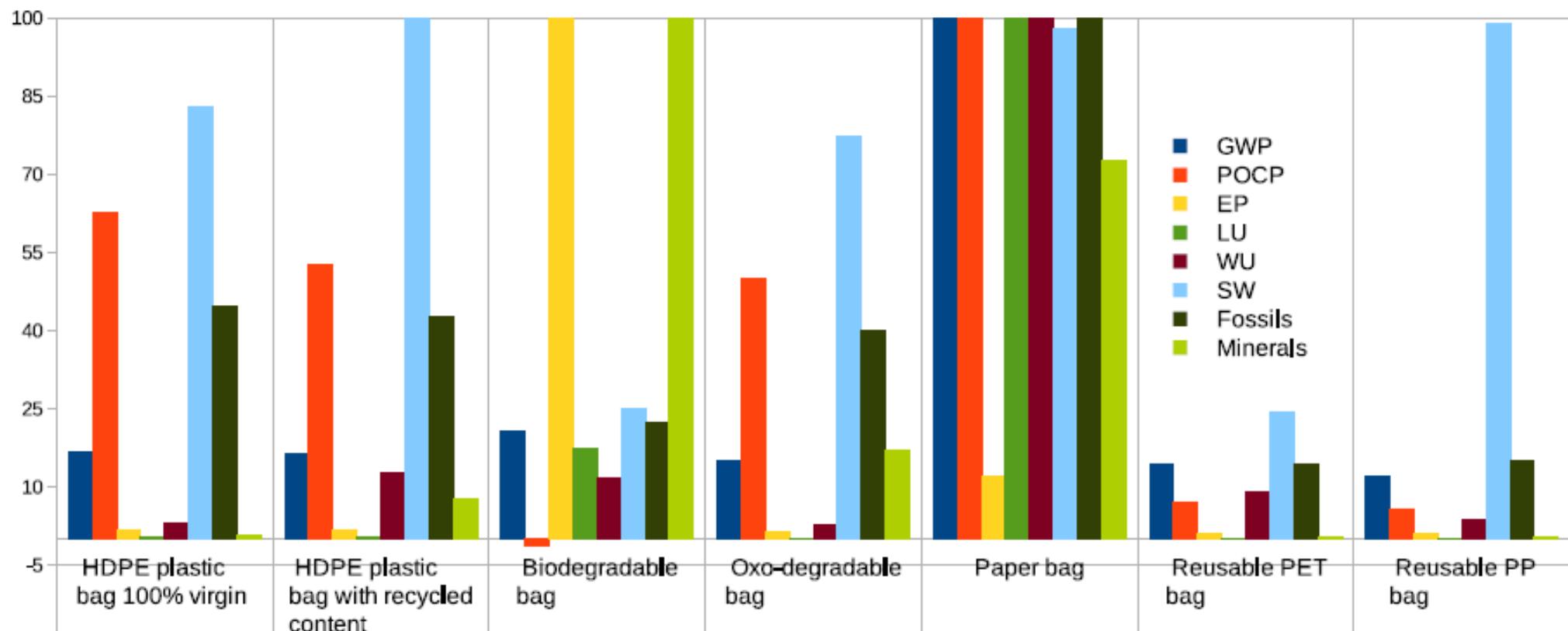
Environ. Sci. Technol., 44, 8264 (2010)

- Switching to renewable resources results in increases in impact categories:
  - eutrophication
  - human health impacts
  - eco-toxicity
- The impact result from increased use of fertilizer and pesticide, increased land use requirement for agricultural production, as well as, from fermentation and other chemical processing steps

# LCA of Grocery Sacks

Impact category	Unit	HDPE plastic bag 100% virgin	HDPE plastic bag with recycled content	Bio-degradable bag	Oxo-degradable bag	Paper bag	Reusable PET bag	Reusable PP bag
GWP	kg CO <sub>2</sub> e	7.52	7.35	9.19	6.69	44.74	6.47	5.43
POCP	kg C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> e	0.045	0.038	-0.001	0.036	0.072	0.005	0.004
EP	kg PO <sub>4</sub> e	0.005	0.005	0.278	0.004	0.033	0.003	0.003
LU	Ha a	6.6E-6	5.9E-6	3.5E-4	9.2E-7	2.0E-3	2.0E-6	1.3E-6
WU	kL H <sub>2</sub> O	0.013	0.053	0.050	0.012	0.423	0.038	0.016
SW	kg	2.74	3.31	0.83	2.56	3.24	0.81	3.27
Fossils	MJ s	19.93	19.07	9.96	17.94	44.77	6.46	6.65
Minerals	MJ s	8.44E-5	7.79E-4	1.02E-2	1.73E-3	7.42E-3	3.39E-5	2.50E-5

# LCA of Grocery Sacks



- Comparing grocery sacks after normalizing each impact category to 100
- Which sack is best?

