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Recovery of antioxidants from olive mill wastewaters: A viable solution that promotes their overall sustainable management

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Abstract

Olive mill wastewaters (OMW) are rich in water-soluble polyphenolic compounds that show remarkable antioxidant properties. In this work, the recovery yield of compounds, such as hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol, as well as total phenols (TPh) from real OMW was investigated. Antioxidants were recovered by means of liquid-liquid solvent extraction. For this purpose, a laboratory-scale pilot unit was established and the effect of various organic solvents, namely ethyl acetate, diethyl ether and a mixture of chloroform/isopropyl alcohol, on process efficiency was investigated. It was found that the performance of the three extraction systems decreased in the order: ethyl acetate > chloroform/isopropanol > diethyl ether, in terms of their antioxidant recovery yield. It was estimated that treatment of 1 m³ OMW with ethyl acetate could provide 0.247 kg hydroxytyrosol, 0.062 kg tyrosol and 3.44 kg of TPh. Furthermore, the environmental footprint of the whole liquid-liquid extraction system was estimated by means of the life cycle assessment (LCA) methodology to provide the best available and most sustainable extraction technique. From an environmental perspective, it was found that ethyl acetate and diethyl ether had similar environmental impacts. Specifically, for the production of 1 g hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol or TPh, 13.3, 53.1 or 0.949 kg CO₂ equivalent would be released to the atmosphere, respectively. On the other

hand, the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol mixture had detrimental effects onto ecosystems, human health and fossil fuels resources. In total, ethyl acetate yields low environmental impacts and high antioxidant recovery yield and thus it can be considered as the best solution, both from the environmental and technical point of view. Three alternative scenarios to improve the recovery performance and boost the sustainability of the ethyl acetate extraction system were also investigated and their total environmental impacts were estimated. It was found that with small process modifications the environmental impacts could be reduced by 29%, thus achieving a more sustainable antioxidants recovery process.

Keywords: OMW; hydroxytyrosol; tyrosol; LCA; solvent extraction; polyphenols

1. Introduction

Nowadays, there are growing concerns about a variety of environmental issues that accompany OMW and its effective treatment. OMW is a by-product of olive oil production and is characterized by seasonal large volumes and high organic loads (Chatzisyneon et al., 2009a; Gotsi et al., 2005). However, if properly managed, it is an inexpensive and convenient source of natural antioxidants, mainly due to its high polyphenolic content (Niaounakis and Halvadakis, 2006). Polyphenols are water soluble organic compounds and, therefore, they are found in abundance in OMW (Obied et al., 2005). So far, more than forty phenols have been identified in OMW with hydroxytyrosol being the main natural polyphenolic compound due to its high bio-antioxidant capacity (Tsimidou et al., 1992). In general, all polyphenolic compounds exhibit potential antioxidant properties; the way they act is through elimination of free radicals in cells, thus providing protection against oxidative stress in biomolecules like proteins, lipids and DNA (Boskou, 2006). Moreover, as natural substances their high potential antioxidant properties are reflected in their high market price, and their great demand in the cosmetic, pharmaceutical and food industry. Among them, hydroxytyrosol is in abundance in OMW and it is considered to be the most active antioxidant (Gordon et al., 2001). On the other hand, if polyphenols are left without any further treatment into the OMW, they are gradually oxidized and/or polymerized rendering OMW highly toxic and recalcitrant (Chatzisyneon et al., 2009b; Celano et al., 2008; Martirani et al., 1996). Hence, the recovery of the polyphenolic content of OMW not only provides economic benefits but it also makes OMW less toxic and easier to treat, thus promoting the overall sustainability of the OMW management (Federici et al., 2009).

Until now, several methods for polyphenols recovery have been suggested, including solvent extraction (Bertin et al., 2011; De Leonardis et al., 2007; Grizis et al., 2003; Lesage-Meessen et al.,

2001), adsorption onto resins (Scoma et al., 2011; Agalias et al., 2007), supercritical fluid extraction (Lafka et al., 2011), selective concentration by ultrafiltration (Galanakis et al., 2010; Lin and Juang, 2009) and integrated membrane systems (El-Abbassi et al., 2011; Garcia-Castello et al., 2010; El-Abbassi et al., 2009). Moreover, interesting alternative processes include the use of microparticles (Puoci et al., 2012) and biofilters (Ena et al., 2012), cloud point extraction (Gortzi et al., 2008) and ultrasound-assisted extraction (Klen and Vodopivec, 2011). Among them, liquid-liquid solvent extraction is an easy to operate technique thus, it could be applied even in small, family-owned olive oil mills that exist in most Mediterranean countries, including Greece. The concept has been very recently demonstrated by Sannino et al. (2013) who proposed liquid-liquid extraction using ethyl acetate followed by chromatographic fractionation for the production, at small-scale, of high grade, purified hydroxytyrosol. Furthermore, many researchers found that the most promising solvents for liquid-liquid extraction were diethyl ether, ethyl acetate and a mixture of chloroform with isopropyl alcohol (De Leonardis, 2007; Grizis et al., 2003; Lesage-Meessen et al., 2001). Due to the different polar properties of the target phenolic compounds typically found in OMW, such as hydroxytyrosol which is the main constituent in OMW exhibiting amphiphilic properties, different solvent systems were chosen to assess their selectivity to extract the target compounds.

At this point, it is of great significance to mention that the sustainability of the aforementioned polyphenols recovery techniques has never been studied before. Besides, the environmental footprint of any process can reveal important information regarding the scaling-up of the process and enhance its overall sustainability by introducing alternative “green” scenarios.

Life cycle assessment (LCA) is the concept of analyzing and quantifying the environmental impacts of any given product, process, service or activity throughout its lifespan (Tsoutsos et al., 2010). It is also known as cradle-to-grave assessment due to the fact that one has to take into account all the stages of a product’s or service life, which start from the extraction of resource inputs and ends to the eventual disposal of the product or its waste (ISO 14040, 2006). The main benefit of LCA is its capability to link the environmental loads of any product, process, service or activity with its mass and energy flows (Kniel et al., 1996).

The aim of this work was to investigate the recovery yield of various polyphenolic compounds such as hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol, as well as TPh from real OMW by means of solvent extraction. This information was then employed to estimate the environmental footprint of the process by means of LCA and to provide the best available and sustainable extraction technique. For this purpose, a laboratory-scale pilot unit was setup and the type of the organic solvent was investigated.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Materials

Ethyl acetate ($C_4H_8O_2$), diethyl ether ($C_4H_{10}O$), chloroform ($CHCl_3$) and isopropyl alcohol (C_3H_8O) were purchased from Merck (analytical grade) and used as extraction solvents. Chloroform and isopropyl alcohol were mixed at a 7:3 (v/v) ratio according to the work of Grizis et al. (2003).

Hydroxytyrosol ($C_8H_{10}O_3$, $\geq 90\%$), tyrosol ($C_8H_{10}O_2$, $\geq 95\%$) and oleuropein ($C_{25}H_{32}O_{13}$, $\geq 98\%$) were purchased from Extrasynthese Chemicals Company. Caffeic ($\geq 98\%$) and gallic ($\geq 98\%$) acids were purchased from Sigma Aldrich Company.

A model solution containing 250 mg/L oleuropein, 1000 mg/L tyrosol, 250 mg/L gallic acid, 250 mg/L caffeic acid and 270 mg/L hydroxytyrosol in ultrapure water was prepared to evaluate the ability of liquid-liquid extraction to recover them. It should be noted that the mixture of phenolic compounds was stirred vigorously for one day to ensure complete dissolution. The pH of the synthetic solution was fixed to 5 adding NaOH to match that of the actual OMW. The degree of recovery of the phenolic compounds from the model solution was calculated measuring their concentration at the initial solution and immediately after the liquid-liquid extraction had been completed. The discrepancy between these two values divided by the initial concentration results in the recovery yield of each compound.

The actual effluent was provided by a three-phase, olive oil mill located in Chania, Western Crete, Greece. Its main physicochemical characteristics were as follows: pH=5, initial soluble COD=98.6 g/L, total solids=70.5 g/L, conductivity=9.25 mS/cm and TPh=6 g/L, while its color was black-brown.

2.2 Sample pretreatment

Due to the effluent's high content of solids, the samples were first filtered through mesh gauge filters and then centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 20 min to remove most of the solid particles. Afterwards, the supernatant fats and the solid precipitates were removed, and the remaining aqueous phase was subjected to further filtration by means of a 0.45 μm filter. Following this pretreatment, its main properties were: pH=4.8, initial COD=90 g/L, total solids=0.5 g/L, conductivity=9.5 mS/cm and TPh=5 g/L.

It should be noted here that filtration is unlikely to be employed as a preconditioning stage for solids removal in actual applications; on the contrary, coagulation-flocculation using inexpensive materials (i.e. ferrous ions) would be a reasonable pretreatment method prior to extraction as has been demonstrated in a recent study of our group (Papaphilippou et al., 2013). Moreover, sample pretreatment is not a trivial procedure since it can influence the efficiency of extraction.

137 **2.3 Recovery procedure**

138 Sample pretreatment was followed by liquid-liquid extraction to efficiently separate the target
139 polyphenols from the OMW. A laboratory-scale pilot unit was setup in order to perform
140 experiments in batch mode operation. The solvent to OMW ratio was always constant at 2:1 v/v
141 (100:50 in mL). Moreover, it is important to note that all runs were carried out at ambient
142 temperature (ca 27°C) in order to avoid enzymatic degradation and oxidation of polyphenols.

143 At first, the OMW and the appropriate solvent were loaded in an Erlenmeyer flask with 250 mL
144 headspace, which was then tightly sealed and continuously stirred magnetically for 30 min at 120
145 rpm. During this step, the polyphenolic compounds were extracted from the aqueous phase (i.e.
146 OMW) to the organic liquid phase (i.e. solvent). Afterwards, this OMW-organic solvent mixture
147 was left to settle in a separate funnel for 30 min. After settling, the two liquid phases were separated
148 and the organic phase was recovered. Recovery was followed by evaporation of the organic liquid
149 phase to dryness. Evaporation took place at 40°C in a bathwater under vacuum, in order to condense
150 the organic solvent and obtain the crude organic extract (i.e. polyphenolic content). This organic
151 deposit was then reconstituted in 25 mL methanol and analyzed. The methanolic extract is two-fold
152 concentrated and the recovery is expressed in total mg of target phenolic compounds extracted from
153 one liter OMW.

154 Process efficiency was estimated measuring the TPh recovery yield, as well as monitoring the
155 concentration of tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol after the end of the liquid-liquid extraction technique. It
156 should also be noted that all experiments were performed in duplicate and mean values are quoted
157 as results with standard deviation never exceeding 5% for the range of concentrations in question.

158

159 **2.4 High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)**

160 HPLC (Alliance 2690, Waters) was employed to monitor the concentrations of tyrosol,
161 hydroxytyrosol, caffeic acid, gallic acid and oleuropein. Separation was achieved on an ACE C18-R
162 reverse phase column (stainless steel, 250x4.6 mm, id 5 µm), while detection was achieved through
163 a UV-Vis detector set at 280 nm. More details can be found elsewhere (Papaphilippou et al., 2013).
164 The polyphenolic compounds were tentatively identified matching their elution times from the
165 column to those of standard stock solutions. Calibration curves were also prepared at various
166 concentrations and used for quantitation purposes.

167

168 **2.5 Total phenols**

169 The TPh content was determined colorimetrically at 765 nm on a Shimadzu UV 1240
170 spectrophotometer using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent according to the procedures described in

171 detail elsewhere (Singleton et al., 1999). Gallic acid monohydrate was used as standard to quantify
172 the concentration of phenols in OMW.

173

174 **2.6 LCA**

175 LCA methodology was utilized in order to identify and, therefore, further reduce the environmental
176 footprint of the liquid-liquid extraction process and provide alternatives to decision makers and
177 developers (Foteinis et al., 2011). The software package SimaPro 7.3.3, a widely used tool, both by
178 professionals and researchers, was used in this work. Moreover, two impact assessment methods
179 were used and these are IPCC 2007 and ReCiPe. The first one compares processes based on CO₂
180 emissions equivalents. CO₂ emissions are a worldwide known unit, namely global warming
181 potential (GWP), and an acceptable way to express the sustainability of a system for a timeframe of
182 100 years. The ReCiPe framework is the most recent impact assessment method that exhibits
183 certain advantages comparing to other approaches, such as Eco-Indicator 99. In particular, ReCiPe
184 includes the broadest set of midpoint impact categories and the possibility of using impact
185 mechanisms that have global scope (Goedkoop et al., 2009). Analytically, the ReCiPe method can
186 transform the life cycle inventory results into a limited number of indicator scores that are
187 expressed per environmental impact category and also as an aggregated single score. These
188 indicator scores express the relative severity on an environmental impact category at two levels, the
189 midpoint indicators (impact categories) and the endpoint indicators (damage categories), as shown
190 in Table 1. Furthermore, in the case of the ReCiPe method, the perspective that was used was the
191 Egalitarian. This takes into account the long term, precautionary environmental impacts if compared
192 with the other available perspectives.

193

194 Table 1.

195

196 **3. Results and discussion**

197 **3.1 Polyphenols recovery from model solution**

198 Given the complexity of the actual OMW, preliminary tests were performed with the synthetic
199 solution.

200

201

202 As seen in Table 2, the extraction efficiency expectedly depends on the solvent/polyphenolic
203 compound pair; caffeic acid and tyrosol exhibited the highest recoveries irrespective of the solvent
204 system employed, followed by hydroxytyrosol, oleuropein and gallic acid. These preliminary

205 separations confirm that the selected solvent systems can, to a certain degree, extract all of the
206 compounds from the mixture; the only exception was oleuropein, which could not be recovered by
207 diethyl ether. Judging the relative extraction efficiency of the various solvents for the set of
208 polyphenols rather than on an individual basis, ethyl acetate appears to be superior to the rest. This
209 has also been confirmed by Papaphilippou et al. (2013) who tested ethyl acetate, dichloromethane,
210 diethylether and a 7:3 (v/v) mixture of chloroform:isopropyl alcohol for the extraction of model,
211 single-component aqueous solutions of tyrosol, oleuropein, caffeic and gallic acids.
212 Allouche et al. (2004) assessed the ability of several solvents to extract batchwise the polyphenolic
213 fraction of OMW and reported that the extraction power decreased in the order: ethyl acetate >
214 methyl isobutyl ketone > methyl ethyl ketone > diethyl ether. The superiority of ethyl acetate over
215 diethyl ether to extract OMW phenols was also verified by Klen and Vodopivec (2011) who found
216 that the former was nearly twice as effective as the latter. El-Abbassi et al. (2012) reported that
217 ethyl acetate was capable of extracting hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol, as well as gallic, caffeic and p-
218 coumaric acids from OMW.

219

220 **3.2 Polyphenols recovery from OMW**

221 Figure 1 shows a typical chromatograph representing the qualitative and quantitative composition of
222 the OMW extract when ethyl acetate solvent is used. (It should be noted that the OMW was not
223 subjected to chromatographic characterization prior to the extraction.) It is observed that
224 hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol are among the most abundant target polyphenolic compounds, sharing
225 7.2% and 1.8% of the OMW polyphenolic content, respectively (these are computed from the
226 extract concentrations, as well as the respective TPh value shown in Table 3). On the other hand,
227 oleuropein, caffeic and gallic acids were also tested but found only in traces in the ethyl acetate
228 extract. Therefore, only the concentrations of tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol were followed for the rest
229 of the experimental work.

230

231

232 **Figure 1.**

233

234 The results, shown in Table 3, confirm that ethyl acetate is the most effective solvent in terms of
235 hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh extraction with the respective concentrations being 247.2, 61.6 and
236 3440 mg/L, respectively. Specifically, ethyl acetate achieved higher extraction yields than the
237 chloroform/isopropyl alcohol system by 49.7% and 30.5% for hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol,
238 respectively. It should be noted that although the chloroform/isopropanol mixture shows a similar

239 TPh extraction yield to ethyl acetate, its selectivity towards tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol (i.e. target
240 polyphenolic compounds with significant antioxidant capacity) is substantially lower than that of
241 ethyl acetate. Moreover, diethyl ether exhibits even lower extraction yields in terms of all the
242 extracted target antioxidants. Hence, the performance of the three extraction systems decreased in
243 the order: ethyl acetate > chloroform/isopropanol > diethyl ether.

244 De Leonardis et al. (2007) reported that extraction with ethyl acetate could yield up to 0.34 kg
245 hydroxytyrosol and 0.083 kg tyrosol per m³ of OMW treated; these values are in good agreement
246 with the results reported in this work (i.e. 0.25 kg hydroxytyrosol and 0.062 kg tyrosol per m³ of
247 OMW). Allouche et al. (2004) reported that a three-stage, continuous, counter-current process using
248 ethyl acetate as the solvent could extract 1.23 kg of hydroxytyrosol per m³ of OMW. In other
249 studies, Agalias et al. (2007) reported a hydroxytyrosol recovery of up to 0.58 kg using various
250 adsorbent resins. Visioli et al. (1999) used a benchtop mill to process olives and the resulting OMW
251 was subjected to ethyl acetate extraction yielding 1.2 g hydroxytyrosol and 0.45 g tyrosol per 100 g
252 of dry matter; these values increased to 9.79 g and 4.72 g, respectively when the extract was further
253 subjected to chromatographic fractionation. Besides three-phase OMW, efforts have been made to
254 isolate hydroxytyrosol from two-phase olive mill wastes using acid- or alkali-catalyzed
255 hydrothermal treatment; about 5 kg of hydroxytyrosol could be obtained from 1 tn of solid waste
256 containing 70% humidity (Fernandez-Bolanos et al., 2002).

257 Table 3.

258

259 **3.2 Life cycle assessment of solvent extraction**

260 **3.2.1 General considerations**

261 LCA was used to assess the environmental footprint of the antioxidants extraction when three
262 different types of solvents were employed. The LCA study was based on the experimental data that
263 are shown in Table 3.

264 First of all, the system boundaries were set as follows: the OMW production, its transportation and
265 its final treatment/disposal, as well as the stirrer and the vacuum evaporator are not included inside
266 the boundaries, since this work deals with the extraction of the high value natural compounds from
267 OMW and not with its treatment.

268 Moreover the vials (flask, separation funnel) were not considered in the system flow (outside of the
269 system boundaries) since their contribution to the total environmental impact is quite low.
270 Preliminary LCA simulation runs were performed (data not shown) and the results showed that the
271 material (i.e. glass) of the laboratory-scale vials does not pose serious environmental impacts.

272 Therefore, the main LCA system flows were (i) the energy inputs; (ii) the organic solvents and their

releases to the environment; (iii) the solvent recovery yield during the evaporation step of the extraction technique.

All the related data (i.e. the important inputs/outputs) were identified, quantified and archived in order to create an inventory of the flows (e.g. energy, raw materials, and releases to air, land and water) of the LCA system from and to nature (Table 4). The main energy inputs that were identified were the energy consumed by (i) the magnetic stirrer (45 kJ), and (ii) the vacuum evaporator that was estimated at 435.6 kJ, 226.8 kJ and 680.4 kJ for ethyl acetate, diethyl ether and the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol mixture, respectively. The outputs were the released solvent amounts both to the aqueous phase and to the atmosphere. The solvent was diffused into the aqueous phase during the separation of the two liquid phases and it was estimated measuring the volume of the organic solvent before and after the end of this separation step. Analytically, the diffusion of ethyl acetate, diethyl ether and chloroform/isopropyl alcohol into the aqueous phase was 5.1%, 4.4% and 4.5%, respectively. Moreover, the organic solvent was emitted into the atmosphere during its evaporation which was inevitable in order to obtain the crude organic extract (i.e., polyphenolic content). Solvent emissions to the atmosphere were monitored by measuring the volume of the organic solvent after its condensation during the evaporation step. Solvent emissions were estimated at 7%, 17% and 8% for ethyl acetate, diethyl ether and chloroform/ isopropyl alcohol, respectively. Afterwards, three functional units were set, and these are the extraction yield (mg/L) of hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh.

Table 4.

3.2.2 Global warming potential

The aforementioned inventory was used as an input in the software SimaPro 7.3.3 in order to simulate the environmental loads/impacts of the two-phase extraction process and compare the three different organic solvents by estimating their environmental footprint. Hence, the results are quoted as global warming potential in CO₂ equivalents for a timeframe of 100 years for the extraction of 1 g of tyrosol, hydroxytyrosol and TPh and they are shown in Table 5.

Table 5.

These revealed that diethyl ether was the most environmentally friendly solvent, closely followed by ethyl acetate for the extracted target antioxidants. Besides, chloroform/isopropyl alcohol was found to pose serious threats to the environment in terms of its global warming potential.

Specifically, as far as tyrosol extraction yield is concerned, diethyl ether was found to be the most environmentally friendly solvent releasing only 32.1 kgCO₂eq, while ethyl acetate and chloroform/isopropyl alcohol released 53.1 and 206 kgCO₂eq, respectively. Undoubtedly, the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol extraction system exhibits an extremely high GWP if compared with the other two systems. The same trend, regarding GWP, stands for the extraction of hydroxytyrosol and TPh.

GWP is strongly related to energy consumption as this is the main reason for increased CO₂ emissions worldwide (Forster et al., 2007). Hence, the better performance of diethyl ether, which is followed by ethyl acetate and chloroform/isopropyl alcohol is primarily attributed to the fact that the energy requirements for evaporation are lower for diethyl ether (226.8 kJ) than for ethyl acetate (435.6 kJ) and chloroform/isopropyl alcohol (680.4 kJ). Moreover, the high GWP of the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol solvent system can be also attributed to the fact that isopropyl alcohol is a well-known green house gas, exhibiting a considerably higher amount of CO₂ equivalent (Salazar and Nanny, 2010).

3.2.3 Severity of the environmental impacts onto human health, ecosystem and resources depletion

The aggregated environmental impacts during the extraction of hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh from OMW, based on the ReCiPe method, are presented in Figures 2, 3 and 4, respectively. Figure 2a shows that the most severe impact indicator during the extraction of hydroxytyrosol is the fact that the overall process can cause toxic effects on humans for all the extraction solvent systems. Besides, the human toxicity impact of the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol exceeds by far the impacts of the other two solvent systems, i.e. it can cause about twice higher toxic effects than the use of ethyl acetate or diethyl ether. Furthermore, the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol solvent system yields higher environmental impact on fossil fuel depletion and on human health through its interference with climate change phenomena than the other systems. All the other impact indicator scores are practically not affected by the liquid-liquid extraction technique to recover antioxidants from OMW. These findings are presented in a different way in Figure 2b, where one can see the general environmental damage categories of the extraction process on human health, ecosystem and the depletion of resources. Chloroform/isopropyl alcohol is by far the most toxic and hazardous material for human health and ecosystems and yields the higher requirements in terms of fossil fuels. On the other hand, ethyl acetate is the most environmentally friendly reagent to recover hydroxytyrosol from OMW, although it requires higher amounts of fossil fuels than diethyl ether.

Figure 2.

342

343 Like hydroxytyrosol, the most significant environmental damage category for tyrosol extraction is
344 human health (Figure 3b). Firstly, this is threatened (Figure 3a) through the human toxicity, which
345 is caused by the toxic nature of the organic reagents in combination with the solvent amount that is
346 released to the atmosphere during the evaporation step of the extraction process. Secondly, human
347 health is affected through (i) the fact that some of the solvents, such as isopropyl alcohol are
348 greenhouse gases, and (ii) the potential formation of organic by-products, during the extraction
349 process, that contribute to the greenhouse effect. The accumulation of greenhouse gases can
350 interfere with the global climate causing serious impacts on human health through its change.
351 Furthermore, it was observed that chloroform/isopropyl alcohol poses detrimental effects primarily
352 on human health and secondarily to fossil fuels depletion sources and to ecosystem. Diethyl ether
353 was found to be the most environmentally friendly solvent reagent to perform the recovery of
354 tyrosol from OMW.

355

356

Figure 3.

357

358 Finally, Figure 4 clearly shows that diethyl ether is the most environmentally friendly solvent to
359 recover TPh from OMW, while ethyl acetate follows with its total environmental impacts being
360 twice as much. Chloroform/isopropyl alcohol poses even more environmental impacts that are
361 about four times higher than diethyl ether.

362 When a more holistic and precautionary principle thinking method like ReCiPe is used then the
363 results are slightly different from those obtained during the GWP estimation. This is evident in the
364 case of hydroxytyrosol recovery where it was found that diethyl ether is the most environmentally
365 friendly option regarding its GWP with 12.9 kg CO₂eq/g, followed by ethyl acetate with 13.3 kg
366 CO₂eq/g. However, considering the ReCiPe assessment (Figure 2), ethyl acetate shows a somewhat
367 (about 20%) more environmentally friendly footprint than diethyl ether.

368 This difference can be explained by considering the two applied impact assessment methods. To
369 begin with, IPCC 2007 estimates CO₂ emissions equivalent and it compares processes based on this
370 unit. On the other hand, the ReCiPe method transforms the life cycle inventory results into a
371 broader number of impact categories (Table 1) including the GWP mainly into its fossil depletion
372 impact category. Moreover, the key advantage of the ReCiPe method lies within the fact that it
373 takes into account the severity of each impact category to assess the sustainability of the process.
374 Hence, in the case of hydroxytyrosol recovery, the IPCC results declare that diethyl ether solvent
375 system is more environmentally friendly in terms of its GWP. This is consistent with the results

376 shown in Figure 2a, where fossil depletion impact is lower for the diethyl ether system. However,
377 the ReCiPe method indicates in Figure 2 that the impact of human toxicity is the most severe for the
378 overall extraction system and thus its total environmental footprint will be assessed according to
379 this impact category, mostly, where it is clearly shown that ethyl acetate is less toxic to humans than
380 the other solvent systems.

381 Accordingly, taking into account that ethyl acetate exhibits (i) the best efficiency to recover
382 hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh from OMW (Table 3), and (ii) a very good environmental footprint
383 during the recovery of the target antioxidant compounds, it is considered as the most viable and
384 sustainable option to recover target polyphenolic compounds from OMW.

385

386

Figure 4.

387

388 **3.3 Process modifications and alternative scenarios**

389 In order to reduce further the environmental impacts of the use of ethyl acetate, the following
390 diversifications, in terms of its operating parameters, can be applied to the liquid-liquid extraction.

391 The first suggestion is to minimize the partial diffusion of the organic solvent into the aqueous
392 phase during the liquid-liquid separation step; this is crucial because the presence of solvent in the
393 extracted effluent presumably increases its organic load and, consequently, the need for additional
394 treatment. This can be achieved adding salt into the OMW prior to the extraction step, thus
395 exploiting the salting-out effect (Grizis et al., 2003). Increasing the salt concentration of the
396 aqueous phase some of the water molecules are attracted by the salt ions, thus decreasing the
397 number of water molecules available to interact with the organic solvent. Therefore, the weak
398 intermolecular forces (e.g. hydrogen bonds) between organic molecules and water are easily
399 disrupted by the addition of salt. For this purpose, an experiment was performed to test the
400 efficiency of the extraction process in the presence of 8% (w/v) Na_2SO_4 in OMW and ethyl acetate
401 as the solvent (referred to as scenario 1). It was observed that solvent diffusion from the organic
402 into the aqueous phase decreased by 75%, while the respective environmental benefits are shown in
403 Figures 5 and 6 for hydroxytyrosol; Figure 5 shows that the total environmental impacts were
404 reduced by about 12.5%, while the GWP also decreased from 13.3 to 11 $\text{kgCO}_2\text{eq/g}$ hydroxytyrosol
405 (Figure 6). It should be noted here that following the recovery of precious antioxidants, the
406 remaining OMW will still contain several grams per liter of various organics and, therefore, must
407 undergo subsequent chemical and/or biological treatment prior to its final discharge. A point of
408 concern regarding scenario 1 is that increased salinity may have negative ramifications in the
409 treatability of the extracted effluent and this will depend on the concentration and type of added

410 salt, as well as the type of post-extraction treatment. Processes like phytoremediation or
411 electrochemical oxidation are amongst those that have been successfully employed for OMW
412 treatment (Di Bene et al., 2013; Goncalves et al., 2012; Bodini et al., 2011), while they can tolerate
413 increased salinity (e.g. using halophytes in phytoremediation (Manousaki and Kalogerakis, 2011))
414 or even require it (e.g. to enhance conductivity in electrochemical treatment (Chatzisyseon et al.,
415 2009c)).

416 Another option would be the use of more environmentally friendly raw materials, like bioethanol,
417 for the production of solvents and this would expectedly reduce the environmental impacts of the
418 extraction. Ethyl acetate production from bioethanol can have positive environmental impacts as
419 discussed in detail elsewhere (Nguyen et al., 2011; Ashley, 2006). Based on this assumption and
420 simulating the extraction procedure regarding its total environmental impacts, these were reduced
421 by 6% (scenario 2 in Figure 5). Moreover, the GWP decreased by 19% (scenario 2 in Figure 6).

422 Finally, the combination of the two aforementioned scenarios was also investigated and the results
423 are shown as scenario 3 in Figures 5 and 6; this scenario can lead to 17% and 29% reduction in
424 terms of its total environmental impacts and GWP, respectively. Hence, the results are very
425 promising since almost one fourth of the total environmental impacts can be reduced by applying
426 the proposed alternative scenarios.

427 Furthermore, it is worth noticing that although scenario 1 yields higher GWP than scenario 2, it is a
428 more environmentally friendly option regarding its damage categories and their impacts. This can
429 be explained by the fact that the use of bioethanol (i.e. an alternative and environmentally friendly
430 biofuel), for ethyl acetate production, reduces significantly the CO₂ emissions to atmosphere.
431 Conversely, scenario 1 achieves lower diffusion rates of the liquid organic phase into the aqueous
432 phase, thus reducing the amount of the hazardous organic solvent which is finally discharged into
433 aquatic bodies. Considering the fact that the severity of human toxicity is exceptionally higher than
434 the resources depletion impact, scenario 1 seems to present a more sustainable option, according to
435 the ReCiPe methodology.

436 Similar results (shown in Figures S1-S4 of supplementary material) were obtained for tyrosol and
437 TPh recovery based on scenarios 1-3.

438

439 Figure 5.

440

441 Figure 6.

442

443 4. Conclusions and final remarks

444 The aim of this work was to investigate the recovery yield of various polyphenolic compounds with
445 known antioxidant properties such as hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol from real OMW, by means of
446 liquid-liquid solvent extraction. Moreover, the environmental footprint of the whole liquid-liquid
447 extraction system was estimated by means of the LCA methodology to provide the best available
448 and sustainable extraction technique. The main conclusions drawn from this work are summarized
449 below:

450

- 451 • The efficiency of the three extraction solvent systems decreases in the order: ethyl acetate >
452 chloroform/isopropanol > diethyl ether, in terms of their antioxidant recovery yield.
- 453 • The use of ethyl acetate or diethyl ether, as extraction solvents, leaves similar environmental
454 footprint regarding their environmental impacts on human health, ecosystem, fossil fuels
455 resources and their contribution to global warming effect. However, ethyl acetate yields low
456 environmental impacts and high antioxidant recovery performance and, therefore, it is assumed
457 as the best option, both from an environmental and technical point of view.
- 458 • Chloroform/isopropyl alcohol mixture was found to pose detrimental effects onto the
459 ecosystem, human health and fossil resources. Therefore, its use for antioxidants extraction
460 from OMW is strictly not recommended.
- 461 • Alternative extraction scenarios were investigated to decrease further the overall
462 environmental impacts, thus achieving a more sustainable recovery technique from agro-
463 industrial effluents.

464

465 It should be emphasized that this work only dealt with a certain stage of effluent valorization, i.e.
466 the extractive recovery of certain OMW constituents both in terms of experimentation and, mainly,
467 assessment of its environmental footprint. Although there are indications that liquid-liquid
468 extraction is a feasible methodology that can be applied by small-medium enterprises (like olive oil
469 mills) for the recovery of the high added-value by-products of OMW, safe conclusions regarding
470 the viability of such project cannot be reached unless:

- 471 (i) the whole process is taken into account including the purification of crude extract by
472 chromatographic fractionation, adsorption, distillation etc, evaluation of the antioxidant
473 properties, and certainly the management of the post-valorization, residual effluent. The
474 latter is of great importance since the recovery of polyphenols will only marginally
475 reduce the organic loading of OMW;
- 476 (ii) process scaling-up and optimization in terms of economic cost and technical feasibility
477 (i.e. minimization of the use of costly solvents through lowering the solvent to substrate

- 478 volumetric ratio and/or their losses) are undertaken;
- 479 (iii) a comparison between liquid-liquid extraction and other separation technologies takes
- 480 place using LCA and other decision-making tools and criteria;
- 481 (iv) antioxidants recovery (irrespective of the chosen separation process) is regarded as part
- 482 of the “olive tree biorefinery” context described in detail by Federici et al. (2009).

483

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487 **References**

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625

626 Table 1. The seventeen impact categories that can be aggregated into three damage categories
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628

629 Table 2. Absolute recovery (%) for the extraction of various polyphenolic compounds from
630 synthetic solution. NR: not recovered.

631

632 Table 3. Extracted concentrations of the target polyphenolic compounds from real OMW for various
633 solvent systems. Numbers in brackets show the percentage of TPh that was recovered from the
634 initial wastewater.

635

636 Table 4. Life cycle inventory of this study.

637

638 Table 5. Global warming potential (GWP) in CO₂ equivalents for a timeframe of 100 years for the
639 extraction of 1 g of tyrosol, hydroxytyrosol and TPh from real OMW by means of liquid-liquid
640 solvent extraction, in the presence of various solvents.

641

Table 1.

Impact categories	Damage categories	Unit
Climate change human health	Human Health	DALY (Disability Adjusted Life Years). Disadvantages / constraints caused by diseases
Ozone depletion		
Human toxicity		
Photochemical oxidant formation		
Particulate matter formation		
Ionizing radiation		
Climate change ecosystems	Ecosystems	Depletion of species per year
Terrestrial acidification		
Freshwater eutrophication		
Freshwater ecotoxicity		
Terrestrial ecotoxicity		
Marine ecotoxicity		
Agricultural land occupation	Resources	US dollar (\$)
Urban land occupation		
Natural land transformation		
Metal depletion		
Fossil depletion		

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Table 2.

Solvent	Hydroxytyrosol, (%)	Tyrosol, (%)	Gallic acid, (%)	Caffeic acid, (%)	Oleuropein, (%)
Ethyl acetate	51.8	63.8	48.6	66.2	48.3
Diethyl ether	31.2	63.7	32.6	78.6	NR
Chloroform:isopropyl alcohol 7:3 (v/v)	40.2	73.6	15.1	74.1	72.7

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Table 3.

Solvent	Hydroxytyrosol, (mg/L)	Tyrosol, (mg/L)	TPh, (mg/L)
Ethyl acetate	247.2	61.6	3440 (57%)
Diethyl ether	102.6	41.7	2800 (47%)
Chloroform:isopropyl alcohol 7:3 (v/v)	165.7	47.2	3380 (56%)

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Table 4.

Equipment/ resource	Processes that are included in this study	Source
Energy from the Greek grid	- Lignite (54%)	Greek Public Power Corporation S.A. (PPC) – Constructed from Ecoinvent v.2.2 system processes
	- Oil (11%)	
	- Natural gas (17%)	
	- Renewable sources (18%)	
Solvents	- ethyl acetate (C ₄ H ₈ O ₂)	Ecoinvent v.2.2 system processes
	- diethyl ether (C ₄ H ₁₀ O)	
	- isopropyl alcohol (C ₃ H ₈ O)	
	- chloroform (CHCl ₃)	
	- methanol	
Experimental equipment	- magnetic stirrer	Manuals and own estimates - Constructed from Ecoinvent v.2.2 system processes
	- vacuum evaporator	

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Table 5.

Solvent	Hydroxytyrosol, (kg CO ₂ eq/g)	Tyrosol, (kg CO ₂ eq/g)	TPh, (10 ² kg CO ₂ eq/g)
Ethyl acetate	13.3	53.1	94.9
Diethyl ether	12.9	32.1	39.4
Chloroform/isopropyl alcohol	58.8	206.0	349.0

659

660 **LIST OF FIGURES**

661

662 Figure 1. HPLC chromatograph of polyphenolic fraction after its extraction from real OMW with
663 ethyl acetate solvent. Retention times: gallic acid (5.81 min), hydroxytyrosol (7.62 min), tyrosol
664 (9.23 min), caffeic acid (10.06 min) and oleuropein (14.62 min).

665 Figure 2. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of
666 hydroxytyrosol from OMW for various solvent systems.

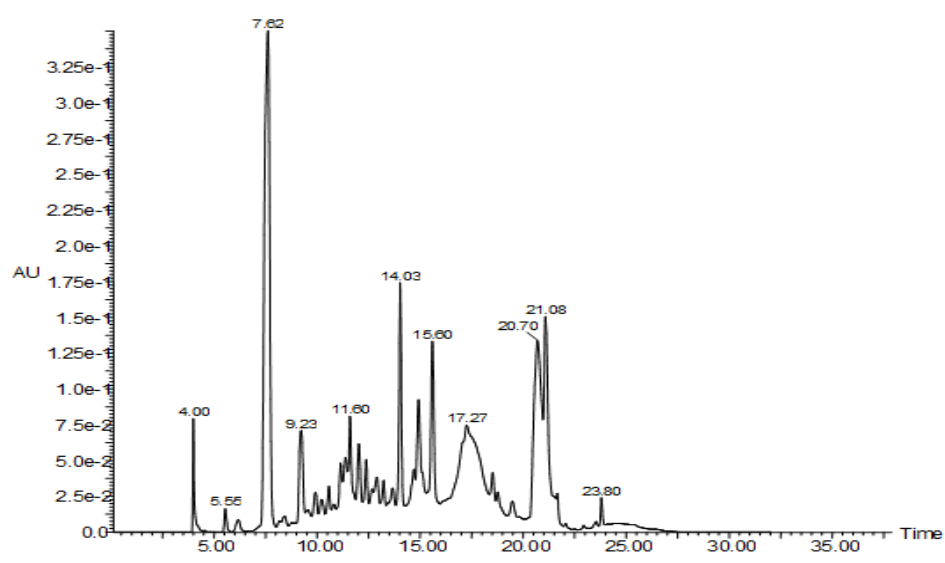
667 Figure 3. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of tyrosol
668 from OMW for various solvent systems.

669 Figure 4. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of TPh from
670 OMW for various solvent systems.

671 Figure 5. Severity of damage categories for the recovery of hydroxytyrosol from OMW using ethyl
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673 acetate from bioethanol; (3) combination of scenarios 1 and 2.

674 Figure 6. Global warming potential (GWP) in CO_2 equivalents for a timeframe of 100 years for the
675 extraction of 1 g of hydroxytyrosol from real OMW using ethyl acetate as the solvent. Proposed
676 scenarios: (1) addition of 8% Na_2SO_4 ; (2) production of ethyl acetate from bioethanol; (3)
677 combination of scenarios 1 and 2.

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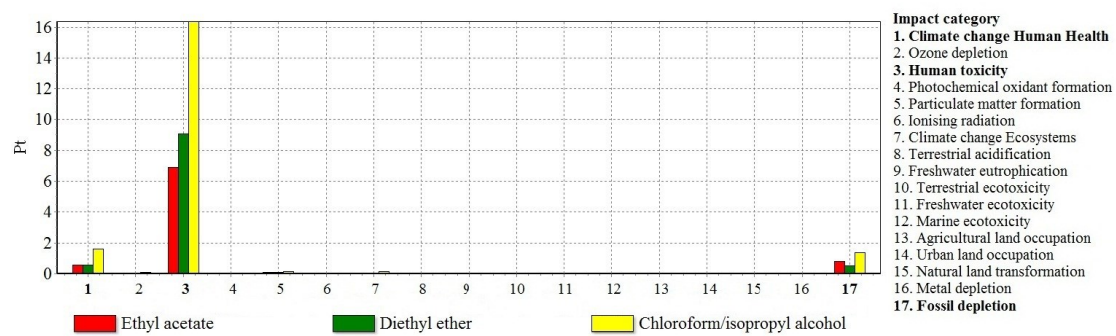
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Figure 1.

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(a)

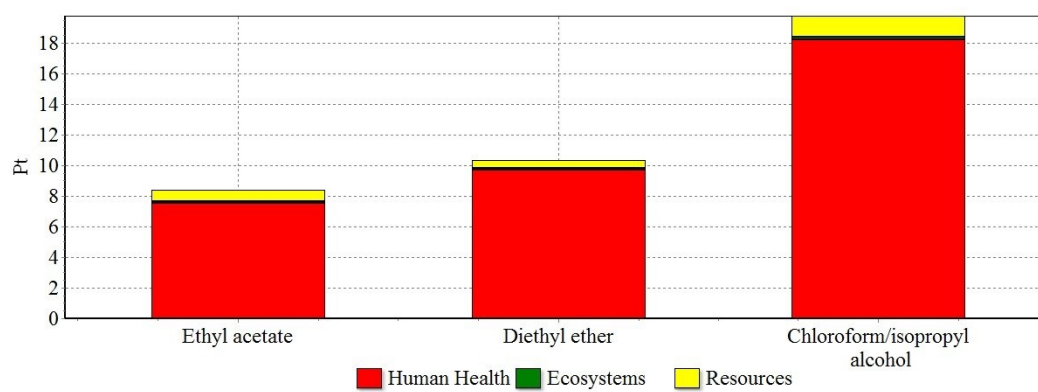


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(b)



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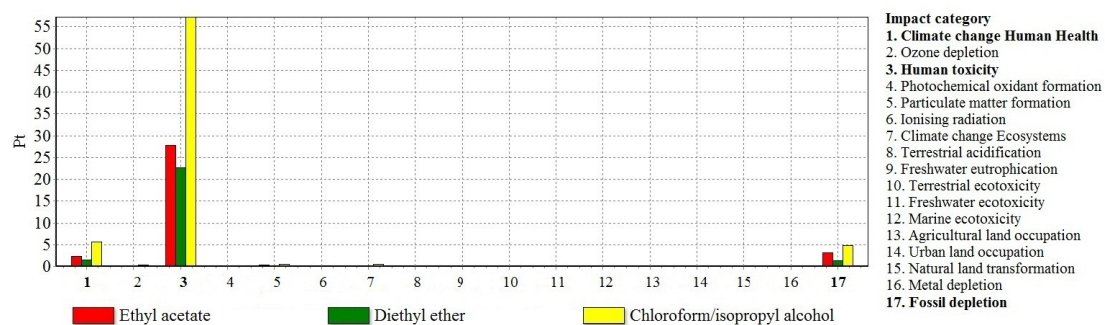
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Figure 2.

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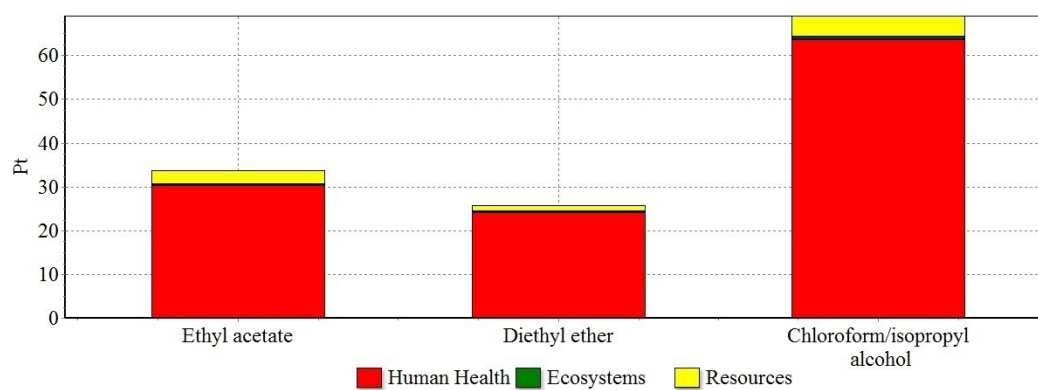


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(b)



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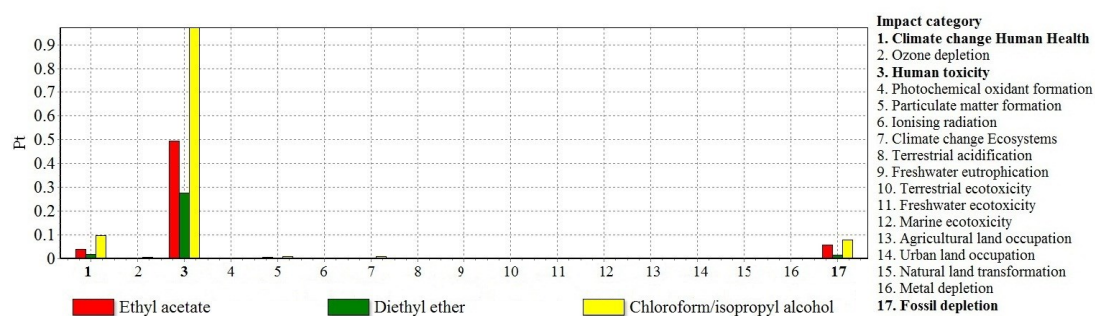
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Figure 3.

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(a)

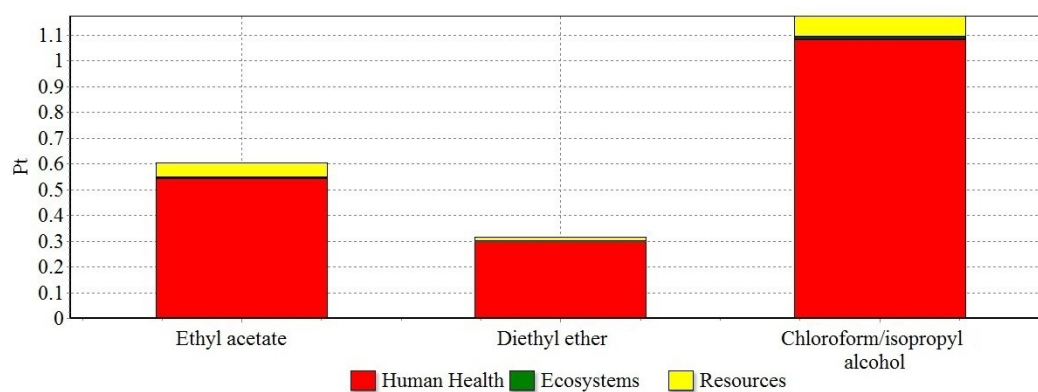


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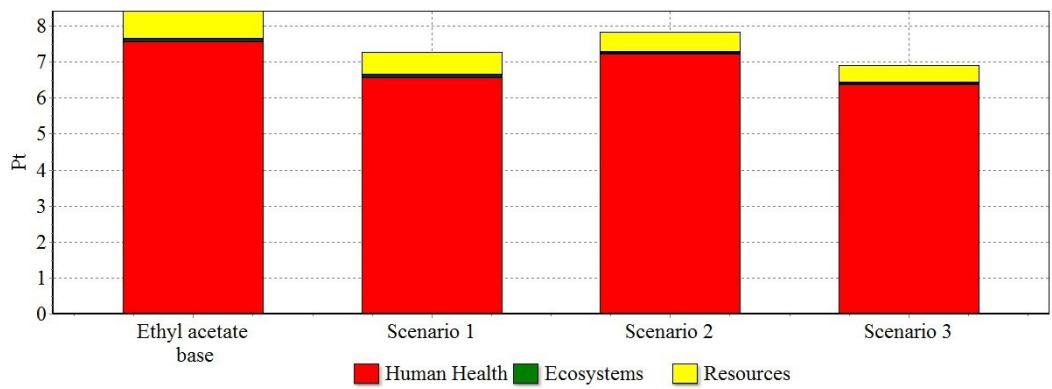
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Figure 4.

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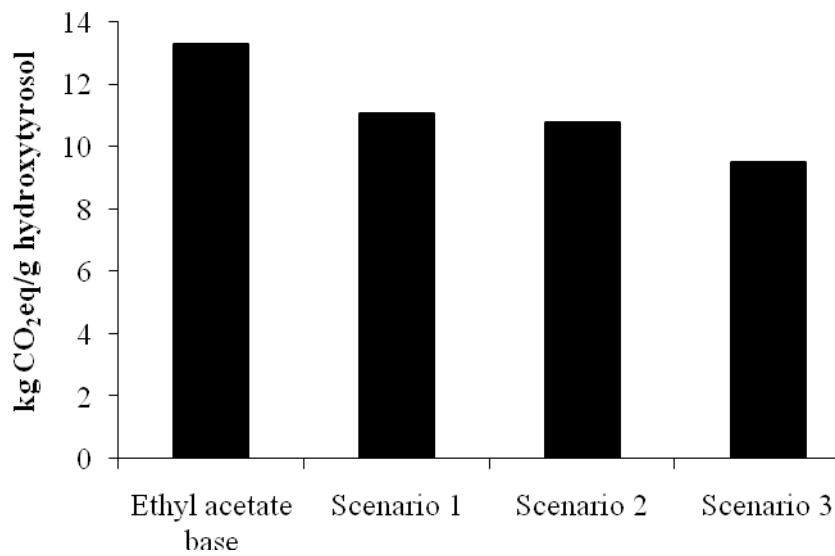
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Figure 5.



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Figure 6.