



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.

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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

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OMW, they are gradually oxidized and/or polymerized rendering OMW highly toxic and recalcitrant (Chatzisyseon 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 micro-particles (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 μ m 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.

2.3. Recovery procedure

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

At first, the OMW and the appropriate solvent were loaded in an Erlenmeyer flask with 250 mL headspace, which was then tightly sealed and continuously stirred magnetically for 30 min at 120 rpm. During this step, the polyphenolic compounds were extracted from the aqueous phase (i.e. OMW) to the organic liquid phase (i.e. solvent). Afterwards, this OMW-organic solvent mixture was left to settle in a separate funnel for 30 min. After settling, the two liquid phases were separated and the organic phase was recovered. Recovery was followed by evaporation of the organic liquid phase to dryness. Evaporation took place at 40 °C in a bathwater under

vacuum, in order to condense the organic solvent and obtain the crude organic extract (i.e. polyphenolic content). This organic deposit was then reconstituted in 25 mL methanol and analyzed. The methanolic extract is two-fold concentrated and the recovery is expressed in total mg of target phenolic compounds extracted from one liter OMW.

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

2.4. High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

HPLC (Alliance 2690, Waters) was employed to monitor the concentrations of tyrosol, hydroxytyrosol, caffeic acid, gallic acid and oleuropein. Separation was achieved on an ACE C18-R reverse phase column (stainless steel, 250 × 4.6 mm, id 5 µm), while detection was achieved through a UV–Vis detector set at 280 nm. More details can be found elsewhere (Papaphilippou et al., 2013). The polyphenolic compounds were tentatively identified matching their elution times from the column to those of standard stock solutions. Calibration curves were also prepared at various concentrations and used for quantitation purposes.

2.5. Total phenols

The TPh content was determined colorimetrically at 765 nm on a Shimadzu UV 1240 spectrophotometer using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent according to the procedures described in detail elsewhere (Singleton et al., 1999). Gallic acid monohydrate was used as standard to quantify the concentration of phenols in OMW.

2.6. LCA

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

Table 1

The seventeen impact categories that can be aggregated into three damage categories (Goedkoop et al., 2009).

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	Ecosystems	Depletion of species per year
Climate change ecosystems		
Terrestrial acidification		
Freshwater eutrophication		
Freshwater ecotoxicity		
Terrestrial ecotoxicity	Resources	US dollar (\$)
Marine ecotoxicity		
Agricultural land occupation		
Urban land occupation		
Natural land transformation		
Metal depletion		
Fossil depletion		

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Polyphenols recovery from model solution

Given the complexity of the actual OMW, preliminary tests were performed with the synthetic solution. Extraction efficiency was found to depend on the solvent/polyphenolic compound pair; caffeic acid and tyrosol exhibited the highest recoveries (i.e. up to 79% and 74%, respectively) irrespective of the solvent system employed, followed by oleuropein (up to 73% but not recovered by all three solvent systems), hydroxytyrosol (up to 52%) and gallic acid (up to 49%). These preliminary separations confirmed that the selected solvent systems (i.e. ethyl acetate, diethyl ether, 7:3 (v/v) chloroform:isopropyl alcohol) can, to a certain degree, extract all of the compounds from the mixture; the only exception was oleuropein, which could not be recovered by diethyl ether. Judging the relative extraction efficiency of the various solvents for the set of polyphenols rather than on an individual basis, ethyl acetate appeared to be superior to the rest. This has also been confirmed by Papaphilippou et al. (2013) who tested ethyl acetate, dichloromethane, diethylether and a 7:3 (v/v) mixture of chloroform:isopropyl alcohol for the extraction of model, single-component aqueous solutions of tyrosol, oleuropein, caffeic and gallic acids.

Allouche et al. (2004) assessed the ability of several solvents to extract batchwise the polyphenolic fraction of OMW and reported that the extraction power decreased in the order: ethyl acetate > methyl isobutyl ketone > methyl ethyl ketone > diethyl ether. The superiority of ethyl acetate over diethyl ether to extract OMW phenols was also verified by Klen and Vodopivec (2011) who found that the former was nearly twice as effective as the latter. El-Abbassi et al. (2012) reported that ethyl acetate was capable of extracting hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol, as well as gallic, caffeic and p-coumaric acids from OMW.

3.2. Polyphenols recovery from OMW

Fig. 1 shows a typical chromatograph representing the qualitative and quantitative composition of the OMW extract when ethyl acetate solvent is used. (It should be noted that the OMW was not subjected to chromatographic characterization prior to the extraction.) It is observed that hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol are

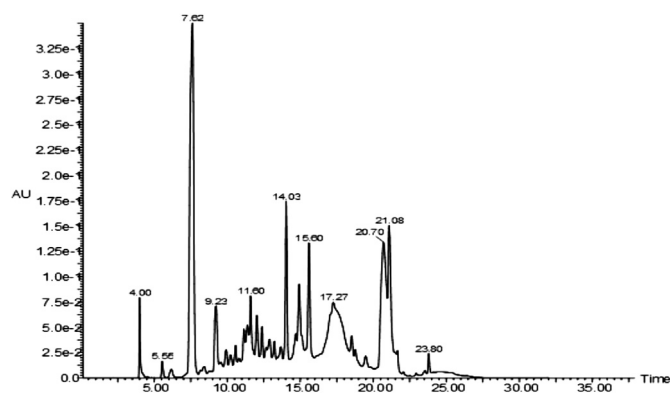


Fig. 1. HPLC chromatograph of polyphenolic fraction after its extraction from real OMW with ethyl acetate solvent. Retention times: gallic acid (5.81 min), hydroxytyrosol (7.62 min), tyrosol (9.23 min), caffeic acid (10.06 min) and oleuropein (14.62 min).

among the most abundant target polyphenolic compounds, sharing 7.2% and 1.8% of the OMW polyphenolic content, respectively (these are computed from the extract concentrations, as well as the respective TPh value shown in Table 2). On the other hand, oleuropein, caffeic and gallic acids were also tested but found only in traces in the ethyl acetate extract. Therefore, only the concentrations of tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol were followed for the rest of the experimental work.

The results, shown in Table 2, confirm that ethyl acetate is the most effective solvent in terms of hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh extraction with the respective concentrations being 247.2, 61.6 and 3440 mg/L, respectively. Specifically, ethyl acetate achieved higher extraction yields than the chloroform/isopropyl alcohol system by 49.7% and 30.5% for hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol, respectively. It should be noted that although the chloroform/isopropanol mixture shows a similar TPh extraction yield to ethyl acetate, its selectivity toward tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol (i.e. target polyphenolic compounds with significant antioxidant capacity) is substantially lower than that of ethyl acetate. Moreover, diethyl ether exhibits even lower extraction yields in terms of all the extracted target antioxidants. Hence, the performance of the three extraction systems decreased in the order: ethyl acetate > chloroform/isopropanol > diethyl ether.

De Leonardis et al. (2007) reported that extraction with ethyl acetate could yield up to 0.34 kg hydroxytyrosol and 0.083 kg tyrosol per m³ of OMW treated; these values are in good agreement with the results reported in this work (i.e. 0.25 kg hydroxytyrosol and 0.062 kg tyrosol per m³ of OMW). Allouche et al. (2004) reported that a three-stage, continuous, counter-current process using ethyl acetate as the solvent could extract 1.23 kg of hydroxytyrosol per m³ of OMW. In other studies, Agalias et al. (2007) reported a hydroxytyrosol recovery of up to 0.58 kg using various adsorbent resins. Visioli et al. (1999) used a benchtop mill to process olives and the resulting OMW was subjected to ethyl acetate extraction yielding 1.2 g hydroxytyrosol and 0.45 g tyrosol per 100 g of dry matter; these values increased to 9.79 g and 4.72 g,

respectively when the extract was further subjected to chromatographic fractionation. Besides three-phase OMW, efforts have been made to isolate hydroxytyrosol from two-phase olive mill wastes using acid- or alkali-catalyzed hydrothermal treatment; about 5 kg of hydroxytyrosol could be obtained from 1 tn of solid waste containing 70% humidity (Fernandez-Bolanos et al., 2002).

3.3. Life cycle assessment of solvent extraction

3.3.1. General considerations

LCA was used to assess the environmental footprint of the antioxidants extraction when three different types of solvents were employed. The LCA study was based on the experimental data that are shown in Table 2.

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

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

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 3). 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

Table 3
Life cycle inventory of this study.

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

Table 2

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

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%)

Table 4

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

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

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.

3.3.2. 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 4.

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).

3.3.3. 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 Figs. 2–4, respectively. Fig. 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

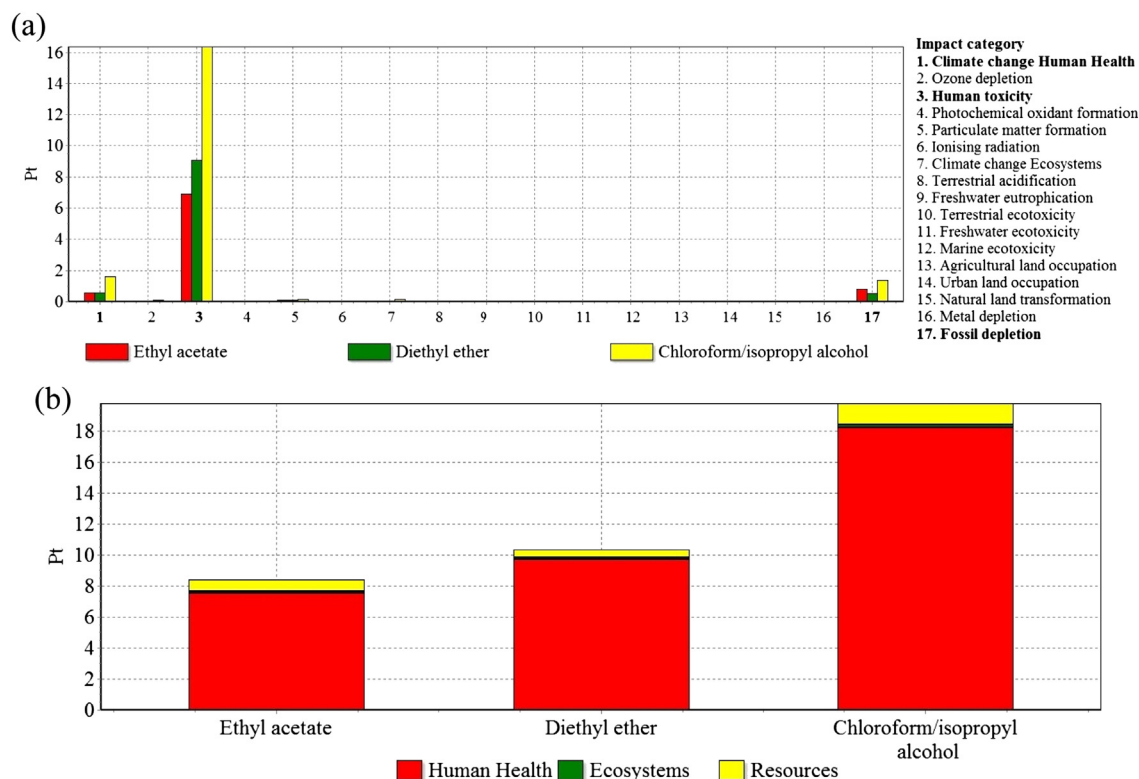


Fig. 2. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of hydroxytyrosol from OMW for various solvent systems.

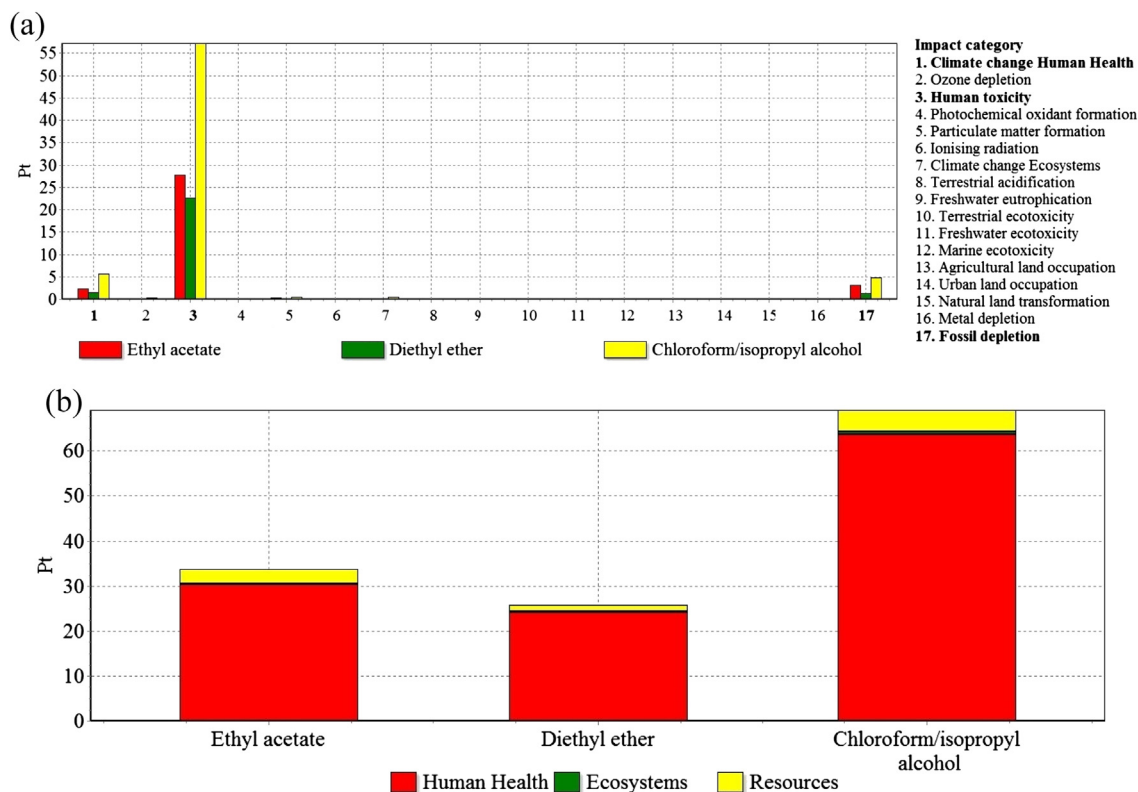


Fig. 3. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of tyrosol from OMW for various solvent systems.

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 Fig. 2b, where one can see the

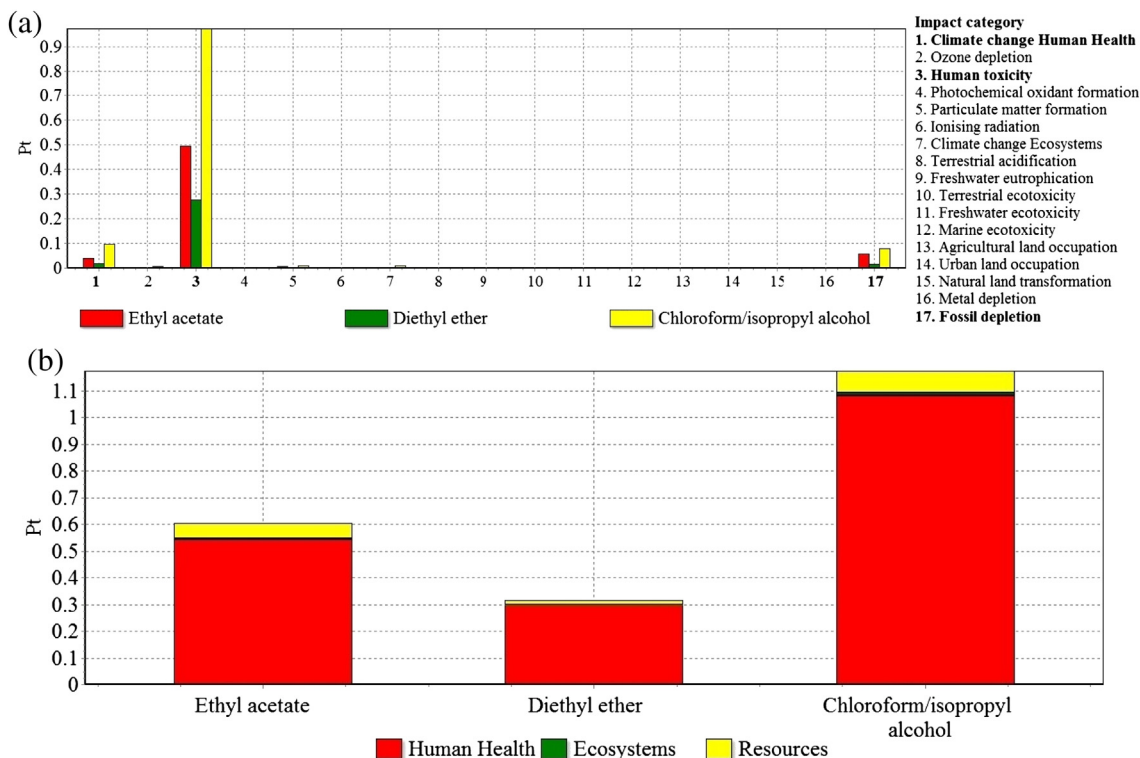


Fig. 4. Severity of (a) impact categories, and (b) damage categories for the recovery of TPH from OMW for various solvent systems.

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.

Like hydroxytyrosol, the most significant environmental damage category for tyrosol extraction is human health (Fig. 3b). Firstly, this is threatened (Fig. 3a) through the human toxicity, which is caused by the toxic nature of the organic reagents in combination with the solvent amount that is released to the atmosphere during the evaporation step of the extraction process. Secondly, human health is affected through (i) the fact that some of the solvents, such

as isopropyl alcohol are greenhouse gases, and (ii) the potential formation of organic by-products, during the extraction process, that contribute to the greenhouse effect. The accumulation of greenhouse gases can interfere with the global climate causing serious impacts on human health through its change. Furthermore, it was observed that chloroform/isopropyl alcohol poses detrimental effects primarily on human health and secondarily to fossil fuels depletion sources and to ecosystem. Diethyl ether was found to be the most environmentally friendly solvent reagent to perform the recovery of tyrosol from OMW.

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

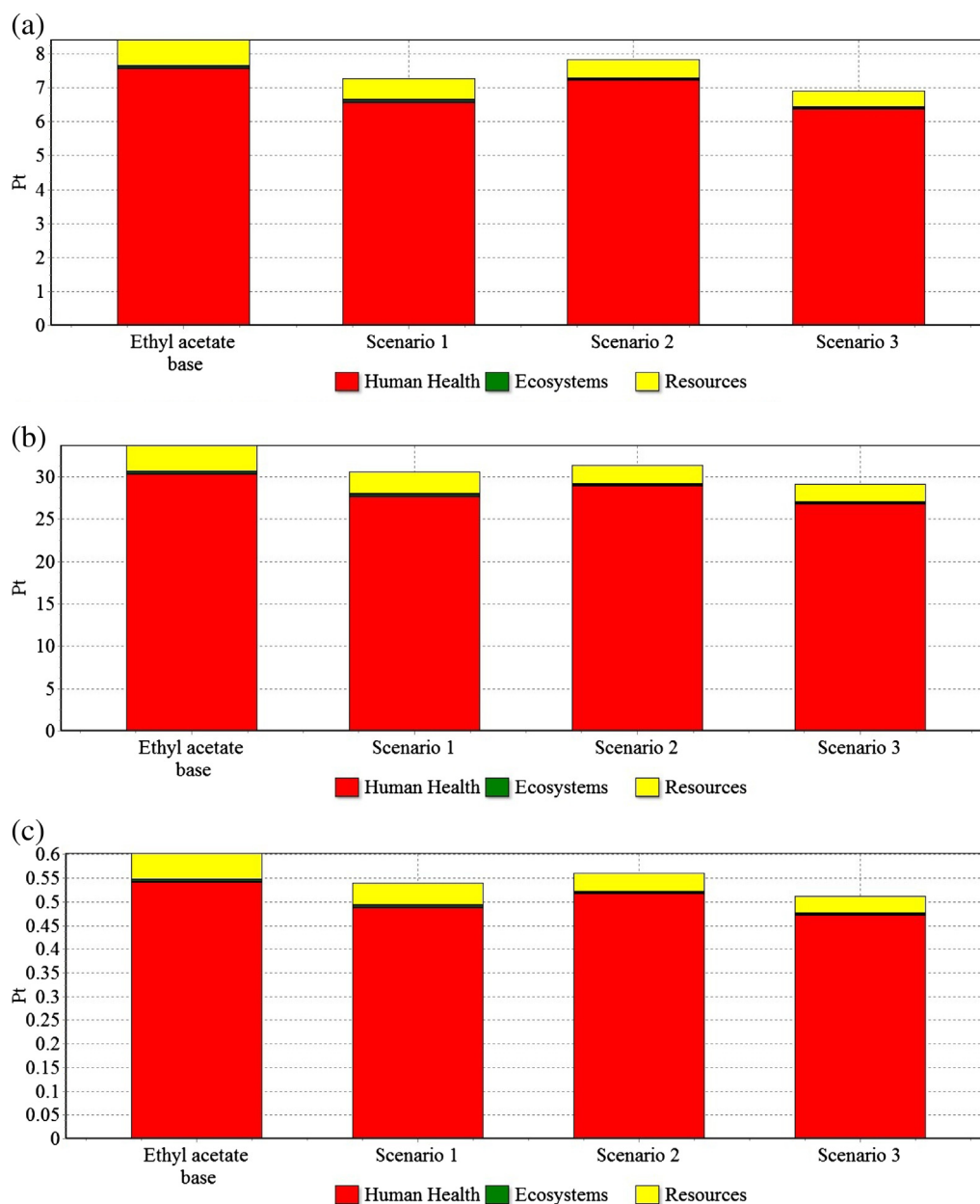


Fig. 5. Severity of damage categories for the recovery of (a) hydroxytyrosol, (b) tyrosol, and (c) TPh from OMW using ethyl acetate as the solvent. Proposed scenarios: (1) addition of 8% Na_2SO_4 ; (2) production of ethyl acetate from bioethanol; (3) combination of scenarios 1 and 2.

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

This difference can be explained by considering the two applied impact assessment methods. To begin with, IPCC 2007 estimates CO₂ emissions equivalent and it compares processes based on this unit. On the other hand, the ReCiPe method transforms the life cycle inventory results into a broader number of impact categories (Table 1) including the GWP mainly into its fossil depletion impact category. Moreover, the key advantage of the ReCiPe method lies within the fact that it takes into account the severity of each impact category to assess the sustainability of the process. Hence, in the case of hydroxytyrosol recovery, the IPCC results declare that diethyl ether solvent system is more environmentally friendly in terms of its GWP. This is consistent with the results shown in Fig. 2a, where fossil depletion impact is lower for the diethyl ether system. However, the ReCiPe method indicates in Fig. 2 that the impact of human toxicity is the most severe for the overall extraction system and thus its total environmental footprint will be assessed according to this impact category, mostly, where it is clearly shown that ethyl acetate is less toxic to humans than the other solvent systems.

Accordingly, taking into account that ethyl acetate exhibits (i) the best efficiency to recover hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and TPh from OMW (Table 2), and (ii) a very good environmental footprint during the recovery of the target antioxidant compounds, it is considered as the most viable and sustainable option to recover target polyphenolic compounds from OMW.

3.4. Process modifications and alternative scenarios

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

The first suggestion is to minimize the partial diffusion of the organic solvent into the aqueous phase during the liquid–liquid separation step; this is crucial because the presence of solvent in the extracted effluent presumably increases its organic load and, consequently, the need for additional treatment. This can be achieved adding salt into the OMW prior to the extraction step, thus exploiting the salting-out effect (Grizis et al., 2003). Increasing the salt concentration of the aqueous phase some of the water molecules are attracted by the salt ions, thus decreasing the number of water molecules available to interact with the organic solvent. Therefore, the weak intermolecular forces (e.g. hydrogen bonds) between organic molecules and water are easily disrupted by the addition of salt. For this purpose, an experiment was performed to test the efficiency of the extraction process in the presence of 8% (w/v) Na₂SO₄ in OMW and ethyl acetate as the solvent (referred to as scenario 1). It was observed that solvent diffusion from the organic into the aqueous phase decreased by 75%, while the respective environmental benefits are shown in Figs. 5 and 6; For example, the total environmental impacts for hydroxytyrosol were reduced by about 12.5% (Fig. 5a), while the GWP also decreased from 13.3 to 11 kgCO₂eq/g (Fig. 6a). It should be noted here that the addition of salt is considered inside the LCA system boundaries, thus Na₂SO₄ production and its environmental impacts are included in the results. Following the recovery of precious antioxidants, the remaining

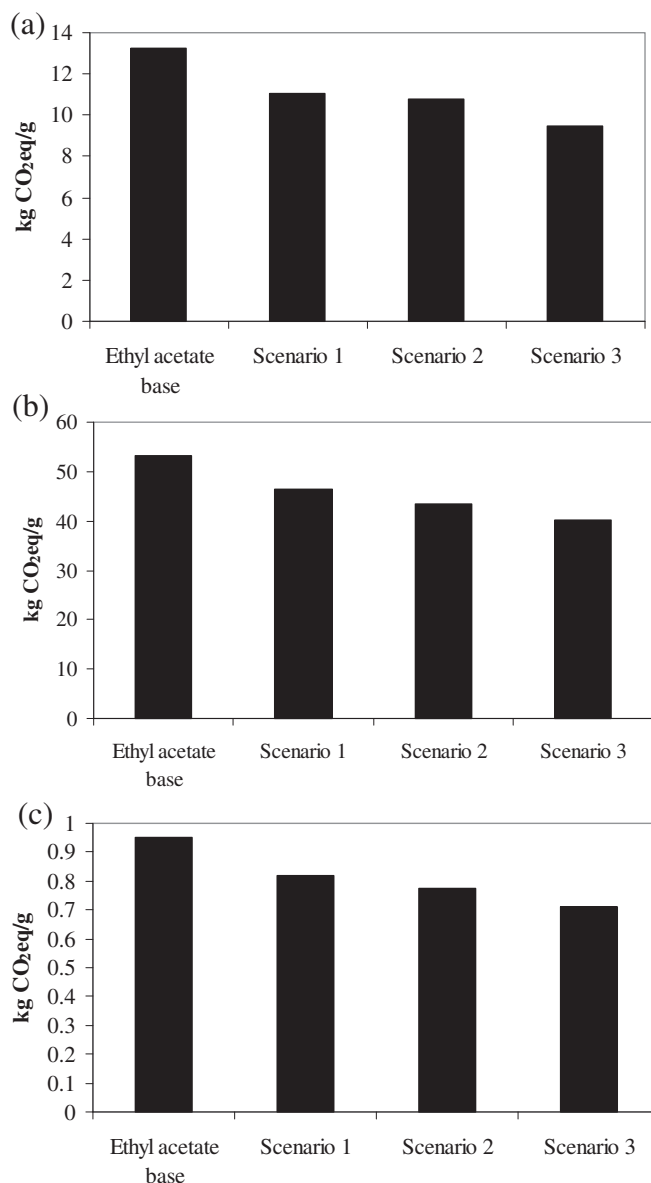


Fig. 6. Global warming potential (GWP) in CO₂ equivalents for a timeframe of 100 years for the extraction of 1 g of (a) hydroxytyrosol, (b) tyrosol, and (c) TPh from real OMW using ethyl acetate as the solvent. Proposed scenarios: (1) addition of 8% Na₂SO₄; (2) production of ethyl acetate from bioethanol; (3) combination of scenarios 1 and 2.

OMW will still contain several grams per liter of various organics and, therefore, must undergo subsequent chemical and/or biological treatment prior to its final discharge. A point of concern regarding scenario 1 is that increased salinity may have negative ramifications in the treatability of the extracted effluent and this will depend on the concentration and type of added salt, as well as the type of post-extraction treatment. Processes like phytoremediation or electrochemical oxidation are amongst those that have been successfully employed for OMW treatment (Di Bene et al., 2013; Gonçalves et al., 2012; Bodini et al., 2011), while they can tolerate increased salinity (e.g. using halophytes in phytoremediation (Manousaki and Kalogerakis, 2011)) or even require it (e.g. to enhance conductivity in electrochemical treatment (Chatzisyneon et al., 2009c)).

Another option would be the use of more environmentally friendly raw materials, like bioethanol, for the production of solvents and this would expectedly reduce the environmental impacts

of the extraction. Ethyl acetate production from bioethanol can have positive environmental impacts as discussed in detail elsewhere (Nguyen et al., 2011; Ashley, 2006). Based on this assumption and simulating the extraction procedure regarding its total environmental impacts, these were reduced by 6% (scenario 2 in Fig. 5a). Moreover, the GWP decreased by 19% (scenario 2 in Fig. 6a).

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

Furthermore, it is worth noticing that although scenario 1 yields higher GWP than scenario 2, it is a more environmentally friendly option regarding its damage categories and their impacts. This can be explained by the fact that the use of bioethanol (i.e. an alternative and environmentally friendly biofuel), for ethyl acetate production, reduces significantly the CO₂ emissions to atmosphere. Conversely, scenario 1 achieves lower diffusion rates of the liquid organic phase into the aqueous phase, thus reducing the amount of the hazardous organic solvent which is finally discharged into aquatic bodies. Considering the fact that the severity of human toxicity is exceptionally higher than the resources depletion impact, scenario 1 seems to present a more sustainable option, according to the ReCiPe methodology. Similar results were obtained for tyrosol and TPh recovery based on scenarios 1–3, as can also be seen in Figs. 5 and 6.

4. Conclusions and final remarks

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

- The efficiency of the three extraction solvent systems decreases in the order: ethyl acetate > chloroform/isopropanol > diethyl ether, in terms of their antioxidant recovery yield.
- The use of ethyl acetate or diethyl ether, as extraction solvents, leaves similar environmental footprint regarding their environmental impacts on human health, ecosystem, fossil fuels resources and their contribution to global warming effects. However, ethyl acetate yields low environmental impacts and high antioxidant recovery performance and, therefore, it is assumed as the best option, both from an environmental and technical point of view.
- Chloroform/isopropyl alcohol mixture was found to pose detrimental effects onto the ecosystem, human health and fossil resources; this is not surprising since its adverse/toxic effects to the environment and the human health are well-documented in the literature. Therefore, its use for antioxidants extraction from OMW is strictly not recommended.
- Alternative extraction scenarios were investigated to decrease further the overall environmental impacts, thus achieving a more sustainable recovery technique from agro-industrial effluents.

It should be emphasized that this work only dealt with a certain stage of effluent valorization, i.e. the extractive recovery of certain OMW constituents both in terms of experimentation and, mainly,

assessment of its environmental footprint. Although there are indications that liquid–liquid extraction is a feasible methodology that can be applied by small-medium enterprises (like olive oil mills) for the recovery of the high added-value by-products of OMW, safe conclusions regarding the viability of such project cannot be reached unless:

- (i) the whole process is taken into account including the purification of crude extract by chromatographic fractionation, adsorption, distillation etc, evaluation of the antioxidant properties, and certainly the management of the post-valorization, residual effluent. The latter is of great importance since the recovery of polyphenols will only marginally reduce the organic loading of OMW;
- (ii) process scaling-up and optimization in terms of economic cost and technical feasibility (i.e. minimization of the use of costly solvents through lowering the solvent to substrate volumetric ratio and/or their losses) are undertaken;
- (iii) a comparison between liquid–liquid extraction and other separation technologies takes place using LCA and other decision-making tools and criteria;
- (iv) antioxidants recovery (irrespective of the chosen separation process) is regarded as part of the “olive tree biorefinery” context described in detail by Federici et al. (2009).

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