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Title:

**Economic performance of pyrolysis of mixed plastic waste:
open-loop versus closed-loop recycling**

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 In recent decades new recycling technologies for mixed plastic waste have emerged. In pyrolysis, the
21 polymer chains are thermally broken (pyrolyzed) to obtain hydrocarbon materials of different molecular
22 weights such as naphtha, oil or waxes, whose yields can be controlled by varying the reaction parameters.
23 Naphtha represents a closed-loop recycling process as it is a feedstock for (poly)olefins; while the co-
24 production of waxes, having several applications in e.g. the construction industry, exemplifies an open-
25 loop recycling process. This paper compares the economic performance of the pyrolysis of mixed
26 polyolefin waste in a closed-loop and open-loop scheme, including a probabilistic approach to the most
27 important variables. From an economic perspective, open-loop pyrolysis as presented outperforms
28 closed-loop recycling, due to the high prices of wax. However, the results present a high dispersion caused
29 by the volatility of the prices of crude oil and its derivatives. Considering the current oil price projections,
30 our case study analysis showed that for open-loop recycling there is a future probability of almost a 98 %
31 of observing positive results and around 57 % of probability in the case of closed-loop recycling, under the
32 assumptions made. Yet, in a future scenario where decarbonized electricity would decrease oil prices, the
33 probability of a positive outcome reduces to 57 % for the open-loop case and to less than 8 % in the case
34 of closed-loop recycling. To make these pathways attractive to investors, the nameplate capacity should
35 be at least 70 kt/year for open-loop recycling and 115 kt/year for closed-loop recycling. A 120 kt/year plant
36 should operate minimally at 80 % of its capacity for open-loop recycling, while closed-loop recycling would
37 demand running close to maximum capacity. Security of feedstock supply therefore is required.

38 **KEYWORDS**

39 Polyolefin; thermochemical; recycling; closed-loop; open-loop; techno-economic assessment

40

41 HIGHLIGHTS

- 42 • Open-loop recycling has better economic performance than closed-loop recycling.
- 43 • Oil price variability and CAPEX estimation uncertainty affect the variance.
- 44 • Technology is profitable for 70 kt/year capacity plants or larger.
- 45 • Provision of plastic waste feedstock should be ensured.

46

47 1 Introduction

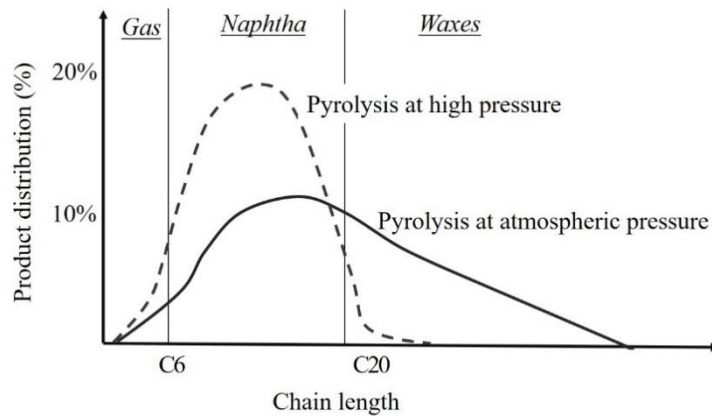
48 The use of plastic packaging has increased twenty-fold in the past half-century and is expected to double
49 in the next 20 years. Additionally, 90 % of this industry's feedstock comes from finite stocks of oil and gas
50 (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). These facts have increased the interest in the development of
51 strategies that intend to keep the value of plastics as long as possible, aiming for the transition to a circular
52 economy scheme.

53 Circular economy is an economic system that entails to decouple gradually the economic activity from the
54 consumption of finite resources, reducing maximally the production of waste and the loss of value of
55 materials and products throughout the value chain (European Commission, 2018).

56 Circular economy strategies can be applied to different stages of the value chain: design, production, use
57 (and reuse) and end-of-life, which may include several recycling techniques. Recycling can be classified
58 according to the technology that is used (mechanical recycling or (thermo)chemical recycling) and to the
59 products aimed at (closed-loop recycling or open-loop recycling). In closed-loop recycling, the recycled
60 material can substitute the original virgin material and can be used in the same type of products. In open-
61 loop recycling, the properties of the recycled material differ from those of the virgin material, so it is used
62 in other product applications, substituting other materials (Huysman et al., 2017).

63 Chemical recycling or feedstock recycling is a broad group of techniques that work by breaking up the
64 polymer into smaller molecular fragments to produce oil, fuel, syngas, monomers or other by-products.
65 Pyrolysis is a type of thermochemical recycling in which heating occurs in the absence of oxygen. In this
66 process the organic compounds are decomposed, generating gaseous and liquid hydrocarbon products
67 while keeping the inorganic material unchanged (Almeida and Marques, 2016).

68 In pyrolysis of plastic waste, the obtention of the desired products can be targeted by varying the process
69 parameters (pressure, temperature, feedstock, etc.). Lopez et al. (2017), reviewed studies referring to the
70 chemical recycling of polyolefins to produce light olefins, fuel, aromatics or waxes. They concluded that in
71 pyrolysis, higher temperatures and short residence time favor the production of light olefins and mild
72 temperatures favor the production of waxes. Likewise, Al-Salem et al. (2017) collected research regarding
73 the effect of feedstock, temperature, residence time and pressure on the product distribution. They
74 signaled that temperature is the factor with the highest influence on the product distribution that was
75 more extensively studied thus far. However, they indicate that a high temperature or a long residence
76 time may provoke secondary reactions potentially leading to unwanted products. Regarding the pressure,
77 the aforementioned review refers to Murata et al. (2004), who compared the degradation rate and the
78 product distribution of the thermal degradation of polyethylene (PE) under atmospheric and elevated
79 pressure. Increasing the pressure allows shifting the product distribution to liquid hydrocarbons.
80 Specifically, at high pressure the mass fractions of the products with carbon numbers between 1 and 12
81 increased (as shown indicatively in Figure 1). Although these studies indicate that in pyrolysis it is possible
82 to target the process parameters to certain products, they do not evaluate which products are more
83 desirable.



84

85 Figure 1: Carbon number distribution under different pressures. Illustration based on Murata et al. (2004)

86

87 The assessment of potential solutions for the transition to a circular economy requires comprehensive
 88 analyses (Ghisellini et al., 2016). Concerning new technologies, this entails addressing their economic
 89 implications, considering all costs related to their acquisition and operation and the revenues of their
 90 attained products. Techno-Economic Assessment (TEA) has been broadly used to study the economic
 91 performance of technologies under development (Thomassen et al., 2019).

92 Related to the recovery of different types of waste TEA has been applied to sorting waste facilities (Cimpan
 93 et al., 2016), industrial waste (Mellouk et al., 2016), electronic waste (Ghodrat et al., 2016; Yong et al.,
 94 2019) and recycling of metal and steel (Schultmann et al., 2004), among others. Preliminary work
 95 undertaken by Athanassiou and Zabaniotou (2007) suggested that sorting at source allows to cost-
 96 effectively recycle several municipal solid waste materials. One study by Arena et al. (2011) revealed that
 97 an internal rate of return (IRR) of around 8 % is obtained by the generation of electricity using a gasification
 98 process of mixed plastic waste. A relevant analysis on the subject of our study was presented by Fivga and
 99 Dimitirou (2018), who investigated the technical and economic feasibility of a plastic waste pyrolysis plant
 100 for the production of fuel oil. This study, performed in the UK, concluded that the production cost of
 101 pyrolysis fuel was around 10 times lower than the market fuel prices in case of a 10 000 kg/hour plant.
 102 Similar work was carried out by Sahu et. al (2012) who showed that, in Malaysia, an IRR of 36 % could be

103 obtained if 120 kt/year of waste plastics were treated by catalytic cracking to produce fuel oils. Together,
104 these studies prove that the pyrolysis of plastic waste is profitable for large scale plants, but that capital
105 costs and operating time have a critical role in the results.

106 With respect to the environmental assessment of plastic waste treatments, an early contribution was an
107 LCA done by Perugini et al. (2005). They compared the impacts of landfilling, incineration, mechanical
108 recycling, pyrolysis and hydrocracking and reported that the highest energy savings are observed with
109 hydrocracking but that the lowest water consumption, CO₂ emissions, air emissions and waste generation
110 is reached with mechanical recycling. A detailed examination of treatment options by Lazarevic et al.
111 (2010) showed that mechanical recycling is preferred over feedstock recycling and incineration in case
112 there is little organic contamination and there is a replacement virgin plastic ratio close to 1:1. In addition,
113 Arafat et al. (2015) revealed that mechanical recycling is better than incineration and gasification from an
114 energy recovery point of view. Huysman et al. (2017) developed a recyclability benefit rate indicator based
115 on LCA and found that environmental benefits can be obtained with open-loop and closed-loop recycling
116 when comparing them to landfilling or incineration. To our knowledge, no studies comparing the
117 economic performance of open-loop vs closed-loop recycling of polyolefin waste have been published
118 thus far.

119 Overall, there is much evidence that the environmental impact of recycling is lower than the
120 environmental impact of landfilling and incineration, mainly because of the avoided impact of the recycled
121 products. Furthermore, the reviewed studies support the notion that new plastic recycling technologies
122 can realize economic benefits. Yet, very little attention has been paid to the role of the process parameters
123 and product characteristics in the economic performance of a given technology. Therefore, it is not clear
124 which products should be aimed at in the case of pyrolysis of plastic packaging waste, now that the
125 technology is moving beyond recovery to fuels (Zhao et al., 2020).

126 Moreover, previous TEAs of chemical and thermal recycling, among which pyrolysis, have been
127 deterministic in nature and therefore failing to deal with a crucial factor for investors: uncertainties related

128 to oil prices and investment costs. The oil price is highly volatile and the forecasting of specialized energy
129 agencies may present errors of almost 50 % in a 10 year horizon (Wachtmeister et al. 2018). Regarding the
130 investment, preliminary cost studies can have accuracy ranges of -50 % to +100 % (Cheali et al., 2015) and
131 most empirical analyses find a negative effect of uncertainty on investment (Koetse et al., 2006).
132 Consequently, it is imperative to consider uncertainty in prospective economic assessments.

133 This paper compares the potential economic returns of closed-loop versus open-loop pyrolysis of mixed
134 polyolefin waste, a contrast that so far has not been studied. Naphtha, used as a feedstock for ethylene
135 and propylene and subsequently polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP), is taken as a representative
136 product of closed-loop recycling (Zhao et al., 2020), and wax is considered as a representative product for
137 open-loop recycling. Both can be produced by changing the process parameters of pyrolysis of polyolefins,
138 as shown before. Moreover, until now, TEAs that take into account the uncertainty of oil prices assume a
139 certain variability or consider the observed past price variability (e.g. Li et al., 2015). Innovatively, this study
140 uses forecasted oil prices and the uncertainty of the accuracy of these forecasts together with the
141 uncertainty of projected investment costs. In doing so we capture the apprehensions of petrochemical
142 industry investors.

143 **2 Materials and Methods**

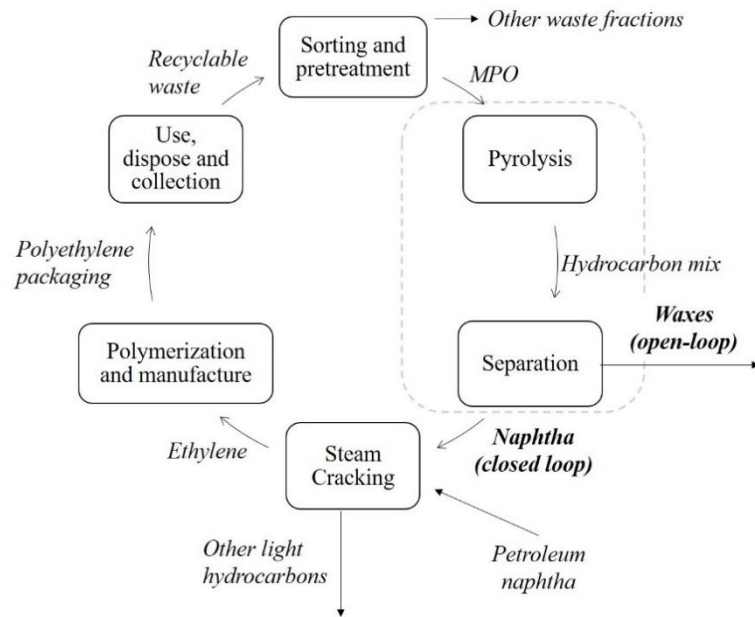
144 To compare the economic performance of open-loop and closed-loop pyrolysis, a prospective TEA is
145 applied to two case studies. TEA is used to calculate the profitability of a project by bringing all future costs
146 and revenues to a net present value. It is an iterative process that consists of four phases: market study,
147 process flow diagrams and mass and energy balances, economic assessment and sensitivity analysis
148 (Thomassen et al., 2016).

149 Prospective TEA is applied when the technology is still in an early stage of development and there is a need
150 to study it at a future stage (Thomassen et al., 2019). Pyrolysis of plastic waste into naphtha and waxes is
151 in technology readiness level 6 out of 9 with pilot plants in Norway (BASF, 2019), Germany (Recenso

152 Germany, 2019) and the UK (Recycling Technologies, 2018), and this research intends to study the
153 installation of a commercial scale plant.

154 2.1 *Description of the case studies*

155 The circular plastic packaging value chain involves several steps, as depicted in Figure 2. This research is
156 focused only on the processes that are directly related to the pyrolysis of mixed polyolefins (MPO). MPO
157 is a plastic waste fraction composed of mainly low-density PE and PP residue. The origin of this waste
158 fraction could be a source separated bag containing other recyclable waste, for example the *plastics, cans*
159 *and drink cartons* bag as collected in Flanders, Belgium. To separate the MPO, tetra-brick packaging, PET
160 bottles, PP and PE bottles should be sorted by several specialized equipment. Then, to be used as
161 feedstock for the pyrolysis process, the remaining fraction should be compressed into MPO pellets. The
162 pyrolysis process delivers a hydrocarbon mix that is later separated and processed. For the production of
163 new plastics the naphtha is subsequently cracked and the resulting ethylene and propylene monomers
164 polymerized to obtain polyethylene and polypropylene. In this research, the recycled naphtha is assumed
165 to be of equivalent quality and characteristics as the naphtha derived from crude oil, and thereby the
166 naphtha cracking and polymerization processes will not be accounted for. Open-loop recycling in this study
167 corresponds to the production of a naphtha only, whereas in closed-loop recycling the crude pyrolysis oil,
168 with heavier hydrocarbons because of the lower pressure, is separated into a wax and a naphtha product.



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Figure 2: Polyolefin packaging value chain in the case of closed-loop and open-loop recycling.

172

The hydrocarbon mix obtained from the pyrolysis process is composed of molecules of diverse size:

173

between 1 and 5 carbon atoms are gaseous species, between 6 and 20 correspond to naphtha and 20 or

174

more are defined as wax (Lopez et al 2017). As mentioned, the mix composition depends on the process

175

parameters. Because increasing temperature and residence time may lead to secondary reactions (Al

176

Salem et al 2017), pressure is varied in this study to compare open-loop recycling in which the obtention

177

of wax is aimed at (case 1), with closed-loop recycling were the obtention of naphtha is aimed at (case 2).

178

When the process is carried at atmospheric pressure a mix of gas, naphtha and waxes is obtained. Yet,

179

when high pressure is applied the yields of smaller molecules increase, and the fraction of wax molecules

180

is negligible (Figure 1) (Murata et al 2004).

181

The applications for wax range from candle production to particle board sealers, thus the recycling of

182

plastics into wax is a fair representation of open-loop recycling. In contrast, around 90 % of the naphtha

183

that enters the chemical industry is used as feedstock for high value chemicals, such as ethylene and

184

propylene (International Energy Agency, 2018a). Therefore, the obtention of naphtha out of polyolefin

185

waste is a good example for a closed-loop recycling process (Figure 2).

186 In a strict sense, case 1 does not exactly represent an open-loop process because also naphtha is produced.
187 Similarly, case 2 is not a completely closed-loop process because of the losses occurring in the process.
188 Therefore, the terms open-loop and closed-loop should be understood as a representation and not as an
189 exact description of the material flows.

190 *2.1.1 Case 1: Pyrolysis under atmospheric pressure for open-loop recycling.*

191 The cracking occurs at atmospheric pressure and a temperature of 460 °C to 500 °C, delivering a
192 hydrocarbon mix in a molecular weight distribution covering non-condensable gases, naphtha and waxes.
193 By condensing the mix, the non-condensable gaseous fraction is separated from the liquid fraction. The
194 gaseous fraction is fed into a co-combustion engine to generate electric and thermal energy required for
195 the process. The production of thermal energy is fully supplied by the engine, and the lacking electric
196 energy is taken from the electric network. The liquid fraction follows a two-step steam distillation process
197 where the naphtha is separated from the waxes. The products finally pass through a hydrogenation
198 process, to eliminate impurities and increment the content of paraffins by saturating the hydrocarbon
199 molecules under high pressure of hydrogen and relatively high temperature.

200 *2.1.2 Case 2 - Pyrolysis under high pressure for closed loop recycling.*

201 To obtain a larger proportion of naphtha, high pressure is applied to the pyrolysis process at the same
202 temperature as for case 1. This cracking process yields a hydrocarbon mix composed mainly by molecules
203 in the naphtha range. As in case 1, the gaseous fraction is separated from the liquid fraction by a
204 condensation process and then fed into a co-combustion engine to generate electric and thermal energy.
205 The remaining electric energy generated in this case is plugged into the network and accounted as an
206 additional product. A distillation step is not necessary for the liquid fraction because naphtha is the only
207 non-gaseous product obtained. This product passes through a hydrogenation process, to eliminate
208 impurities and increase the content paraffin contents.

209 2.2 *Techno - economic assessment*

210 Following the TEA phases (Thomassen et al., 2016), expert market studies are used to project naphtha and
211 slack wax prices. Then, the process flows and mass and energy balances are built based on product yields,
212 residue yields, energy and consumable requirements. These values are retrieved from industrial
213 references and are shown in Table 1. Because of confidentially reasons, specific process parameters are
214 not disclosed in this paper. Following the guidelines of Van Dael et al. (2015), with the market study and
215 the mass and energy balances we calculate the yearly revenues and operational costs. The net present
216 value¹ (NPV), NPV per metric ton of plastic treated (NPVt), the IRR over a 15-year period and the
217 discounted payback period (DPP) are calculated with the software Analytica, including the investment
218 costs and considering the assumptions presented in Table 1.

219 The one-at-a-time sensitivity analysis exposes the variables that need a more thorough estimation
220 because they have a dominant effect on the results. To perform it, the expected value of the NPVt is
221 calculated after varying each one of the parameters independently to a low scenario and a high scenario.
222 The low and high scenario correspond to 90 % and 110 % of the median values.

223 To incorporate uncertainty in the evaluation, some of the most important variables detected with the one-
224 at-a-time sensitivity analysis are defined as probabilistic rather than deterministic numbers. With these
225 probability density functions (PDFs) we calculate a PDF for the NPV with a Monte Carlo simulation. The
226 PDFs of the variables are derived from observed data and constructed using 10 000 samples with median
227 Latin Hypercube sampling. This sampling technique spreads the sample points by selecting the median
228 values of intervals of equal probability instead of generating a random sample of points (Chrisman, 2014).
229 In addition, the PDFs of the resulting Monte Carlo simulations are smoothed using Kernel Density

$$NPV = \sum_T \frac{Revenue - Operational\ costs}{(1 + Discout\ Rate)^t} - Investment\ costs$$

230 Estimation, that replaces each sample point with a Gaussian kernel and then obtains the resulting estimate
231 for the density by adding up these Gaussians (Analytica, n.d.).

232 A global sensitivity analysis is performed to determine the contribution of each probabilistic variable “ i ” to
233 the total variance of the NPVt. We first calculate the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient (ρ_i), that
234 corresponds to the correlation of the ranking of each input sample with the ranking of its respective NPVt.
235 Then, using the formula $\rho_i / \sum \rho_i$ we calculate the contribution to the variance of each variable. To avoid
236 double accounting for the uncertainty of the oil prices, for this analysis we leave naphtha and wax prices
237 as a function of oil prices.

238 A parametric sensitivity analysis is done for those variables who have an important effect on the results
239 (detected with the one-at-a-time sensitivity analysis) but that is not possible to derive a realistic PDF. These
240 variables include the feedstock price (gate fee), oil price, nameplate capacity and feedstock availability.

241 Finally, to test the robustness of the results, four alternative scenarios related with the product prices are
242 analyzed. In the *sustainable development scenario* (SDS) the oil prices are expected to decrease instead of
243 increase, and in the *wax decoupling scenario* the wax price is assumed to be decoupled from the oil price.

244 2.3 Economic assumptions and cost modelling

245 The general economic assumptions are similar for both case studies and are summarized in Table 1. The
246 initial year is 2019 and all prices are calculated on EUR 2019. The discount rate is set at 15 %, as commonly
247 used for the expansion of new technologies (Van Dael et al., 2015). The feedstock input is 120 kt/year,
248 representing an equilibrium between economies of scale as observed by Fivga and Dimitriou(2018) and
249 Sahu et al. (2012) and considering sourcing capabilities. In fact, it is equivalent to the recycling of the 6.7

250 kg per capita of MPO waste² generated by people living 120 km around in an area with a density³ of 394
251 people-km⁻².

² PP and PE trays and foils generated in Belgium per capita (RDC, 2018)

³ Belgium, Netherlands and Luxemburg average population density.

Table 1: Financial assumptions for the TEA

	Detail	Value	Source
Technical parameters			
<i>Case 1: naphtha- wax [Open-loop]</i>	Naphtha yield	40 %	
	Wax yield	34 %	
	Gas yield	11 %	
	Hydrogen-to-product ratio	13 kg H ₂ /ton	Industrial reference
	Overall engine efficiency	64 %	
	Thermal energy consumption	13226 MWh/year	
	Electric energy consumption	44000 MWh/year	
<i>Case 2: only naphtha [closed-loop]</i>	Naphtha yield	69 %	
	Gas yield	15 %	
	Hydrogen-to-product ratio	16 kg H ₂ /ton	Industrial reference
	Overall engine efficiency	45 %	
	Thermal energy consumption	91102 MWh/year	
	Electric energy consumption	44000 MWh/year	
<i>Case 1 and Case 2</i>	Light hydrocarbon yield	1 %	
	Solid residue yield	10 %	Industrial reference
	Water residue yield	5 %	
	Low heating value gas	37 MJ/t	Channiwala and Parikh, 2002
Economic parameters			
<i>Operational</i>	Plant capacity	120 kt/y	
	Operating time	8 000 hr/y	[Assumption]
	Land	30 000 m ²	
	Operators per shift	4 ⁺	Sinnott and Towler, 2019
	Regular operators	3	
<i>Financial</i>	Evaluation period	15 years	[Assumption]
	Discount rate	15 %	Van Dael et al., 2015
	Corporate tax rate	25 % over net profits	[Assumption]
	Working capital	15 % of E&I ⁺⁺	Sinnott and Towler, 2019
	Depreciation rate	10 % for 10 years	
<i>Investment cost</i>	Project management costs	10 %-30 % of E&I	Sinnott and Towler, 2019
	Contingency charges	15 % of E&I	
<i>Fixed operational costs</i>	Operator annual wage	62 400 EUR/year ⁺⁺⁺	STATBEL, 2019
	Premium for shift operators	23 % over annual wage	Werner International, 2014
	Cost of labor (including supervision and engineering)	125 % of operator wages	
	Maintenance	4 % of E&I	Sinnott and Towler, 2019
	Yearly insurance	1.5 % of equipment cost	
	General plant overhead	65 % of labor and maintenance ^{****}	
	Land	1400 EUR/ m ²	JJL Belgium, 2019
<i>Variable operational costs</i>	Feedstock price	50.0 EUR/t*	RDC, 2018
	Hydrogen price	3023 EUR/t**	Thomas et al., 2016
	Gas price	23.7 EUR/MWh	(PWC, 2019)
	Electricity price	74.2 EUR/MWh	
	Water residue disposal	1.2 EUR/t	Sinnott and Towler, 2019
	Solid residue disposal	130.9 EUR/t***	OVAM, 2019

253 *For smaller plants this value is adapted starting from 2 operators per shift. **Commonly observed ratios for the
 254 petrochemical industry. ***Average gross wage for factory and machinery workers in Flanders. **** For human
 255 resources, research and development, information technology, finance, legal, etc.* Including pre-treatment
 256 costs. ** For a flux of 1500 Nm³/h. *** Gate fee for industrial residue of low heating value.

258 2.3.1 *Revenues*

259 We consider that the recycled naphtha and wax are of similar quality than naphtha and slack wax traded
260 in the market. Thus, market prices for naphtha and slack wax are used as a reference. We collect the mean
261 value of the projected price for naphtha and crude oil from the “Future of Petrochemicals” report
262 developed by the International Energy Agency (International Energy Agency, 2018a). The model of this
263 report estimates the future prices of naphtha based on its historical relationship with oil prices, using the
264 long-term oil prices defined in the “World Energy Outlook” 2017 as a basis. The price for slack wax was
265 680 EUR/t on January 2018 (Argus Media, 2018), being 68 % higher than the average crude oil price. We
266 calculate the future price of waxes considering this relationship constant. The International Energy Agency
267 (2018a) presents forecasted values for 2020, 2025, 2030 and 2040 for crude oil and naphtha, these values
268 are linearly interpolated.

269 It is well known that oil prices and those of its derivatives are highly volatile and usually subject to a large
270 estimation error. Hence, to have a better overview of the incentives to invest, it is crucial to acknowledge
271 these uncertainties. Empirical density forecasting methods, based on forecasting errors, are a valuable
272 approach for including an estimate of uncertainty with a forecast (Kaack et al., 2017). Following this, we
273 take the standard deviation of the normal distribution of the forecasted values equivalent to the observed
274 mean of forecasted errors of the “World energy outlook” from 2000 to 2016, as presented by
275 Wachtmeister et al. (2018). The mean absolute percentage error of forecasted price for oil of the “World
276 energy outlook” on a five year horizon is 37 % and on a 10 year horizon is 46 % (Wachtmeister et al., 2018).

277 For the electricity supply price, the average electricity EPEX price of 2017 in an annual contract (51
278 EUR/MWh) (CREG, 2018) is used and it is assumed to be normally distributed with a standard deviation of
279 16 % (Ruibal and Mazumdar 2008).

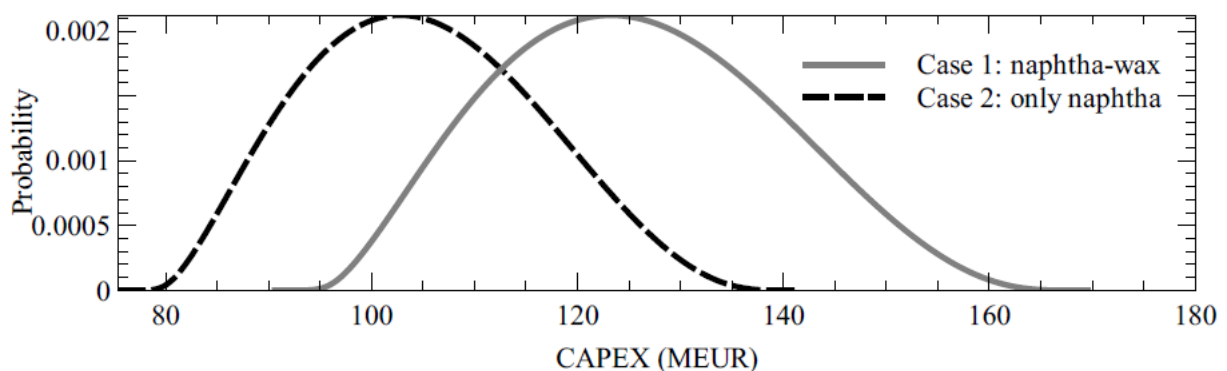
280 2.3.2 *Capital Expenditure (CAPEX)*

281 The investment cost for the 120 kt/year plant is the result of an engineering project of Indaver NV (Indaver,
282 2019). The equipment cost and infrastructure cost (E&I) were provided by this company and are not
15

283 disclosed in this paper. For the sensitivity analysis, to calculate the CAPEX of plants of lower nameplate
284 capacity (B), we use the equation presented by Sinnott and Towler (2019), with an exponent for pyrolysis
285 plants of 0.69 (Kuppens et al., 2015) and the CAPEX for a 120 kt/year plant: $CAPEX_B = CAPEX_{120} * (Capacity_B/120) \exp(0.69)$.
286

287 Engineering and project management costs and contingency charges are calculated according to
288 commonly observed ratios and are shown on Table 1.

289 For the uncertainty analysis, the CAPEX was modelled with a negatively skewed PERT distribution,
290 commonly used in modelling cost with expert opinion (VOSE, 2000). The accuracy range was set between
291 -22.5 % and +35 %, corresponding to expected values for a technology readiness level 6 (Tsagkari et al.,
292 2016). Figure 3 shows the probability density function of the CAPEX.



293

294 Figure 3: Probability density function of CAPEX.
295

296 2.3.3 Operational Cost (OPEX)

297 Table 1 shows the prices and ratios used to calculate the fixed operational costs, that do not depend on
298 the amount of input treated, but may depend on the nameplate capacity; and the variable operational
299 costs, that are directly proportional to the amount of feedstock processed.

300 For the uncertainty analysis and the global sensitivity analysis, the feedstock cost was modelled with a
301 triangular distribution. The range of this distribution (+/- 10 EUR/t) is equivalent to the observed ranges of

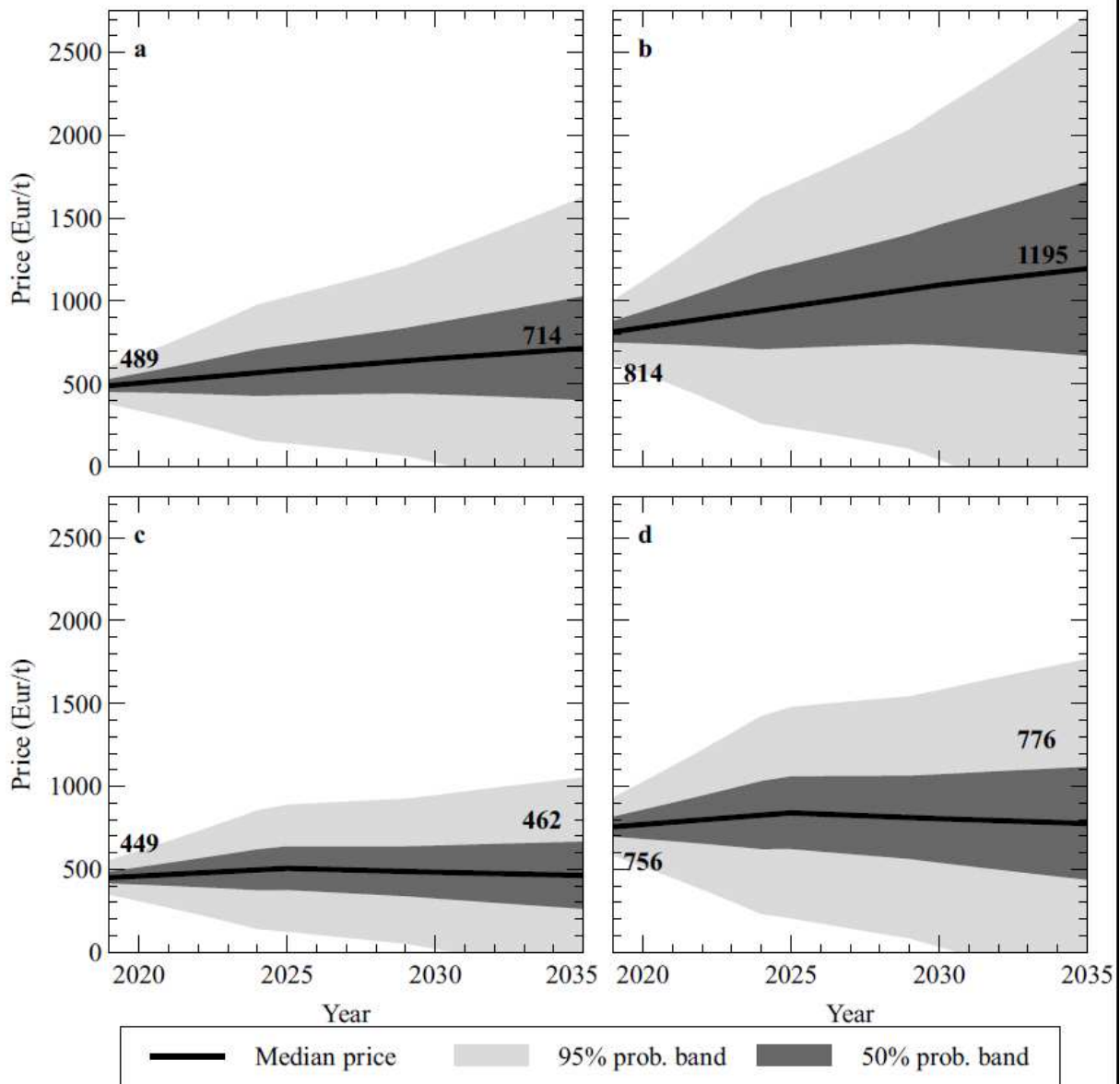
302 plastic fractions traded by the Belgian organization Fost Plus (RDC, 2018). The hydrogen price is assumed
303 to distribute normally with a 10 % standard deviation.

304 **3 Results and Discussion**

305 *3.1 Market Study*

306 Figure 4 shows the forecast of the naphtha (a) and slack wax (b) price with the 50 % and 95 % probability
307 bands (interquartile ranges), represented by the different shades of grey in the base case scenario or
308 *Stated Policies Scenario (STEPS)*. The mean value of the naphtha and crude oil prices was obtained from
309 the “Future of Petrochemicals”(International Energy Agency, 2018a). The standard deviation was
310 calculated with the forecasting errors of the “World energy outlook” presented by Wachtmeister et al.
311 (2018). For waxes, a constant relationship between the price of slack wax and crude oil was assumed.

312 The International Energy Agency presents an alternative scenario with different price forecasts for the oil
313 derivatives. The *sustainable development scenario (SDS)* estimates the future oil prices assuming the
314 fulfillment of the sustainable development goals (International Energy Agency, 2018a). It is constructed
315 considering a decarbonization of the energy production that would lead to a decrease in the demand for
316 oil products, reflected in a decline of their price (International Energy Agency, 2018b). The standard
317 deviation of the normal distribution is assumed to be equivalent to the one in the STEPS and the
318 relationship between naphtha and wax prices is also assumed constant. In this scenario, naphtha and wax
319 prices, slowly decrease (Figure 4.c and 4.d), whereas in the STEPS they show a constant increase (Figure
320 4.a and 4.b). The SDS prices are only used in the section 3.6.



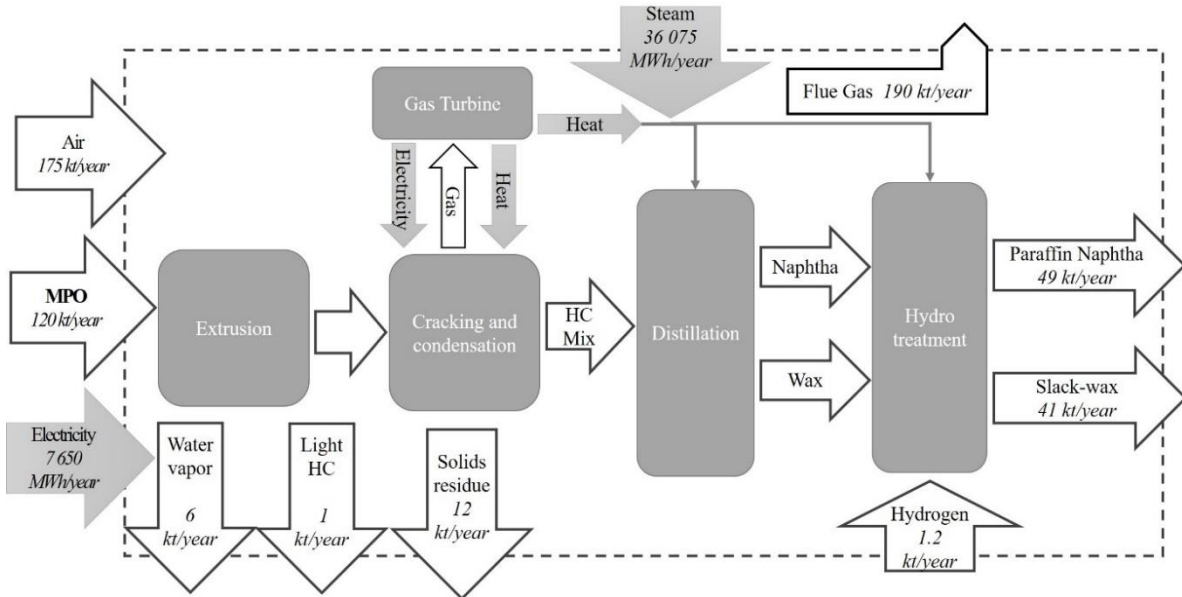
321

322 Figure 4: Naphtha (a) and slack wax (b) price forecast in STEPS. Naphtha (c) and slack wax (d) price forecast in
 323 the SDS.
 324

325 **3.2 Process Flow Diagram and Mass and Energy Balances**

326 The process flow diagrams for case 1 (open-loop) and case 2 (closed-loop) are shown in Figure 5 and Figure
 327 6, with the overall mass and energy balances. The combustion of the gaseous fraction provides the 68 %
 328 of the energy required for case 1 and the total energy required for case 2, leaving in the latter some
 329 remaining electricity to deliver to the grid. For case 1, natural gas to produce steam for distillation and
 330 electricity from the grid are required as inputs. The significant difference on the net energy input is due to

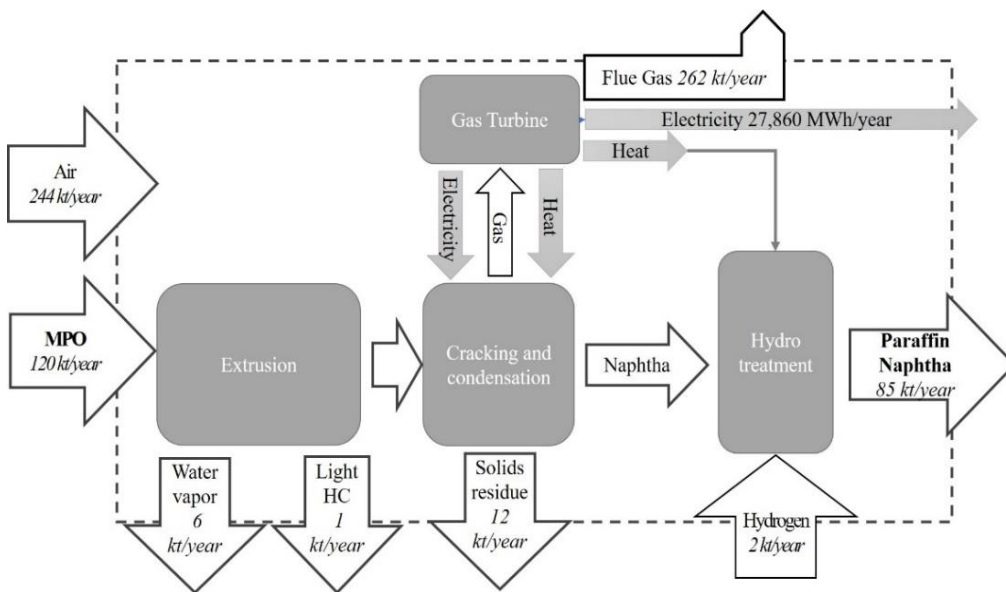
331 the increased heat requirement for the distillations process in the open-loop recycling of case 1 and to the
 332 higher production of gas for case 2, given the shifted product distribution as schematically shown in Figure
 333 1.



334

335

Figure 5: Process flow diagram case 1: naphtha-wax



336

337

338

Figure 6: Process flow diagram case 2: only naphtha

339 3.3 Economic Results

340 Table 2 shows the results of the baseline deterministic economic analysis considering the assumptions
341 presented in Table 1 and the yearly product prices of Figure 4.a and Figure 4.b. All results are better for
342 case 1 (open-loop) than for case 2 (closed-loop), mainly because of the large price difference between
343 naphtha and waxes that makes the income of case 1 a 34 % larger than the income of case 2. This gap
344 outweighs the OPEX (4 %) and CAPEX (106 %) gaps between both cases.

345

Table 2: Median results for case 1 and case 2

	Case 1: naphtha-wax	Case 2: only naphtha
NPV	56.5 MEUR	4.3 MEUR
IRR	21.3 %	15.7 %
DPP	7.3 years	9.2 years
NPVt	23.9 EUR/t	2 EUR/t

346

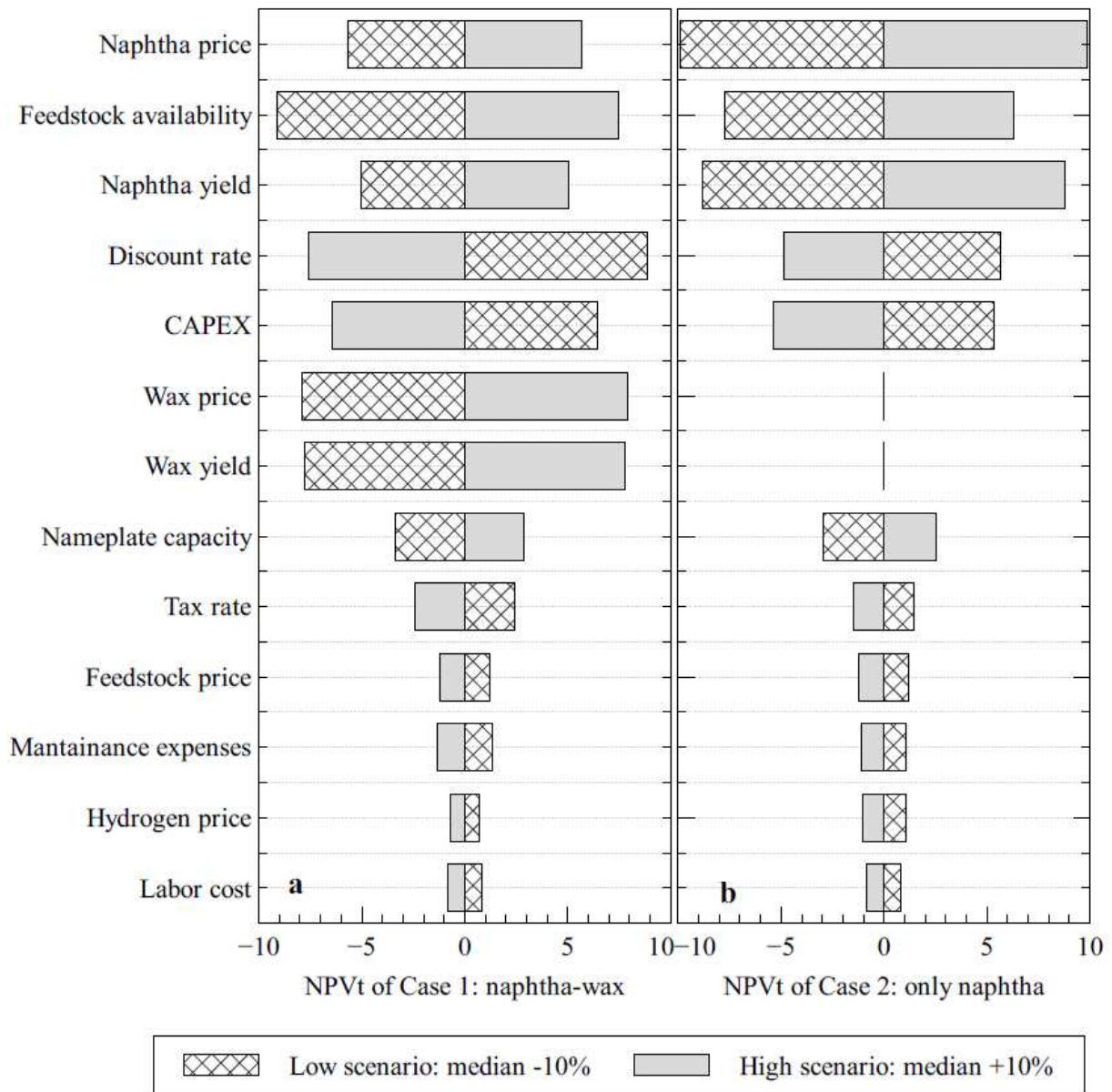
347 As commonly observed in studies at this level of technology readiness, results presented in Table 2 are not
348 generally valid because they are based on industry specific assumptions. To analyze the outcome if the
349 underlying parameters change, a sensitivity analysis, uncertainty analysis and alternative scenario analysis
350 are presented in the following sections.

351 3.4 Sensitivity and uncertainty analysis

352 3.4.1 One-at-the-time sensitivity analysis

353 In this step, the expected value of the NPVt is calculated after varying each one of the parameters in an
354 independent way to a low scenario (-10 %) and a high scenario (+10 %). The tested parameters are
355 producer electricity price, water disposal price, land expenses, solid residue disposal price, consumer
356 electricity price, gas price, steam requirement, insurance fee, thermal energy requirement, electric energy
357 requirement, hydrogen-to-product ratio, general plant overhead, cost of labor, hydrogen price, electric
358 energy requirement, low heating value gas, maintenance expenses, feedstock price, total investment,
359 naphtha price and slack wax price. Figure 7 shows that the feedstock availability, slack wax price, naphtha
360 price, naphtha yield, wax yield, discount rate and CAPEX have a greater impact on the NPVt than

361 maintenance, feedstock price and hydrogen price. The remaining variables have an influence of less than
 362 the 10 % on the overall value of the NPVt for both cases. The variables who had an impact lower than 1 %
 363 were excluded from the graph.



364

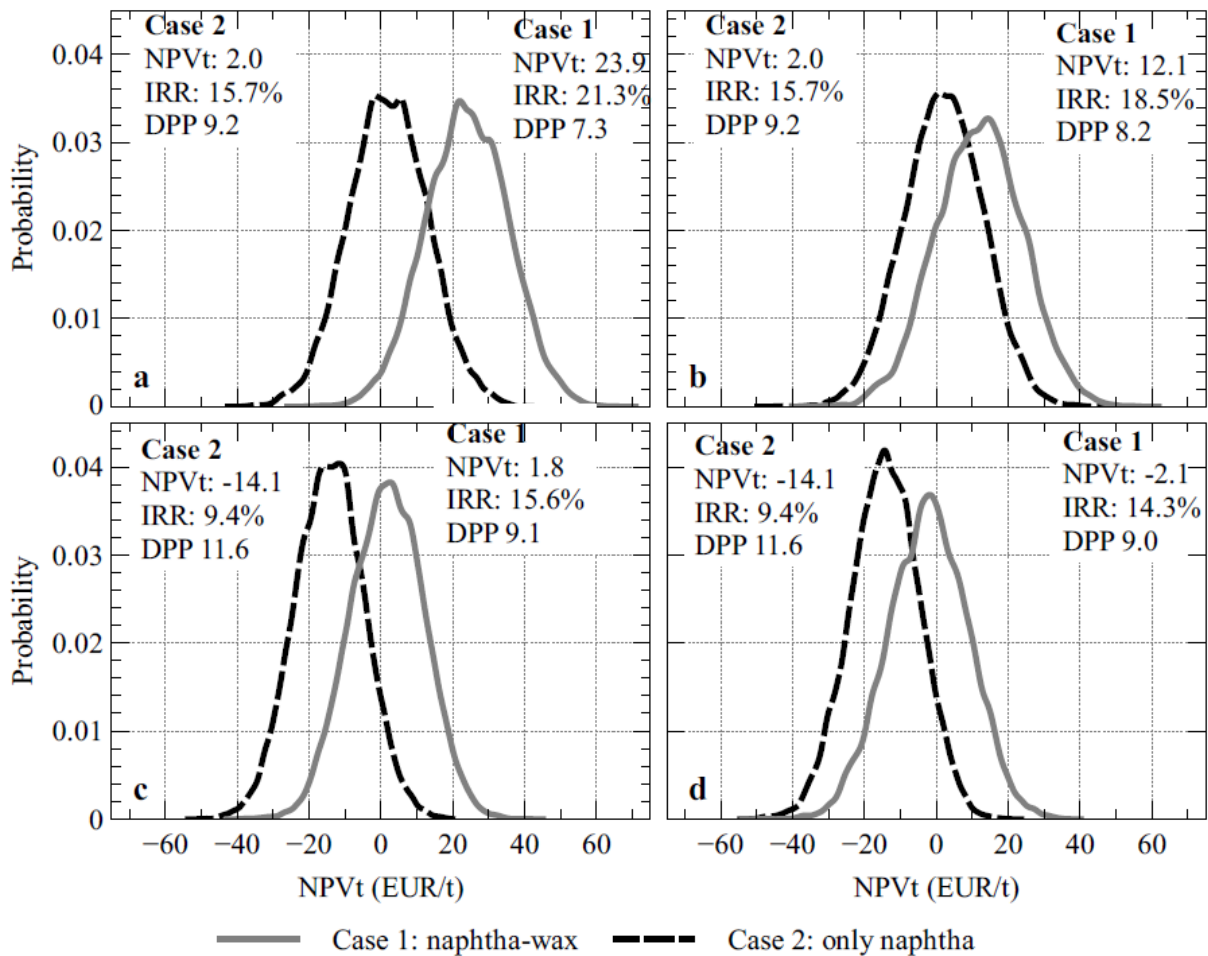
365 Figure 7: One-at-a-time sensitivity analysis for case 1 (a) and case 2 (b).
 366

367 3.4.2 Uncertainty analysis

368 The one-at-a-time sensitivity analysis (Figure 7) shows that the products prices, CAPEX and feedstock
 369 availability are the variables with a higher influence on the results. For a broader view of the expected
 21

370 results product prices, CAPEX, feedstock and hydrogen price are modelled as probabilistic variables.
371 Naphtha and slack wax price projections were previously shown in Figure 4, whereas the CAPEX estimation
372 was shown in Figure 3. Feedstock availability and nameplate capacity are modelled as deterministic
373 because no probabilistic function could accurately describe the supply uncertainty in this non-existing
374 market. Instead, a parametric sensitivity analysis is performed for these variables. Additionally, as the
375 product yields can be controlled and the discount rate is a parameter chosen by the investors, they are
376 also modelled as deterministic.

377 The results of the combined Monte Carlo simulation after varying CAPEX, naphtha price, slack wax price
378 and feedstock price together for the four price level scenarios are presented in Figure 8. From the PDF we
379 can deduce that given the assumptions presented above, open-loop recycling surpasses closed-loop
380 recycling. However, although the median values of the NPVt are positive, there is a probability of negative
381 NPVt of around 2 % for case 1 and 43 % for case 2, under the given assumptions. This means that for open-
382 loop pyrolysis there are relatively high chances of observing negative results.



383

384

385

386

Figure 8: PDFs for the STEPS and coupled wax-oil prices scenario (a), STEPS and decoupled wax-oil prices scenario (b), SDS and coupled wax-oil prices scenario (c), SDS and decoupled wax-oil prices scenario (d).

387 3.4.3 Global sensitivity analysis:

388 The contribution to the variance exposed in Table 3, indicates that the variables whose uncertainties have

389 a higher impact on the variance of the results are the oil price and the CAPEX. This can be explained by the

390 high influence of these variables on the expected NPVt (Figure 7) and by the high uncertainty of these

391 variables (Figure 3 and Figure 4.a and Figure 4.b).

392

393

Table 3: Global sensitivity analysis: contribution to the variance

	Case 1: naphtha-wax	Case 2: only naphtha
CAPEX	12.5 %	12.7 %
Hydrogen price	1.2 %	2.2 %
Feedstock price	1.7 %	1.7 %
Total oil price	84.2 %	74.6 %
Electricity price	0.4 %	8.9 %

394

395 *3.5 Parametric sensitivity analysis*

396 *3.5.1 Feedstock and product price*

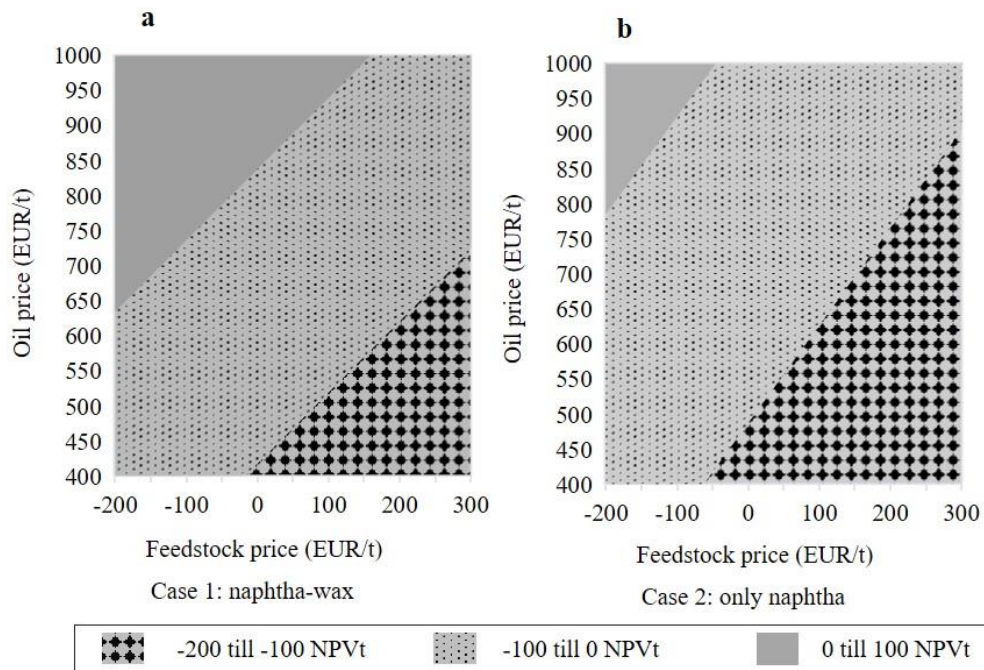
397 Supply of feedstock and demand of products are critical for the successful implementation of the circular
398 value chain. Furthermore, as the partial sensitivity study suggests (Figure 7), product prices and feedstock
399 prices have an impact on the results larger than 10 %. Thus, it is particularly interesting to analyze under
400 which of these prices, that are given mostly by exogenous factors, the project would deliver positive
401 results.

402 Assuming that feedstock prices remain constant at 50 EUR/t, that the slack wax price will always be 68 %
403 higher than the oil price (coupled wax-oil price), and that the naphtha price will always be 10 % lower than
404 the oil price, the mean value of oil must be over 575 EUR/t (78 EUR/barrel) to observe positive results.
405 When looking at case 2, for profitable results the oil price must be over 550 EUR/t (75 EUR/barrel).

406 On the other hand, taking naphtha and wax prices presented in Figure 4.a and 4.b, the maximum price of
407 feedstock that shows positive results is 150 EUR/t for case 1 and 50 EUR/t for case 2. These prices should
408 be acknowledged if a waste management organization would like to convey their MPO waste to a pyrolysis
409 plant. Moreover, they are in the range presented in Cipman et. al (2016) for PE foils.

410 As intuition suggests, when analyzing the variations of the feedstock price and the product prices jointly
411 and assuming that they vary independently, it can be seen that for higher prices of feedstock, higher prices
412 of oil are required (Figure 9). If the price of the feedstock doubles that of the base case (reaching 100
413 EUR/t), the minimum price of oil that would generate profits is 525 EUR/t (72 EUR/barrel) for case 1 and

414 625 EUR/t (85 EUR/barrel) for case 2. Moreover, in case the price for a ton of MPO would be zero, a
 415 minimum price of 425 EUR/t (58 EUR/barrel) for case 1 and 475 EUR/t (65 EUR/barrel) for case 2 will be
 416 necessary to obtain profits (Figure 9).



417
 418 Figure 9: Sensitivity of NPVt over variations in oil and feedstock prices assuming coupled prices from naphtha
 419 and waxes to oil for case 1 (a) and case 2 (b).
 420

421 3.5.2 Nameplate capacity

422 When calculating the NPVt for lower capacity plants it is found that for case 1 the break-even nameplate
 423 capacity is 70 kt/year while for case 2 this value ascends to 115 kt/year, assuming a discount rate of 15 %
 424 (Figure 10.a). Besides, for a discount rate over 20 % the plant must at least treat 115 kt/year in case 1 and
 425 170 kt/year in case 2. This can be explained by the high proportion of the CAPEX over the total costs
 426 (around 50 %).

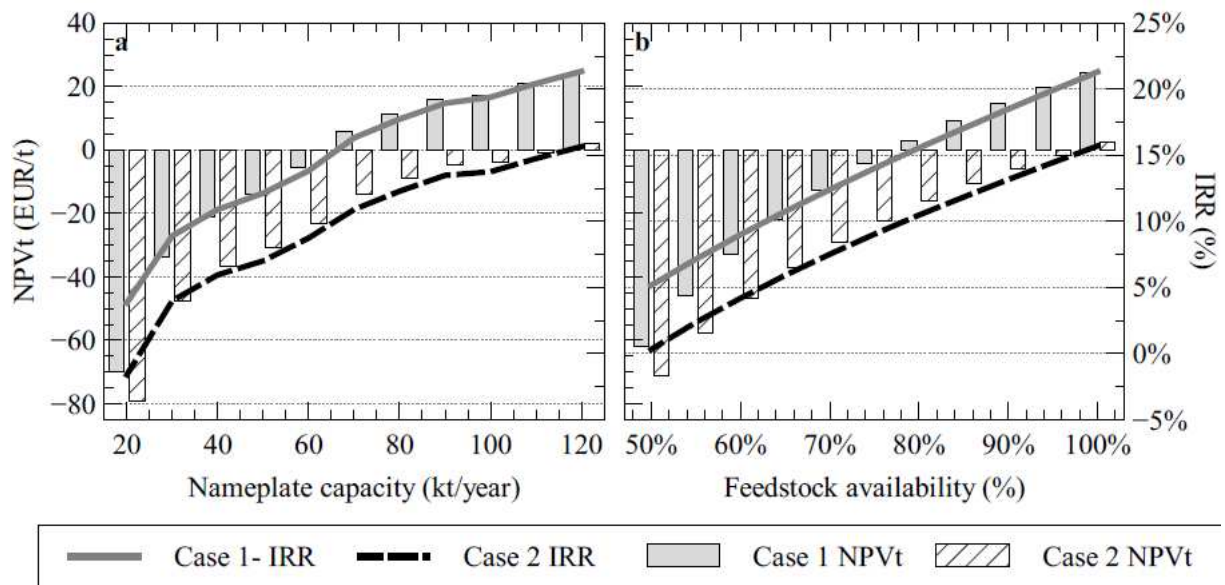


Figure 10: NPVt and IRR for lower nameplate capacities (a) and feedstock availability (b).

427

428

429

430 3.5.3 Feedstock availability:

431 If the demand for the plastic waste fraction increases by other recyclers, there is a risk of feedstock
 432 shortage (next to feedstock price variations) after construction of the 120 kt/year plant.

433 Figure 10.b shows the NPVt and IRR when changing the feedstock availability, assuming the already
 434 installed 120 kt/year capacity and baseline feedstock cost. These values are calculated by varying the
 435 variable costs and leaving the fixed cost unchanged. The figure depicts that case 1 shows positive results
 436 already for 80 % of feedstock availability, whereas for case 2 a full operative plant is necessary to obtain
 437 profits.

438 3.6 Alternative scenario analysis

439 To test the representativeness of our result we develop three alternative scenarios: one assuming that oil
 440 prices are the ones projected in the SDS scenario described in section 3.1, a second one considering that
 441 wax prices are decoupled from oil prices and a third one considering the second and third scenario
 442 simultaneously.

443 3.6.1 *Sustainable development scenario:*

444 Figure 8 shows the results of the Monte Carlo simulation for the STEPS and SDS expressed as NPVt. The
445 probability of observing negative results for case 1 increases from 2 % in the STEPS (a) to 43 % in the SDS
446 (c). For case 2 this probability increases from 43 % in the STEPS (a) to 93 % in the SDS (c), with a negative
447 median value in the last case. It is possible, therefore, that if oil prices decrease because of the
448 implementation of policies to reduce global warming or because of a reduction in oil demand, pyrolysis
449 would be less attractive to investors.

450 3.6.2 *Wax – oil price decoupling scenario:*

451 Waxes, in contrast to many naphtha products that are predominantly produced from crude oil, can be
452 produced synthetically. Because of this, we analyzed what would happen in case wax prices decouple from
453 the crude oil price and follow an independent trajectory. For the decoupled wax-oil price scenarios, prices
454 of wax are assumed to remain constant at 760 EUR/t.

455 Figure 8 shows that for case 1 the probability of observing negative results increases from 2 % (a) to 17 %
456 (b) in the STEPS. Likewise, in the SDS the probability of perceiving negative results increases from 43 % (c)
457 to 58 % (d) in case wax prices follow an independent trajectory from oil prices.

458 The most striking of these results is that for every price scenario analyzed case 1 seems better than case
459 2, being this in line with the deterministic baseline. Only a price of slack wax lower to 690 EUR/t in STEPS
460 and lower than 600 EUR/t in the SDS would make closed-loop recycling more profitable than open-loop
461 recycling.

462 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

463 From an economic perspective, open-loop pyrolysis (case 1) as presented in this paper outperforms
464 closed-loop pyrolysis (case 2) because of the higher price of waxes when compared to naphtha. This price
465 gap is high enough to overcome the required extra separation processes of case 1 when compared to case
466 2. In our deterministic analysis and under several industry specific assumptions, a positive NPVt is observed

467 for both cases. Nevertheless, these results heavily rely on the volatile oil price, the feedstock availability,
468 the uncertain investment costs and on specific assumptions such as the discount rate. Separating the
469 recycled products market from the oil-derived products market would reduce the reliance of recycling on
470 oil prices and therefore increase its economic robustness. Related to feedstock availability, for a successful
471 business case, the provision of plastic waste should be somehow secured. The minimum plant sizes are 70
472 kt/year for case 1 and 115 kt/year for case 2. In a 120 kt/year nameplate capacity plant, a positive NPV is
473 obtained upon a minimum feedstock availability of 96 kt/year in case 1 recycling and almost 120 kt/year
474 for case 2 recycling. This again makes open-loop (case 1) recycling more robust.

475 Moreover, if a higher discount rate would be required by the investors the results of the NPV will vary
476 significantly. As the IRR result show, a maximum discount rate of 21.3 % for case 1 and 15.7 % for case 2
477 could be tolerated.

478 When accounting for uncertainty of the product, feedstock and hydrogen prices, together with the
479 uncertainty of the investment estimations, we observe a probability of 2 % for case 1 and of 43 % for case
480 2 of negative results. Lower naphtha and wax prices, higher CAPEX, lower feedstock availability or higher
481 feedstock price all may increase the probability of observing negative results. The current study did not
482 take into account the correlations in the auxiliaries (hydrogen, energy, etc.) and product market prices for
483 the Monte Carlo evaluation, that could affect the overall uncertainty of the results.

484 Results suggest that to enable the transition to a circular economy, policy incentives should focus on the
485 security of the value chain. On the upstream sector, mechanisms to ensure the provision of plastic
486 feedstock to the pyrolysis companies would increase the attractiveness of this recovery alternative. On
487 the downstream sector, separating the recycled products market from the oil market would increase the
488 confidence of investors towards this type of technology. This could be enabled by for example, further
489 development of secondary raw material markets.

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492 Recycling of mixed plastic waste; project HBC.2018.0262).

493 **6 ABBREVIATION LIST**

494 DPP Discounted Payback Period

495 E&I Equipment and Infrastructure

496 IRR Internal Rate of Return

497 LCA Life Cycle Assessment

498 MPO Mixed Polyolefins

499 NPV Net Present Value

500 NPVt NPV per ton of plastic treated

501 PDF Probability Density Function

502 PE Polyethylene

503 PMD Plastic, metal and drink cartons

504 PP Polypropylene

505 SDS Sustainable Development Scenario

506 STEPS Stated Policies Scenario

507 TEA Techno-economic Assessment

508

509 **7 REFERENCES**

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