

1 **Assessing the energetic and environmental impacts of the operation**
2 **and maintenance of Spanish sewer networks from a life-cycle**
3 **perspective**

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39 **Abstract**

40 The environmental impacts resulting from sewer networks are best analysed from a life-cycle
41 perspective to integrate the energy requirements of the entire lifetime in the infrastructure
42 design. The energy requirements for pumping wastewater depend on the configuration of the
43 city (e.g., climate, population, length of the sewer, topography, etc.). This study analyses and
44 models the effect of such site-specific features on energy consumption and related effects in a
45 sample of Spanish cities. The results show that the average annual energy used by sewers (6.4
46 kWh/capita and 0.014 kWh/m³ of water flow) must not be underestimated because they may
47 require up to 50% of the electricity needs of a typical treatment plant in terms of consumption
48 per capita. In terms of Global Warming Potential, pumping results in an average of 2.3 kg
49 CO₂/capita. A significant positive relationship was demonstrated between the kWh consumed
50 and the length of the sewer and between other factors such as the population and wastewater
51 production. In addition, Atlantic cities can consume 5 times as much energy as Mediterranean
52 or Subtropical regions. A similar trend was shown in coastal cities. Finally, a simple predictive
53 model of the electricity consumption was presented that considers the analysed parameters.

54

55 **Keywords:** Energy, sewer, LCA, operation, city

56

57 **Highlights**

58 The electricity consumption in sewers varies depending on the city.

59 Spanish sewers consume, in average, 6.4 kWh per capita.

60 Atlantic cities require more energy to pump wastewater than Mediterranean regions.

61 The electricity needs depend on the length of the sewer and the wastewater production

62

63 **Introduction**

64 **1.1 The urban water cycle**

65 Urban regions are high-populated areas in which more than 50% of the world's population lives
66 (The World Bank 2012), and the urban exodus is expected to increase in the coming years
67 (Pacione 2009). Cities can be envisioned as an urban ecosystem with certain metabolic
68 requirements, namely "the materials and commodities needed to sustain the city's inhabitants at
69 home, at work and at play" (Wolman 1965). One of these material flows is the supply and
70 treatment of water. Considering that urban regions are expected to host a greater share of
71 inhabitants in the future, coping with more efficient water infrastructure is essential to
72 sustainably satisfy these demands. Hence, the different stages of the urban water cycle must be
73 analysed (**Figure 1**).

74 <Figure 1>

75 In the current situation of climate change and urban growth, water and energy challenges are
76 closely related. For instance, Drinking Water (DWTP) and Wastewater Treatment Plants
77 (WWTP) are more energy intensive in large cities because of greater water and wastewater
78 production (EUREAU 2009); moreover, water is pumped longer distances through a network of
79 pipes. As a result, if urban sprawl increases because of the construction of new settlements, the
80 structural configuration of the cities and pipe networks may vary, and the intensity of this effect
81 depends on geography. In addition, urban expansion may cause certain networks to be obsolete
82 and inefficient; hence, urban planning is essential to optimise these systems. As a consequence,
83 the water-energy relationship should be thoroughly analysed to discover environmentally
84 friendly solutions in the design of these networks (in this case the sewer system) to minimise the
85 environmental burdens caused by urban areas.

86

87

88 **1.2 Energy impacts of the sanitation infrastructure**

89 Among the stages of the urban water cycle, the analysis of sanitation infrastructure is important
90 because of the effects wastewater can potentially cause to the environment and human health.
91 Sanitation infrastructure consists of (1) the sewer and stormwater network, which collect and
92 transport wastewater and stormwater runoff, and (2) the WWTPs, in which wastewater is
93 treated.

94 The energy consumed in the operation and maintenance (O&M) of sanitation infrastructure has
95 been addressed in the past, notably for WWTPs, which are generally thought to be energy-
96 intensive consumers. A study conducted on Japanese water networks revealed that the
97 wastewater treatment process requires nearly 40% of the energy consumed in sanitation
98 (Shimizu et al. 2012), whereas only 9% of the energy is consumed by the pumping of the
99 wastewater. Similarly, Roberts et al. (2008) considered the O&M of PWTPs and WWTPs
100 relevant because it accounted for 35% of the energy used by the municipality; as a result, energy
101 optimisation strategies were presented (e.g., energy audits, monitoring and process
102 optimisation) to reduce energy and economic costs (Biehl and Inman 2010).

103 The energy and environmental impacts can be analysed using Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)
104 (ISO 2006) to determine the stage with the greatest impacts. From a life-cycle point of view, the
105 contribution of sanitation infrastructure to the burden of the entire urban water cycle varies
106 depending on the city. WWTPs in Oslo (Norway) require 82% of the electricity used in the
107 entire water cycle (Venkatesh and Brattebø 2011). In Alexandria (Egypt), 18% of the impacts of
108 the urban water cycle derived from WWTPs with high energy consumption (Mahgoub et al.
109 2010). In the case study of Aveiro (Portugal), the electricity consumption exceeded 80% of the
110 impact for most indicators for water extraction and treatment, but not in the case of the WWTP,
111 where the role of wastewater discharge is much more relevant (Lemos et al. 2013). This
112 variability could be because of the water consumption, the population density, the climate and
113 the wastewater composition.

114 Additionally, the different components in sanitation infrastructure are not always accounted for
115 in the most appropriate manner. Several studies aggregate the effects of the sewer and the
116 WWTP (Cohen 2004; EA 2008; Griffiths-Sattenspiel and Wilson 2009). Further, a single entity
117 is usually responsible for managing the sewer and WWTPs as a whole. As a result, the
118 identification of their respective contributions becomes difficult. Several publications focus
119 exclusively on WWTPs; the aim of this paper is to study the sewerage network separately.

120 **1.3 Environmental assessment of sewer networks**

121 Applying the LCA methodology to sewers, the impacts resulting from the raw material
122 extraction, pipe and appurtenance production, transport, installation, O&M, demolition and end-
123 of-life can be estimated (**Figure 2**) as reported in previous literature (Venkatesh et al. 2009;
124 Roux et al. 2011; Petit-Boix et al. 2014). Among all life-cycle stages, the focus of the present
125 analysis is on the O&M. Energy consumption patterns might vary depending on different
126 variables such as the geography and sewer design. Therefore, a standard electricity value cannot
127 be assumed in the entire LCA of sewers.

128 <Figure 2>

129 In particular, the O&M consists of different activities, namely the energy used to pump
130 wastewater and clean the infrastructure by specialised maintenance vehicles, and the material
131 and energy requirements for rehabilitating and repairing damaged sections of the network.

132 Barjoveanu et al. (2014) reported that pumping energy accounted for 77% of the environmental
133 effects experienced during the O&M of a sewer network in Romania, whereas 23% derived
134 from maintenance activities. Considering the entire life cycle of a sewerage network, Roux et al.
135 (2011) reported low electricity consumption during the O&M in France. The effect was only
136 notable in the radiation indicator due to nuclear power generation in this country. By contrast, a
137 comparative analysis of the entire cycle with and without O&M showed that the pumping
138 energy can account for 92% of the Greenhouse Gas emissions. However, if O&M is excluded

139 from the analysis, then 98% of the emissions originate from construction and installation (Strutt
140 et al. 2008).

141 In addition, if the construction of new sewerage pipelines ceases, then the effects of the O&M
142 stage are 3 times higher than the pipe production and installation stages on an annual basis as
143 forecasted in the city of Oslo (Venkatesh et al. 2009). However, this increase might depend on
144 the lifespan of the network and the structural design. With regard to other parameters such as
145 density, the annual energy consumption per capita can be reduced by 10% if the population
146 density is increased from 10 to 275 inhabitants/ha (i.e., the energy used to manufacture, repair
147 and dispose of pipes and to pump water) (Filion 2008). In the case of water supply systems, it
148 was also observed that cost-efficiency varied among scenarios considering different urban
149 configurations (Farmani and Butler 2014).

150 Although most studies show the contribution of the O&M to the total impact of the sewer
151 system, the environmental burdens of this stage are not homogeneous and vary by city.
152 Following the hypothesis presented by Petit-Boix et al. (2014) in a previous study on sewer
153 infrastructure, 3 parameters potentially affect the pumping requirements in a city: the length of
154 the system, the topography and the location of the WWTP. In general, if a municipality is
155 located at a high elevation and the WWTP is at the bottom of a valley or at sea level, then
156 wastewater gravitationally flows; as a result, little energy is required, except in the occasional
157 changes of slope, in which a certain amount of electricity is likely needed. No significant effects
158 were found in cities in France by Roux et al. (2011); however, flat areas displayed radiation
159 indicators 50% lower than uneven regions, which is because of lower nuclear-power
160 consumption. Other aspects, such as decentralisation, water consumption or the population size,
161 also affect the performance of the system (Sitzenfrei et al. 2013) and could explain the
162 electricity requirements in different cities.

163 Therefore, the O&M stage of sewer networks should be addressed independently of WWTPs.
164 Each life-cycle stage is conditioned by different factors, which may vary depending on the area

165 under study. The electricity consumed during wastewater pumping can be heterogeneous
166 depending on the city whereas the effects of sewer construction are less diffuse (Petit-Boix et al.
167 2014). Consequently, this paper aimed to describe the energy consumption patterns in sewers of
168 different cities, the implications of local features on pumping requirements and the consequent
169 environmental effects from a life-cycle perspective.

170 **1. Objectives**

171 The main goal of this study was to analyse and model the effect of regional and physical
172 features on the energy consumption in and the environmental impacts of the O&M stage of
173 urban wastewater- and stormwater-transport networks in Spanish cities from a life-cycle
174 perspective. To achieve this goal, the specific objectives were as follows:

- 175 • To collect and analyse data on the electricity consumption in a representative sample of
176 Spanish municipalities;
- 177 • To identify the physical (e.g., location of the WWTP, length of the sewer and wastewater
178 flow) and regional features of the network (e.g., climate, seasonality, distance to the coast,
179 population density and income) that affect the energy consumption and environmental impacts
180 through a statistical analysis;
- 181 • To model the energy consumption of urban sewer systems depending on physical and
182 regional parameters and analyse optimisation strategies;
- 183 • To compare the contribution of the electricity consumption to the construction phase of a
184 specific case study.

185 **2. Material and Methods**

186 **2.1 Sample selection**

187 To analyse the effects of different physical and regional parameters, a representative sample of
188 municipalities was selected. Spain was chosen to develop the study because the country displays
189 important climatic variability and because data covering 2011 were easily obtained. The data

190 were supplied and retrieved by CETaqua (Water Technology Centre) from the CONTEC© and
191 GISAgua© (2012) databases in the framework of the LIFE+ AQUAENVEC Project that
192 supports this study.

193 To be included in the sample, the cities had to meet the following requirements:

- 194 1. Reside in Spain (including the islands);
- 195 2. Be exclusively supplied by a sewer network not serving other cities to clearly define the
196 burdens of one network in one city.
- 197 3. Provide data for at least the following parameters: population, electricity consumption
198 for pumping wastewater and length of the network.

199 As a result, 68 cities were selected for analysis. The total population and population density of
200 these cities are in a medium range with respect to all cities (395) with records in the databases
201 (**Table 1**). Other parameters needed to perform the analysis are also presented in
202 **Supplementary Material 1**. The required parameters were occasionally reported as zero, but it
203 could not be determined whether this was a true zero or an unavailable result. Therefore, cases
204 containing this exception were maintained in the sample but zeros were not accounted for in the
205 statistical analysis. As a result, 48 cities were studied in terms of electricity consumption (36
206 depending on the data availability of other variables), whereas all 68 cities were considered in
207 the analysis of other parameters such as population or wastewater production.

208 <Table 1>

209 **3.2 Modelling the electricity consumption**

210 **3.2.1 Statistical analysis**

211 The electricity consumption was studied under different physical and regional conditions that
212 may potentially affect the pumping requirements in the sewer network of a municipality (**Table**
213 **2**). Data for the year 2011 was considered.

214 First, energy issues were analysed considering the regional features of the sample to
215 qualitatively identify trends. Therefore, cities were classified according to their population,
216 population density, income per capita, climate, seasonality and location, and the results are
217 presented using a box plot displaying the minimum, mean and maximum. Second, the electricity
218 consumption was correlated to all quantitative parameters to identify the strongest Pearson's
219 coefficient (R; a measure of the linear correlation between two variables). Finally, linear and
220 multiple regression models were run for those factors that presented stronger correlations with
221 the electricity consumption. A p-value <0.01 or <0.05 indicated a significant relationship. The
222 entire statistical analysis was performed in PASW Statistics 18 (2009) from the Statistical
223 Package for the Social Science (SPSS).

224 <Table 2>

225 **3.2.2 Assumptions**

226 Some variables were estimated considering different assumptions. The height difference was
227 calculated considering the altitudes of the WWTP and the middle of the city because other
228 topographic variations in the network could not be incorporated; thus, this assumption deviates
229 from reality. Regarding wastewater, no flow metres were installed in the municipalities,
230 therefore the wastewater production was assumed to be equal to the water supplied to the
231 households. Further, the stormwater runoff was estimated considering the stormwater catchment
232 area, a runoff coefficient equal to 0.9 (CEDEX 2009) and the annual mean rainfall in the region
233 (retrieved from the Spanish National Meteorological Agency) (AEMET 2013). Economically,
234 the income per capita was obtained from the Statistical Institutes of Catalonia (Idescat 2013),
235 Extremadura (ieex 2011), Murcia (CREM 2011), Andalusia (IECA 2010) and Galicia (IGE
236 2009).

237 The results of the analysis are presented in absolute (i.e., total electricity consumption) and
238 relative terms, namely the consumption per capita and per m³ of water flow per year. To account
239 for the tourist population, the consumption per capita was expressed in terms of total equivalent

240 population (TEP). TEP consists of the registered population plus the seasonal population linked
241 to second residences. The latter was estimated considering the number of second residences in
242 the city, an average occupancy of 2.6 people per household (INE 2013) and an average
243 occupancy of these second residences of 30 and 120 days in inland and coastal cities,
244 respectively, based on the assumptions made in a report by the Galician Water Agency (Aguas
245 de Galicia 2011).

246 **3.2.3 Environmental impacts**

247 To account for the environmental effects deriving from the electricity consumption, the impact
248 category Global Warming Potential (GWP) was used to estimate the CO₂eq emissions from a
249 life-cycle perspective. Considering the CML IA method (Guinée et al. 2002) and the ecoinvent
250 2.2 (ecoinvent 2009) database, the Spanish electricity mix adapted to 2011 (IEA 2014) had an
251 emission factor of 366 g of CO₂eq per kWh of electricity.

252 **3.3 Maintenance activities**

253 When studying the O&M stage of a sewer network, different elements must be accounted for in
254 the overall impacts: (1) the electricity consumption, (2) the rehabilitation rate, i.e., the length of
255 the system that must be replaced because of failures, and (3) the cleaning tasks.

256 Similar to the pumping requirements, the rehabilitation rate varies by site. Siltation problems,
257 protruding connections, infiltration, fat deposition, encrustation, root infestation and the slope
258 may affect the performance of small pipelines (Fenner 2000; Ugarelli et al. 2010), and thus, a
259 consideration of these factors assists in determining the best time to rehabilitate the network. As
260 a result, the pipe rehabilitation and cleaning of sediment-related blockages requirements of
261 every city will be different and might vary over time (Rodríguez et al. 2012). Because of
262 insufficient data, neither the rehabilitation nor the cleaning activities were analysed using a
263 statistical approach, but these parameters should be monitored in the future.

264 A city with potentially large maintenance needs (i.e., coastal, seasonal, flat and with a WWTP
265 located further inland) was selected to determine the relevance of the maintenance activities
266 with respect to pumping (ID = 15, see **Supplementary Material 1**). Field work in the city
267 showed that 400 L of diesel were required to clean the network every 3 months. Given that
268 approximately 1,400,000 kWh of electricity were consumed in 2011 in the pumping of
269 wastewater, the maintenance accounts for 1.2% of the total impacts of the O&M stage. The
270 contribution of the diesel is also expected to be negligible in other cities, and this contribution
271 was therefore not analysed through a statistical approach. However, further analyses should
272 consider possible variations depending on the city.

273 **4. Results and Discussion**

274 **4.1 General descriptive analysis of the electricity consumption**

275 To establish a general view of the electricity consumption in the case study cities, a description
276 of the annual energy use in the sewer systems is presented in **Table 3**. According to the results,
277 50% of the sample municipalities consume between 0.5 and 8.1 kWh per TEP and between
278 $1.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ and $2.6 \cdot 10^{-2}$ kWh per m^3 of water flow. In terms of environmental impacts, the average
279 electricity consumption per TEP and m^3 of water flow are 2.3 kg and $5.1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ kg of CO₂eq.,
280 respectively. The deviations suggest that not all cities have identical configurations or other
281 aspects affect the pumping requirements; as a result, the sample must be analysed in small
282 groups that share similar characteristics (Section 4.2) to determine the factors that may have a
283 significant effect on the electricity consumption.

284 <Table 3>

285 However, these values also represent other findings for sanitation infrastructure. The selected
286 Spanish sewers consume an average of 6.4 kWh/TEP and 0.014 kWh/ m^3 of water flow; these
287 values could be compared to the consumption patterns of WWTPs. For instance, Hospido et al.
288 (2008) found that Galician WWTPs that serve 72,000-125,000 inhabitants required 13.2-36.6

289 kWh per capita. This means that a sewer network might require between 18 and 50% of the
290 electricity used by a treatment plant.

291 Additionally, a Catalan WWTP that serves a large city consumed an average of 0.382 kWh/m³
292 (Abril and Argemí, 2009). According to data retrieved from CONTEC© (2012), Galician and
293 Catalan WWTPs consume an average of 0.53 and 0.86 kWh/m³, respectively. By contrast, the
294 average value calculated in terms of m³ of water flow is much lower than that of WWTP
295 because of the estimates of the water flow. Nevertheless, two case studies were thoroughly
296 analysed in the framework of the LIFE project, and the real water flow entering the WWTP was
297 obtained. A Catalan city (ID =15) consumed 0.46 kWh/m³ in the sewer and 0.35 kWh/m³ in the
298 WWTP in 2011, whereas a Galician city (ID = 12) consumed 0.11 kWh/m³ in the sewer and
299 0.46 kWh/m³ in the WWTP in 2011. Therefore, energy issues in wastewater transport
300 infrastructures should not be underestimated.

301 Even so, the relevance of the sewer with respect to the WWTP is variable and it might depend
302 on the features of the system, such as the length of the sewer, and the type of treatment
303 technologies required. Moreover, when cities are analysed individually, apparent differences
304 can be detected, but there tend to be different management practices that influence the sewer
305 performance. So far, authorities have generally given preference to ensuring the transport of
306 wastewater instead of optimising the system. At the end, this decision can lead to increasing
307 environmental and economic costs and the maintenance of inefficient networks. The
308 identification of these aspects was not possible in the sample of cities; however, it is a matter to
309 consider when assessing the electricity consumption in different scenarios.

310 In line with the LCA for sewer construction developed by Petit-Boix et al. (2014), the
311 environmental impact of the operation of the sewer in a city was compared to its construction.
312 The study considered a representative stretch of the network made of plastic (60%) and concrete
313 (40%) and an estimated number of appurtenances (i.e., pumps, manholes and inspection
314 chambers). When comparing the annual impacts of the system in this city, the pumping energy

315 represents 18-25% of the total environmental impact on an annual basis. This value deviates
316 substantially from previous literature (Strutt et al. 2008). However, variations among cities and
317 design parameters are responsible for these changes in the contributions of the use phase to the
318 total impact of the system (Section 4.2 and 4.3).

319 **4.2 Electricity required by city clusters**

320 The cities were classified into clusters according to regional features shown in **Table 2**, and the
321 electricity consumption was studied. No significant differences were found between clusters
322 when the analysis was conducted in absolute terms (**Supplementary Material 2**) and electricity
323 per m³ of water flow (**Supplementary Material 3**). However, regional differences were noted
324 in the electricity per capita. A correlation analysis might provide an explanation to this finding
325 (Section 4.3). The extreme values were not excluded from the analysis because few cases would
326 remain in the dataset and the outcome would worsen.

327 In terms of electricity per capita (**Figure 3**), differences were detected for climatic conditions
328 and city locations. In the former, Atlantic cities displayed greater pumping requirements (19.8
329 kWh/TEP) than Mediterranean and Subtropical regions (~4 kWh/TEP). This higher pumping
330 requirement is because of intense precipitation in the North and North-West of the country with
331 unitary sewer networks that cannot separate stormwater runoff from wastewater. In line with the
332 results of Hospido et al. (2008), the consumption patterns in sewers and WWTPs are in the
333 same order of magnitude (13.2-36.6 kWh/capita).

334 Similarly, coastal municipalities consume more electricity (9.4 kWh/TEP) than inland cities (2.8
335 kWh/TEP). The lack of slope in sea level cities can cause sediment blockages. Therefore, water
336 must be pumped more often to maintain the flow. In addition, coastal cities tend to pump
337 wastewater upwards to WWTPs located further inland to preserve the landscape and prevent
338 odour issues.

339 The remaining variables did not show significant differences and presented a p value greater
340 than 0.2 in most cases. However, several trends could be identified. For instance, more pumping

341 takes place in high-income cities, likely because of higher water consumption patterns (Section
342 4.3) and, as a result, more wastewater production. This could also be related to the population
343 density, given that cities with high-income are usually organised in low-density
344 neighbourhoods. However, differences were hardly seen in this case.

345 <Figure 3>

346

347 **4.3 Identifying the main variables**

348 A correlation analysis was performed to identify strong and weak relationships between the
349 electricity consumption and the factors described in Section 3.2. All significant results are
350 presented in **Table 4**.

351 <Table 4>

352 Three factors displayed a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive relationship with the electricity
353 consumed in the pumping of wastewater: the total length of the sewer network, the number of
354 inhabitants and the total wastewater production. As expected, the length of the sewer plays an
355 important role in terms of energy. Longer networks may require more pumping stations along
356 the pipeline to prevent stagnation in and blockages of the main water flow. Additionally, the
357 length of the system shows a strong correlation with the wastewater production ($R=0.92$) and
358 the population ($R=0.91$) (data not shown). This finding is not surprising because these 2
359 parameters are key in the design of sewer networks (CEDEX 2009). Furthermore, wastewater
360 production is highly correlated with the number of inhabitants ($R=0.97$), whereas the
361 wastewater production per capita is significantly ($p < 0.01$) affected by socioeconomic
362 parameters such as the income per capita ($R=0.51$) and the population density ($R=0.29$). Higher-
363 income inhabitants tend to consume more water for various activities such as filling swimming
364 pools or watering gardens (Domene and Saurí 2003). The electricity use per unit of volume has
365 a positive correlation with income. These findings are also consistent with the results shown in
366 Section 4.2.

367 However, the water flow (i.e., wastewater plus stormwater runoff) is not correlated with total
368 energy. The transport of stormwater was not significantly related; therefore, climatic differences
369 in terms of rainfall could not be modelled. In this case, both the precipitation intensity and the
370 catchment area are considered. Hence, an Atlantic city with a relatively small catchment area
371 and a high annual mean rainfall could transport an amount of water similar to that collected in a
372 drier Mediterranean city with a greater rainwater catchment area. In terms of energy per capita,
373 the stormwater and total water flow transported per capita are correlated ($R=0.35$ and $R=0.44$,
374 respectively) because population is a more site-specific feature.

375 As predicted, the slope did not display a significant relationship with the electricity used
376 because this parameter only considered the height difference between the middle of the city and
377 the WWTP. Internal slope variations along the network need to be considered; however, given
378 the size of the sample and limited data availability, they could not be easily calculated.
379 Therefore, the slope will most likely present a strong effect on the pumping requirements if it is
380 analysed more thoroughly.

381 **4.4 Approach to running energy use models**

382 After identifying the most relevant parameters using correlation analyses, simple and multiple
383 regression models were run (**Table 5**). Models 1-4 represent the factors and equations
384 potentially affecting the total electricity consumption of a sewer network, whereas models 5-7
385 assess the electricity per capita and per m^3 according to the findings presented in Section 4.3.

386 <Table 5>

387 In terms of total energy, the length of the network (model 1) is the variable with the highest
388 effects on electricity consumption ($R^2=0.62$). The total population (model 2) and the wastewater
389 production (model 3) explain 38 and 35% of the electricity consumption of a city, respectively.
390 Additionally, important data dispersion is noted.

391 However, given that all these factors interact, as presented in Section 4.3, a multiple regression
392 model was considered. The effects of population, length of the sewer and wastewater production

393 were addressed together. The R^2 increased to 0.66, higher than the other models. Additionally,
 394 the standard error of the estimate slightly reduced. Despite these improvements, the population
 395 coefficient was not significant ($p=0.84$) and, therefore, not included in Model 4, which only
 396 contains the significant variables. Nevertheless, the effect of population is implicitly represented
 397 in wastewater production (Section 4.3).

398 Given that the models did not display stronger correlations between the factors and the
 399 consumption per TEP or per m^3 of water flow, equation (1) represents the total electricity used
 400 in sewers with an $R^2=0.67$:

$$401 \quad \text{TEC} = 3,394 L - 0.07 \text{ WW} - 113,395 \quad (1)$$

402 where TEC is the total electricity consumption in kWh, L is the total length of sewer in km and
 403 WW is the wastewater production in m^3 .

404 **4.5 Model validation**

405 To estimate the error of Equation (1), the model was validated using data from 35 cities from
 406 the sample for the length of the network, the wastewater production and the real electricity
 407 consumption in 2011. Two different alternatives were compared to obtain the best approach
 408 (Equations 2 and 3).

409 Equation (2): if $3,394 L > -0.07 \text{ WW} - 113,395 \rightarrow \text{TEC} = 3,394 L - 0.07 \text{ WW} - 113,395$

410 if $3,394 L < -0.07 \text{ WW} - 113,395 \rightarrow \text{TEC} = (-1) (3,394 L - 0.07 \text{ WW} - 113,395)$

411 Equation (3): if Climate = Atlantic $\rightarrow \text{TEC} = \text{Equation (2)} \cdot 5$

412 if Coastal = Yes $\rightarrow \text{TEC} = \text{Equation (2)} \cdot 1.5$

413 if Coastal = No $\rightarrow \text{TEC} = \text{Equation (2)} / 1.5$

414 The factors included in Equation (3) are related to the differences among clusters in terms of
 415 climate and coastal conditions (Section 4.2). When comparing the estimated electricity from

416 these equations to real values, the error of the prediction is reduced by 22% on average when
417 Equation (3) is applied. However, only 34 and 29% of the cases presented less than 50%
418 deviation from reality in the predictions of Equations (2) and (3), respectively. Hence, a degree
419 of error remains in the models.

420 To determine the reliability of Equation (3), the confidence interval of the mean was calculated
421 using Student's t-test with 70% confidence (i.e., a 70% chance that the mean is included in
422 $8.5 \cdot 10^5 \pm 2.7 \cdot 10^5$ kWh). Further analyses are needed to improve this model and to include other
423 key parameters such as the height difference between the WWTP and the cities that were not
424 accounted for in the present study because of a lack of data. Nevertheless, additional effort
425 should be invested to standardise and improve the data collection process and prevent the use of
426 biased or unknown values.

427 **5. Conclusions**

428 The present paper focuses on the O&M of sewer networks in the framework of the urban water
429 cycle. On average, Spanish sewers consume 6.4 kWh/TEP of electricity (2.3 kg CO₂eq.) in the
430 pumping of wastewater from households to the WWTP. In some cases, this system is not
431 irrelevant when compared to the WWTPs in terms of energy consumption; sewer networks can
432 require up to 50% of the electricity used in the wastewater treatment.

433 Given that the electricity consumption in sewers was thought to be dependent on different
434 regional (population, population density, income per capita, climate, seasonality and distance to
435 the coast) and physical length of the sewer, slope, stormwater runoff and water flow)
436 parameters, a statistical analysis was performed on a sample of Spanish cities. The total
437 electricity consumption was positively and significantly correlated with the length of the
438 network (adjusted $R^2=0.62$) and was weakly correlated with the population ($R^2=0.38$) and
439 wastewater production ($R^2=0.35$). Regional features, such as the stormwater runoff, were
440 identified considering the electricity per capita. The simple model that best predicted the total
441 electricity consumption in a city ($R^2=0.67$) includes the length of the sewer and the wastewater

442 production. The wastewater production depends on other parameters, such as the population and
443 the income per capita, given that social factors also affect the water consumption among
444 collectives.

445 Further, significant differences were noted in the electricity consumption per capita when the
446 cities are compared according to their features. In general, Atlantic cities require almost 5 times
447 more pumping energy than Mediterranean and Subtropical cities because of more rainfall
448 throughout the year. Coastal cities also require more energy than those located further inland
449 because of blockage problems and the location of the WWTP.

450 This study highlights the importance of separately analysing the O&M stage of sewers in the
451 framework of LCA. Moreover, evidence suggested that sewer networks present a great
452 variability because of their configuration in different areas; therefore, a sample of cities
453 presenting different features is important to include in the analysis. The model presented in this
454 paper should assist urban planners in determining the most suitable configuration of the network
455 for a city to reduce the energy requirements and the environmental impacts by using only simple
456 variables. The location of the WWTP and the pumping optimisation should also be considered
457 in new designs. However, some improvements should be included in further analyses. The
458 height difference between the WWTP and the city is apparently a critical parameter in the
459 definition of the pumping requirements. However, the topographic complexity of cities limited
460 the analysis of this parameter.

461 In addition, during the O&M stage other impacts can occur. Maintenance activities were
462 excluded from this analysis. Even in theoretically extreme situations, maintenance accounted for
463 only 1% of the CO₂ emissions of the O&M. Furthermore, direct greenhouse gas emissions can
464 be generated in the system because of the degradation of wastewater (e.g., the formation of
465 methane, hydrogen sulphide and nitrous oxide). Therefore, future studies must integrate these
466 emissions into the LCA to determine their relative contribution to the impacts and the variability
467 between sewer networks.

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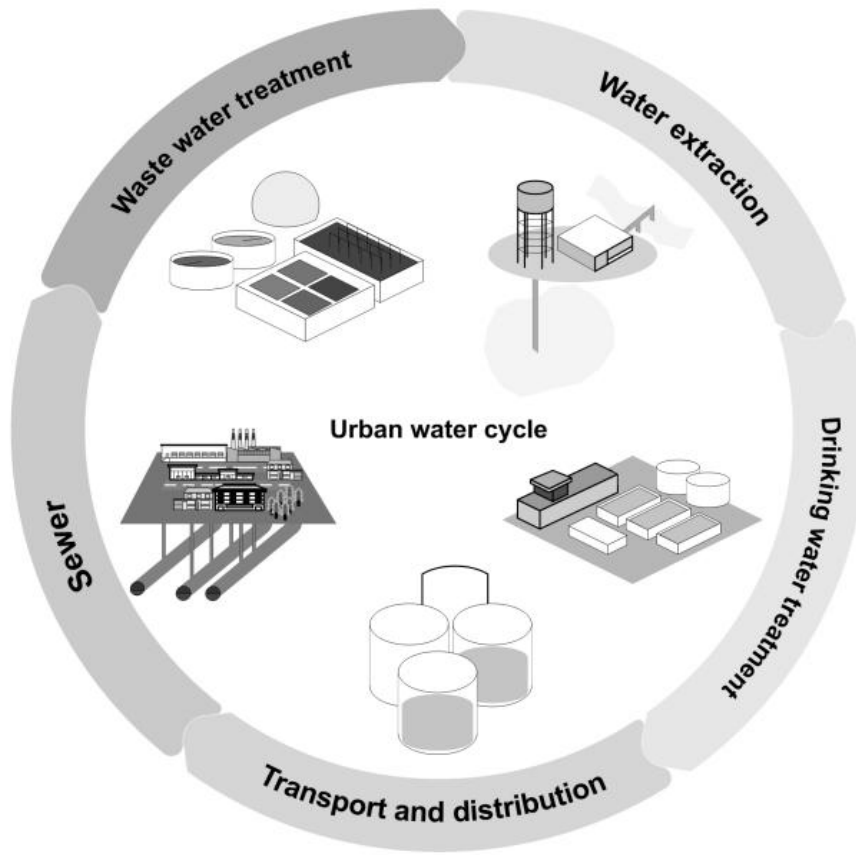
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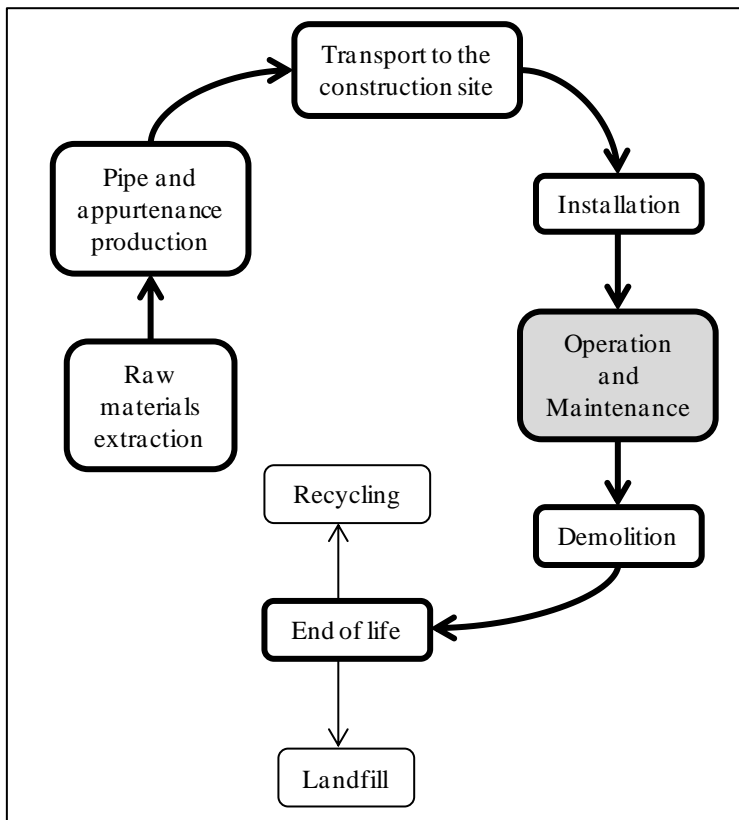
587

588 **Fig. 1** Stages of the urban water cycle and the system under study



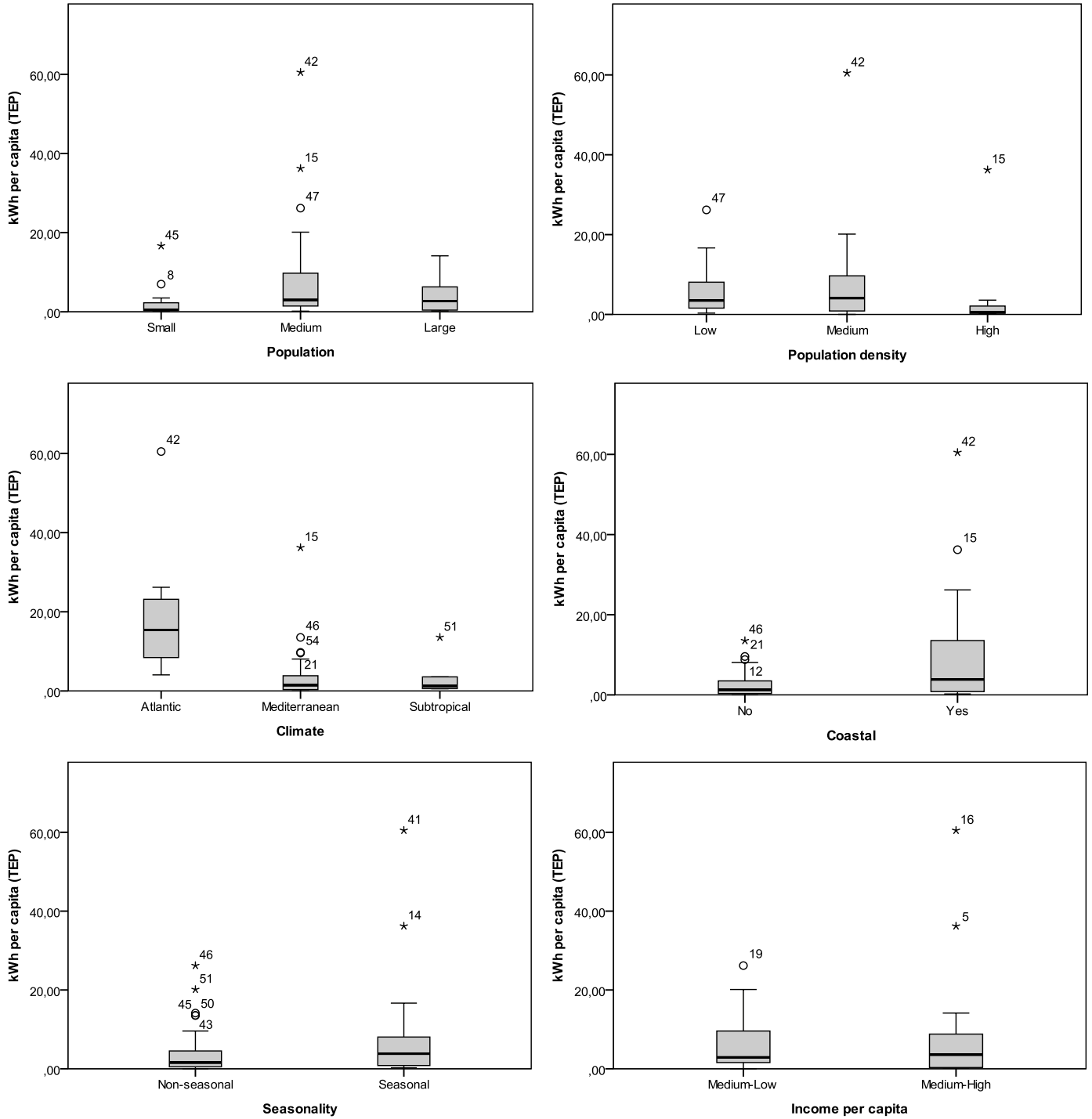
589

590 **Fig. 2** Life-cycle stages of the sewer system and studied stage



591

592 **Fig. 3** Comparison of the electricity consumption per TEP in kWh under different regional
 593 conditions. The numbers in the box plot refer to the ID number of the city (see **Online**
 594 **Resource 2**).



595

596

597 **Table 1** Features of the complete set of cities and the sample selected for the analysis

System	Number of cities	Number of inhabitants			Population density (inhabitants/km ²)		
		Mean	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Minimum
All cities	395	23,235	1,615,448	99	601	16,449	1.9
Sample	68	49,448	443,657	632	717	3,426	5.2

598

599

600 **Table 2** Factors potentially influencing the electricity consumed during the pumping of
 601 wastewater and their classification criteria

		Factors	Description
Quantitative data	Physical configuration of the network	Length of the sewer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total km of sewer • Metres of sewer per TEP
		Altitude difference between the middle of the city and the WWTP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Height (metres)
		Wastewater flow	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total volume (m³) of wastewater produced • Volume (m³) of wastewater produced per TEP
		Stormwater runoff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total volume (m³) of stormwater • Volume (m³) of stormwater per TEP
		Water flow (wastewater + stormwater)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total volume of (m³) of water transported • Volume (m³) of water transported per TEP
Qualitative data	Regional features	Population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small city: ≤ 10,000 inhabitants • Medium city: 10,000 – 50,000 inhabitants • Large city: > 50,000 inhabitants
		Population density	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low density: ≤ 300 inhabitants/km² • Medium density: 300-1,000 inhabitants/km² • High density: >1,000 inhabitants/km²
		Income per capita	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medium-Low: <15,000 € per capita • Medium-High: 15,001 – 24,000 € per capita
		Climate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Atlantic • Mediterranean • Subtropical
		Seasonality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seasonal ($\frac{\text{maximum population}}{\text{registered population}} \geq 1.25$) • Non-seasonal ($\frac{\text{maximum population}}{\text{registered population}} < 1.25$)
		Location	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coastal • Inland

602

603

604 **Table 3** Descriptive statistics of the electricity consumption and environmental impacts in
605 Spanish sewer networks in 2011

Descriptive variable	Total		Per capita (TEP)		Per m ³ of water flow		Per m ³ of wastewater	
	kWh	kg CO ₂ eq	kWh	kg CO ₂ eq	kWh	kg CO ₂ eq	kWh	kg CO ₂ eq
N (size of the sample)	48	48	48	48	36	36	43	43
Mean	3.3E+05	1.2E+05	6.4E+00	2.3E+00	1.4E-02	5.1E-03	1.1E-01	3.9E-02
Standard Error of Mean	1.0E+05	3.7E+04	1.6E+00	5.8E-01	2.9E-03	1.1E-03	3.0E-02	1.1E-02
Standard Deviation	7.0E+05	2.6E+05	1.1E+01	4.0E+00	1.8E-02	6.4E-03	2.0E-01	7.3E-02
Variance	5.0E+11	6.6E+10	1.2E+02	1.6E+01	3.1E-04	4.1E-05	3.9E-02	5.3E-03
Range	4.3E+06	1.6E+06	6.0E+01	2.2E+01	7.7E-02	2.8E-02	9.4E-01	3.5E-01
Minimum	4.8E+01	1.8E+01	1.0E-02	1.9E-03	2.5E-04	1.0E-04	7.9E-05	2.9E-05
Percentile 10	1.7E+03	6.1E+02	2.6E-01	9.5E-02	8.8E-04	3.0E-04	3.0E-03	1.1E-03
Percentile 25	2.2E+04	8.2E+03	5.0E-01	1.8E-01	1.7E-03	1.0E-03	7.2E-03	2.6E-03
Percentile 50	6.4E+04	2.3E+04	2.0E+00	7.5E-01	4.7E-03	1.5E-03	3.1E-02	1.1E-02
Percentile 75	3.6E+05	1.3E+05	8.1E+00	3.0E+00	2.6E-02	9.5E-03	1.3E-01	4.7E-02
Percentile 90	9.0E+05	3.3E+05	1.7E+01	6.2E+00	4.0E-02	1.5E-02	2.2E-01	8.0E-02
Maximum	4.3E+06	1.6E+06	6.0E+01	2.2E+01	7.7E-02	2.8E-02	9.4E-01	3.5E-01

606

607

608 **Table 4** Pearson's correlation coefficient between the electricity consumption and other
 609 variables related to the energy requirements in sewers (only those variables with $p < 0.05$ are
 610 shown).

		Total length of sewer	Population (TEP)	Total wastewater production
Total electricity consumption (kWh)	Pearson Correlation (R)	0.79**	0.62**	0.61**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0
	N	47	48	43
		Rainwater per TEP	Water flow per TEP	
Electricity consumption per TEP (kWh)	Pearson Correlation (R)	0.35*	0.44**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.031	0.008	
	N	39	36	
		Income per capita		
Electricity consumption per m³ of water flow (kWh)	Pearson Correlation (R)	0.51*		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.037		
	N	17		

611 **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

612 *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

613

614 **Table 5** Regression models between the electricity consumption (y) and causal variables (x)

615 $(y=ax+bz+c)$

	Variables	Model			Coefficients			
		Adjusted R square	Standard Error	Sig.*	Value	Standard Error	Sig.*	
Total electricity consumption (kWh)	Model 1	Length of the sewer (km)	0.62	439,515	0	1,983	230	0
		Constant (c)				-113,841	82,701	0.18
	Model 2	Population (TEP)	0.38	554,992	0	4.43	0.82	0
		Constant (c)				21,016	98,740	0.83
	Model 3	Wastewater production (m ³)	0.35	592,997	0	0.07	0.01	0
		Constant (c)				20,725	114,768	0.86
Model 4	Length of the sewer (km)	0.67	423,715	0	3,394	535	0	
	Wastewater production (m ³)				-0.07	0.02	0.006	
	Constant (c)				-113,395	84,686	0.19	
kWh per TEP	Model 5	Rainwater per TEP (m ³)	0.096	10.4	0.03	0.004	0.002	0.03
		Constant (c)				3.49	2.10	0.11
	Model 6	Water flow per TEP (m ³)	0.17	10.2	0.008	0.007	0.003	0.008
		Constant (c)				1.90	2.31	0.42
kWh per m ³	Model 7	Income per capita (€)	0.21	0.86	0.04	0	0	0.04
		Constant (c)				-2.23	1.11	0.06

616

617 *The model is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Constant: Intercept

618