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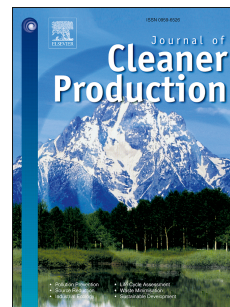
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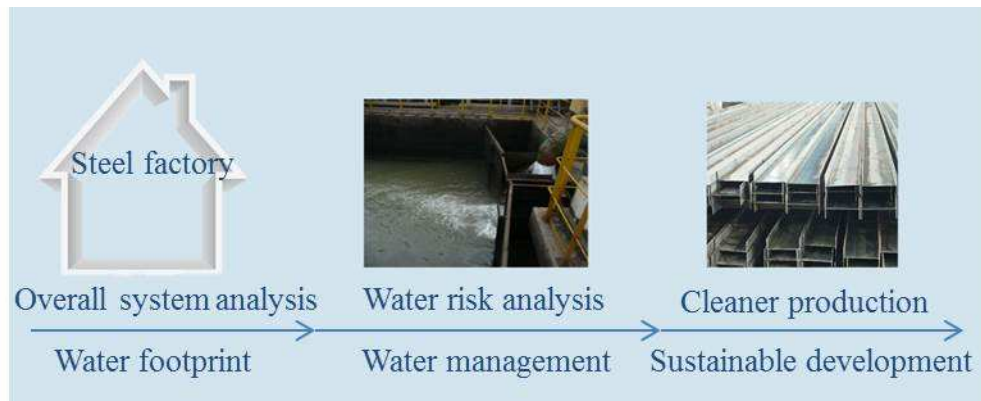
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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Calculation of water footprint of the iron and steel industry: A case study in Eastern China

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Abbreviations

WF: water footprint; FWC: fresh water consumption; WC: water consumption;

LCA: life cycle assessment; COD: chemical oxygen demand BOD: biochemical

oxygen demand; TN: total nitrogen; GB: Chinese national standard

1 Abstract

2 China is the largest producer of iron and steel in the world. This heavy industry is
3 characterized by significant water consumption and numerous water-related
4 hazards. In this study, we propose the use of water footprint instead of
5 conventional indicators (fresh water consumption (FWC) per tonne of steel or
6 water consumption (WC) per tonne of steel) for the iron and steel industry. Using
7 an iron factory in Eastern China as an example, we develop a water footprint
8 calculation model that includes direct and virtual water footprints. A system
9 boundary analysis method is then proposed to develop a common and feasible
10 industrial water footprint assessment methodology. Specifically, we analyze the
11 characteristics of the iron and steel industry from a life cycle assessment
12 perspective. A water risk assessment was performed based on the results of the
13 water footprint calculations. The selected iron factory has a water consumption
14 (blue water) footprint of 2.24×10^7 m³, including virtual water, and a
15 theoretical water pollution (gray water) footprint of 6.5×10^8 m³ in 2011,
16 indicating that the enterprise poses a serious risk to the water environment. The
17 blue water and gray water footprints are calculated separately to provide more
18 detailed water risk information, instead of adding these two indicators, which
19 has less environmental significance.

20 **Keywords:** Water footprint assessment, Iron and steel industry, Life cycle
21 assessment, Water risk, Cleaner production

22 1. Introduction

23 Water and energy are crucial components of steel production (Wolters et al.,
24 2008). China is a major producer of iron and thus contributes to the development
25 of the international iron and steel industry. Table 1 illustrates steel production
26 from 2008 to 2010 (China Industry Economy Yearbook, 2012) for key countries.
27 In 2004, the water consumption (WC) of the iron and steel industry in China was
28 4×10^9 m³, which accounted for 10% of the annual industrial WC (Hao, 2004).
29 The iron and steel industry can significantly affect local water environments via
30 wastewater discharge. This wastewater can contain a wide range of toxic
31 pollutants, such as dissolved metals including Cd, petroleum-derived products,
32 volatile phenol, arsenic, etc. (Mortier et al., 2007). Therefore, the iron and steel
33 industry significant impacts local, regional and global water resources and faces
34 high water risk. Currently, the iron and steel industry uses *fresh water*
35 *consumption (FWC) per tonne of steel*, *WC per tonne of steel*, and other indicators.
36 FWC denotes the fresh water used in the production of 1 tonne of iron and steel.
37 The term “fresh water” is used to refer to fresh tap water, groundwater, or surface
38 water added to the water system of an iron and steel factory, excluding the
39 circulating water for cooling. *WC per tonne of steel* denotes all the water used in
40 the production of 1 tonne of iron and steel, including recycled and reclaimed
41 water. FWC and WC are relatively simple and practical. However, they only reflect
42 the direct WC of the iron and steel industry and ignore virtual WC and
43 wastewater pollution. The concept of virtual water was introduced by Allan

44 (1998), and refers to the water needed to produce the inputs for the current
45 process (Verma et al., 2009). For example, the water needed to generate
46 electricity for the steel mill would be considered virtual water for this enterprise.
47 Gao et al. (2011) applied substance flow analysis to establish an evaluation index
48 for the water use systems of steel enterprises. The index system includes WC per
49 tonne of steel, FWC per tonne of steel, recycled WC per tonne of steel, and water
50 losses per tonne of steel. This index is used to evaluate the water use status of
51 large steel enterprises in China and to identify the problems in current WC.
52 However, this method does not consider the influence of virtual water on energy
53 expenditures and other production expenditures (from the supply chain) and
54 disregards the environmental influences generated by wastewater discharge.
55 Thus, a comprehensive indicator must be established to assess the pressure on
56 the water resources and water risk of the iron and steel industry.

57

58 Table 1. Global steel production from 2008 to 2010.

59

60 Hoekstra (2002) proposed the water footprint concept, which refers to the sum
61 of WC and the net virtual water inputs, which can be evaluated at various scales,
62 from a single process, a factory, an industrial sector, national and regional. In
63 Hoekstra's study, the water footprint concept was proposed as a measure of the
64 global water resource appropriation of various regions. Water footprint is
65 important in underpinning strategies and activities aimed at reducing pressure

66 on water resources because this measure can more accurately reflect the impact
67 of human activities on regional water resources. Ridoutt and Pfister (2010)
68 proposed the reduction of human water footprint to relieve pressure on water
69 resources. With the progression of water footprint methodology research, the
70 water footprint method can now be implemented for the analysis of production
71 processes and services. Water footprint includes blue water footprint, green
72 water footprint, and gray water footprint (Gerbens-Leenes et al., 2009). Green
73 water footprint refers to rainwater that has been consumed directly on the
74 landscape, for example by agricultural production. Blue water footprint refers to
75 surface water and groundwater that are withdrawn from the environment for
76 human uses. Gray water footprint refers to the theoretical amount of water
77 required to dilute pollutants that have been discharged into the natural water
78 system such that the quality of ambient water remains above the relevant water
79 quality objectives (e.g. standards). In many cases, wastewater treatment can
80 significantly reduce the actual water needed to meet the objectives. Gray water
81 footprint is used as an indicator of water quality.

82 In contrast to WC, the total water footprint includes direct WC and virtual water,
83 as well as its influence on water quality. With the development of water footprint
84 methodologies by the life cycle assessment (LCA) community, an LCA-based
85 water footprint can be utilized to assess the effects of products or businesses on
86 aquatic environments during the product life cycle (Boulay et al., 2013; Jeswani
87 and Azapagic, 2011).

88 Currently, most studies focus on regional and agricultural water footprints (Chiu
89 and Wu, 2012; Feng et al., 2012; Ge et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Mekonnen and
90 Hoekstra, 2012; Zhang et al., 2012), while the calculation of industrial product
91 water footprint is still in its early stages (Berger et al., 2012; Shao and Chen,
92 2013). Water footprint methodologies exhibit some drawbacks that impede
93 industrial water footprint assessments (Gu et al., 2014a). The simple numerical
94 sum of gray, blue (direct and virtual), and green water is not environmentally
95 informative for manufacturers (Gu et al., 2014b; Pfister and Ridoutt, 2014).
96 Green water cannot be generally used by industrial facilities unless they
97 implement a rain water harvesting system. Virtual water may be consumed far
98 away from the industrial facility, with no direct impact on local water resources.
99 Thus, adding these footprints generates values that don't have a clear
100 environmental impact.

101 Energy and water sustainability are inextricably intertwined in the industry.
102 Thus, the nexus between energy and water has generated great research interest
103 in recent years (Chiu et al., 2009; Gerbens-Leenes et al., 2009a; Herath et al.,
104 2011; Scown et al., 2011). However, the water footprint of energy consumption in
105 the production process is still difficult to calculate because the amount of water
106 resources used varies according to different areas and different
107 energy-producing methods. In addition, LCA-based water footprints, which
108 consider WC and water pollution in the whole product life cycle, are difficult to
109 calculate because of limited data availability. In the present work, we aim to

110 develop a common and feasible industry water footprint assessment
111 methodology for water management and cleaner production.

112 This study uses an iron and steel factory in Eastern China as an example of a
113 water footprint analysis of the iron and steel industry. The analysis includes the
114 validation of the footprint method and model, the assessment of the virtual WC
115 for energy, and the consideration of water footprint and industry water risks
116 (risk of limitations in water supply quantity and risk of water contamination). As
117 opposed to FWC per tonne of steel or WC per tonne of steel, the water footprints
118 are proposed as indicators of water impact for the iron and steel industry
119 because they comprehensively evaluate water risk factors and are much better
120 indicators for attaining a cleaner and sustainable production. In terms of
121 methodology, we build a feasible system boundary for research based on the LCA
122 perspective. The blue water and gray water footprints are calculated separately
123 to show the detailed water risk information instead of their simple numerical
124 sum. Thus far, only a few cases of water footprint assessment have been
125 conducted in China, especially in the heavy industry (Hoekstra et al., 2012b). The
126 present work is expected to contribute to the development of industrial water
127 footprint assessment methodologies.

128

129 **2. Materials and methods**

130 *2.1. Overall system analysis*

131 Two methods can be used to calculate water footprint: the chain summation

132 approach and the stepwise accumulative approach (Herath et al., 2011; WWF-UK,
133 2009). The chain summation approach is primarily used for production systems
134 with only one product output. The water footprint associated with the various
135 steps in the production system can be entirely attributed to the product that
136 results from a system. The stepwise accumulative approach is a general water
137 footprint calculation method based on the water footprint of the final steps in the
138 production of final and necessary products and on the water footprint calculation
139 in the processing steps. The production chain of the iron and steel industry is
140 complex and includes ore smelting refining, continuous casting, rolling, and
141 other processes carried out in numerous workshops with extensive water and
142 energy consumption in every link. Figure 1 shows the iron and steel production
143 processes. The water discharged by each workshop undergoes substantial
144 recovery or flows into other production workshops. Most large iron and steel
145 factories have their own wastewater treatment facilities. Both footprinting
146 methods require detailed information and an extensive amount of supporting
147 data, which may be confidential, especially in the heavy industry. This makes it
148 difficult to calculate the industry's water footprint and promote better water
149 management practices.

150 In this work, an overall system analysis is performed to assess water footprint.
151 In the process of calculating the water footprint, we consider direct WC, energy
152 consumption, and local water environmental effects, to better understand the
153 effects of the iron and steel industry on water resources. This method is mainly

154 focused on the water footprint of the production process in the selected factory
155 and therefore does not require long-term analysis and an extensive amount of
156 data. Given these features, the proposed method can be applied in other
157 industries.

158

159 **FIGURE 1.** Iron and steel production processes.

160

161 *2.1. Research range and determination of system boundary*

162 The life cycle of the iron and steel industry includes raw material extraction
163 (mainly iron ore and coal), iron and steel production processes, steel product
164 consumption, recycling, and transportation. Thus, life cycle-based water
165 footprints can be utilized to assess the effects of products or businesses on
166 aquatic environments during the whole product or business life cycle. However,
167 the water footprints of some inputs (e.g., raw materials and supply chain)
168 upstream of steel production are difficult to obtain for enterprises. In addition,
169 the extraction and transportation of raw materials can be very different
170 depending on the sources and are typically not well documented, and the
171 consumption of iron and steel products varies dramatically depending on the end
172 use (e.g. buildings, pipes, automobiles, and appliances). Finally, the water used in
173 the installation and decommissioning of the steel mill is not typically tracked, so
174 there is no data available for this aspect. Given the multi-decade life of most steel
175 mills, this is likely a small fraction of the overall water footprint, and thus it is not

176 considered here. Figure 2 illustrates the research boundary (the object of the
177 study is in solid lines). The production processes are utilized as the main body,
178 which is the most important part that manufacturers should consider when they
179 decide to alleviate water risk, in industrial water footprint assessments. Thus, we
180 focus on the water footprint assessment in the production process of a steel
181 enterprise.

182

183 **FIGURE 2.** System boundary of the research on the calculation of water footprint
184 of the iron and steel industry.

185

186 2.3. Research model

187 From the water footprint calculation model, the following formula is obtained:

$$188 \quad WCF = DWF + VWF, \quad (1)$$

189 where WCF is the water consumption footprint, DWF is the direct water footprint,
190 and VWF is the virtual water footprint. Here,

$$191 \quad DWF = WF_{obtained} - WF_{D-discharge} - WF_{loss}, \quad (2)$$

192 where $WF_{obtained}$ is the amount of water obtained, $WF_{D-discharge}$ is the amount of
193 direct water discharge, and WF_{loss} is the water loss caused by evaporation,
194 infiltration, and by-products.

195 The virtual water footprint calculation for a steel mill is complex because it
196 requires knowledge and accounting of water used in production of inputs,
197 domestic (i.e. staff) WC, internal electric power consumption, transportation

198 energy, and chemicals (mainly for the treatment of circulating cooling water
199 corrosion, scale inhibitors, flocculent for sludge dewatering, etc.). By referring to
200 steelworks investigations, the WC for production and domestic use is relatively
201 easy to obtain. First-hand data on power consumption, coal consumption, and oil
202 consumption are collected to calculate power consumption for steelworks. The
203 virtual water embodied in electricity generation in China is based on Zhang et al.
204 (Zhang and Anadon, 2013). They studied the life cycle water withdrawals,
205 consumptive water use, and wastewater discharge of China's regional energy
206 sectors by using a mixed-unit multiregional input-output (MRIO) model. All of
207 these parameters have a considerable amount of variability, depending on the
208 specific technologies and processes, the source of the primary energy carrier, and
209 even temporal considerations.

210 Another important aspect is the gray water footprint, which refers to the
211 theoretical volume of freshwater required to assimilate the load of pollutants to
212 natural background concentrations or existing ambient water quality standards.
213 The gray water footprint includes domestic sewage management and industrial
214 sewage management. In the calculation of the water footprint of domestic
215 sewage, chemical oxygen demand (COD) and other indexes are measured, and
216 the amount of diluted water is calculated based on the *Environmental Quality*
217 *Standards for Surface Water (GB3838-2002)* (Ministry of Environmental
218 Protection of the People's Republic of China, 2002) or the *Seawater Quality*
219 *Standard (GB3097-1997)* (Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's

220 Republic of China, 1997). In the calculation of the gray water footprint of
221 industrial sewage, sewage from different workshops is collected and treated
222 before being discharged. The amount of dilution water needed (Y_i) is based on
223 meeting the *Environmental Quality Standards for Surface Water (GB3838-2002)*
224 (Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China, 2002) or
225 the *Seawater Quality Standard (GB3097-1997)* (Ministry of Environmental
226 Protection of the People's Republic of China, 1997). Y_i is calculated using Eq. (4).

$$227 \quad Y_i = \frac{X_i}{Q_i}. \quad (4)$$

228 where Q_i is the water quality standard of the wastewater discharge for pollutant i ,
229 and X_i is the measured average value of pollutant concentration of the sewage
230 samples. $\text{MAX} [Y_i]$ is the final gray water footprint. Eqs. (1)–(4) are used to
231 calculate the water footprint of steelworks.

232 2.4 Water risk assessment based on water footprint

233 Enterprise water risk contains physical risk, regulatory risk and reputation risk
234 (Stuart Orr, 2009; Stuart Orr, 2011). Among the three risks, physical risk is closer
235 to water footprint. Physical risk is the direct risk of water resources. When there
236 are water shortages or water is seriously polluted, enterprises may face physical
237 risk, which consists of water quantity risk and water quality risk. In water risk
238 assessment, water footprint is a useful tool, and three major parts are involved:
239 water footprint calculation, water risk assessment and water risk management.
240 Analyzing the water footprint of the whole enterprise and every production
241 process can provide all the information for effective and more sustainable water

242 resources management. Furthermore, enterprises can take management actions
243 based on the results of water risk assessment

244 **3. Results and discussion**

245 *3.1. Water footprint of an iron and steel factory*

246 A steelworks enterprise in Eastern China was used as an example in this study.
247 This enterprise offers a complete raw material production process for iron
248 making, steel making, continuous casting, steel rolling and other processes using
249 advanced equipment. In 2011, the enterprise produced 4.46×10^6 tonnes of steel.
250 According to the overall system analysis method, the DWF of the enterprise in
251 2011 was $1.46 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$ within 5% error, considering a 10% water loss as
252 estimated by the engineer in this factory. This means 90% if the water is
253 consumed in the enterprise.

254 The production process of the selected enterprise is complex. Up to 20 different
255 chemicals, such as corrosion and scale inhibitors, are incorporated into various
256 processes. The enterprise annually uses 4.82×10^7 tonnes of chemicals. 90% are
257 solid with no direct water footprint; the water used in the process for the other
258 chemical was considered in the DWF. The virtual water of these chemicals could
259 not be assessed due to limited data availability, but is likely to be much smaller
260 than DWF.

261 Table 2 shows the energy consumption and water footprint of the various
262 sources of energy in 2011, for the case study factory. The water footprint of
263 electricity was $1.98 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ in 2011. During the same year, the water footprints

264 of coal and hard coke were $78.3 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$ and $191.4 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$, respectively.
265 Therefore, the total virtual WC for energy was $2.25 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ in 2011, which is
266 more than an order of magnitude greater than the DWF.

267

268 **Table 2.** Energy consumption and energy water footprint of the case factory

269

270 The applicable water quality standard for the selected enterprise is the
271 *Integrated Wastewater Discharge Standard (GB 8978-1996)* (Ministry of
272 Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China, 1996) Class II. Table
273 3 presents the measured water quality in the discharge and the corresponding
274 dilution factors. The amount of domestic water discharged by the staff that live
275 in this factory is $4.35 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$. As shown in Table 3, the maximum dilution
276 factor of is 50. The gray water footprint of domestic water prior to wastewater
277 treatment use is $2.17 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$.

278

279 **Table 3.** Average case steelmaker effluent concentrations, water quality standard
280 of integrated wastewater discharge and dilution ratio needed.

281

282 The sewage from the steelworks is sent to the regional sewage treatment plant,
283 and the treated effluent is discharged to the East China Sea. The East China Sea is
284 regulated according to the fourth level marine water quality standard. Based on
285 the *Seawater Quality Standard (GB 3079-1997)* (Ministry of Environmental
286 Protection of the People's Republic of China, 1997) and water quality of the

287 sewage treatment plant effluent, the maximum dilution factor is calculated to be
288 106. In 2011, the amount of treated effluent discharged by the selected steelwork
289 enterprise was $6.10 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$. During this period, the gray water footprints of
290 industrial sewage were $6.46 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$. Thus, the total gray water footprint is
291 $6.5 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$.

292

293 **Table 4.** Average treated effluent concentrations in case study steelmaker region,
294 seawater quality standard and dilution ratio needed.

295

296 Figure 3 shows the various elements of the total water footprint of this
297 steelmaker. In most studies, the results of the water footprint assessment of a
298 product or a business are usually shown as the total water footprint determined
299 by the sum of the green water footprint, blue water footprint, and gray water
300 footprint. However, the combination of a hypothetical “pollution volume” (gray
301 water) with WC volumes (blue water) for total water footprint is considered to
302 have no environmental meaning. In this study, the total WC footprint (blue water
303 footprint) and water pollution footprint (gray water footprint) are calculated
304 separately to show the detailed water risk information instead of the sum. For
305 the selected steelworks enterprise, the total WC (blue water) footprint is
306 $2.44 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ and total water pollution (gray water) footprint is $6.5 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$. The
307 high power consumption of the steelworks enterprise results in large virtual WC.
308 The high gray water footprint indicates that the enterprise poses a serious risk to

309 the water environment.

310

311 **FIGURE 3.** Total water footprint of steelworks enterprise in 2011.

312

313 Generalizing the results of this study, it is estimated that the water footprint of
314 iron and steel industry in China was approximately 4×10^9 m³ in 2010,
315 considering China's steel production in 2010. Ge et al. (2011) estimated that the
316 total water footprint of China is 860×10^9 m³ and the per capita water footprint
317 was 650 m³/year in 2007. It means that the iron and steel industry sector
318 accounts for about 0.4% of the total water footprint. It appears that the water
319 footprint intensity of iron and steel industry is significant compared with other
320 water related industries. It confirms the necessity of this study to calculate the
321 water footprint of a specific iron and steel industry treatment plant.

322 In addition, iron and steel are very important as raw materials for the
323 manufacturing industry. Berger et al. (Berger et al., 2012) showed that steel and
324 iron materials contribute almost 35–40% to the total water consumption of
325 Volkswagen's Golf car models. Thus, reducing water footprint of the iron and
326 steel industry will greatly reduce the industrial water footprint of many products
327 in China and around the world.

328 The iron and steel industry not only has a significant water consumption, but
329 also poses significant water-related hazards. The gray water footprint of the
330 selected steelworks enterprise is nearly 27 times total WC (blue water) footprint.
331 In contrast, for the global animal production the gray water footprint is only 1.06

332 times blue water footprint (87.2% green water footprint, 6.2% blue water
333 footprint and 6.6% grey water footprint) (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2012). The
334 reason attributed to the disparity of ratios of gray water footprint to blue water
335 footprint is the high-concentration of specific industrial wastewater discharged
336 from the steelworks enterprise.

337 *3.2. Comparison of the three indicators of water consumption*

338 Large amounts of water are used for steel production processes. The quality of
339 wastewater discharged by the iron and steel enterprise in Table 3 shows that its
340 wastewater can have a negative impact on the local water environment if it is not
341 treated adequately. Thus, the iron and steel industry poses risks of decreased
342 water supply and water contamination. Other inputs (raw materials from the
343 supply chain and energy) are also extensively consumed.

344 Compared to FWC and WC, the water footprint estimate has more uncertainties.
345 The total water footprint not only considers the water footprint of the enterprise
346 itself but also takes into account the water footprint of the external supply chain.
347 As shown in this case study, the virtual water footprint can be much greater than
348 DWF. While it is challenging to assess the virtual water footprint, it is important
349 to consider the most relevant input and their water footprint, such as energy in
350 this case. As more information becomes available on the water footprint of the
351 supply chain, better estimates of overall blue water footprint (=DWF + virtual
352 water of energy + virtual water of other inputs) will lead to enhanced decision
353 making and water risk management.

354

355 **FIGURE 4.** From water footprint to water risk analysis.

356

357 Figure 4 shows the relationship between water footprint and water risk analysis.
358 Virtual water footprint of the supply chain, including extraction and transport of
359 iron ores, reflects the water risk of the supply chain and is thus significant for the
360 sustainable development of the iron and steel industry. The virtual water
361 footprint of energy consumption can reflect the risk of energy consumption.
362 Based on the virtual water footprint of the supply chain, the iron and steel
363 industry can choose suppliers of chemicals, energy and other major inputs that
364 are proven to be committed to sustainable development and to the protection of
365 the environment by reducing their blue and gray water footprints.

366 Wastewater from the iron and steel industry is difficult to treat. Although most
367 factories have their own wastewater treatment systems, the effluent discharged
368 into the local water environment can have negative impacts. The total water
369 pollution footprint (gray water footprint) of the selected steelworks enterprise is
370 nearly 27 times of the total WC footprint (blue water footprint), thus showing the
371 significant impact on the local water environment. It is imperative to upgrade the
372 enterprise's internal wastewater treatment to reduce the gray water footprint or
373 even to achieve zero-discharge. The gray water footprint of the iron and steel
374 industry can reflect the risk of water pollution that otherwise cannot be revealed
375 by FWC and WC.

376 Unlike FWC and WC, water footprint can comprehensively evaluate the water
377 risk of the iron and steel industry and is helpful for water resource management.
378 Analyzing the water footprint can provide managers a better knowledge of the
379 enterprise water resources use, and thus reduce risks. Through this analysis,
380 enterprise can take actions for better water resources management, such as
381 green production design, water system management, supply chain management
382 and wastewater management. The purpose of all these analyses is to reduce the
383 water footprints of the enterprise, to eventually reach sustainable development.

384 The water supply risk for the industry could be evaluated considering the
385 magnitude of overall water supply in the region around the steelmaker, and then
386 determining the fraction that the steelmaker requires. It's reported that the
387 amount of blue water (surface water and groundwater) in the city where the iron
388 and steel enterprise used in this study is located is $61 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$ in 2011 (Zhejiang
389 Provincial Water Resources Bureau, 2011). Thus, the direct blue water footprint
390 of case factory only accounts for 0.02% of local blue water footprint, indicating
391 that the water supply risk of this factory is not very high considering the locally
392 abundant water resources. The pollution risk considers the amount of water
393 needed for dilution compared to the mean low flow rate in the region. It's
394 reported that the surface flow in the city is $59 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$ in 2011 (Zhejiang
395 Provincial Water Resources Bureau, 2011). The gray water footprint of the case
396 study factory accounts for 11% of total surface flow in the region, indicating a
397 very high pollution risk. Therefore, the case factory must take more action to

398 reduce its gray water footprint.

399

400 *3.3. Recommendations*

401 Water resources can limit the development of the iron and steel industry, among
402 other factors. Iron and steel industry enterprises in China should consider their
403 reputation when consuming water resources. From the case study, it is clear that
404 reducing the virtual water footprint is key to reducing the blue water footprint,
405 particularly from electricity consumption. Emphasis should be placed on energy
406 efficiency measures, as well as source energy from more water-efficient suppliers.
407 In addition, using new energy resources such as wind power to reduce the
408 energy costs of water footprints is recommended.

409 Although the enterprises' discharge of sewage is within the national
410 requirements, it still does not satisfy the *Sea Water Quality Standard*
411 (*GB3097-1997*) (Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of
412 China, 1997). Sewage discharge that contains high concentrations of pollutants is
413 not considered part of the direct water footprint of an enterprise. However, this
414 type of sewage discharge requires large amounts of water to be diluted to natural
415 water. Gray water footprint accounts for a large portion of the total water
416 footprint. Therefore, the potential threat of gray water footprint cannot be
417 disregarded. If enterprises can improve sewage treatment efficiency, their gray
418 water footprint can be reduced significantly. A detailed analysis of the factors that
419 increase the gray water footprint (e.g $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ and TN in this case study) can lead

420 to optimize the wastewater treatment or industrial processes. The steel makers
421 may invest in internal wastewater treatment to reduce the very large gray water
422 footprint.

423 Chemicals with small water footprints should be chosen for obvious reasons.
424 For example, some corrosion scale inhibitors with phosphorus used will cause
425 phosphates. Reducing gray water footprint requires the use of
426 environment-friendly chemicals. For water treatment, factories can choose green
427 agents such as corrosion scale inhibitors without phosphorus.

428 To reduce direct WC, the iron and steel industry should improve the efficiency of
429 their production processes such as internal recycling and treatment of cooling
430 water or using more advanced equipment. Rainwater harvesting and utilization
431 are also recommended for other factories. Water system management needs to
432 be improved to reduce the freshwater use.

433 Water footprint may be a more reliable and efficient indicator than FWC per
434 tonne of steel or WC per tonne of steel for the iron and steel industry because of
435 its comprehensiveness. Considering the fact that China is facing a critical water
436 crisis, the water footprint evaluation of its iron and steel industry is useful in
437 conserving scarce water resources. Water footprint assessment is in accordance
438 with water risk assessment, and the proper management of water footprint can
439 reduce water-related hazards. To reduce wastewater discharge and gray water
440 footprint in the iron and steel industry, enterprises and supply chain
441 manufacturers should conduct advanced wastewater treatment and promote

442 reuse.

443 **4. Uncertainty analysis**

444 Uncertainties result from the assumptions to establish the research range and
445 system boundary. Calculating the water footprint extraction and transport
446 processes of raw materials is complicated by lack of data and multitude of
447 sources. The consumption of iron and steel products also varies remarkably. In
448 this study, we focus our calculation of the water footprint on iron and steel
449 production processes and disregard the water footprints of raw materials and
450 product consumption processes. Although efforts have been made to provide
451 high-quality direct and virtual water consumption data, limitations occur due to
452 the lack of reliable data. In this study, the primary data on the water intake,
453 wastewater discharge, and energy consumption of the selected enterprise are
454 accurately obtained from the company's statistical data, within 5%.

455 There are uncertainties from the calculation of the energy water footprint. The
456 energy sector is the second largest water user in the world in terms of
457 withdrawals, following irrigation (Hightower and Pierce, 2008). There is a large
458 variability in the water needed even for the same primary energy, depending on
459 the specific technologies and processes, the source of the primary energy carrier,
460 and even temporal considerations (Fthenakis and Kim, 2010; Keller et al., 2010).
461 In the calculation of the energy water footprint, the conversion coefficients are
462 cited from related research (Zhang and Anadon, 2013) in China, considering the
463 water footprint of energy consumption varies according to different areas. That

464 study assesses the water use in energy production section on province and
465 national scale in China. The data sets can be used for water footprint calculations
466 but may underrepresent the real virtual water consumption embodied in energy
467 in this factory. Thus, uncertainties exist in the final results. Herein, the range of
468 uncertainties of energy water footprint is qualified in Table 2. The water
469 footprints of electricity, coal, and hard coke are in the ranges of $82-7,700 \times 10^4$
470 m^3 , $0-220 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$, and $0-420 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$, respectively, based on Zhang et al.
471 (Zhang and Anadon, 2013).

472 **5. Sensitivity analysis**

473 A sensitivity analysis was conducted to understand how parameter variability
474 affect the results and to identify parameters that are critical for quantifying the
475 water footprint of the iron and steel industry. The water footprint for energy
476 consumption accounts for a large portion of the total WC footprint (92 %). The
477 parameters used in the energy water footprint analysis include electric power,
478 coal, and hard coke. Electric power is the most sensitive factor because it is
479 consumed by the selected enterprise in large amounts. Thus, having high quality
480 information on the water footprint of local or regional electricity generators will
481 significantly reduce the uncertainty in virtual water footprint estimates.

482 For the gray water footprint assessment, the discharged water quality is the
483 most sensitive factor because gray water footprint is classified as the amount of
484 water required to dilute pollutants that have been discharged into the natural
485 water system such that the quality of ambient water remains above the

486 established water quality standards. It is important for the enterprise to collect
487 accurate water quality data and discharge flows to better estimate the gray water
488 footprint.

489 **6. Conclusion**

490 For the selected iron and steel factory the blue water (total WC) footprint was
491 $2.44 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3$ and the gray water footprint was $6.5 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$ in 2011. As opposed
492 to FWC per tonne of steel or WC per tonne of steel, water footprint should be
493 promoted as an indicator for the iron and steel industry because it can reflect the
494 industry's actual WC and water risks. In this way, water efficiency can be
495 improved. Reduction in the water footprint of the iron and steel industry can
496 result in cleaner production.

497 The system boundary analysis method is proposed in this work to develop a
498 common and feasible industry water footprint assessment methodology. The
499 blue water (total WC) footprint and the gray water (water pollution) footprint
500 are calculated separately to better understand the different water risks instead of
501 the simple numerical sum of the two footprints. This leads to specific
502 recommendations for reducing the risks. This work is expected to contribute to
503 the development of industrial water footprint assessment methodologies.

504

505

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510

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613 **Table 1.** Global steel production from 2008 to 2010

614 unit: 10⁶ tonne

Year	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth
2008	China	Japan	America	Russia	India
	512.3	118.7	91.3	68.5	55.1
2009	China	Japan	Russia	America	India
	567.8	87.5	59.9	58.1	56.6
2010	China	Japan	America	Russia	India
	626.7	109.6	80.6	67.0	66.9

615 (Chinese bureau of statistics industrial division, 2012. China industry economy yearbook

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617

618 **Table 2.** Energy consumption and energy water footprint of the case factory

619

620

Energy type	Energy consumption	Direct water withdrawal intensity at provincial level ^a	National average direct water withdrawal intensity ^a	Energy water footprint range (10 ⁴ m ³)	Average energy water footprint (10 ⁴ m ³)
electricity	1275 GWh	0.64-60.14 m ³ /MWh	15.50 m ³ /MWh	82-7668	1976
Coal	206.1×10 ⁴ tonne	0-1.07 m ³ /tonne	0.38 m ³ /tonne	0-221	78
Coke	185.8×10 ⁴ tonne	0-2.24 m ³ /tonne	1.03 m ³ /tonne	0-416	191
total	-	-	-	-	2246

621 ^a Zhang, C., Anadon, L.D., 2013. Life Cycle Water Use of Energy Production and Its

622 Environmental Impacts in China. Environmental Science & Technology 47, 14459-14467

Table 3. Average case steelmaker effluent concentrations, water quality standard of integrated wastewater discharge and dilution ratio needed

Indicator	Average concentration (mg/L) ^a	Sea water quality standard (GB3079-1997) ^b Class IV (mg/L)	Dilution ratio
COD	150	5	30
Petroleum	10	0.50	20
Volatile phenol	0.5	0.05	10
NH ₃ -N	25	0.5	50
Chloride	0.5	0.2	2.5
Zn	5.0	0.5	10
Cr ⁶⁺	0.5	0.5	1
Cd	0.1	0.01	10
As	0.5	0.5	1
Pb	1.0	0.5	2

COD: chemical oxygen demand. GB: Chinese national standard.

^a Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China., 1996. Integrated wastewater discharge Standard (GB 8978 -1996). (in Chinese)

^b Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China, 1997. Sea water quality standard (GB3097-1997) . (in Chinese)

Table 4. Average treated effluent concentrations in case study steelmaker region, seawater quality standard and dilution ratio needed

Indicator	Average concentration (mg/L)	Seawater Quality Standard (GB3079-1997) ^a Class IV (mg/L)	Dilution ratio
COD	323	5	65
BOD ₅	182	5	36
TN	52.9	0.5	106

COD: chemical oxygen demand; BOD: biochemical oxygen demand; TN: total nitrogen.

^a Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China, 1997. Sea water quality standard (GB3097-1997) . (in Chinese)

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FIGURE 4. From water footprint to water risk analysis.

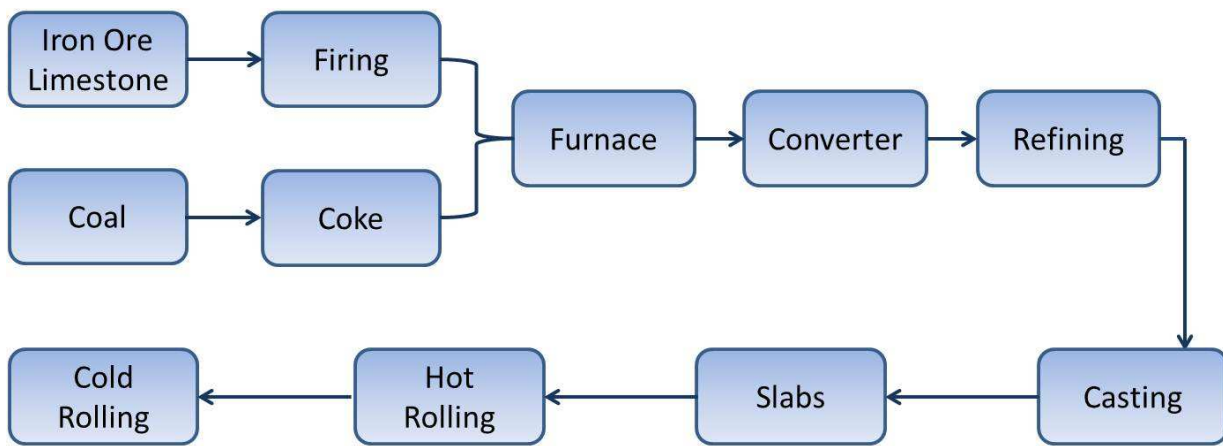


FIGURE 1. Iron and steel production processes.

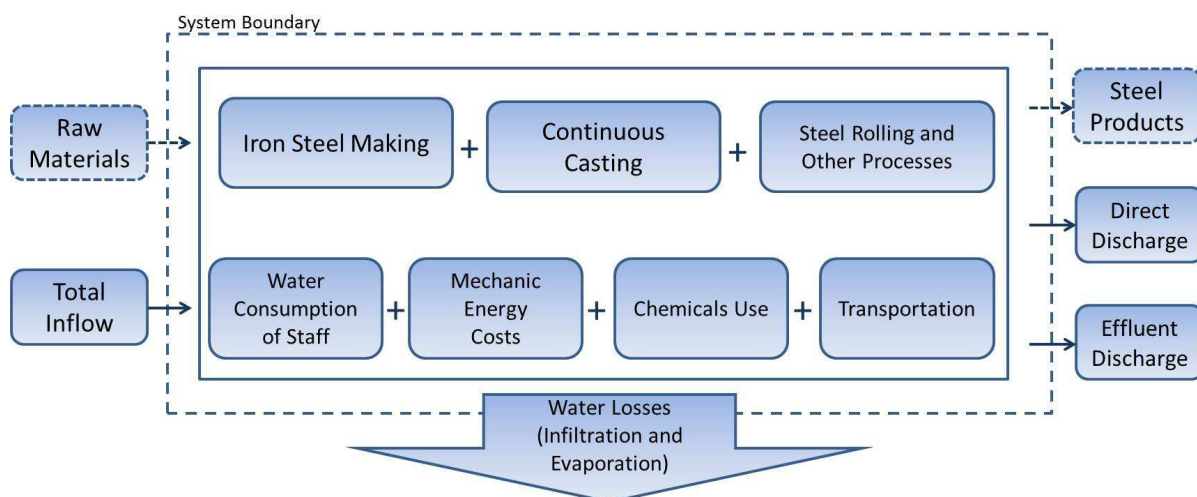


FIGURE 2. System boundary of research on the water footprint calculation of the iron and steel industry.

(Object of study in solid lines)

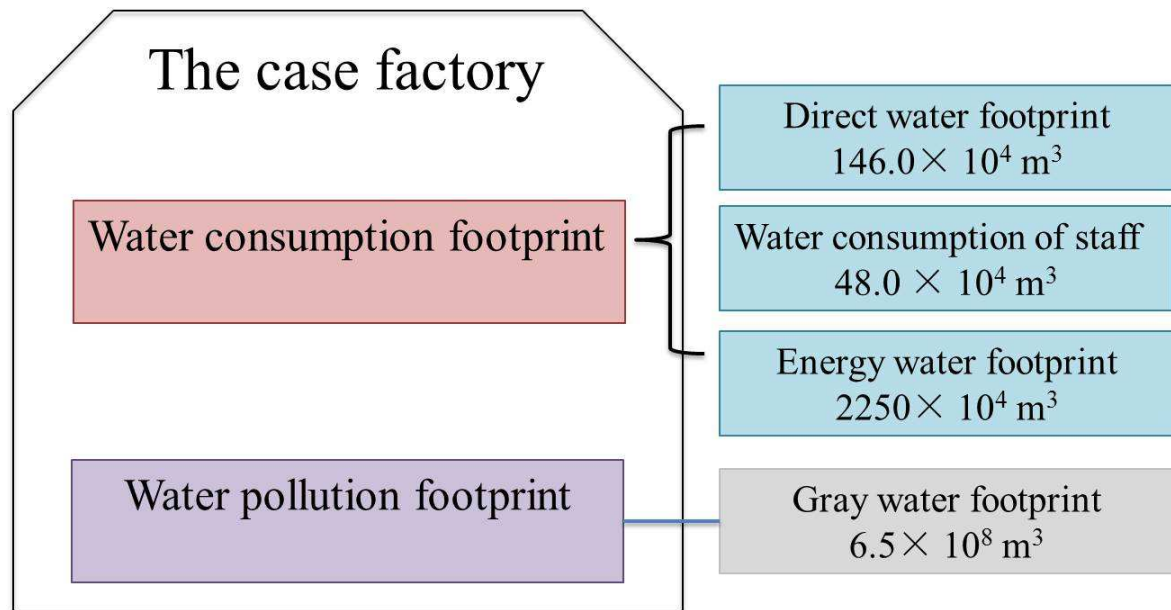


FIGURE 3. Water footprint of steelworks in 2011.

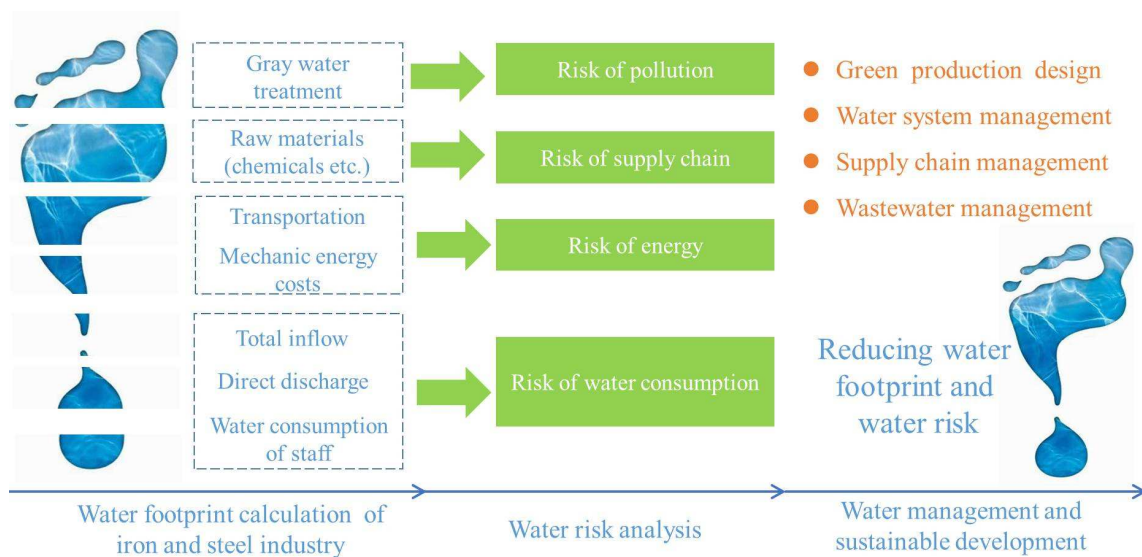


FIGURE 4: From water footprint to water risk analysis.

- We developed an overall system analysis model to evaluate industry water footprint.
- We used a Chinese iron factory as case study and made life cycle assessment.
- We calculated water consumption footprint and water pollution footprint separately.
- Water footprint is more comprehensive than the current indicators of steel industry.
- Water footprint can evaluate the water risk of the iron and steel industry.