SUSTAINABLE OPERATION OF THE NETWORK OF CHICKEN MEAT AND EGG PRODUCING AND CONSUMING INDUSTRIES VIA MANURE MANAGEMENT

by Alper Ertürk

Submitted to Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Biotechnology

Yeditepe University 2016

SUSTAINABLE OPERATION OF THE NETWORK OF CHICKEN MEAT AND EGG PRODUCING AND CONSUMING INDUSTRIES VIA MANURE MANAGEMENT

APPROVED BY:

Prof. Dr. Mustafa Özilgen (Thesis Supervisor)

Prof Dr Musday 6 Ozilge

Assist. Prof. Dr. Emrah Nikerel

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mahmut Şeker

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Prof. Dr. Mustafa Özilgen from Yeditepe University for his continuous support, patience and motivation during my M.Sc. study. His guidance and knowledge helped me to see my way in all the time of my research and thesis. It is very difficult for me to imagine having a better advisor than him.

I wish also to thank my friend Merve Gülerim for her kind support and friendship. Finally, I wish to thank all, especially to my mother Nilüfer Ünal and my father Kenan Ertürk for their endless encouragement and love throughout my life and the process of my thesis.

ABSTRACT

SUSTAINABLE OPERATION OF THE NETWORK OF CHICKEN MEAT AND EGG PRODUCING AND CONSUMING INDUSTRIES VIA MANURE MANAGEMENT

Thermodynamic analyses of a model network of chicken meat and eggs producing and consuming businesses was carried out to assess the sustainability of the production network under different manure management practices. The model network included a chicken farm, a restaurant, a pet food manufacturing plant, a vegetable garden, an olive garden, a grain field and a manure gasifier. Cumulative degree of perfection (CDP) was referred to as the numerical indicator of the sustainability. When chemical fertilizers were used in the system alone and the poultry manure was discarded, the CDP of the system was 0.66, when poultry manure was used alone to substitute the chemical fertilizers the CDP was 0.67. In the case when poultry manure was used together with bio-fertilizers, the CDP was 0.68. Gasification of the poultry manure was gasified and microbial fertilizers were employed in the agriculture.

ÖZET

GÜBRE YÖNETİMİ İLE TAVUK ETİ VE YUMURTA ÜRETİM VE TÜKETİM ENDÜSTİRİSİNDE SÜRDÜRÜLEBİLİR OPERASYON AĞI

Farklı gübre yönetimi uygulamaları altında üretim ağının sürdürülebilirliğini değerlendirmek amacıyla tavuk eti ve yumurta üretim ve tüketim faaliyetleri içeren model ağı termodinamik analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Model ağ, tavuk çiftliği, restoran, evcil hayvan yemi fabrikası, sebze bahçesi, zeytin bahçesi, hububat tarlası ve gübre gazifiyer'den oluşturulmuştur. Nümerik sürdürülebilirlik indikatörü için kümülatif mükemmellik derecesi 'ne (CDP) değinilmiştir. Suni gübre tek başına kullanılıp, tavuk gübresi sistemden çıkarıldığında sistem CDP'si 0.66, tavuk gübresi sistem içinde kullanıldığında da CDP 0.67 olarak bulunmuştur. Tavuk gübresi biyolojik gübre ile birlikte kullanıldığında ise CDP 0.68 olarak bulunmuştur. Tavuk gübresi gazifikasyonu CDP değerini 0.98'e yükselmiştir, en yüksek CDP (1.01) ise tavuk gübresi gazifikasyonu ve tarımda biyolojik gübre kullanılması ile elde edilmiştir.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKN	OWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTF	RACT	iv
ÖZET .		v
TABL	E OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST C	PF FIGURES	vii
LIST C	OF TABLES	viii
LIST C	F SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS	X
1. IN	TRODUCTION	1
11	CONCEPTS OF ENERGY AND EXERGY BALANCE	2
1.1.	POULTRY MEAT AND EGG PRODUCTION	2 A
1.2.	VEGETABLE PRODUCTION	۲ 8
1.4.	BIO-FERTILIZERS	9
2 MI	ETHODOLOGY	12
3. RE	SULTS AND DISCUSSION	21
3.1.	POULTRY FEED PRODUCTION	21
3.2.	POULTRY EGG PRODUCTION	26
3.3.	BROILER MEAT PRODUCTION	28
3.4.	VEGETABLE AND OLIVE GARDENS AND BULGUR PRODUCTION	29
3.5.	MANURE MANAGEMENT	32
3.6.	INPUTS OF THE RESTAURANT	34
3.7.	PET FOOD PRODUCTION	35
3.8.	IMPACT OF THE USE OF BIO-FERTILIZERS	36
3.9.	PERFORMANCE OF THE TOTAL SYSTEM AND THERMODYNAMIC	
ASS	ESSMENT	37
4. CC	DNCLUSION	42
REFER	ENCES	45
APPEN	IDIX A: MASS EQUATIONS AND SCENARIO COMPARISON	57

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Typical process flow diagram of poultry production
Figure 1.2. Poultry manure gasification process
Figure 1.3. Process flow chart of vegetable production9
Figure 2.1.Model network of the broiler, egg and manure producing and utilizing businesses
Figure 2.2. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the feed production, hatching, eggs,
broilers and spent hen production processes. In case of the egg production, spent hens are
the byproduct; in case of the broiler production, eggs are the byproduct15
Figure 2.3. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the egg packing, storage and
transportation processes
Figure 2.4. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the slaughterhouse and pet food
units17
Figure 2.5. System boundaries, inputs and outputs of the restaurant
Figure 2.6. System boundaries, inputs and outputs of the provision garden and the olive oil
facility

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1. Feed consumption per kg of egg from other studies
Table 1.2. Egg production rate, number of eggs per hen from other studies
Table 2.1. Thermodynamic data of inputs 20
Table 3.1. Ration for the broiler and the layer hens 21
Table 3.2. Inputs and outputs of the corn, soy, wheat and rapeseed agriculture
Table 3.3. Energy and exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission during feed agriculture and synthetic amino acid production for egg layers
Table 3.4. Energy and exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission during feed agriculture and synthetic amino acid production for broilers
Table 3.5. Energy and exergy utilization and CO2 emission associated with feed production process for egg layers
Table 3.6. Energy and exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission associated with feed production process for broiler meat (edible fraction for human consumption)
Table 3.7. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission of egg farm27
Table 3.8. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission of broiler meat farm 29
Table 3.9. Agricultural inputs to the vegetable garden
Table 3.10. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission of vegetable garden .31

Table 3.11. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission during production of olive oil and bulgur production
Table 3.12. Energy consumption rates of the equipment in the restaurant
Table 3.13. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission during pet food production
Table 3.14. Energy utilization and CO ₂ emission of fertilization with and without bio- fertilizer application to produce the amount of feed required to produce 1 ton of eggs plus 1 ton of broiler meat
Table 3.15. Energy utilization and CO ₂ emission of fertilization with and without bio- fertilizer application of vegetable garden, olive garden and bulgur production
Table 3.16. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system with manure discarded from the system
Table 3.17. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system with manure treated as fertilizer
Table 3.18. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system with manure gasification
Table 3.19. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO ₂ emission of the system with manure treated as fertilizer and inoculation of bio-fertilizers
Table 3.20. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system with manure gasification and bio-fertilizer inoculation
Table 3.21. CEnC and CExC of products that is produced in the base system
Table 3.22. Comparison of CDP's calculated for different scenarios 41

LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

CCO_2	Cumulative carbon dioxide emission
CDP	Cumulative degree of perfection
CEnC	Cumulative energy consumption
CExC	Cumulative exergy consumption
Ex	Specific exergy (MJ/kg)

In	Input
М	Mass (kg)
Out	Output
Q	Heat (kJ)
Т	Temperature (K)
W	Work (kJ)
Х	Molar fraction

1. INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is a global development concept giving priority to the satisfaction of human needs while respecting the environment, ecosystem and the animal wellbeing [1]. Developing sustainable processes became a target in many industries in our era. Sustainable production of organic foods and vegetables were among the desired goals [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7]. Assessment of the sustainability of production of the eggs had been the focus of numerous studies [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13]. Studies regarding sustainable production of chicken and sustainable operation of a chicken restaurant have also appeared in the literature recently [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20]. Although "*sustainability*" appears as like a magic word now, there is not any widely accepted numerical criteria yet to assess it.

Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) technique is widely used in order to assess the environmental impact of processes that involves in a product's life (cradle to grave). It provides detailed evaluations of resource use such as energy consumption, water usage and greenhouse gas emission of a system which can be reviewed to understand the performance of a system [9], [10], [14], [19].

Kyoto protocol, an international treaty that aims to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases which cause global warming, was accepted in in 1997. The protocol entered into force in 2005 and approved by Turkish Parliament in 2009. Turkey, classified as an Annex 1 country, agreed to reduce the greenhouse gases of carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide, methane and sulfur hexafluoride [21].

Reducing the detrimental effect of any industry on the environment is a part of the sustainability studies. The poultry industry tries to achieve the maximum meat or egg production while minimizing the greenhouse gas emissions via optimizing the feed composition [9], [10], [22], [23], [24]. Preventing over feeding or decreasing the waste are among the means for lowering the emissions. Energy utilization to produce several food products had been the subject of some studies within this context [21], [25], [26].

In the present study, energy utilization, exergy consumption and carbon dioxide emission of egg production, broiler and spent chicken meat production in a chicken farm furnished with a sustainable restaurant equipped with a vegetable garden, a solar panel system, an oil

production facility with olive trees will be evaluated. The feasibility of running a sustainable process will be discussed in terms the numerical values of the total exergy efficiency, CDP and the carbon dioxide emission of the network of egg and broiler producing and consuming industries.

1.1. CONCEPTS OF ENERGY AND EXERGY BALANCE

The first law of thermodynamics, energy balance is most widely used to assess the efficiency of a process or a system by means of energy. The energy balance is unable to provide any information about the work lost (potential) during the energy transformation processes. The exergy (available work) of a system is described as the maximum useful work that brings the system from its initial stage (original state) to the final stage (dead stage) through reversible processes [27], [28]. Exergy is used to indicate and reduce the irreversibilities in processes to improve the process efficiency. The usage of exergy methodology is an important concept to decrease the energy cost and reduce the environmental impact of systems [21].

Exergy efficiency of a process is defined as the total exergy of the products divided by the total exergy of the inputs employed in the manufacturing process [29]:

Exergy efficiency =
$$\frac{\sum (mCExC)_{products}}{\sum (mCExC)_{raw materials} + \sum (mCExC)_{fuels}}$$
(1.1)

Cumulative degree of perfection (CDP) is the ratio of the exergy of the products to the sum of the exergies of the input materials and the exergies of the non-renewable fuels [29]:

$$CDP = \frac{\sum (mCExC)_{products}}{\sum (mCExC)_{raw materials} + \sum (mCExC)_{non-renewablefuels}}$$
(1.2)

Where m is the mass of each stream entering through the system boundaries and CExC is the cumulative exergy utilization for its production. The recent publications by Xu and Flapper (2011), Wu et al. (2013) and Rodriguez-Gonzales et al. (2015) offered recommendations for substituting the less energy efficient steps of food production with the more energy efficient ones representing the general trend towards increasing the energy efficiency by decreasing the energy utilization [30], [31], [32]. Exergy destruction in the

individual processing units decreases the overall exergy efficiency of the processes. The process units where exergy destruction is the highest is determined by exergy analysis. Exergy analysis of the entire chains of pork mincemeat, pea-protein based product, and pea soup production processes were determined by Apaiah et al. (2006) as 0.09 per cent, 0.2 per cent, and 0.48 per cent, respectively [29]. Waheed et al. (2008) studied the energy consumption pattern in the orange juice manufacturing industry Nigeria, where the pasteurizer was found to be responsible for more than 90 per cent of the irreversibility [33]. Özilgen and Sorgüven (2011) assessed energy and exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission during production of soybean, sunflower, and olive oils using farm-to-fork approach [25].

The CExC (cumulative exergy consumption) associated with the production of the olive, sunflower, and soybean oils was found to be 43,050, 17,638, and 45,257 MJ/ton, respectively. In a similar study, Sorgüven and Özilgen (2012) applied the exergy analysis to compute the CExC for assessing the environmental impact of the flavored yogurt production process [26]. The analysis covered three important stages of the yogurt production i.e., agriculture, dairy farming, and industrial processes. The total exergy loss was found to be 75791.6 MJ/ton of flavored yogurt. The results showed that the milk production (dairy farming) had the highest contribution to the total exergy loss, accounting for 53 per cent of the overall exergy loss. Quijera and Labidi (2013) and Yildirim and Genc (2015) carried out exergy analysis to improve the exergy efficiency of the pasteurization of milk by employing solar and thermal energy, respectively [34], [35]. Zisopoulos et al. (2015) employed exergy analysis to compare efficiency of three industrial bread production chains, Degerli et al (2015) employed a similar methodology to calculate the farm to fork exergy efficiency of wheat and rye bread production processes in Turkey and Germany [27], [36]. In another survey, Genc and Hepbasli (2015) assessed the exergetic performance of a potato crisp frying system consisting of a combustor, a heat exchanger, and a fryer [37]. The exergetic efficiencies of the combustor, heat exchanger, and fryer were calculated as 58 per cent, 82 per cent, and 77 per cent, respectively, while the exergy efficiency of the completely frying system was 4 per cent. In a recent review, Zisopoulos et al. (2015) concluded that the exergybased indicators could lead to the sustainable design of food chains [36].

1.2. POULTRY MEAT AND EGG PRODUCTION

Conventional production of eggs is carried out in two different ways: either with furnished cages or with loose hens on barn floors. The organic egg production requires the hens to be allowed outdoors and given organic feed. They may go outdoors during the day time, and taken indoors at night. KRAV, the main certification organization of organic production in Sweden, requires four m² of outdoor area per hen for certification [22]. Laying hens require relatively high protein content and the correct amino acid composition to maintain high egg production rates [9]. A typical process flow diagram of poultry production is represented in Figure 1.1.

Although the organic egg layers eat feed that is much less energy-intensive, they consume more feed and produce fewer eggs then their non-organic counterparts [9], [10], [23]. Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 represent the feed consumption and the number of eggs laid per hen per batch reported from other studies. There is a consensus in the literature that a cage system is more efficient than an organic system since it produces more eggs per kilogram of feed, due to the combination of lower feed input and higher egg output [9], [22], [23]. Consequently, the organic egg production uses 15 per cent more energy, accompanied with 33 per cent larger carbon emission rate in comparison with the caged production [9], [22], [23].



Figure 1.1. Typical process flow diagram of poultry production

Reference Study	Production Type	kg of feed per kg of egg
Dekker et al. 2011 [10]	Cage, Barn, Free Range, Organic	1.99, 2.28, 2.33, 2.59
Wiedemann and McGahan, 2011 [9]	Free Range	2.47
Sonesson et al. 2009 [22]	Cage, Barn, Free Range	2.17, 2.00, 2.20, 2.30
Pelletier et al. 2013 [11]	Barn	2.25
Cederberg et al. 2009 [23]	Cage, Free Range, Organic	2.20 (average)

Table 1.1. Feed consumption per kg of egg from other studies

Table 1.2. Egg production rate, number of eggs per hen from other studies

Reference Study	Production Type	Number of eggs per hen	
Dekker et al. 2011 [10]	Cage, Barn, Free Range, Organic	338, 318, 302, 276	
Wiedemann and McGahan, 2011 [9]	Free Range	363	
Sonesson et al. 2009 [22]	Cage	357	
Pelletier et al. 2013 [11]	Barn	429	
Cederberg et al. 2009 [23]	Cage, Free Range, Organic	317 (average)	

Similar to egg production types, broiler production can also be divided into two groups: organic and conventional production [19, 24]. Compared to conventional production, free-range and organic production appears to have higher mortality rate and lower feed consumption rate [15], [24]. During chicken meat production, producers feed broilers with high protein content concentrates and use different types of amino acid supplements to achieve high body mass gains [15].

Feed production is a significant contributor of the energy demand and produces 55 per cent of the greenhouse gas emissions of the egg production [9]. Chemical fertilizers and poultry manure are among the inputs of feed production. Chemical fertilizers create significant impact on the environment and considered as major pollutants. There are reports that claims and discusses the high level of N_2O emissions (from nitrogen fertilizers) and potential heavy metal pollution due to some being a significant source of heavy metals because of chemical fertilizer usage [38], [39], [40].

Poultry manure is generally rich in nitrogen and phosphorus and used in crop production [41], [42]. It is usually dried before being transported to the fields and applied in low doses,

therefore requires little amounts of the spraving equipment use [43], [44], [45]. Poultry manure use in the fields gives rise to considerable ammonia emissions. Ammonia is not a greenhouse gas itself, but converted into nitrous oxide upon oxidation [44], [45], [46]. The excessive amounts of nitrogen use in the feed are avoided to prevent nitrous oxide emission. The optimum ratio of the nitrogen in the eggs to the nitrogen supplied in the feed is about 31 per cent for conventional floor hens and 35 per cent for cage hens and 29 per cent for organic eggs [22]. Poultry manure may be used as an agricultural input during crop production to reduce the chemical fertilizer application or for biogas production to produce energy via turbines [9], [10], [42], [47], [48]. The use of chemical fertilizers in practice is always higher when compared with what the plants actually need, and a good fertilizer management program can reduce the over use, and may lead to about 50 per cent reduction on N₂O emission without causing a decrease in the crop yield [6], [49]. As an alternative method, the soil microorganisms can be used to reduce or eliminate the usage of chemical fertilizers and may have different beneficial effects according to bacterial strains, environmental, plantcrop and soil conditions [50]. In order to identify the most efficient growth-promoting microorganism extensive researches are need to be done as it may affect the results negatively [51], [52], [53].

Apart from the traditional use of manure as fertilizer, poultry manure is also a substrate for biogas production for power generation using gasifier agents such as propane, steam, CO₂ or by induction heat. Biomass gasification can be expressed as the conversion of the biomass material into a gas fuel called as syngas. Syngas then can be used to generate energy by using turbines. Gasifier and turbine properties are also important as the energy generation should yield a positive value when compared to consumption of the process. The process flow diagram of gasification is given in Figure 1.2 [42], [47], [48].



Figure 1.2. Poultry manure gasification process [48]

LDPE, polystyrene, polyethylene, recycled paper and corrugated cardboard are the typical packaging materials used in the poultry industry [15], [19], [54]. Polystyrene is used widely to produce eggcups and trays. Recycled paper was also used for packaging, have less environmental impact in general but causes higher contamination with metals and carcinogenic substances [54].

1.3. VEGETABLE PRODUCTION

Agriculture is one the major sectors in Turkey and has a significant influence Turkey's economy. The vegetable production of tomato, eggplant, cucumber and pepper are among the highest [4], [5], [6]. Among the other vegetable crops, tomato has the highest share in world agriculture production with approximately 126 million tons per annum. In Turkey, the share of tomato production in vegetable agriculture constitutes 38 per cent of the total vegetable production [6], [21]. Production of vegetables can be produced both in open fields

or undercover in greenhouses. Greenhouse is a closed structure that the climatic conditions are controlled to produce agricultural plants [4], [5]. Chemical fertilizers, organic manure, agro chemicals, electricity (for irrigation systems), diesel oil (for farm machinery such as tractors) are the main inputs required for the production vegetables [21]. The consumption of energy and chemicals leads to pollution thus it is important to reduce such pollutants. Typical process flow diagram for vegetable production is represented in Figure 1.3.



Figure 1.3. Process flow chart of vegetable production

1.4. BIO-FERTILIZERS

Chemical fertilizer usage has a significant impact on the environmental burdens and they are considered as one of the major pollutants in agriculture. There are reports that claims and discusses the high level of N_2O emissions (from nitrogen fertilizers) and potential heavy metal pollution due to some being a significant source of heavy metals because of chemical fertilizer usage [38], [39], [40].

It was reported that the usage of chemical fertilizer is always higher when compared to the needs of soil and fertilizer management can reduce the over usage that will yield approx. 50 per cent reduction on N_2O emission with the same amount of crop yield [6], [49].

Fertilizer usage in poultry industry is important as it is used to produce crops for poultry feed. Wiedemann and McGahan (2011) reported that the feed production is the biggest contributor of the energy demand and produces 55 per cent of the greenhouse gas emissions of the egg production [9].

As an alternative method, the soil microorganisms can be used to reduce or eliminate the usage of chemical fertilizers and may have different beneficial effects according to bacterial strains, environmental, plant-crop and soil conditions [50]. In order to identify the most efficient growth-promoting microorganism extensive researches are need to be done as it may affect the results negatively [51], [52], [53].

Haghighi and Yarmahmodi (2011) reported 21 per cent increase in corn grain yield upon using biological and chemical fertilizers together, in comparison with the case where chemical fertilizers were used alone [55]. According to Janagard et al (2013), after inoculating the soybean seeds with *B. Japonicum* plus phosphate solubilizing bacteria (PSB) the crop yield increased by 1.64 folds while using only 33 per cent of the recommended dose of chemical fertilizers (RDF) [56]. In a study carried out during rapeseed production, the use bio-fertilizer usage improved the yield by 6.7 per cent [57]. Dahmardeh (2013) reported that the utilization of the phosphate bio-fertilizer can reduce the need for chemical phosphate fertilizer by more than 50 per cent; and the combined usage of bio-fertilizers can increase the seed yield (kg per ha) by 32 - 35 per cent with respect to no bio-fertilizer inoculation [58]. Cakmakci et al (2014) reported the grain yield and biomass yield of wheat production as 4.0 t/ha and 13.1 t/ha for chemical fertilizer application and 3.75 t/ha and 11.25 t/ha for mixed bio-fertilizer inoculation [59].

It was reported that the chemical fertilizer usage of tomato production could be reduced by 50 per cent with the synergistic use of *Funneliformis mosseae* and *Bacillus sonorensis* [60]. During agriculture of peppers, 29 per cent increase in yield was reported upon using of bio-

fertilizer produced by using *Lumbricus rubellus* [61]. It was also reported that the biofertilization with Azotobacter could reduce 50 per cent of chemical fertilizer usage and yield similar fruit size, weight and pericarp thickness [62]. Isfahani et al (2013) reported the effect of bio-fertilizer usage on cucumber production [63]. According to results, the highest product yield was obtained by using plant growth promoting rhizobacteria. It was also reported that maximum N, P and Zn concentration could be achieved by using 75 per cent chemical fertilizer + bio-fertilizer. It was reported that inoculation of Azotobacter with the combination of PSB could reduce the amount chemical fertilizer usage in eggplant production [64], [65]. When compared to 100 per cent chemical fertilizer treatment, half dose of chemical fertilizer with the combination of bio-fertilizers resulted almost the same amount of fruit yield per plant. According to a bio-fertilization study on cluster beans, biofertilizer combination of Azotobacter, Rhizobium, PSB and Vesicular - Arbuscular Mycorrizha (VAM) achieved higher pod yield, pot length and chlorophyll content when compared to inorganic fertilizer usage thus validating the bio-fertilization can replace the chemical fertilizer usage [66]. It was also reported by Ramana et al (2010) that the coinoculation of bio-fertilizers with 75 per cent recommended dose of chemical fertilizer use improved the seed weight and the pod length by 12 per cent, and pod yield per hectare by 20 per cent, with respect to chemical fertilizer usage alone [67]. For the olive production, Haggag et al (2014) reported that the inoculation of bio-fertilizers with 25 per cent nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium fertilizers increased the nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium content of the olive seedling with respect to the case carried out with no biological fertilizers [68].

2. METHODOLOGY

In the present study, either chicken meat or the eggs are the main products; manure and spent chicken are the byproducts. Spent hens, broiler slaughter waste and the other by-products (blood, feather, head and intestines) are used for animal feed production, or processed further for human consumption [11], [15], [69].

The chicken meat and eggs producing and consuming network of businesses consisted of a chicken farm, a restaurant, a pet food manufacturing plant, a vegetable garden, an olive garden and a grain field (Figure 2.1). This network was used as a model to simulate the exergy efficiency and the cumulative degree of perfection of the interacting industries under different manure and fertilizer management practices. The cumulative degree of perfection and the exergy efficiency of the total network are employed as the measure of the sustainability of the network.

The data regarding each industry are obtained from the literature and the equipment specifications sheets of the manufacturers. The system and the sub-system boundaries around which the mass, energy and the exergy balances, e.g., equations 2.1 through 2.3, respectively, performed are shown in Figures 2.1 - 2.6:

Mass balance:
$$\sum (m)_{in} - \sum (m)_{out} = 0$$
 (2.1)

Energy balance:
$$\sum (mh)_{in} - \sum (mh)_{out} = Q - W$$
 (2.2)

Exergy balance:
$$\Sigma(\text{mb})_{in} - \Sigma(\text{mb})_{out} - \Sigma_k Q_k \left(1 - \frac{T_0}{T_k}\right) - W = X_{loss}$$
 (2.3)

Thermodynamic data, which is needed to solve equations 1.3-1.5 are listed in Table 2.1. Exergy is defined as the maximum work that a system can produce, if brought to thermal, mechanical and chemical equilibrium with its surrounding via reversible processes without violating the laws of thermodynamics [25].

Chemical fertilizers, pesticides (agrochemicals), diesel oil, electricity, irrigation water and seed are the main inputs of feed production (Figure 2.2) and vegetable garden. Water used in all processes assumed as fully recycled. For the transportation of broiler and layer feed

inputs, calculations are based on 10 toner heavy-duty trucks that utilize 0,287 L/km of diesel with the density of 0.771 kg/L and traveling at speed of 90 km/h [70], [71].

Carbon dioxide emission factors are reported to be 0.85 kg/kg with natural gas, 0.14 MJ/kg with electricity and 0.94 kg/kg with diesel [72], [73]. Hatchery, broiler farms, egg farms, slaughterhouse, olive garden and vegetable garden were assumed as adjacent to the restaurant thus, there would be no environmental impact of transportation considered. The packaging materials needed for the egg production were recycled; therefore, the energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide utilization related with these materials are excluded. Specific energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission factors are collected from the literature and given in Table 2.1.

Energy utilization, exergy utilization carbon dioxide emissions regarding human labor is excluded as it is not possible to collect representative data. Equipment for the production steps includes hatcher, grader and pet food line are selected from web sites-resources and in addition to the equipment, the details related to the energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon-dioxide emission are selected and calculated.



Figure 2.1.Model network of the broiler, egg and manure producing and utilizing businesses



Figure 2.2. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the feed production, hatching, eggs, broilers and spent hen production processes. In case of the egg production, spent hens are the byproduct; in case of the broiler production, eggs are the byproduct



Figure 2.3. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the egg packing, storage and transportation processes



Figure 2.4. System boundaries, inputs and the outputs of the slaughterhouse and pet food units



Figure 2.5. System boundaries, inputs and outputs of the restaurant



Figure 2.6. System boundaries, inputs and outputs of the provision garden and the olive oil facility

Inputs	Units	Specific CEnC/unit	Specific CExC/unit	Specific CCO ₂ /kg	
-Energy sources-					
Diesel	L	44.3 [26]	41.0 [29]	0.72 [72]	
Electricity	MJ	1.0 [74]	4.2 [29]	0.14 [72]	
Natural gas	m ³	38.9 [75]	37.9 [29]	0.85 [72]	
		-Fertilizers-			
Lime	kg	0.10 [75], [76]	10.0 [25]	0.79 [25]	
Nitrogen (N)	kg	78.2 [77]	32.7 [29]	7.1 [78]	
Phosphate (P ₂ O ₅)	kg	17.5 [77]	7.5 [79]	2.7 [78]	
Potassium (K ₂ O)	kg	13.8 [77]	4.6 [80]	25.0 [78]	
Sulfur ¹	kg	8.9 [81]	37.1 [29]	1.2 [72]	
		-Agrochemical	s-		
Herbicides	kg	198.8 [26]	368.4 [82]	6.3 [27]	
Insecticides	kg	198.8 [26]	344.0 [82]	5.1 [27]	
Fungicides	kg	198.8 [26]	256.0 [82]	3.9 [27]	
		-Pack material	S-		
HDPE	kg	3.2 [26]	86.0 [26]	0.45 [26]	
LDPE	kg	As	ssumed as recycl	lable	
Polyethylene	kg	As	ssumed as recycl	lable	
Polystyrene	kg	As	ssumed as recycl	lable	
		-Seed-			
Corn ²	kg	14.7 [83]	20.5 [25]	0.55 [25]	
Rapeseed ²	kg	29.2 [89]	40.8 [25]	1.1 [25]	
Soybean	kg	35.0 [25]	48.9 [25]	1.3 [25]	
Wheat	kg	2.8 [84]	18.7 [84]	0.23 [84]	
-Water-					
Irrigation	m ³	0.63 [85]	2.6 [29]	0.09 [72]	
Other processes	L	0.06 [74]	0.25 [29]	0.01 [86]	
-Products (depending on nutrient content)-					
Protein	kg	23.8 [26]	25.4 [26]	-	
Fat	kg	39.0 [26]	39.6 [26]	-	
Carbohydrate	kg	17.9 [26]	17.5 [26]	-	

Table 2.1. Thermodynamic data of inputs

¹ Sulfur is assumed as produced with electricity. CEnC and CExC of sulfur calculated accordingly.

 $^{^{2}}$ CExC and CCO₂ of corn and rapeseed seed is calculated according to those of soybean.

³Water is assumed as supplied from water wells. CEnC, CExC and CCO_2 is calculated according to the electricity needs for water pumps.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. POULTRY FEED PRODUCTION

Table 3.1 presents a simplified ration employed to produce 1 ton of egg and 1 ton of broiler meat based on the data adapted from the literature [9], [10], [12], [14], [24]. In this study, we assumed input of 2.2 kg of feed consumption per kg of egg production and output of 293 eggs per layer hen. For the broiler production operations, feed conversion ratio (FCR) taken as 1.9 [12]. Using the feed consumption rates, the feed requirement for the broiler production was calculated as 2649 kg (55 per cent) and for the egg production as 2205 kg (45 per cent).

Feed Ration	Ration (per cent)
Corn	65
Soymeal	19
Limestone	7
Rapeseed meal	3
Wheat	2
Soybean oil	1
Rapeseed oil	1
Synthetic amino acids	3
Total	100

Table 3.1. Ration for the broiler and the layer hens

The agricultural feed inputs for corn, soy, wheat and rapeseed are collected from the literature and represented in Table 3.2 [12], [27], [81], [89], [90], [91]. It was assumed that the fields received sufficient rainfall, and did not need irrigation. Corn production inputs of LPG and gasoline were substituted with natural gas and diesel in this study. Sulfur fertilizer for corn and soy agriculture was produced with electric power while calculating the energy need and environmental burdens. The pesticide used for the rapeseed production was 0.16 kg/t of Metazachlor (herbicide) and 0.03 kg/t of Esfenvalerate (insecticide) [91], [92]. Soybean and rapeseed yields two important products after extraction, meal and oil. The meal to oil ratio was 83 per cent to 17 per cent for the soybean, and 62 per cent to 38 per cent for rapeseed [12], [27], [81], [89], [90], [91], [93].

Innuta	Corn	Soy	Wheat	Rapeseed
inputs	[12]	[81]	[27], [94]	[89], [90], [91]
Fertilizer - N (kg)	50.6	2.0	3.2	14.4
Fertilizer - P ₂ O ₅ (kg)	17.4	6.6	2.3	2.3
Fertilizer - K ₂ O (kg)	17.9	11.0	0.0	0.0
Fertilizer - sulfur (kg)	0.8	0.2	0.0	0.0
Fertilizer - lime (kg)	105	0.0	0.0	0.0
Diesel (L)	14.1	15.9	5.2	10.4
Gas (L)	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
LPG (L)	22.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Electricity (MJ)	49.0	0.0	0.0	6.9
Herbicides (kg)	0.75	1.2	0.0	0.0
Insecticides (kg)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fungicides (kg)	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Seed (kg)	6.6	31.3	7.2	0.3
Diesel for transportation (L/km)	0.287	0.287	0.287	0.287
Output				
Crop yield (kg)	3,140	1,124	83	235

Table 3.2. Inputs and outputs of the corn, soy, wheat and rapeseed agriculture

The fertilizer used during agriculture was 70.8 kg/t with rapeseed, 66.6 kg/t with wheat, 61.1 kg/t with corn, and 17.6 kg/t with soy. Wheat and soy production requires the highest amount of the pesticide use, e.g., 1.29 kg and 1.06 kg/t of crop, respectively. Diesel utilization was 5.56 L/t with corn, 14.1 L/t with soy, 63.4 L/t with wheat and 44.2 L/t with rapeseed [12], [27], [81], [89].

The natural gas is only used for corn production, calculated as 7.02 m³/t. Each crop is transported to a feed milling factory 50 km away from the fields. Based on the feed ration, the energy utilization for the crops is calculated as 11,399 MJ, exergy utilization as 9,641 MJ and carbon dioxide emission as 1,510 kg.

Limestone production is adapted from Thuresson (1996), in order to produce 330.07 kg limestone, 69.3 MJ electricity, 0.93 m³ natural gas and 347 kg water is required [95]. Processed limestone than to be transported to milling facility that is assumed 50 km far from the limestone quarry. With this data, the calculated energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission are 190 MJ, 470 MJ and 15 kg.

Energy utilization during production of the synthetic amino acids was 86 MJ/kg [9], [96]. It is assumed that 45 per cent of the energy for the amino acid production comes from electricity, 30 per cent from diesel and 25 per cent from natural gas. Addition to these inputs, diesel usage for the transportation to the milling facility based on 50 km distance is calculated. Based on 121 kg of feed ration of energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission were calculated as 10,500 MJ, 25,080 MJ and 767 kg CO₂.

In order to supply the feed needed for 1 ton of egg and 1 ton of broiler meat production, total energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission at the gate of milling facility is calculated and represented in Table 3.3 and Table 3.4.

The feed milling facility consists the operation of conveying, cleaning, pressing, grinding, extraction and milling. Equipment except the milling machine is directly adapted from Özilgen and Sorgüven (2011) [25]. Pressing, grinding and extraction processes is only used for soybean and rapeseed to produce soybean meal, soybean oil, rapeseed meal and rapeseed oil.

After the milling operations, feed is transported to the poultry farm that is assumed to be 50 km far from the milling facility. Excess soybean oil and rapeseed oil assumed to be sold out of the system and diesel usage of the trucks calculated according to 50 km distance. The total energy utilization of agriculture and synthetic amino acid production, feed milling and transportation was 22897 MJ, exergy utilization was 38144 MJ and carbon dioxide emission was 2388 kg (Table 3.5 and Table 3.6).

	CEnC/ton of	CExC/ton of	CCO ₂ /ton of	
Input	eggs (MJ/ton)	eggs (MJ/ton)	eggs (kg/ton)	
Chemical fertilizers	2,909	1,695	628	
Agrochemicals	192	353	6.0	
Diesel-oil	2,413	2,233	39	
Natural Gas	1,591	1,550	35	
Electricity	2,190	9,131	307	
Seeds	554	822	21	
Process Water	9.4	39	1.3	
Transportation to milling facility	173	160	2.8	
Total	10,032	15,983	1,041	

Table 3.3. Energy and exergy utilization and CO2 emission during feed agriculture andsynthetic amino acid production for egg layers

 Table 3.4. Energy and exergy utilization and CO2 emission during feed agriculture and synthetic amino acid production for broilers

Input	CEnC/ton of broiler meat (MJ/ton)	CExC/ton of broiler meat (MJ/ton)	CCO2/ton of broiler meat (kg/ton)
Chemical fertilizers	3,496	2,037	755
Agrochemicals	231	424	7.2
Diesel-oil	2,900	2,683	47
Natural Gas	1,912	1,862	42
Electricity	2,632	10,974	368
Seeds	666	988	25
Process Water	11	47	1.6
Transportation to milling facility	208	193	3.4
Total	12,056	19,208	1,251

Energy **CEnC/ton CExC/ton** CCO₂/ton **Processing step and** consumption of egg of egg of egg equipment details (MJ/ton) (MJ/h)(MJ/ton) (kg/ton) Agriculture of feed and 10,032 15,983 1,041 synthetic amino acid production Conveying 15 8.5 35 1 (Motovario- V1FD 24 P90) Cleaning 4 0.5 17 1 (TQLZ63 x 100) Grinding 1 67 7 29 (Jiadi Machinery LTMJ-4) Pressing 40 81 340 11 (Anyang GEMCO YZS-120) Extraction 27 4 11 112 (Jiadi Machinery D-1688) Milling 79 181 755 25 (Rotex Master YHKJ-250) Transportation to poultry farm, 29 28 0.5 50 km Transportation of excess rapeseed and soybean oil to 29 28 0.5 50 km Total 10,399 17,324 1,085

 Table 3.5. Energy and exergy utilization and CO2 emission associated with feed production

 process for egg layers

Processing step and equipment details	Energy consumption (MJ/h)	CEnC/ton of broiler meat (MJ/ton)	CExC/ton of broiler meat (MJ/ton)	CCO ₂ /ton of broiler meat (kg/ton)
Agriculture of feed and synthetic amino acid production		12,056	19,208	1,251
Conveying (Motovario- V1FD 24 P90)	15	10	42	1
Cleaning (TQLZ63 x 100)	0.5	5	21	1
Grinding (Jiadi Machinery LTMJ-4)	67	8	34	1
Pressing (Anyang GEMCO YZS-120)	40	98	408	14
Extraction (Jiadi Machinery D-1688)	11	32	135	5
Milling (Rotex Master YHKJ-250)	79	218	907	30
Transportation to poultry farm, 50 km		35	32	1
Transportation of excess rapeseed and soybean oil to 50 km		35	32	1
Total		12,497	20,820	1,304

Table 3.6. Energy and exergy utilization and CO₂ emission associated with feed production process for broiler meat (edible fraction for human consumption)

3.2. POULTRY EGG PRODUCTION

When the efficiency of egg production was 293 eggs/hen, the mortality rate at the hatchery and farm was 4 per cent, the amount of eggs incubated in the hatcher was be 62 eggs/ton of egg and the incubation period was 21 days. Under these conditions the power requirement and capacity of the egg hatcher (Wei Qian, China) was 0.2 kW and 1,056 eggs/batch, respectively. The energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of the hatcher was calculated as 21.6 MJ/t, 88.6 MJ/t and 2.98 kg CO₂/t of eggs.

During the production of the layer hens, electric power utilization in the farm was mainly for ventilation and lightning of the environment. In a Swedish LCA study, farm electricity consumption for barn hens and furnished cages were reported as 260 kWh per ton eggs and 316 kWh per ton eggs [22]. For this study, it is assumed that the electricity consumption
would be similar with barn hen production. Before each production batch, the hen house is emptied for cleaning and disinfection. There will be no heating required as the heat generated by chicks is sufficient to maintain optimal temperature range unless the batch production starts during winter [22]. In a LCA study of Dutch egg production systems, farm water usage and manure production were calculated as ~90 L per hen and 20 kg per hen [10]. The water usage in the poultry production was reported to be lower for industrial systems with respect to domestic production as in industrial systems, animals consume more concentrated feed, move less and are bred to grow faster [97]. It was also reported that each hen weighs approx. 1.7 kg at the end of each production cycle [98]. According to these data, the energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission associated with ventilation, lightning and water usage is calculated as 1,246 MJ, 5,195 MJ and 174 kg (Table 9). The byproducts of the egg production were 1,140 kg of manure and 97 kg of spent hen. The eggs are cleaned by manual labor and graded with AZSMT grading machine (Azeus, China, model 108, capacity 5400 pcs/hour, power requirement 0.5 kW). Eggs were stored in the in cold storage for 5 days before they before they were moved to the restaurant. Electric power requirement of the cold storage was 0.0017 - 0.0009 MJ/kg day [99]. The total energy and, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission associated with egg production were calculated as 1,328 MJ/t, 5,535 MJ/t and 186 kg/t of eggs, respectively (Table 3.7).

Processing Step and Equipment Details	CEnC per ton of egg (MJ/ton)	CExC per ton of egg (MJ/ton)	CCO2 per ton of egg (kg/t)
Hatching (Wei Qian WQ-1056)	21	89	3
Electricity for lightning and ventilation	938	3,911	131
Water usage	308	1,284	43
Grading (AZSMT-100)	54	224	8
Cold storage for 5 days	7	27	1
Total	1,327	5,534	186

Table 3.7. Energy utilization,	exergy utilization and	CO_2 emission of	of egg farm
()		-	()()

3.3. BROILER MEAT PRODUCTION

For the broiler production, mortality rate of 4 per cent is assumed for both hatchery and farm operations. The hatching machine is assumed as the same machine used for the egg production (Wei Qian WQ-1056). The average live slaughter weight of a broiler was 2.26 kg [14]. The amount of the broiler eggs needed to produce one ton of broiler meat calculated from the given data as 669 egg/t of broiler meat. The energy and exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of hatchery was 230 MJ/t, 959 MJ/t and 32 kg CO₂/t of broiler meat, respectively.

In a Swedish LCA study, the total energy requirement of the broiler farm was reported as 0.78 kWh/bird for diesel oil and 0.13 kWh/bird for electricity [100]. Pelletier (2008) reported the farm data of a commercial scale broiler facility according to industry norms as 64.8 kWh for electricity and 80.7 L for LPG (assumed as natural gas) per ton of broiler produced [14]. The water usage and manure production were reported as 7 L per broiler grown and 650 kg per ton of broiler produced [14], [15]. From this data, we can calculate the total water usage and manure produce 1 ton of broiler meat as 4,319 L and 906 kg, respectively. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of broiler farm is calculated as 2338 MJ, 3560 MJ and 98 kg per ton of broiler meat.

Broilers are moved to slaughterhouse at the end of the production cycle. Slaughterhouse in this study assumed to be a mini slaughterhouse adjacent to the facilities. According to a Danish LCA study, the energy needs in the slaughterhouse reported as 1.06 kWh for electricity and 0.444 MJ for natural gas per broiler processed. It was also reported that 0.138 kWh/broiler of district heat bought in order to supply the energy demand, in this study district heat assumed as natural gas. The energy burdens associated with water usage is also included in the electricity demand and the water assumed to be received from wells. For the packaging, it is reported that 54 g cardboard, 14 g polyethylene and 15 g LDPE was used per broiler. For this study, energy requirements for the packaging materials are excluded as after slaughtering, the product is carried to the restaurant, and the packages can be used more than once. Because of the production of 1-ton broiler meat, 112 kg by-product and 282 kg slaughter waste is produced at slaughterhouse [15]. The calculated energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide for the slaughterhouse operation were 2,850 MJ, 10,301 MJ and 340 kg CO₂ per ton of chicken meat (Table 3.8). The broilers are stored for 5 days under

the same conditions as eggs after coming out from the slaughterhouse. The total energy and exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of the broiler production were 5,425 MJ/t, 14,847 MJ/t and 472 kg/t, respectively (Table 3.8).

Processing Step and Equipment Details	CEnC per ton of meat (MJ/ton)	CExC per ton of meat (MJ/ton)	CCO ₂ per ton of meat (kg/t)
Hatching (Wei Qian WQ-1056)	230	959	32
Electricity and natural gas for farm	2,079	2,479	62
Water usage	259	1,081	36
Slaughterhouse operations	2,850	10,301	340
Cold storage for 5 days	7	27	1
Total	5,425	14,847	472

Table 3.8. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO₂ emission of broiler meat farm

3.4. VEGETABLE AND OLIVE GARDENS AND BULGUR PRODUCTION

Beans, cucumbers, eggplants and tomatoes are cultivated in the vegetable garden. Data regarding their agricultural inputs are obtained from the literature (Table 3.9). The total use of the pesticide was 0.16 kg/t for tomatoes, 1.64 kg/t for peppers, 1.04/t kg for cucumbers, 1.75 kg/t for the eggplants and 0.21 kg/t for beans [4], [6], [101]. Data regarding the agriculture of tomato agriculture shows that 41 per cent of the agrochemicals used in agriculture were for pesticides, 31 per cent were fungicides and 28 per cent were herbicides. The same ratio was used in our calculations also for peppers, cucumbers and eggplants. Irrigation water is supplied from a water well with the utilization of electric power. Total organic manure and seed use during the agriculture of these plants was 581 kg/t and 0.0038 kg/t. The manure was the byproduct of the egg and broiler production, and the amount of seed was so small that it did not make significant impact on the calculations. Energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission for the total of agriculture of one ton of each vegetable was 8,184 MJ, 11,491 MJ and 1,715 kg, respectively (Table 3.10).

Bulgur is produced outside the system boundaries and transported to the restaurant. Total energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of olive oil production was 39,226 MJ/t, 42,224 MJ/t and 1,280 kg/t, respectively (Table 3.11). For the bulgur production, total

energy utilization was reported as 13,668 MJ/t, exergy utilization as 27,723 MJ/t and CO_2 as 1,168 kg/t (Table 3.11).

	Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture
Innute	of	of	of	of	of
Inputs	tomatoes	peppers	cucumbers	eggplants	beans
	[6]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[101]
Fertilizer - N (kg)	3.0	3.6	2.3	3.8	2.1
Fertilizer - P ₂ O ₅ (kg)	3.0	3.6	2.9	6.0	51.0
Fertilizer - K ₂ O (kg)	1.1	3.1	3.0	4.9	34.0
Diesel (L)	7.5	2.9	8.0	7.3	36.8
Electricity (MJ)	0.0	90.0	76.0	192.0	310.0
Manure (kg)	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3	580.0
Pesticides	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.0
(general) (kg)	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.0
Fungicides (kg)	0.1	0.8	0.5	0.9	0.1
Herbicides (kg)	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.0
Insecticides (kg)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Water for	21.0	67	5.2	0.2	1.6
irrigation (m ³)	51.0	0.7	5.5	8.3	1.0
Seeds (kg)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Outputs					
Yield (kg)	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000

Table 3.9. Agricultural inputs to the vegetable garden

	CEnC/ton	CExC/ton	CO ₂ emission/ton	
Input	of vegetable	of vegetable	of vegetable	
	(MJ/ton)	(MJ/ton)	(kg/ton)	
~	-Bean pro	oduction-	1.000	
Chemical fertilizers	1,529	609	1,003	
Agro chemicals	42	67	1	
Diesel-oil	1,633	1,511	27	
Electricity	1,115	4,648	156	
Water for irrigation	1	4	0.1	
Total	4,319	6,839	1,187	
	-Tomato p	roduction-		
Chemical fertilizers	302	126	57	
Agro chemicals	31	47	1	
Diesel-oil	331	306	5	
Water for irrigation	19	81	3	
Total	683	560	66	
-Pepper production-				
Chemical fertilizers	385	158	113	
Agro chemicals	326	497	8	
Diesel-oil	129	119	2	
Electricity	90	375	13	
Water for irrigation	4	18	1	
Total	934	1,167	135	
	-Cucumber	production-		
Chemical fertilizers	271	111	99	
Agro chemicals	206	314	5	
Diesel-oil	354	327	6	
Electricity	76	317	11	
Water for irrigation	3	14	0.5	
Total	911	1,083	121	
	-Eggplant p	production-		
Chemical fertilizers	468	191	165	
Agro chemicals	347	529	8	
Diesel-oil	324	300	5	
Electricity	192	800	27	
Water for irrigation	5	22	1	
Total	1,336	1,842	206	
	-Total of vege	table garden-	•	
Total	8,183	11,491	1,716	

Table 3.10. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO₂ emission of vegetable garden

	CEnC/ton of	CExC/ton of	CO ₂ emission/ton
Input	product	product	of product
_	(MJ/ton)	(MJ/ton)	(kg/ton)
	-Olive oil produ	ction [25]-	
Chemical fertilizers	988	410	110
Agro chemicals	13,268	12,019	194
Diesel-oil	19,635	18,182	321
Water for irrigation	242	1,008	34
Processing and Packaging	5,093	10,605	621
Total	39,226	42,224	1,280
	-Bulgur produc	ction [84]-	
Chemical Fertilizers	4,011	1,683	400
Agrochemicals	291	451	7
Diesel-oil	4,140	3,830	68
Water for irrigation	4	18	6
Seeds	277	1,851	23
Processing and Packaging	4,881	19,831	663
Transportation to restaurant	64	59	1
Total	13,669	27,724	1,168

 Table 3.11. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission during production of olive oil and bulgur production

3.5. MANURE MANAGEMENT

In this study, multiple manure management scenarios are evaluated and their impact on the total system performance is calculated. In the original system, only a small amount of manure is used in the vegetable garden to provide the organic manure need and the rest of the manure is considered to be sold or discarded from the system without any recycling process. In the second scenario it is considered that the manure is recycled in the system by replacing the amount of fertilizer usage in feed and vegetable production because of its high nitrogen content [9], [15].

Manure sometimes needs to be dried before the transportation and application to the crop fields [22]. In this study, it is assumed that the manure is continuously ventilated and removed to control the moisture content in optimal levels.

Total manure need of vegetable garden was calculated as 581 kg. In order to allocate the manure need for the vegetable garden, 50 per cent of the need is supplied using the manure produced because of egg production and the remaining 50 per cent is supplied by manure yield of broiler meat production. The rest of the manure (859.5 kg from egg production, 625.9 kg from broiler meat production) is sold to poultry feed producers.

Hen manure contains 5.9 per cent nitrogen (N), 2.0 per cent phosphorus (P), 2.1 per cent potassium (K) and 0.5 per cent sulfur (S) [41]. The manure fertilizer replacement or substitution ratio represents the fertilizer value of manure (i.e. If the substitution ratio is 0.5 for nitrogen, it represents that 50 per cent of the chemical nitrogen can be substitute by manure nitrogen content [9]. The fertilizer replacement ratio of the poultry manure is assumed as 0.5, 0.6 and 0.8 for N, P and K, respectively. For sulfur, fertilizer ratio is assumed as 0.6 (average of N/P/K replacement ratio). According to manure yield of 859 kg/t of egg production, 25.1 kg of N-fertilizer, 10.2 kg of P-fertilizer, 14.3 kg of K-fertilizer and 2.5 kg of S-fertilizer can be replaced with the manure during feed production.

One ton of broiler manure may be used to replace 30 kg of nitrogen, 30 kg phosphorus and 20 kg potassium fertilizer during agriculture [14]. Therefore, 626 kg of poultry manure may substitute for 18.5 kg of N-fertilizer, 18.5 kg of P-fertilizer and 12.3 kg of K-fertilizer during production of one ton of broiler meat.

Transportation of the manure to feed production farms is also considered by assuming the diesel usage to 50 km distance. The total manure fertilizer value, energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of broiler and egg production including the transportation of manure to crop fields is calculated. The energy utilization of manure management should be considered as a minus value (except transportation) as it should decrease the amount of chemical fertilizer usage, thus decrease the energy need and environmental impacts.

As an alternative to manure management scenario, the manure is used to produce syngas using a gasifier. The syngas then can be used in a generator to generate electricity that can be used in restaurant, poultry farm or vegetable garden. It is reported that various gasification agents such as propane, CO₂, steam or induction heating can be used to supply the heat needed for the gasification [42], [47], [48], [102]. According to a gasification study, poultry manure fed at a rate of 300 kg/h to produce 654 kWh electricity and 40 kg ash using gasifier

with induction heating and a turbine with a conversion rate of 29.8 per cent [48]. Koger and Bull (2005) reported that optimizing the temperature of gasifier can reduce the need of gasifier agent for the reaction [47]. Fernandez-Lopez et al (2016) reported that the net energy gains from the gasification process to produce electricity was negative due to energy consumption of drying and gasification processes but from an economical perspective it is more viable due to the high sales price of energy [42].

The energy consumption of the gasification process can be compensated by using solar panels (Suntech STP-285-24) with the dimensions of 1.956 m x 0.992 m and irradiance of 0.8 kW/m^2 . If the region that this scenario is applied is getting 5 hours of efficient sun light for 365 days, each panel generates 10,198 MJ/ year of electricity. The total energy consumption of the gasification is calculated as 15,636 MJ assuming same amount of manure that was used for fertilizer replacement scenario therefore 2 solar panels are sufficient enough to supply the energy. By using the same type of turbine as used in the study of Torretta et al (2013), the total energy generation from gasifier is calculated as 11,607 MJ/year [48]. CO₂ emission caused by gasifier is negligible (163 kg) when compared to total emission reduction by electricity generation thus not accounted in the calculations [48].

3.6. INPUTS OF THE RESTAURANT

The restaurant is open to business for 12 hours a day, and serves daily to 27 customers. The calculations were based on the daily consumption of 100 g/day of egg, 100 g/day of chicken meat, 100 g/day bulgur and 100 g/day of each vegetable produced in vegetable garden. The amount of olive oil usage is also assumed as 100 grams per day, to be used for vegetable salad and chicken meat. The required amount of egg, poultry meat, vegetable, olive oil and bulgur production is based on the annual demand of the restaurant (1 ton of each product). In order to calculate the restaurant waste, it is assumed that each customer will consume 90 per cent of their meal and leave 10 per cent as waste. From this input, the total restaurant waste per year is calculated as 900 kg. Food waste is then, to be transported to pet food line as an input of packed pet food.

A typical equipment list is prepared for the restaurant. Data regarding the energy consumption and CO₂ emission of equipment are collected from company websites and

calculated as 2,093 GJ/year and 28.7 t/year, respectively (Table 3.12). In order to supply the restaurant energy need, a solar panel system is designed with Suntech "STP-285-24" solar panels. The dimensions and irradiance of the solar panel and region properties are assumed as same as it was used for the gasifier calculations. According to this data, the number of panels needed to support 1-year energy demand of the restaurant is calculated as 205.

Equipment	Time of operation (h/day)	Energy utilization (MJ/year)	CO ₂ emission (ton/year)
Oven	5	315,360	4.3
Induction stove	5	141,912	1.9
Conventional stove	5	788,400	10.8
Deep fryer	2	91,980	1.3
Steamer	3	7,884	0.1
Refrigerator	24	75,697	1.0
Heating	12 h for 120 days	59,130	0.9
Cooling	10 h for 100 days	59,130	0.9
Laundry	5	25,920	0.3
Chiller	2	7,490	0.1
Dish washer	12	520,344	7.1
Total		2,093,235	29

Table 3.12. Energy consumption rates of the equipment in the restaurant

3.7. PET FOOD PRODUCTION

Our calculations have shown that during production of one ton of eggs 97 kg of spent hen and 394 kg of waste are produced. Calculations of the pet food production line was based on the specifications of LABH (India) model C247 extruder line (capacity 125 kg/h, power requirement 50 kW).

From these inputs, energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emissions of the production line is calculated as 2,002 MJ, 8,350 MJ and 280 kg. Six grams of HDPE is used for packaging one kg of pet food; fully recyclable plastic pallets, which can make 250 trips, are used in transportation [25].

Dalian Jialin (China) model JT-1200 palletizer with capacity of 1,000 pcs/h and power requirement of 9 kW is employed for pelletizing the pet food, 50 packages of pet food are placed on each pallet, and the pet food is transported to 50 km of distance for distribution.

Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission for the pet food operation is calculated as 2,095 MJ, 9,136 MJ and 285 kg, respectively (Table 3.13).

Processing Step and Equipment Details	Energy Consumption (MJ/h)	CEnC of pet food (MJ)	CExC of pet food (MJ)	CO2 emission of pet food (kg)
Pet food line (LABH-C247)	180	2,002	8,350	280
Packaging material (HDPE)		27	718	4
Palletizing (Dalian Jian JT-1200)	32	2.3	10	0.3
Transportation to 50 km		64	59	1
Total		2,095	9,136	285

Table 3.13. Energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO₂ emission during pet food production

3.8. IMPACT OF THE USE OF BIO-FERTILIZERS

The impact of bio-fertilizer is evaluated according to the amount of reduction that it causes in chemical fertilizer usage. The reduction on the usage is then directly proportioned to energy, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission. Since the energy demand and carbon dioxide emission of the bio-fertilizer production is very low, they are not accounted in the calculations.

Table 3.14 shows that 1,813 MJ of energy utilization and 438 kg of CO_2 emission may be avoided in poultry feed agriculture production by using bio-fertilizers in combination with chemical fertilizers. The highest reduction in energy consumption is observed for wheat by 90 per cent and the lowest reduction is recorded for corn (21 per cent)

Total energy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of vegetable garden, olive garden and bulgur production with bio-fertilizer application calculated as 2161 MJ and 890 kg CO₂, respectively (Table 3.15). Bulgur had the highest energy reduction as it is made of wheat, 90 per cent reduction in energy consumption with respect original state while cucumber had the lowest energy reduction with 25 per cent difference with respect to 100 per cent chemical fertilizer usage.

Table 3.14. Energy utilization and CO₂ emission of fertilization with and without biofertilizer application to produce the amount of feed required to produce 1 ton of eggs plus 1 ton of broiler meat

I 4	Chemical fertilizer application		Combination of chemical and bio-fertilizers	
Input	CEnC (MJ)	CO ₂ emission (kg)	CEnC (MJ)	CO ₂ emission (kg)
Corn	4,524	939	3,574	742
Soy	426	307	174	126
Wheat	292	29	29	2.9
Rapeseed	1,163	108	814	76
Total	6,405	1,384	4,592	946

Table 3.15. Energy utilization and CO₂ emission of fertilization with and without biofertilizer application of vegetable garden, olive garden and bulgur production

Innut	Chemical fertilizer application		Combination of chemical and bio-fertilizers	
Input	CEnC/ton (MJ/ton)	CO ₂ emission/ton (kg/ton)	CEnC/ton (MJ/ton)	CO ₂ emission/ton (kg/ton)
Olive oil	988	110	247	28
Bean	1,529	1,003	917	602
Tomato	302	57	151	29
Pepper	385	113	192	56
Cucumber	271	99	204	74
Eggplant	468	165	234	82
Bulgur (wheat)	4,011	400	401	40
Total	7,954	1,946	2,347	911

3.9. PERFORMANCE OF THE TOTAL SYSTEM AND THERMODYNAMIC ASSESSMENT

Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of the system with different manure management practices are represented in Table 3.16 - 3.18. Compared to base system, manure gasification scenario resulted in a reduction of energy utilization of 13 per cent, exergy utilization of 33 per cent and carbon dioxide emission of 22 per cent. Bio-fertilization scenario is evaluated for manure management scenarios of manure gasification

and traditional manure as fertilizer (Tables 3.19 and 3.20). The system with manure gasification and bio-fertilizer inoculation resulted in lowest energy burdens with energy utilization of 73,806 MJ, exergy utilization of 97,240 MJ and carbon dioxide emission of 4,391 kg.

Operation	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CO ₂ emission (kg/year)
Feed for egg and broiler meat production	22,896	38,144	2,388
Poultry egg farm	1,327	5,534	186
Broiler meat farm	5,425	14,847	472
Vegetable garden	8,184	11,491	1,715
Olive garden	39,226	42,224	1,280
Bulgur production	13,669	27,724	1,168
Pet food production	2,095	9,136	285
Manure management	64	59	1
Total	92,884	149,159	7,496

 Table 3.16. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system

 with manure discarded from the system

Table 3.17. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO₂ emission of the system with manure treated as fertilizer

Operation	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CO ₂ emission (kg/year)
Feed for egg and broiler meat production	22,896	38,144	2,388
Poultry egg farm	1,327	5,534	186
Broiler meat farm	5,425	14,847	472
Vegetable garden	8,184	11,491	1,715
Olive garden	39,226	42,224	1,280
Bulgur production	13,669	27,724	1,168
Pet food production	2,095	9,136	285
Manure management	-4,355	-1,796	-1,067
Total	88,466	147,304	6,428

Operation	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CO ₂ emission (kg/year)
Feed for egg and broiler meat production	22,896	38,144	2,388
Poultry egg farm	1,327	5,534	186
Broiler meat farm	5,425	14,847	472
Vegetable garden	8,184	11,492	1,715
Olive garden	39,226	42,224	1,280
Bulgur production	13,669	27,724	1,168
Pet food production	2,095	9,136	285
Manure management	-11,594	-48,552	-1,631
Total	81,227	100,548	5,864

 Table 3.18. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system

 with manure gasification

Table 3.19. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO₂ emission of the system with manure treated as fertilizer and inoculation of bio-fertilizers

Operation	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CO2 emission (kg/year)
Feed for egg and broiler meat production	21,082	37,167	1,951
Poultry egg farm	1,327	5,534	189
Broiler meat farm	5,425	14,847	472
Vegetable garden	6,927	10,982	1,122
Olive garden	38,485	41,917	1,198
Bulgur production	10,059	26,209	808
Pet food production	2,095	9,136	285
Manure management	-4,355	-1,796	-1,067
Total	81,045	143,996	4,955

Operation	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CO ₂ emission (kg/year)
Feed for egg and broiler meat production	21,082	37,167	1,951
Poultry egg farm	1,327	5,534	186
Broiler meat farm	5,425	14,847	472
Vegetable garden	6,927	10,982	1,122
Olive garden	38,485	41,917	1,198
Bulgur production	10,059	26,209	808
Pet food production	2,095	9,136	285
Manure management	-11,594	-48,552	-1,631
Total	73,806	97,240	4,391

 Table 3.20. Total energy utilization, exergy utilization and CO2 emission of the system

 with manure gasification and bio-fertilizer inoculation

Cumulative energy utilization and cumulative exergy utilization of products are calculated according to nutrient content (protein, fat and carbohydrate) of the products (Table 2.1). The nutrient content of products that are produced in poultry farm, vegetable garden, olive garden and bulgur facility adapted from USDA Nutrient Database Entry [87]. For the pet food production, nutrient content is adapted from Case et al. (2011) [88]. The specific CEnC and CExC of macronutrients are adapted from Özilgen and Sorgüven (2011) [25].

Exergy efficiency is the ratio of the chemical exergy of the product to the chemical exergy of inputs regardless of the energy source is renewable or not while CDP calculation only considers the non-renewable energy inputs as it is used to assess degree of the renewability of processes. In this study, all the energy sources considered as non-renewable therefore, the CDP of the process should be same as the exergy efficiency of the process.

The energy and exergy inflow-outflow and CDP are calculated and represented in Table 3.21 and Table 3.22. The CDP of the original system (manure is discarded) is calculated as 0.66. The scenario with traditional use of manure as fertilizer calculated as 0.67. Manure gasification scenario resulted in CExC reduction of 48,552 MJ/year by the electricity generation from turbine (Table 3.22). This means 48 per cent reduction in CExC of the total system.

Bio-fertilizer inoculation is also another way optimize CDP of the processes involved in the system. Manure gasification increased CDP of processes studied by 46 per cent (0.98) with respect to traditional manure usage as fertilizer. Highest CDP values are calculated for manure gasification plus inoculation of bio-fertilizer to agriculture scenario (1.01).

Products	CEnC (MJ/ton)	CExC (MJ/ton)			
	-Poultry production-				
Input flow	27,834	57,548			
Output flow	17,127	17,770			
-	Vegetable, olive oil and bu	ılgur-			
Input flow	61,078	81,438			
Output flow	62,082	62,572			
-N	-Manure and waste management-				
Input flow	2,159	9,195.0			
Output flow	17,193	17,866			
-Total System-					
Input flow	92,884	149,159			
Output flow	96,402	98,208			

Table 3.21. CEnC and CExC of products that is produced in the base system

Table 3.22. Comparison of CDP's calculated for different scenarios

Scenario	CEnC (MJ/year)	CExC (MJ/year)	CDP
	-Manure is discard	ed from the system-	
Input flow	92,884	149,159	0.66
Output flow	96,402	98,208	
	-Manure is used	d as a fertilizer-	
Input flow	88,466	147,304	0.67
Output flow	96,402	98,208	
-Manure used as a fertilizer plus inoculation with bio-fertilizers-			
Input flow	81,045	143,996	0.68
Output flow	96,402	98,208	
-Manure gasification-			
Input flow	81,227	100,548	0.98
Output flow	96,402	98,208	
-Manure gasification plus inoculation with bio-fertilizers-			
Input flow	73,806	97,240	1.01
Output flow	96,402	98,208	

4. CONCLUSION

Energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission of a sustainable restaurant furnished with a poultry farm that produces egg and broiler meat, a vegetable garden, an olive garden and a pet food line are calculated to assess and reduce the total environmental burden of the system by changing the parameters of inputs. For the original system, the manure produced, because of the poultry production, is considered to be discarded from the system without any recycling. Moreover, scenarios that evaluate the impact of manure gasification to produce energy by turbines and traditional use of manure to reduce chemical fertilizer need in poultry feed production is calculated and compared to the original system.

The olive oil production contributed to the highest impact with the energy utilization of 39,226 MJ, exergy utilization of 42,224 MJ and CO2 emission of 1,714 kg as only 250 kg of olive oil can be produced per ton of olive produced. The poultry system had the second highest contribution for the system and poultry feed production had the most significant contribution by means of energy utilization (76 per cent), exergy utilization (65 per cent) and carbon dioxide emissions (75 per cent) for the poultry system because of the high environmental burdens coming from chemical fertilizer, electricity and fuel usage in agriculture production.

For the chemical fertilizer usage in poultry feed production, it was calculated that rapeseed, wheat and corn require 70.8 kg, 66.6 kg and 61.1 kg per ton of grain produced while soybean production require 17.6 kg/t which is significantly lower compared to others. The environmental impact of the feed ration can be reduced by optimizing the amount of chemical fertilizer usage in crop productions, using feed rations with higher amount of soybean or crops that require lower amount of fertilizer usage [9], [10], [11], [14]. Pelletier et al. (2014) reported that the feed ration range from 10 per cent to 26 per cent for soybean meal and no usage of rapeseed meal [12]. If we substitute the amount of rapeseed usage with soybean, it will reduce the energy utilization by 6 per cent, exergy utilization by 2 per cent and CO2 emission by 3 per cent for the feed production. Diesel usage can be decreased by utilizing biodiesel usage and with good agricultural practices [26]. There was also a study carried to understand the impact of sunflower seed with enzyme and probiotic usage on feed

efficiency, egg production and egg weight but the results were negative and no beneficial effect were found when compared to feed prepared with soybean meal [103].

Feed conversion efficiency is also a very critical point for the egg and broiler meat production. As the efficiency increase, the amount of feed consumption to have the same yield of eggs or broiler meat will decrease thus the environmental burdens of feed production will decrease. In order to test the impact, we assumed 10 per cent increase of feed conversion efficiency for both broiler and egg production systems. As a result, the energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission decreased 9.8 per cent, 9.9 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively. For the egg production, feed conversion efficiency can be increased either by reducing the amount of feed utilized to produce the same amount of eggs or by increasing the number of eggs by using the same amount of feed.

Electricity usage for lightning and ventilation contributes to highest impact in egg farm. Using high efficient light bulbs or annual cleaning of ventilator system can reduce the electricity need of the farm thus reduce the impact [100], [104]. In addition, the electricity can be compensated by increasing the amount of solar panels that is used for the restaurant to produce the energy required for egg and broiler production farms. The broiler meat farm appeared to have a higher contribution with respect to egg farm because of the slaughterhouse operations as in the egg farm we assumed that the packaging is done by manual labor than using a packaging line (except grader). Mortality rate is an important aspect for broiler and egg production. As the mortality increases, the production efficiency will decrease. Thus from a system perspective, the lower mortality is better [22].

In vegetable garden, bean had the highest contribution because of the significantly high usage of fertilizer and electricity. If we stop producing bean and compensate the annual production of the vegetable garden by increasing the amount of other vegetables by 0.25 tons, contribution of vegetable garden will decrease by 41 per cent for energy consumption, 50 per cent for exergy consumption and 62 per cent for carbon dioxide emission.

Manure management is also another important aspect as it is rich in nitrogen and phosphorus [23]. Using manure in feed production reduced 4,355 MJ of energy utilization, 1,796 MJ of exergy utilization and 1,066 kg of CO2 emission by replacing the chemical fertilizers in feed production. Manure gasification appeared as a better alternative with respect to traditional usage of manure. By using solar panels to supply the energy need of the gasification process,

11,594 MJ/year of energy can be generated from manure and 1,631 kg/year of carbon dioxide reduction can be achieved by using the energy produced from gasification process within the system.

The pet food production is considered as waste management system to utilize by-products and waste of poultry system and restaurant waste. Compared to the total system, it has the least impact to energy utilization (2 per cent), exergy utilization (6 per cent) and CO2 emissions (4 per cent). This impact can be further decreased by decreasing the amount of restaurant waste or utilizing solar panels to compensate the energy requirements of the production line.

Bio-fertilizer usage appears as another alternative strategy to decrease the environmental burdens of chemical fertilization. Inoculation of microorganisms to the soil not only decrease the environmental burdens such as energy consumption and CO2 emissions but also increase the parameters such as product yield and nutrient content. The inoculation of bio-fertilizers and using manure as an input for gasification yielded the lowest energy utilization, exergy utilization and carbon dioxide emission with respect to alternative scenarios studied (Figure A.1 and Figure A.2).

The CDP of products of poultry production processes (egg and broiler meat), vegetable garden outputs, olive oil, bulgur and pet food are calculated. The lowest system CDP is calculated for the original system that the manure is discarded and the highest was obtained when the manure was gasified and microbial fertilizers were employed in the agriculture.

REFERENCES

1. J.H. Spangenberg, Sustainability Science: A Review, An Analysis and Some Empirical Lessons. *Environmental Conservation*, 38:275-287, 2011.

2. I.J. Tomlinson. Acting Discursively: The Development of UK Organic Food and Farming Policy Networks. *Public Administration*, 88:1045-1062, 2010.

3. R. Roychowdhury, U. Banerjee, S. Sofkova and J. Tah. Organic Farming for Crop Improvement and Sustainable Agriculture in the Era of Climate Change. *Online Journal of Biological Sciences*, 13:50-65, 2013.

4. B. Ozkan, A. Kurklu and H. Akcaoz. An Input-Output Energy Analysis in Greenhouse Vegetable Production: A Case Study for Antalya Region of Turkey. *Biomass Bioenergy*, 26:189-95, 2004.

5. M Canakci and L. Akinci. Energy Use Pattern Analyses of Greenhouse Vegetable Production. *Energy*, 31:1234-56, 2006.

6. K. Esengün, G. Erdal, O. Gunduz and H. Erdal. An Economic Analysis and Energy Use in Stake-Tomato Production in Tokat Province of Turkey. *Renewable Energy*, 32:1873-1881, 2007.

7. A. Mohammadi, A. Tabatabaeefar, S. Shahin, S. Rafiee and A. Keyhani. Energy Use and Economical Anaylsis of Potato Production in Iran a Case Study: Ardabil Province. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 49:3566-3570, 2008.

8. H. Mollenhorst, P.B.M. Berentsen and I.J.M. De Boer. On-Farm Quantification of Sustainability Indicators. *British Poultry Science* 47:405-417, 2006.

9. S.G. Wiedemann and E.J. McGahan. Environmental Assessment of an Egg Production Supply Chain Using Life Cycle Assessment. *Australian Egg Corporation Limited*, Publication No 1FS091A, North Sydney, Australia 2011. 10. S.E.M. Dekker, I.J.M. Boer, I. Vermeij, A.J.A. Aarninkc and A.P.W.G. Koerkamp. Ecological and Economic Evaluation of Dutch Egg Production Systems. *Livestock Science*, 139:109-121, 2011.

11. N. Pelletier, M. Ibarburu and H. Xin. A Carbon Footprint Analysis of Egg Production and Processing Supply Chains in the Midwestern United States. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 54:108-114, 2013.

12. N. Pelletier, M. Ibarburu and H. Xin. Comparison of the Environmental Footprint of the Egg Industry in the United States in 1960 and 2010. *Poultry Science*, 93:241-255, 2014.

13. A.G. Williams, E. Audsley and D.I. Sandars. A Lifecycle Approach to Reducing the Environmental Impacts of Poultry Production. *World Poultry Science Association*, 17th European Symposium on Poultry Nutrition, Edinburgh, 2009.

14. N. Pelletier. Environmental Performance in the US Broiler Poultry Sector: Life Cycle Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas, Ozone Depleting, Acidifying and Eutrophying Emissions. *Agricultural Systems*, 98:67-73, 2008.

15. N.I. Nielsen, M. Jorgensen and S. Bahrndorff. Greenhouse Gas Emission from the Danish Broiler Production Estimated via LCA Methodology. *Knowledge Center for Agriculture, Poultry*, Aarhus, Denmark, 2011.

16. Q.H. Hu, L.X. Zhang and C.B. Wang. Energy – Based Analysis of Chicken Farming Systems: A Perception of Organic Production Model in China. *PEC*, 13:445-454, 2012.

17. H. Xu, H. Su, B. Su, X. Han, D. Biswas and Y. Li. Restoring the Degraded Grassland and Improving Sustainability of Grassland Ecosystem Through Chicken Farming. *Agriculture, Ecosystem and Environment,* 186:115-123, 2014.

18. S. Gonzalez-Garcia, Z. Gomez-Fernandez, A.C. Dias, G. Feijoo, M.T. Moreira and L. Arroja. Life Cycle Assessment of Broiler Chicken Production: A Portuguese Case Study. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 74:125-134, 2014.

19. V. Prudêncio da Silva, H.M.G. van der Werf, A. Spies and S.R. Soares. LCA of French and Brazilian Broiler Poultry Production Scenarios. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 133:222-231,2014.

20. J. Bengtsson and J. Seddon. Cradle to Retailer or Quick Service Restaurant Gate Life Cycle Assessment of Chicken Products in Australia. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 41:291-300, 2013.

21. A. Karakaya and M. Özilgen. Energy Utilization and Carbon Dioxide Emission in the Fresh Paste, Whole-Peeled, Diced and Juiced Tomato Production Processes. *Energy*, 36:5101-5110, 2011.

22. U. Sonesson, C. Cederberg and M. Berglund. Greenhouse Gas Emission in Egg Production, 2009. http://www.klimatmarkningen.se/wp-content/uploads/2009/12/2009-7-egg.pdf [retrieved 7 April 2013].

23. C. Cederberg, U. Sonesson, M. Henriksson, V. Sund and J. Davis. Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Swedish Production of Meat, Milk and Eggs from 1990 and 2005. *The Swedish Institute for Food and Biotechnology*, Report No. 793, 2009.

24. I. Leinonen, A.G. Williams J. Wiseman, J. Guy and I. Kyriazakis. Predicting the Environmental Impacts of Chicken Systems in the United Kingdom through a Life-Cycle Assessment: Broiler Production Systems. *Poultry Science*, 91:8-25, 2012.

25. M. Özilgen and E. Sorgüven. Energy and Exergy Utilization and Carbon Dioxide Emission in Vegetable Oil Production. *Energy*, 36:5954-5967, 2011.

26. E. Sorgüven and M. Özilgen. Energy Utilization, Carbon Dioxide Emission and Exergy Loss in Flavored Yogurt Production Process. *Energy*, 40:214-225, 2012.

27. B. Degerli, S. Nazir, E. Sorgüven, B. Hitzmann and M. Özilgen. Assessment of Energy and Exergy Efficiencies of Farm to Fork Grain Cultivation and Bread Making Processes in Turkey and Germany. *Energy*, 93:421-434, 2015.

28. R.K. Apaiah, A.R. Linnemann and H.J. van der Kooi. Exergy Analysis: A Tool to Study the Sustainability of Food Supply Chains. *Food Research International*, 39:1-11, 2006.

29. J. Szargut, D.R. Morris and F.R. Steward. Exergy Analysis of Thermal, Chemical and Metallurgical Processes. New York: *Hemisphere*; 1988.

30. T. Xu and J. Flapper. Reduce Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Global Dairy Processing Facilities. *Energy Policy* 39:234-247, 2011.

31. H. Wu, S.A. Tassou and T.G. Karayiannis. Modelling and Control Approaches for Energy Reduction in Continuous Frying Systems. *Applied. Energy* 112:939-948, 2013.

32. O. Rodriguez-Gonzales, R. Buckow, T. Koutchma and V.M. Balasubramaniam. Energy Requirements for Alternative Processing Technologies – Principles, Assumptions, and Evaluation of Efficiency. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 14:536-554, 2015.

33. M.A. Waheed, S.O. Jekayinfa, J.O. Ojediran and O.E. Imeokparia. Energetic Analysis of Fruit Juice Processing Operations in Nigeria. *Energy* 33:35-45, 2008.

34. J.A. Quijera and J. Labidi. Pinch and Exergy Based Thermosolar Integration in a Dairy Process. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 50:464-474, 2013.

35. N. Yildirim and S. Genc. Thermodynamic Analysis of a Milk Pasteurization Process Assisted by Geothermal Energy. *Energy*, 90: 987-996, 2015.

36. F.K. Zisopoulos, S.N. Moejes, F.J. Rossier-Miranda, A.J. van der Goot and R.M. Boom. Exergetic Comparison of Food Waste Valorization in Industrial Bread Production. *Energy*, 82:640-649, 2015.

37. S. Genc and A. Hepbasli. Performance Assessment of a Potato Crisp Frying Process. *Drying Technology*, 33:865-75, 2015.

38. L. Shcherbak, N. Millar and G.P. Robertson. Global Metaanalysis of the Nonlinear Response of Soil Nitrous Oxide (N2O) Emissions to Fertilizer Nitrogen. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 111:9199-9204, 2014.

39. I. Sönmez, M. Kaplan and S. Sönmez. Effect of Chemical Fertilizers on Environmental Pollution and Its Prevention Methods. *Batı Karadeniz Tarımsal Araştırma Enstitüsü Derim Dergisi*, 25:24-34, 2008.

40. X. Zhang, T. Zhong, L. Liu and X. Ouyang. Impact of Soil Heavy Metal Pollution On Food Safety in China. *Public Library of Science One*, 10:1-14, 2015.

41. S.G. Wiedemann, E.J. McGahan and M. Burger. Layer Hen Manure Analysis Report. *Australian Egg Corporation Limited*, Sydney, Australia, 2008.

42. M. Fernandez-Lopez, D. Lopez-Gonzalez, M. Puig-Gamero, J.L. Valverde and L. Sanchez-Silva. CO₂ Gasification of Dairy and Swine Manure: A Life Cycle Assessment Approach. *Renewable Energy*, 95:552-560, 2016.

43. G. Koerkamp. Review of Emissions of Ammonia from Housing Systems for Layer Hens in Relation to Sources, Processes, Building Design and Manure Handling. *Journal of Agricultural Engineering Research*, 59:73-87, 1994.

44. I.J.M. de Boer and A.M.G. Cornelissen. A Method Using Sustainability Indicators to Compare Conventional and Animal-Friendly Egg Production Systems. *Poultry Science*, 81:173-181, 2002.

45. F.A. Nicholson, B.J. Chambers and A.W. Walker. Ammonia Emissions from Broiler Litter and Laying Hen Manure Management Systems. *Biosystem Engineering*, 89:175-185, 2004.

46. R.S. Gates, K.D. Casey, E.F. Wheeler, H. Xin and A.J. Pescatore. U.S. Broiler Ammonia Emissions Inventory. *Atmospheric Environment*, 42:3342-3350, 2008.

47. J.B. Koger and L. Bull. Gasification for Elimination of Swine Waste Solids with Recovery of Value-Added Products. *Final Gasification Report*, 2005.

 V. Torretta, E.C. Rada, I.A. Istrate and M. Ragazzi. Poultry Manure Gasification and Its Energy Yield. *University Politehnica of Bucharest Scientific Bulletin Series D*, 75: 231-238.
 2013.

49. H.Q. Tian, C.Q. Lu, J. Melillo, W. Ren, Y. Huang, X.F. Xu, M.L. Liu, C. Zhang, G.S. Chen and S.F. Pan. Food Benefit and Climate Warming Potential of Nitrogen Fertilizer Uses in China. *Environmental Research Letters*, 7:1-8, 2012.

50. R. Uyanöz. The Effects of Different Bio-Organic, Chemical Fertilizers and Their Combination on Yield, Macro and Micro Nutrition Content of Dry Bean. *International Journal of Agricultural Research*, 2:115-125, 2007.

51. H. Bertrand, R. Nalin, R. Bally and J.C. Cleyet-Marel. Isolation and Identification of the Most Efficient Plant Growth-Promoting Bacteria Associated with Canola. *Biology and Fertility of Soils*, 33:152-156, 2001.

52. E. Yildirim, M.F. Donmez and M. Turan. Use of Bioinoculants in Ameliorative Effects on Radish Plants under Salinity Stress. *Journal of Plant Nutrition*, 31:2059-2074, 2008.

53. M. Woitke, H. Junge and W.H. Schnitzler. *Bacillus Subtilis* as Growth Promotor in Hydroponically Grown Tomatoes under Saline Conditions. *Acta Horticulturae*, 659:363-369, 2004.

54. A. Zabaniotou and E. Kassidi. Life Cycle Assessment Applied to Egg Packaging Made from Polystyrene and Recycled Paper. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 11:549-559, 2003.

55. B.J. Haghighi and Z. Yarmahmodi. Evaluation the Effects of Biological Fertilizer on Physiological Characteristic on Yield and Its Components of Corn under Drought Stress. *International Conference on Food Engineering and Biotechnology*, Singapore, 2011.

56. M.S. Janagard, Y. Raei, K. Gasemi-Golezani and N. Aliasgarzad. Soybean Response to Biological and Chemical Fertilizers. *International Journal of Agriculture and Crop Sciences*, 5:261-266, 2013.

57. A.S. Morteza and A.S. Javad. Effect of Nitroxin Biofertilizer and Nitrogen Chemical Fertilizer on Yield and Yield Components of Rapeseed. *International Journal of Agriculture and Crop Sciences*, 6:1284-1291, 2013.

58. M. Dahmardeh. Effect of Different Bio Fertilizers on Growth and Yield of Canola *Brassica napus L* var. RGS 003. *Journal of Agricultural Science*, 5:143-147, 2013.

59. R. Cakmakci, M. Turan, M. Gulluce and F. Sahin. Rhizobacteria for Reduced Fertilizer Inputs in Wheat and Barley on Aridisols in Turkey. *International Journal of Plant Production*, 8:163-182, 2014.

60. G. Thilagar, D.J. Bagyaraj and M.S. Rao. Selected Microbial Consortia Developed for Chilly Reduces Application of Chemical Fertilizers by 50 per cent Under Field Conditions. *Scientia Horticulturae*, 198:27-35, 2016.

61. M. Berova, G. Karanatsidis, K. Sapundzhieva and V. Nikolova. Effect of Organic Fertilization on Growth and Yield of Pepper Plants. *Polish Society for Horticultural Science*, 22:3-7, 2010.

62. D.R. Bhattarai, K.P. Poudyal and S. Pokhrel. Effect of *Azotobacter* and Nitrogen Levels on Fruit Yield and Quality of Bell Pepper. *Nepal Journal of Science and Technology*, 12:29-34, 2011.

63. F.M. Isfahani, S.M. Isfahani, H. Besharati and M. Tarighaleslami. Yield and Concentration of Some Macro and Micro Nutrients of Cucumber as Influenced by Bio-Fertilizers. *Annals of Biological Research*, 4:61-67, 2013.

64. V.D. Doifode and P.B. Nandkar. Influence of Biofertilizers On Growth, Yield and Quality of Brinjal Crop. *International Journal of Life Sciences*, Special Issue:17-20, 2014.

65. S.S. Wange and R.H. Kale. Effect of Biofertilizers and Nitrogen Levels on Brinjal Crop. *Journal of Soils and Crops*, 14:9-11, 2004.

66. R.P. Deshmukh, P.K. Nagre, A.P. Wagh and V.N. Dod. Effect of Bio-Fertilizers on Growth, Yield and Quality of Cluster Bean. *Indian Journal of Advances in Plant Research*, 1:39-42, 2014.

67. V. Ramana, M. Ramakrishna, K. Purushotham and K.B. Reddy. Effect of Bio-Fertilizers on Growth, Yield Attributes and Yield of French Bean. *Legume Research*, 33:178-183, 2010.

68. L.F. Haggag, M.A. Merward, M.I.F. Fawzi, M.F.M. Shahin and E.A.E. Genaidy. Impact of Inorganic and Bio-Fertilizers on Growth of Manzanillo Olive Seedlings under Greenhouse Condition. *Middle East Journal of Agriculture Research*, 3:638-644, 2014.

69. S.R. Freeman, M.H. Poore, T.F. Middleton and P.R. Ferket. Alternative Methods for Disposal of Spent Laying Hens: Evaluation of the Efficacy of Grinding, Mechanical Deboning, And of Keratinase in the Rendering Process. *Bioresource Technology*, 100:4515-4520, 2009.

70. P. Roy, D. Nei, H. Okadome, N. Nakamura, T. Orikasa and T. Shiina. 2008. Life Cycle Inventory Analysis of Fresh Tomato Distribution Systems in Japan Considering the Quality Aspects. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 86:225-233, 2008.

71. S.S. Joshi. Thermodynamic Interactions in Mixtures of Bromoform with Hydrocarbons. *Journal of Physical Chemistry*, 95:5299-5308, 1991.

72. R. Lal. Carbon Emission from Farm Operations. *Environment International*, 30:981-990, 2004.

73. D. Hofstrand. Agriculture Decision Maker, Natural Gas and Coal Measurements and Conversions, https://www.extension.iastate.edu/agdm/wholefarm/ [retrieved 08 September 2014].

74. D.W. Green and R.H. Perry, *Perry's Chemical Engineers' Handbook.* 7th Edition McGraw-Hill, USA, 1977.

75. A. Pradhan, D. S. Shrestha, A. McAloon, W. Yee, M. Haas and J. A. Duffield. Energy Life-Cycle Assessment of Soybean Biodiesel Revisited. *American Society of Agricultural and Biological Engineers*, 54:1031-1039, 2011.

76. Canadian Lime Institute, Energy Efficiency Opportunity Guide in The Lime Industry. Natural Resources Canada, *Office of Energy Efficiency*, Canada, 2001. http://www.nrcan.gc.ca/sites/www.nrcan.gc.ca/files/oee/pdf/industrial/technicalinfo/benchmarking/limeguide/Lime_Eng.qxp.pdf [retrieved 10 January 2014].

77. Z.R. Helsel. Energy and Alternatives for Fertilizer and Pesticide Use. In Energy in Farm Production, R.C. Fluck. *Energy in World Agriculture*, New York, Elsevier, 1992.

78. C.A. Ramirez, K. Blok, M. Neelis and M. Patel. Adding Apples and Oranges: The Monitoring of Energy Efficiency in The Dutch Food Industry. *Energy Policy*, 34:1720-1735, 2006.

79. H. Wittmus, L. Olson and D. Lane. Energy Requirements for Conventional Versus Minimum Tillage. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*, 3:72-5, 1975.

80. D. Pimentel. Ethanol Fuels: Energy, Security, Economics and The Environment. *Journal* of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics, 4:1-13, 1991.

81. S.R. Fore, P. Porter and W. Lazarus. Net Energy Balance of Small-Scale On-Farm Biodiesel Production from Canola and Soybean. *Biomass and Bioenergy* 35:2234-2244, 2011.

82. B. Brehmer. Chemical Biorefinery Perspectives: The Valorisation of Functionalized Chemicals from Biomass Resources Compared to The Conventional Fossil Fuel Production Route. Wageningen University, Gelderland, Netherlands, 2008.

83. I. Mani, P. Kumar, J.S. Panwar and K. Kant. Variation in Energy Consumption in Production of Wheat-Maize with Varying Altitudes in Hilly Regions of Himachal Pradesh, India. *Energy*, 32:2336-2339, 2007.

84. E. Duru. Energy Utilization and Carbon Dioxide Emission During Dried, Frozen, Pouched Bean and Bulgur Production. Yeditepe University, Istanbul, Turkey, 2016.

85. O. Yaldiz, H.H. Ozturk, Y. Zeren and A. Bascetincelik. Energy Use in Production of Field Crops in Turkey. *In:* 5th *International Congress on Agricultural Machinery and Energy*, Kusadasi, Turkey, 527-536, 1993.

86. J. Magid, A. Granstedt, O. Dýrmundsson, H. Kahiluoto and T. Ruissen. Urban Areas – Rural Areas and Recycling – Organic Way Forward? *Proceedings from NJF-seminar* No.
327. Copenhagen, Denmark, 2001.

87. United States Department of Agriculture, National Nutrient Database for Standard Reference, https://ndb.nal.usda.gov/ndb/foods [retrieved 09 January 2016]

88. L.P. Case, L. Daristotle, M.G. Hayek and M.F. Raasch, *Canine and Feline Nutrition*. A *Resource for Companion Animal Professionals*. USA: Elsevier Mosby; 2011.

89. G. Unakitan, H. Hurma and F. Yilmaz. An Analysis of Energy Use Efficiency of Canola Production in Turkey. *Energy*, 35:3623-3627, 2010.

90. R. Dalgaard, J. Schmidt, N. Halberg, P. Christensen, M. Thrane and W: Pengue. LCA of Soybean Meal. *International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 13:240-254, 2008.

91. B. Mattsson, C. Cederberg and L. Blix. Agricultural Land Use in Life Cycle Assessment (LCA): Case Studies of the Three Vegetable Oil Crops. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 8:283-292, 2000.

92. FAO 1999. FAO Specifications and Evaluations for Plant Protection Products. http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/metazach.pdf [retrieved 05 April 2015].

93. FAO/UNEP 1999. The Future of Our Land: Facing The Challenge. Guidelines for Integrated Planning for Sustainable Management of Land Resources. http://www.fao.org/docrep/004/x3810e/x3810e00.htm [retrieved 10 January 2015]

94. T. Tipi, B. Cetin and A. Vardar. An Analysis of Energy Use and Input Costs for Wheat Production in Turkey. *Journal of Agriculture and Environment*, 7:352-6, 2009.

95. J. Thuresson. Life Cycle Assessment of Water Pumps. *Technical Environmental Planning*, 11:1-20, 1996.

96. J. Fickler and J. Limper. Amino Acids in Pig Nutrition. The Most Efficient Way to Reduce Nitrogen Output. *Feed Compounder*, 17:18-20, 1997.

97. P.W. Gerbens-Leenes, M.M. Mekonnen and A.Y. Hoekstra. The Water Footprint of Poultry, Pork and Beef: A Comparative Study in Different Countries and Production Systems. *Water Resources and Industry*, 1:25-36, 2013.

98. N.K. Sakomura. Modeling Energy Utilization in Broiler Breeders, Laying Hens and Broilers. *Brazilian Journal of Poultry Science*, 6:1-11, 2004.

99. A. Carlsson-Kanyama and M. Faist. Energy Use in The Food Sector: A Data Survey, http://mmm.comuv.com/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2010/06/Energy-use-in-the-food-sector-Carlsson-Kanyama and-Fiest.pdf [retrieved 08 September 2014].

100. T. Hörndahl. Energy Use in Farm Buildings – A Study of 16 Farms with Different Enterprises. *Landscape Horticulture Agriculture*, 8:1-69, 2007.

101. K. Abeliotis, V. Detsis and C. Pappia. Life Cycle Assessment of Bean Production in The Prespa National Park, Greece. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 41:89-96, 2013.

102. D. Lynch, A.M. Henihan, B. Bowen, D. Lynch, K. McDonnell, W. Kwapinski and J.J. Leahy. Utilisation of Poultry Litter as an Energy Feedstock. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 49:197-204, 2013.

103. S. Yalcin, Z. Kahraman, T. Gurpetan, H.E. Dedeoglu and B. Kocaoglu. The Usage of Enzyme and Probiotic in Laying Hen Rations Containing Sunflower Seed Meal. *Tavukculuk Arastirma Dergisi*, 2:25-32, 2009.

104. K. Eliasson, I. Gustafsson, B. Karlsson and I. Alsén. Hushålla Med Krafterna – Fakta. *Hushållningssällskapet*, Undated.



APPENDIX A: MASS EQUATIONS AND SCENARIO COMPARISON

Table A.1 to A.13 illustrate mass balances that are created to calculate total system expense of energy consumption, exergy utilization and CO_2 emissions. Mass balance calculations are done by using Microsoft Excel functions. Figure A.1 and Figure A.2 show and compare the scenarios that are evaluated in the study.

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Limestone rock	Kg	373
Electricity	MJ	69
Heat (natural gas)	M ³	0.93
Process water	Kg	347
Diesel for transportation to 50 km	L	1.4
Outputs		
Limestone	Kg	330

Table A.1. Mass balance of limestone productio
--

Table A.2. Mass balance of synthetic amino acid production

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Diesel	L	70.6
Electricity	MJ	4,696
Natural gas	M ³	67.1
Material	Kg	121
Diesel for transportation to 50 km	L	1.4
Outputs		
Lysine, methionine, threonine	Kg	121

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Feed inputs	Kg	5,034
Electricity for conveying	MJ	18.6
Electricity for cleaning	MJ	9.1
Electricity for grinding (soybean and rapeseed)	MJ	15.1
Electricity for pressing (soybean and rapeseed)	MJ	179
Electricity for the extractor (soybean and Rapeseed)	MJ	59.3
Electricity for milling	MJ	399
Diesel for transportation to 50 km	L	1.4
Diesel for transportation off excess material to 50 km	L	1.4
Outputs		7
Feed for broiler & hens	kg	4,854
Excess soy oil and rapeseed oil	kg	180

Table A.3. Mass balance of feed milling facility

Table A.4. Mass balance of hatching operations

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Eggs for incubation	#	731
Electricity	MJ	251
Outputs		
Pullets produced	#	702

Table A.5. Mass balance of egg farm

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Pullets (4 per cent mortality)	#	57
Feed required	kg	2,205
Electricity for lightening and ventilation	MJ	938
Natural gas for heating of barn	m ³	0.0
Water usage	L	5,130
Outputs		
Eggs produced	kg	1,002
Spent hens	kg	97
Manure produced	kg	1,140

Table A.6. Mass balance of egg grading process

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Unprocessed eggs	kg	1,002
Electricity	MJ	5.6
Cleaning water	L	802
Outputs		
Graded eggs	kg	1,002

Table A.7. Mass balance of cold storage of eggs

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Graded eggs	kg	1,002
Electricity required for cold storage for 5 days	MJ	6.5
Outputs		
Transported eggs (to restaurant)	kg	1,002

Table A.8. Mass balance of pet food production

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Spent hens + restaurant waste	kg	1,391
HDPE	kg	8.3
Electricity for the production line	MJ	2,002
Electricity for palletizer (Dalian Jian JT-1200,		
1200pcs/h, 9kW)	MJ	2.3
Diesel for transportation off excess material to 50 km	L	1.4
Outputs		
Packed pet food	kg	1,391

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Broiler	kg	1,394
Electricity	MJ	2,354
Natural Gas	m ³	2.3
District heat (assumed as natural gas)	MJ	10.4
Plastic (polyethylene)	kg	8.6
LDPE foil	kg	9.3
Outputs		
Packaged broiler	kg	1,001
By-products	kg	112
Slaughter waste	kg	282

Table A.9. Mass balance of slaughterhouse operations

Table A.10. Mass balance of cold storage of broiler meat

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Broiler meat	kg	1,001
Electricity required for cold storage for 5 days	MJ	6.5
Outputs		
Transported meat (to restaurant)	kg	1,001

Table A.11. Restaurant solar panel details

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Dimensions of solar panel	m ²	1.9
Outputs		
Electricity generated	MJ	10,198

Table A.12. Mass balance of manure management (manure as fertilizer)

Inputs	Units	Mass balance
Layer hen manure - vegetable garden	kg	860
Broiler manure - vegetable garden	kg	626
Diesel for transportation of manure to 50 km	L	1.4
Outputs		
N-fertilizer	kg	44.1
P-fertilizer	kg	29.1
K-fertilizer	kg	27.0
S-fertilizer	kg	2.58

Inputs		Mass balance
Layer hen manure	kg	860
Broiler manure	kg	626
Diesel for transportation of ash to 50 km		1.4
Outputs		
Electricity	MJ	11,657

	C	• • • • • • • • • •
Table A.13. Mass baland	ce of manure managemei	it (manure gasification)
14010 1110 111400 041411		(interior gasting action)





Figure A. 1. Comparison of energy and exergy utilization of different manure management and fertilization scenarios


Figure A. 2. Comparison of CO2 emission of different manure management and fertilization scenarios