

1 **Thermochemical upcycling of food waste into engineered biochar for energy and**
2 **environmental applications: A critical review**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Environmental issues caused by food waste are important concerns for human well-
28 being and ecosystem health. Valorization of food waste into energy and carbon
29 materials has been extensively investigated. Here, we reviewed the most recent
30 advancements in the thermochemical conversion of food waste into engineered biochar.
31 Synthesis routes and practical applications of the food waste-derived biochar was
32 succinctly reviewed. Engineered biochar is a promising alternative for mitigating
33 environmental pollution and alleviating energy crisis. The underlying relationships
34 between engineered biochar properties and specific applications are still unclear,
35 therefore, machine learning-aided engineered biochar design and process optimization
36 was proposed. Moreover, before any industrial scale implementation, detailed
37 assessments of the environmental benefits and economic feasibility must be conducted.
38 In the context of carbon neutrality, thermochemical upcycling of food waste into
39 engineered biochar for energy and environmental applications can significantly
40 contribute to attaining sustainable food waste management, mitigating environmental
41 pollution, and addressing the energy shortage crisis and thus will eventually facilitate
42 the fulfillment of United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Furthermore,
43 the existing challenges in the practical valorization of food waste into engineered
44 biochar are comprehensively discussed, and outlooks are proposed.

45 **Keywords:** Biochar catalyst; Pyrolysis; Carbon capture and storage; Machine learning;
46 Sustainable Development Goals

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Food waste is a global issue that brings serious environmental, economic and social
50 challenges [1-3]. Many countries have taken measures for reduction of food waste
51 generation and sustainable management of unavoidable waste via controlling the
52 sources and collecting the food waste separately from other wastes. The collected
53 food waste could be further processed using various technical approaches to minimize
54 its environmental impact and to maximize its benefits within a circular economy.

55 Food waste, which is mainly composed of organics (i.e., carbohydrates, proteins, fats,
56 and lipids), is hereby converted into high value-added products (e.g., methane,
57 bioethanol, syngas, chemicals, and carbon materials) [4]. Recently, the upcycling of
58 food waste into advanced carbon materials has been considered as an emerging
59 paradigm shift from landfilling and incineration. The major upcycling approaches
60 include thermochemical conversions (e.g., hydrothermal carbonization (HTC),
61 pyrolysis, and gasification) and biological conversions (e.g., anaerobic digestion
62 (AD)) [4, 5]. AD is extensively investigated for transforming food waste into value-
63 added products, owing to its considerable advantages of cost-effectiveness, mild
64 operating conditions, and relatively low energy consumption [6-9]. However, AD
65 generally requires a long residence time and a high-quality feedstock [10].

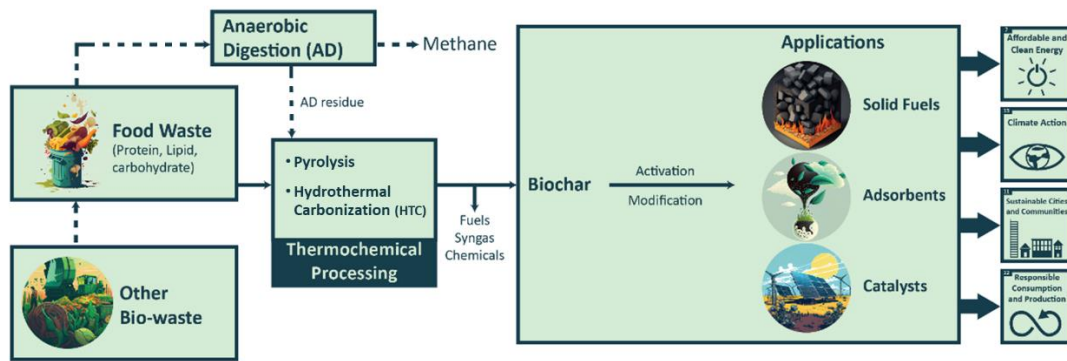
66 Compared with the biological conversions discussed above, thermochemical
67 conversion is fast and achieves high yields of value-added products [11]. Pyrolysis, a
68 conventional thermochemical conversion, requires large amount of energy to recover

69 value-added products and thermal energy from food waste directly, owing to the food
70 waste's actual characteristic of high moisture content. To effectively upcycle food
71 waste with high moisture content, dewatering (or pre-drying) is an essential pre-
72 treatment followed by pyrolysis. However, without pre-drying treatment, HTC is
73 considered one promising alternative for food waste valorization, reducing extra water
74 requirement in hydrothermal reactors and increasing conversion efficiency [11, 12].
75 The main products from slow pyrolysis and HTC are carbon-rich materials termed as
76 biochar and hydrochar, respectively, which can be further activated and/or modified
77 into advanced engineered biochar for various applications. Researchers are currently
78 focusing on developing green, sustainable, and cost-effective thermochemical
79 processes or integrated biological and thermochemical processes to achieve
80 sustainable management of food waste towards a circular economy (as given in
81 **Figure 1**). Due to the diversity and complexity of food waste, more feedstock-specific
82 process technologies are required for food waste treatment in biorefineries and
83 environmental protections from perspectives of environmental impact and economic
84 feasibility [13, 14]. Solid carbon residue that cannot be further biologically
85 decomposed or chemically extracted normally accounts for a large proportion of
86 processed food waste. These residues can be converted into solid biochar, liquid bio-
87 oil, and gaseous products via hydrothermal conversion or pyrolysis. So far, only a few
88 papers have reviewed the thermochemical conversion of food waste, focusing on the
89 operating conditions, reaction mechanisms, product distributions, and evolution
90 pathways. In particular, the gaseous and liquid products derived from various food

91 wastes have been extensively investigated [15-18] in comparison to the solid biochar
92 products. For example, Pham et al. [15] reviewed food waste-to-energy technologies
93 involving biological conversion using AD or fermentation, and thermochemical
94 processes including pyrolysis, incineration, hydrothermal oxidation, and gasification.
95 Current state-of-the-art in the pyrolysis and gasification of food waste was reviewed
96 by Su et al. [17], Murugesan et al. [18], and Makkawi et al. [19].

97 Therefore, it is necessary to provide a timely and comprehensive review of food
98 waste-derived engineered biochar for environmental and energy applications,
99 including major and emerging production routes of engineered biochar, machine
100 learning (ML)-aided guidelines for application-targeted engineered biochar, practical
101 applications in environmental and energy fields, and conclusions and outlook.
102 Physical, chemical, and integrated methods are used to activate (i.e., developing new
103 pores and controlling pore size distributions) and/or modify (i.e., doping surface
104 functional groups) biochar into engineered biochar with wide applications, such as
105 solid fuels, adsorbents (e.g., for CO₂ capture), and advanced catalysts (e.g., for
106 electrochemical energy storage and conversion). The review sheds light on the
107 sustainable upcycling of food waste into engineered biochar with high-performance
108 applications and ultimately promotes their large-scale deployment, significantly
109 providing benefits and guidelines to researchers from both academics and industries
110 working in the areas of sustainable valorization of solid waste, climate change
111 mitigation, renewable fuels, energy conversion and storage, and circular carbon
112 economy. In the context of carbon neutrality, sustainable management of food waste,

113 climate change mitigation, and renewable alternative fuels need to be performed in a
 114 sustainable route to achieve United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, based on
 115 the takeaways from this comprehensive review.



116

117 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of thermochemical processing of food waste to produce
 118 biochar and engineered biochar materials for various applications.

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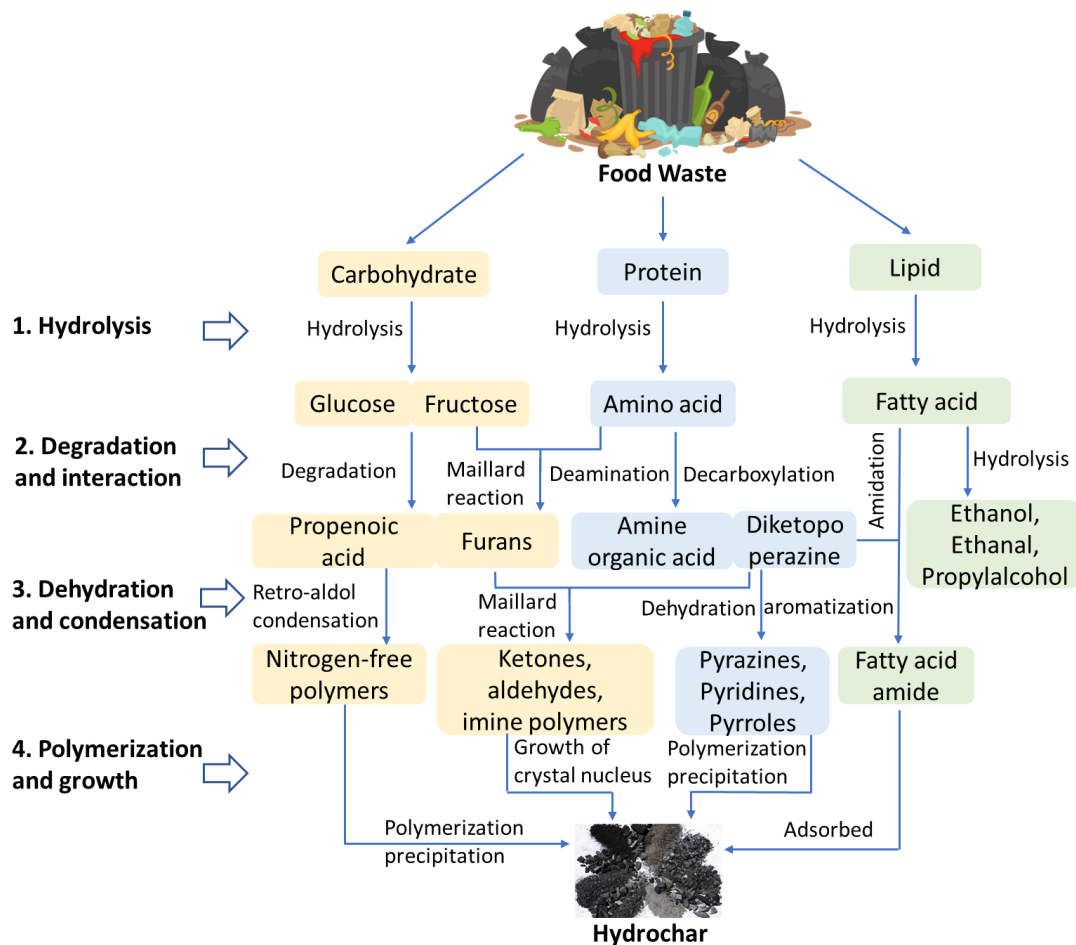
120 2. Thermochemical upcycling of food waste

121 2.1. Hydrothermal conversion

122 Hydrothermal conversion (HTC) allows for the synthesis of value-added carbon
 123 materials and the recovery of energy from food waste with high moisture content [20,
 124 21]. HTC at relatively low temperature (180-265 °C) and low pressure (subcritical
 125 conditions, up to 6.0 MPa) is favorable for hydrochar production [12, 22]. Compared
 126 with other thermochemical conversion techniques, HTC for converting food waste
 127 into hydrochar as the primary product avoids the requirement for a pre-drying
 128 treatment, involves rather mild operating conditions, and features high operational

129 feasibility and relatively low energy consumption [4, 11, 23, 24]. HTC can recover
130 nutrients and fatty acids in liquid food waste, which can be intensively recirculated
131 during processing [25-27]. The range of processes and mechanisms involved in
132 hydrochar formation from food waste via HTC are schematized in **Figure 2**. The
133 chemical composition of food waste is complex. Lipids, proteins, and carbohydrates
134 are main component groups. During HTC, subcritical water promotes the hydrolysis
135 of lipids, polysaccharides, and proteins into oligomer and monomer units [28, 29].
136 The decomposition of proteins usually requires a minimum operating temperature of
137 150 °C but needs to be at least 220 °C if the protein content is high, above 30 wt.%
138 [28]. Protein hydrolysis is typically slower than carbohydrate hydrolysis due to the
139 higher stability of peptide bonds than glycosidic bonds.

140 Researchers widely investigated specific mechanisms involved in the HTC of food
141 waste [29, 30]. Yang et al. [29] suggested that the HTC of complex food waste
142 involved three key reactions: carbohydrates carbonization, Maillard reaction, and
143 amidation reaction. The components of food waste play different roles in hydrochar
144 formation. Lipids play a crucial role in hydrochar formation by inhibiting interactions
145 between carbohydrates and proteins, and carbohydrates play a key role when proteins
146 boost their *N*-heterocyclic functional groups. As hydrochar surface can adsorb the
147 lipid hydrolysate, the lipids present in the food-waste do not affect the carbonization
148 process [31].



149

150 **Figure 2.** Major reactions involved in hydrochar formation via the hydrothermal
 151 conversion of food waste [30]. Reproduced with the permission from Elsevier
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153 2.2. Pyrolysis

154 Compared with HTL, pyrolysis is the thermal degradation of organic materials into
 155 carbon-rich by products at a moderate temperature (300-800 °C) and low pressure
 156 with little or no available air. A range of atmospheres can be used to ensure anaerobic
 157 conditions, including inert gases such as nitrogen, argon, or helium; reactive gases
 158 such as carbon dioxide or steam; or vacuum. The properties of the products based on
 159 pyrolysis are mainly influenced by the operating conditions, such as the type of inert

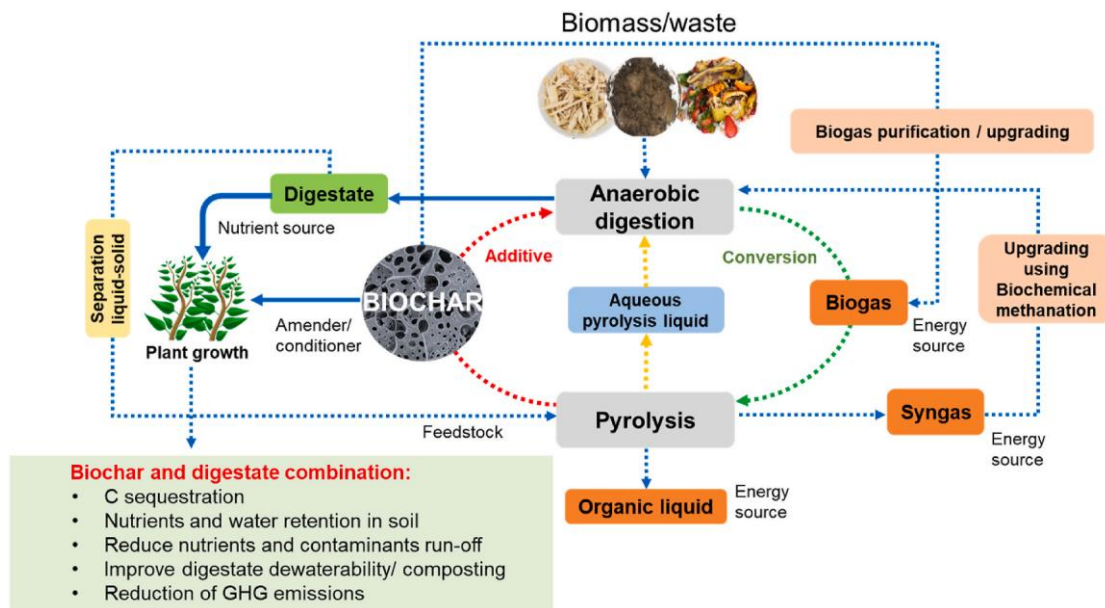
160 gas, flow rate of carrier gas, temperature, heating rate and residence time [32-35].

161 In general, pyrolysis has several advantages due to diverse output products (as liquid,
162 solid, and gas), environmental friendliness and the maturity of the technology. The
163 yields and properties of the target products can be optimized by adjusting the
164 operating conditions of pyrolysis [36]. The valorization of food waste into biochar
165 and bio-oil like products is a highly viable choice in accordance with circular
166 economy principles [37]. State-of-the-art biofuel production from conventional and
167 advanced pyrolysis and the co-pyrolysis of food waste were reviewed recently [38].

168 Various mechanisms are involved in the pyrolysis of food waste [39]. Glucose is one
169 of the most abundant monosaccharides in food waste. During pyrolysis, a dehydration
170 reaction converts glucose into anhydrosugars, which are converted to sorbitol and 1,4-
171 sorbitan through a reduction reaction and a dehydration reaction, respectively,
172 subsequently converted into isosorbide [40]. During the pyrolysis of triglycerides, the
173 major component is lipids. Via decarbonylation, decarboxylation, and fragmentation
174 reactions, glycerol can be converted into acids, esters, alcohols, hydrocarbons, and
175 alicyclic compounds. The decomposition of steroids could generate hydrocarbons
176 [41]. Amine and diketopiperazine species are produced during the pyrolysis of
177 proteins. In the process, amino acids are connected by peptide bonds. Amine species
178 are produced via the breakage of peptide bonds, while diketopiperazine species are
179 generated because of the cyclization of amino acids [42]. To date, investigations of the
180 food waste pyrolysis mechanisms have focused on the individual components.

181 However, the complex interactions between the different components in food waste
182 during pyrolysis remain unclear and should be investigated further.

183 Direct pyrolysis of food waste with high water content would, while technically
184 feasible, require considerable energy input for the drying pretreatment, and
185 evaporation of remaining water. Therefore, integrated conversion systems, e.g., AD +
186 pyrolysis; HTC + pyrolysis, have been developed to efficiently achieve the circular
187 economy of food waste [43-45]. Both AD and HTC readily reduce the water content
188 (especially bound water) from food waste by destroying the cell walls [46]. More
189 importantly, AD recovers valuable biogas and nutrients (digestate) from food waste
190 with high water content. The solid AD residue can then be pyrolyzed for the co-
191 production of biochar and biofuels (e.g., syngas), as illustrated in **Figure 3**. The
192 pyrolysis of solid AD residue from food waste has increasingly attracted the interest
193 of researchers [47-49]. Zhao et al. [47] comparatively studied the pyrolysis of food
194 waste and its solid digestate. Organic matter of food waste was partially consumed
195 during AD, influencing the pyrolysis performance of the resulting solid digestate. The
196 pyrolytic gas from food waste was of better quality because its lower heating value
197 was high. In contrast, the bio-oil and biochar derived from the solid digestate showed
198 better qualities as liquid fuel and carbon sorbents. Pyrolysis of the solid digestate
199 generated fewer N-containing pollutants, indicating that AD coupled with pyrolysis is
200 a more environmentally friendly approach for treating food waste [50].



201

202 **Figure 3.** Integrated anaerobic digestion and pyrolysis process for efficiently
 203 converting food waste into value-added products toward sustainable food waste
 204 management [43]. Copyright permission from Elsevier (License Number:
 205 5437490493245).

206

207 3. Development of engineered biochar derived from food waste

208 3.1. Activation to engineered biochar

209 Biochar and hydrochar have a limited surface area and pore structure, and unspecified
 210 functional groups [34, 51]. Activation treatment aims to improve the textural
 211 properties of biochar and hydrochar by creating and/or digging out the internal porous
 212 structure in order to broaden the practical applications in environmental protection
 213 and energy storage/conversion [51-53].

214 Generally, activation treatments are categorized as physical and chemical. In physical
 215 activation, CO₂, steam, and air at high operating temperatures (even up to 1,000 °C)

216 are widely used [11, 54]. Physical activation is a relatively eco-friendly and cost-
217 effective approach for increasing textural properties (i.e., porosity). Among these
218 post-modification treatments, physical activation exhibits lower global warming
219 potential than chemical activation [55]. Steam and CO₂, both endothermically react
220 with carbon via two major reactions: $C + CO_2 \rightarrow 2CO, \Delta H = 159kJmol^{-1}$; $C +$
221 $H_2O \rightarrow CO + H_2, \Delta H = 119kJmol^{-1}$ [54]. Steam activation effectively improves the
222 porosity and increases the number of O-functional groups on the surface of
223 engineered biochar [56]. Due to its easy handling and low reactivity even at operating
224 temperatures higher than 700 °C, CO₂ gas has become the preferred activating agent,
225 making activation easier to control [57, 58]. However, in the context of carbon
226 neutrality, CO₂ emissions from CO₂ activation are an issue. Although the surface area,
227 total pore volume, and yield of engineered biochar are generally less than 1,000 m²/g,
228 0.7 cm³/g, and 30%, respectively, after physical activation [51, 59], the approach has
229 several key advantages, including minimal corrosion to the activating reactor, high
230 deployment feasibility and low production and operating costs, showing a broad
231 commercial potential of engineered biochar-based practical applications.

232 For chemical activation, acidic (e.g., H₃PO₄, HNO₃, and H₂O₂), alkaline (e.g., KOH
233 and NaOH) and salt (e.g., K₂CO₃, ZnCl₂, and MgCl₂) media are commonly used as
234 chemical agents. These are impregnated with biochar or hydrochar before chemical
235 activation is performed under an inert gas atmosphere [11, 60]. Porosity is directly
236 influenced by the volume of the chemical agent used and the activation temperature.
237 Compared with physical activation, chemical activation has the advantages of low

238 energy consumption due to the low activation temperature and short activation time,
239 and high porosity and yield of the produced engineered biochar. However, issues
240 include intensive chemical corrosion of the reactor during activation, the need for
241 wastewater treatment due to the production of chemically contaminated wastewater,
242 and the extra energy required for subsequent drying of the produced carbon materials.
243 KOH activation is one of the most common and promising routes to produce well-
244 developed porous engineered biochar. In a study engineered biochar was synthesized
245 using KOH activation from water chestnut shells [61], achieving a surface area of
246 3,401 m³/g and a total pore volume of 2.50 cm³/g. It indicates upcycling food waste
247 into engineered biochar has significant potential for practical applications such as gas
248 adsorption and energy storage. However, KOH activation has considerable
249 environmental impacts, including greenhouse gas emissions from activation and high-
250 water consumption for the impregnation before activation and the washing after
251 activation. The environmental impacts need to be fully assessed from a life-cycle
252 perspective when designing a sustainable and feasible activation technique [62].

253 3.2. Modification of surface functional group

254 In addition to good textural properties, the presence of surface functional groups, such
255 as O-, N-, and S-rich groups, critically determines the potential application
256 performance of engineered biochar [63]. For example, typical surface O-functional
257 groups (e.g. -OH and -COOH) dramatically improve the adsorption capacity for
258 capturing CO₂ and removal of metal contaminants from wastewater [64-65].

259 Functional groups can be doped on the surface of engineered biochar through various
 260 modifications [51, 66]. To increase the oxygenated functional groups (e.g., carboxyl
 261 and phenolic hydroxyl), surface oxidation, most commonly with H₂O₂ and HNO₃, is
 262 the most commonly used method [66, 67]; surface amination, such as high-
 263 temperature ammonia (NH₃) treatment, can be used to increase amino groups [68];
 264 surface sulfonation using concentrated sulfuric acid can be used to enrich sulfonic
 265 groups on the surface of engineered biochar. In addition to these single-heteroatom
 266 doping treatments, dual- or tri-doping treatments are used to enrich surface active
 267 sites, enhancing application performance via synergistic effects. For example, N and S
 268 dual-doping is suited for producing engineered biochar for oxygen reduction reactions
 269 (ORRs), rechargeable lithium-oxygen batteries, and supercapacitors [69-72]. In
 270 addition, as shown in **Table 1**, the main advantage of food waste-derived engineered
 271 biochar materials is the production of heteroatom (e.g., O, N, S) self-doped porous
 272 carbons owing to the presence of protein.

273 **Table 1** Comparison of food waste and lignocellulosic biomass-derived engineered
 274 biochar materials

Biomass source	Advantages	Disadvantages
Food waste	1) Relatively low ash content; 2) Relatively low temperature for carbonization and activation process; 3) Suitable for HTC to produce hydrochar; 4) Production of heteroatom (e.g., N, S) self-doped porous carbons if protein used; 5) Uniform structures	1) Pretreatment such as dewatering is required due to high water content; 2) The composition is complex, normally including starch, sugars, protein, lipids, which are difficult to regulate the pore structure.

	compared with lignocellulosic biomass-derived biochar.	
Lignocellulosic biomass	1) Less energy consumption in dewatering 2) Larger specific surface area compared with food waste-derived biochar 3) Hierarchical pore structure	1) High ash content 2) High energy consumption in the grinding process 3) Non-uniform pore structures

275

276 3.3. Machine learning-aided guidelines

277 Machine learning (ML), an artificial intelligence approach, is a promising and
 278 practical alternative to laboratory experiments and computational simulations (e.g.,
 279 density functional theory and Grand canonical Monte Carlo) for designing and
 280 optimizing advanced materials [73]. Several major advantages of ML include
 281 efficiently screening large amounts of data within a short time (at the 10^{-2} s level),
 282 accurately predicting material properties, and effectively identifying the inherent
 283 relationship between material properties and specific applications [74]. Recently, ML
 284 has been extensively used to accelerate carbon material discovery and elucidate the
 285 inherent relationships with their properties and specific applications. As of December
 286 2022, *Web of Science Core Database* search using the search terms ‘carbon materials’
 287 and ‘machine learning’ retrieved 98 peer-reviewed publications; specifically, five
 288 publications in 2019, 20 publications in 2020, 29 publications in 2021 and 38
 289 publications in 2022, implying that the discovery and application of carbon materials
 290 using ML models is an emerging research trend.

291 To the best of our knowledge, most of these publications focused on the forward
292 prediction of target features based on collected datasets of input features by
293 established models within acceptable or reasonable accuracy levels ($R^2 > 0.8$) [74-77].
294 For example, Yuan et al. [77] applied ML to predict CO₂ adsorption performance
295 using biomass waste-derived carbon materials, and Li et al. [76] applied ML to predict
296 and optimize the properties of hydrochar derived from high-moisture municipal solid
297 waste. ML algorithms can improve solid waste-to-resource strategies and help to
298 achieve several United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).
299 Typical forward prediction models are deduced from Pearson's correlation matrix,
300 Shapley values, and others, highlighting the importance of input features for
301 predicting target features [74, 77]. Moreover, the data generated from these models
302 must be interpreted with expert knowledge and experience to draw new conclusions.

303 In addition to forward prediction, ML algorithms are powerful for supporting inverse
304 design, greatly facilitating a paradigm shift towards a closed-loop guideline [51, 80].
305 Through synthesis and validation, ML algorithms enable guided experiments to
306 discover food waste-derived biochar functional materials with bespoke properties.

307 When integrating computational simulations with experimental validation, ML
308 algorithms can accelerate the synthesis of biochar functional materials derived from
309 food waste targeted toward a specific application.

310 Since ML is a data-driven approach, consistent data formatting (i.e., unit consistency)
311 is an essential step in the process. Missing data is a critical issue when performing

312 ML-aided investigations. Generally, each piece of data consists of valid values for all
313 input variables, and those with unsolved missing data are discarded. Sometimes, the
314 missing data issue can be solved by data imputation. Most data are manually extracted
315 from recent publications, which are both time- and labor-consuming. Therefore, it is
316 desirable to create open databases with standard formats to accelerate the ML-based
317 discovery of food waste-derived advanced materials and their potential applications.

318

319 **4. Practical applications of food waste-derived engineered biochar**

320 Engineered biochar produced from food waste has broad applications, including solid
321 fuels, adsorbents for environmental remediation (e.g., CO₂ capture), and
322 electrochemical applications (e.g., energy storage and conversion) [11, 50, 65, 81].
323 Food waste-derived hydrochar produced via HTC has been widely developed for
324 direct use as solid fuels. Moreover, hydrochar produced from the HTC and pyrolysis
325 of food waste can be activated and/or modified to obtain high-performance
326 engineered biochar for energy and environmental applications.

327 **4.1. Solid fuels**

328 Because food waste is mainly composed of organic components (i.e., carbohydrates,
329 protein, and lipids), it has good potential for producing solid fuel with a relatively
330 high heating value. Currently, significant efforts have been taken to produce solid
331 fuels from food waste via HTC [82, 83]. Theppitak et al. [83] compared the pyrolysis

332 and HTC of food waste for solid fuel production. Compared with the biochar
333 produced via HTC, that produced via pyrolysis at temperatures higher than 300 °C
334 showed superior fuel properties, with a high heating value and high fixed carbon
335 content. When the moisture content of the food waste is high (i.e., >75%), the HTC
336 process is more suitable and economically efficient. Moreover, the HTC process
337 removes protein from food waste and simultaneously increases the yield of biochar
338 with a higher heating value due to the carbohydrate-rich fraction. The HTC process
339 also resolves issues related to the heterogeneity of mixed food waste [84]. However,
340 the impacts of factors such as biochar palletization, gas composition, NO_x emission
341 and by-product utilization in the following thermochemical process (i.e., combustion)
342 should be considered [85, 86]. Su et al. [24] recently studied the conversion of food
343 waste (after extracting oil) into solid fuel by the HTC process in a large-scale plant
344 (200 t/d). HTC conditions like residence time, temperature, can significantly influence
345 the physicochemical characteristics, combustion behavior, and alkali metal removal
346 capacity of the produced hydrochar. Most food wastes are composed of
347 carbohydrates, protein, and lipids, making them suitable for the production of solid
348 fuels with a high heating value. Compared with other biomass wastes such as
349 agroforestry residues, food waste also has a lower ash content, especially of alkali and
350 alkaline earth minerals, which may reduce sintering and corrosivity. However, food
351 waste has a high moisture content, so developing a cost-effective dewatering pre-
352 treatment remains a key challenge for advancing practical applications. Moreover, the
353 co-production of oil fuels and biogas can greatly improve the technical- and economic

354 feasibility of converting food waste into energy products.

355 4.2. CO₂ adsorption

356 In the context of carbon neutrality, carbon capture is essential to mitigate climate
357 change [87] owing to the current high atmospheric CO₂ concentration (up to 420
358 ppm) and the increasing annual growth rate of CO₂ (up to 2.4 ppm per year) [88].

359 Carbon capture, alternatively known as greenhouse gas removal or CO₂ removal
360 mainly addresses CO₂ removal from large point-emission sources (e.g., power plants
361 and cement industries) and even from the atmosphere (i.e., direct air capture) [89].

362 Among the available technical approaches, CO₂ adsorption is widely considered a
363 promising and feasible route owing to its mild operating conditions, cost-effectiveness
364 (especially when using solid waste as a precursor for adsorbent synthesis), high
365 feasibility for commercial-scale application, and low energy consumption [11, 51].

366 The circular economy-inspired upcycling of food waste into novel carbon materials
367 for CO₂ adsorption followed by soil remediation has been proposed with the potential
368 of achieving negative carbon emissions [62], representing a sustainable waste-to-
369 resource strategy that simultaneously mitigates climate change. Moreover, surplus
370 electricity, engineered biochar material and captured CO₂ gas can be generated in a
371 sustainable and multifunctional food waste-based system that integrates temperature
372 swing CO₂ adsorption to reach zero carbon emissions. No waste is generated in this
373 circular life-cycle system, which is beneficial for achieving UN Sustainable
374 Development Goals 11 (sustainable cities and communities), 12 (responsible

375 consumption and production), and 13 (climate action). Engineered biochar for CO₂
376 adsorption is expected to have a high CO₂ adsorption capacity, low energy
377 requirement for regeneration, excellent cyclic stability, high selectivity for CO₂ over
378 other gases, and fast kinetic characteristics for adsorption-desorption cycles [51, 90].
379 The CO₂ uptake versus the surface area of food waste (e.g., fruit waste, vegetable
380 waste, shrimp shells, coconut shells, and spent coffee grounds)-derived engineered
381 biochar for CO₂ adsorption is investigated [62, 91, 92], illustrating two major
382 findings. First, through effective synthesis routes, most food waste-derived engineered
383 biochar materials have a viable CO₂ capture performance of more than 3 mol/kg at
384 25 °C (1 bar), in accordance with the US National Energy Technology Laboratory
385 criterion for applicable and practical CO₂ capture. Second, the relationship between
386 CO₂ uptake and Brunauer-Emmett-Teller surface area (S_{BET}) is not linear, suggesting
387 that CO₂ uptake does not exhibit a directly proportional relationship with S_{BET} .
388 However, when plotting CO₂ uptake versus S_{BET} for materials with pores smaller than
389 β nm (S_{β}), an excellent linear relationship was observed between CO₂ uptake and $S_{0.8}$,
390 implying that the performance of food waste-derived engineered biochar materials for
391 CO₂ adsorption is significantly mediated by the surface area, limited by narrow pores
392 smaller than 0.8 nm at 25 °C (1 bar) [62, 93]. As shown in a typical case study
393 presented, the spent coffee grounds generated from Starbucks® is upcycled into
394 engineered biochar with a high-performance CO₂ adsorption capacity of 4.54 mol/kg
395 at 25 °C (1 bar) via simple and sustainable synthesis routes [92], demonstrating the
396 great potential for commercial-scale food waste conversion for CO₂ capture

397 applications.

398 Before globally deploying CO₂ adsorption techniques using food waste-derived
399 engineer biochar materials as adsorbents, several existing challenges or barriers must
400 be addressed. First, CO₂ selectivity over other gases (e.g., N₂) is a critical factor in the
401 potential performance of commercial-scale CO₂ adsorption [94, 95]. To the best of our
402 knowledge, food waste-derived engineered biochar materials have relatively low CO₂
403 selectivity, which could result in low CO₂ purity when evaluating cyclic performance
404 using pressure temperature swing or temperature vacuum swing CO₂ adsorption [94].
405 Moreover, low CO₂ purity products would require further gas sorption and separation
406 treatments to obtain high-purity CO₂ gas for sustainable and practical CO₂ utilization,
407 dramatically increasing the investment for CO₂ capture. Therefore, how to efficiently
408 design engineered biochar materials derived from food waste with high CO₂
409 selectivity remains a significant challenge to be investigated.

410 Second, integrating ML to guide high-performance CO₂ adsorbent preparation is
411 considered a promising route to accelerate the deployment of practical CO₂ adsorption
412 applications [96]. However, thus far, only CO₂ adsorption capacity has been predicted
413 by applying ML to synthesize and optimize engineered biochar materials [74, 97].
414 Other critical indicators, especially CO₂ selectivity, also need to be incorporated into
415 ML models. In addition, following the inverse design perspective, the low CO₂
416 selectivity issue might be solved via several iterations of ML model development and
417 experimental validation [98].

418 Third, environmental impact and economic feasibility are the key factors to assess the
419 emerging CO₂ adsorption technologies from both life cycle and techno-economic
420 perspectives, verifying if environmental benefits and economic feasibility could be
421 achieved [56, 62]. A paradigm shift to interdisciplinary collaboration in CO₂
422 adsorption research is urgently required to achieve the global adoption of CO₂
423 adsorption technologies that can be deployed globally. Collaboration between material
424 science, data science, thermochemical engineering, and environmental engineering
425 researchers is required for developing adequate advanced CO₂ adsorption systems
426 using food waste-derived engineered biochar materials.

427 4.3. Energy storage and conversion

428 Biochar derived from food waste can be activated or modified as engineered biochar
429 materials; N-doped engineered biochar materials show particularly high potential for
430 electrochemical applications [81, 99]. To ensure stable performance, many work have
431 focused on the synthesis of engineered biochar materials with stable properties using
432 specific food waste instead of mixed waste. **Table 2** summarizes the preparation,
433 properties, and performance of engineered biochar materials derived from various
434 food wastes, including carbohydrates (e.g., fruit and starch), protein (e.g., fish), and
435 chitin-enriched waste (e.g., shrimp shell), for advanced electrochemical applications,
436 such as supercapacitors, batteries, ORRs, and hydrogen evolution reactions (HERs).
437 In general, the electrochemical performance of these engineered biochar materials is
438 influenced by the textural structure (e.g., hierarchical porous structure), specific

439 surface area, heteroatom (e.g., N, S, P, and O) doping, and active metal (e.g.,
440 transition metal) loading. Accordingly, these parameters depend on the feedstock type
441 and activation/modification methods used. Carbon materials possessing high specific
442 surface areas, hierarchical porous structure, multiple heteroatom-doping, and metal
443 catalyst loading have been shown to exhibit high electrochemical performance. In
444 particular, hierarchical engineered biochar materials synthesized from food waste
445 have been developed for supercapacitor applications (**Table 2**). Even in the absence of
446 metal catalysts, the maximum capacitance can reach 476,000 F/kg, with high cycling
447 stability (90.9% of the original capacitance retained after 10,000 cycles at
448 1,000 A/kg current density) [100]. This high performance is attributed to the
449 properties of fishbone, which is mainly composed of protein (N, S, and C source) and
450 CaCO_3 (self-template), thereby producing N- and S-doped engineered biochar. The
451 selection of a suitable type of food waste is important for the synthesis of functional
452 carbon materials. For example, shrimp shell composed of chitin (N and C source) and
453 inorganic CaCO_3 (self-template) is considered a promising candidate for producing N-
454 doped engineered biochar [101-103]. Gao et al. [101] prepared N-doped hierarchical
455 engineered biochar from shrimp shells containing abundant mineral scaffold (CaCO_3)
456 as a self-template combined with KOH activation. Shrimp shells were first activated
457 by KOH in an Ar atmosphere to produce micropores at 700 °C, and then the CaCO_3
458 was removed using acetic acid to form hierarchical engineered biochar, which
459 exhibited a high specific capacitance of 348,000 F/kg in a 6 M KOH electrolyte.
460 Wang et al. [103] synthesized a N and P co-doped engineered biochar material

461 embedded with bimetallic phosphide ($\text{FeCoP}_2@\text{NPPC}$), via a sol-gel and
462 carbonization (N_2 , $900\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) process using sustainable N- and P-enriched chitosan and
463 transition metal salts as precursors. $\text{FeCoP}_2@\text{NPPC}$ had good catalytic activities in
464 HERs, oxygen evolution reactions and overall water splitting. It requires low
465 overpotential between 114 to 150 mV at a current density of 10 mA/cm^2 for HERs in
466 $0.5\text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$ and 1.0 M KOH , while the overpotential of 236 mV for OER in 1.0 M
467 KOH solution. The $\text{FeCoP}_2@\text{NPPC}$ material was capable of transferring electrons and
468 electrolytes and increasing the contact area of the active sites and electrolytes. More
469 importantly, the wettability and conductivity of engineered biochar can be improved
470 by doping N- and P-containing functionalities.

471 Currently, viable methods in developing carbon materials from food waste for
472 electrochemical applications are still in an early phase of development. The diversity
473 of food waste and the high cost of synthesis processes significantly limit the large-
474 scale application of waste conversion technologies. Therefore, achieving full
475 valorization of food waste into biofuels, chemicals, and high value-added carbon
476 materials remains an important challenge requiring further investigation. In addition,
477 techno-economic and life-cycle assessments of the integrated processes based on the
478 characteristics of various food wastes are necessary to meet the industrial
479 requirements for large-scale processing.

480

481 **Table 2. Examples of food waste-derived engineered biochar materials for electrochemical applications**

Feedstock	Preparation method	Engineered biochar properties	Electrochemical application	Electrochemical performance	Ref.
Rice	KOH activation with <i>Bacillus cereus</i> (N precursor)	N-doped micro- and mesoporous structure with high specific surface area (1,899 m ² /g)	Li-ion batteries (LIBs), Na-ion batteries (SIBs)	Capacity: 1,006 mA h/g in LIBs at 100 mA/g (100 cycles) and 169 mA h/g in SIBs at 100 mA/g (1,000 cycles).	[104]
Starch	Pyrolysis (Ar, 500 °C) combined with calcination (Ar, 800-1,000 °C)	Hierarchical engineered biochar with high specific surface area (2,200 m ² /g) and controlled porosity	Supercapacitor	Specific capacitance (229 F/g at 1 A/g in a 6 M KOH electrolyte), rate capability (211 F/g at even 10 A/g) and cycling stability (94% capacitance retention after 10,000 cycles at 2 A/g).	[105]
Potato peel	Carbonization with sodium hypophosphite and thioacetamide combined with KOH activation (N ₂ , 750 °C)	S- and P-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with high specific surface area (1,911.5 m ² /g) and controlled porosity	Supercapacitor	Specific capacitance of 323 F/g at 1 A/g, acceptable rate capability and cycling stability after 5,000 cycles	[106]
Apple waste	Hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) (200 °C) combined with KOH activation (CO ₂ , 800 °C)	Hierarchical engineered biochar with high specific surface area (2,000 m ² /g)	Supercapacitor	Specific capacitances: 260-290 F/g	[107]
Orange peel	HTC (150 °C) combined with KOH activation (800 °C)	N-doped engineered biochar and intercrossed, interlinked urchin-like NiCo ₂ O ₄ @3DNF framework	Supercapacitor	High capacitance of 1,300 F/g at a current density of 1 A/g, excellent rate and cyclic performance of 3,500 cycles.	[108]
Banana peel	One-step carbonization (Ar, 800 °C) and subsequent mixing with MoS ₂	MoS ₂ decorated engineered biochar composite with specific surface area of 269 m ² /g and suitable micropores and mesopores.	Hydrogen evolution reaction (HER)	High HER activity and excellent stability in the acid solution, including an overpotential of 150 mV at a current density of -10 mA/cm ² and a Tafel slope of 51 mV/dec.	[109]

Sugarcane bagasse	HTC (240 °C) combined with KOH activation (800 °C)	Oxygen-rich hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 1,436.7 m ² /g and highly microporous.	Supercapacitor	The specific capacitance of 185.5 F/g and 150.7 F/g at a current density of 0.5 and 20 A/g, respectively, and superior cycling performance with 96% capacitance retention after 10,000 cycles at a current density of 10 A/g	[110]
Watermelon peel	Carbonization combined with KOH activation	N-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 782.69 m ² /g and pore volume of 0.44 cm ³ /g	Oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) for Zn-air battery (ZAB)	High specific capacity of 748.9 mA/h g and energy density of 891.2 W/h kg, close to those of the ZAB based on Pt/C	[111]
Coffee grounds	One-step carbonization/activation with ZnCl ₂ (600-900 °C)	N-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 1,200 m ² /g	ORR for ZAB	The half-wave potential was ~870 mV versus Reversible Hydrogen Electrode comparable to the best results reported for metal-free carbon-based materials in alkaline media	[112]
Coffee grounds	One-step carbonization/activation with KOH (1,200 °C)	Hierarchical engineered biochar nanosheet with the specific surface area of 1,945.7 m ² /g	Supercapacitor	Specific energy of 35.4 Wh/kg at 11250 W/kg and 23 Wh/kg for a 3 s charge-discharge current rate, corresponding to a specific power of 30,000 W/kg and good cyclic performance over 5,000 cycles	[113]
Coffee grounds	FeCl ₃ catalytic carbonization combined with KOH activation	Hierarchical engineered biochar with high specific surface area (3,549 m ² /g) and large meso-/macropore volume (1.64 cm ³ /g)	Supercapacitor	The high capacitance of 440 F/g at 0.5 A/g	[114]
Shrimp shell	One-step pyrolysis (Ar, 700 °C) with KOH	N-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 2,032 m ² /g	Supercapacitor	The specific capacitance of 348 F/g in a 6 M KOH electrolyte	[101]
Shrimp shell	One-step pyrolysis (Ar, 800 °C) with KOH	Hierarchical engineered biochar with a high specific surface area (1,271 m ² /g), O-doping (9.08%) and N-	LIBs, supercapacitor	As LIB anode material: specific capacity as high as 1,507 mA h/g and 1,014 mA h/g at current densities of 0.1 A/g and 0.5 A/g, respectively, good rate performance and superior cycling	[102]

		doping (2.86%)		stability; as engineered biochar-based supercapacitor: specific capacitance of 239 F/g at a current density of 0.5 A/g in 6 M KOH electrolyte.	
Shrimp shell	A sol-gel and carbonization (N ₂ , 900 °C) process	FeCoP ₂ nanoparticles embedded in N- and P-doped hierarchical engineered biochar	ORR, HER for water splitting	A low voltage of 1.60 V to deliver a current density of 10 mA /cm ²	[103]
Crab shell	One-step pyrolysis (900 °C)	N- and S-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 827.5 m ² /g	ORR	ORR activity with an onset potential of 0.072 V and a half-potential of 0.110 V (vs. Ag/AgCl) in alkaline electrolytes	[115]
Fish	Pyrolysis with ZnCl ₂ (900 °C)	N-coated hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 850 m ² /g	ORR	Half-potential of 0.060 V lower than that on 20 wt.% Pt/C catalyst	[116]
Fishbone	One-step carbonization (850 °C) without chemical activator	N- and S-doped hierarchical engineered biochar with the specific surface area of 1,337 m ² /g	Supercapacitor	Specific capacitance of 476 F/g and high cycling stability with 90.9% of the original capacitance retained after 10,000 cycles at a 1 A/g current density	[100]

483 **5. Conclusions and outlook**

484 Thermochemical conversions are a promising route for upcycling food waste into high
485 value-added fuels and advanced carbon materials due to the short residence times
486 required, high yields of a wide range of products, high conversion efficiencies and
487 feasible deployment for practical applications. Numerous research focused on
488 optimizing thermochemical reaction conditions with controllable product distributions
489 and elucidation of the reaction mechanisms and evolution pathways. The production
490 of food waste-derived gaseous and liquid products via thermochemical conversions
491 has been widely explored elsewhere. This review summarizes the processes of
492 producing biochar and hydrochar via the slow pyrolysis and HTC of food waste and
493 their by-products. Engineered biochar synthesis through activation (i.e., physical and
494 chemical) and surface modifications (i.e., O-, N-, and S-doping) can be further
495 optimized using ML approaches. Moreover, engineered biochar-based practical
496 applications, such as solid fuels, adsorbents (i.e., CO₂ adsorption), and advanced
497 catalytic conversions (i.e., electrochemical catalysis), were thoroughly reviewed.

498 Food waste is a promising and sustainable alternative to solid fuels. It is often
499 characterized by high-water content. HTC enables the direct conversion of food waste
500 into hydrochar for solid fuel applications. HTC operating conditions (i.e., temperature,
501 pressure, and residence time) significantly affect the physicochemical properties,
502 combustion behavior, and alkali metals contents of the resulting hydrochar. Compared
503 with other biomass waste, such as agroforestry residues, food waste has a lower ash

504 content, especially of alkali and alkaline earth minerals, which is beneficial for
505 reducing both sintering and corrosive risks during thermochemical conversions.
506 However, because of the high moisture content, developing a low-cost and efficient
507 dewatering pre-treatment remains a key challenge. The co-production of bio-oil fuels
508 (from waste cooking oil) and biogas (from AD pre-treatment) dramatically increases
509 both the technical and economic feasibility of thermochemical upcycling.

510 Biochar and hydrochar can be activated and/or modified into advanced engineered
511 biochar materials for energy and environmental applications. Owing to its stable
512 physicochemical properties, tunable pore structures, effective surface functional
513 groups and cost-effectiveness, engineered biochar has been widely synthesized into
514 advanced carbon materials for adsorption and electrochemical applications. In the
515 context of carbon neutrality, paradigm shifts to interdisciplinary collaboration are
516 urgently needed to achieve the circular economy of food waste. For example, material
517 science, data science, thermochemical engineering, and environmental engineering are
518 the basic requirements for developing an advanced CO₂ adsorption system using food
519 waste-derived engineered biochar. Moreover, the wide range of feedstocks and lack of
520 synthesis guidelines for engineered biochar greatly limit its commercial applications.

521 A powerful ML approach has been considered a promising route for synthesizing
522 high-performance engineered biochar. ML can be used not only to accurately predict
523 practical performance using engineered biochar but also to efficiently provide inverse
524 design guidelines to synthesis engineered biochar for a specific application. In
525 addition, both environmental benefits and economic feasibility need to be verified

526 using techno-economic and life-cycle assessments before food waste-derived
527 engineered biochar can be synthesized and applied on an industrial scale.

528 To accelerate the practical applications of food waste-derived engineered biochar
529 materials, several efforts need to be made in the future as follows:

530 (1) AD is still the dominant pre-treatment for sustainable food waste management into
531 methane and solid residue, owing to that it has a better techno-economic feasibility
532 compared with the direct thermochemical processes (e.g., pyrolysis, gasification).
533 However, it is still necessary to perform thermochemical routes for further upcycling
534 solid residue into high value-added engineered biochar materials. In the future, more
535 efforts should be made in the integrated AD and follow-up thermochemical routes for
536 full valorization of food wastes.

537 (2) For the application of food waste-derived engineered biochar as an adsorbent,
538 most of the current research has focused on the conventional pollutants removal (e.g.,
539 VOCs adsorption, CO₂ capture). More efforts need to be made in the development of
540 food waste-derived engineered biochar with functionalized properties, in order to
541 adsorb and convert emerging contaminants into value-added products, simultaneously.

542 (3) Many investigations have been performed in the conversion of diverse food waste
543 to biochar materials for solid biofuel productions or carbon material applications, but
544 these studies mainly focused on the optimization of processing and utilizing
545 conditions. To date, less work has been done in the techno-economic and life-cycle
546 assessment of the whole process including biofuels and carbon materials production
547 and applications, which is beneficial to promoting the industrial applications of food

548 waste-derived value-added products.

549

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558

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