



Article

# A Comparison of Carbon Footprint and Production Cost of Different Pasta Products Based on Whole Egg and Pea Flour

Antonia Nette, Patricia Wolf, Oliver Schlüter and Andreas Meyer-Aurich \*

Department Technology Assessment and Substance Flows, Leibniz-Institute for Agricultural Engineering Potsdam-Bornim, Max-Eyth-Allee 100, 14469 Potsdam, Germany; anette@atb-potsdam.de (A.N.); pwolf@atb-potsdam.de (P.W.); oschlueter@atb-potsdam.de (O.S.)

\* Correspondence: ameyer@atb-potsdam.de; Tel.: +49-331-5699-222

Academic Editor: Francisco J. Morales

Received: 23 December 2015; Accepted: 24 February 2016; Published: 4 March 2016

**Abstract:** Feed and food production are *inter alia* reasons for high greenhouse gas emissions. Greenhouse gas emissions could be reduced by the replacement of animal components with plant components in processed food products, such as pasta. The main components currently used for pasta are semolina, and water, as well as additional egg. The hypothesis of this paper is that the substitution of whole egg with plant-based ingredients, for example from peas, in such a product might lead to reduced greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) and thus a reduced carbon footprint at economically reasonable costs. The costs and carbon footprints of two pasta types, produced with egg or pea protein, are calculated. Plant protein–based pasta products proved to cause 0.57 kg CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents (CO<sub>2</sub>eq) (31%) per kg pasta less greenhouse gas emissions than animal-based pasta, while the cost of production increases by 10% to  $3.00 \, \text{€/kg}$  pasta.

**Keywords:** protein; pea flour; carbon footprint; LCA; pasta

### 1. Introduction

Feed and food production contribute substantially to the emissions of greenhouse gases, which are known to cause global warming with serious environmental and economic threads [1]. The relevant greenhouse gas fluxes affected by agronomic activities are the fluxes of carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ), methane ( $CH_4$ ) and nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ). In particular, livestock, causing 18% of the global greenhouse gas emissions, has a major share [2,3]. Subsequently, food with animal protein components, such as dairy (cheese: 8.8 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg cheese) and meat products (beef: 29.0 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg beef), show high greenhouse gas emissions. Besides animal products, few vegetables and cereals (tomato: 5.3 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg tomato; rice: 1.2 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg rice) are also generating high emissions. Greenhouse gas emissions could be reduced by the replacement of animal with plant components in foods. It is conceivable to use grain legumes, such as peas or beans, as such plant replacement components. Grain legumes, such as peas with a carbon footprint of 0.49 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg pea, have been suggested as a very efficient source of protein in terms of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions per kg [4]. Pea-based protein has proved to be very well suited for the fortification of pasta products and the improvement of techno-functional and sensorial properties, and thus could very well substitute animal-based ingredients of processed foods [5].

Besides the greenhouse gas mitigation effect of substituting animal protein with legume protein, the integration of grain legumes in crop rotations has positive effects on soil fertility and soil health [6]. Owing to the formation of taproots, grain legumes improve the soil structure and result in a more diverse crop rotation. Furthermore, the plants form a symbiosis with bacteria of the family Rhizobiaceae, which can bind atmospheric nitrogen in the soil and make it available for plants [6,7].

An enrichment of grain legumes such as peas in foodstuffs has, in addition to the aforementioned improvements in agriculture, positive effects on human health. They are rich in certain minerals and vitamins [8]. The content of crude protein of 225 g per kg dry matter [9] qualifies peas to be used as replacers for animal-derived proteins, contributing to enhancing the protein content of cereal-based meals and to improving the nutritional status of cereal-based diets. Regarding amino acid composition, especially combinations of cereal and legume proteins are beneficial. As cereal proteins are deficient in certain essential amino acids, particularly lysine [8], legumes have been reported to contain adequate amounts of lysine (15.7 g/kg of dry matter) [9]. Thus, thanks to their inherent botanical make-up and the basis of the ingredients, grain legumes can increase the amount of protein in cereal-based diets [8,9]. In addition, high amounts of protein, a low glycemic index and high fiber content are other favorable factors for biological activities which are essential to human health. It has been reported that grain legumes reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases, diabetes or cancer, especially colon cancer [10–12], which may also be a reason for the increased interest in using pea-based ingredients in processed foods.

In contrast to the aforementioned health benefits, the consumption of proteins from grain legumes compared to animal proteins is very low. This is *inter alia* due to a poor digestibility of legumes and the presence of anti-nutritional substances in the plant [13,14]. In order to make better use of legumes in processed foods, it is necessary to eliminate the aforementioned restrictive factors and to communicate the benefits to the consumer. However, due to several ethical and personal reasons, nowadays, more consumers are interested in replacing proteins of animal origin.

One possible food product in which ingredients of animal origin could be replaced by plant components is pasta. The currently used main components of pasta are semolina (made of wheat) and water. Furthermore, eggs in the form of raw or pasteurized whole egg can also be added [6,15–18]. This paper analyzes the use of two different pasta products, with and without animal ingredients, which differ in costs and product-specific GHG emissions.

# 2. Materials and Methods

# 2.1. Modeling the Value Chain of Two Pasta Products Based on Protein from Egg and Peas

For the environmental and economic analyses, the first step is to analyze the value chain of pasta production. A typical value chain of pasta production consists of the main process steps: "raw material production", "food production", "packaging", "distribution" and "consumer". This includes the corresponding sub-processes (Figure 1).

Typically, for one kg of pasta enhanced with protein from hens' eggs (Pasta<sub>egg</sub>), 0.8 kg semolina, 0.2 kg whole egg powder and 0.3 L water are needed [17,19]. For comparison, we calculated costs and greenhouse gas emissions of a pasta product (Pasta<sub>pea</sub>) which consists of 0.2 kg pea protein flour instead of whole egg powder, based on data provided by Nielsen *et al.* [5].

Input and output data for the main process step of "raw material production" were taken from available databases on agricultural production [20–24]. The production data of pea protein flour are given by the company "GEA Westfalia Seperator Group" [25] and available data from scientific literature [26,27]. Data on spray-dried whole egg powder and on the whole process of dry pasta production (pasta production, packaging, distribution and consumer) were gathered from available data from pasta producers and scientific literature [17,19,24,28,29].

## 2.2. Cost Analysis of the Pasta Products Based on Protein from Egg and Peas

For the cost analysis, costs of the ingredients and the production, as well as the sale price for the wholesale and retail trade, were gathered from available data sources. The purchase prices of the ingredients, semolina  $(0.50 \, \text{€/kg} \, \text{dry matter})$ , whole egg powder  $(1.90 \, \text{€/kg} \, \text{dry matter})$  and pea protein flour  $(2.50 \, \text{€/kg} \, \text{dry matter})$ , were based on the expert judgment of a project partner [30]. A water

price of  $2.60 \, \text{e/m}^3$  was assumed [31]. During processing,  $0.3 \, \text{L}$  of water per kg pasta was accounted for, which in part was removed with the drying to a water content of 12.5% for both pastas [19].

According to Panno *et al.* [32], the costs of the process step of "pasta production" consist of the costs of raw materials (77%), labor (14%), electric and thermal energy (6%) as well as packaging (3%). For the Pasta<sub>pea</sub>, the calculated values for labor, electricity and thermal energy of the Pasta<sub>egg</sub> were used. The price calculations for the wholesale and retail trade are determined by the procurement costs, the handling costs and the mark-up, according to calculation templates of the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy [33]. Reference costs include the costs for shipping or the delivery of products. The handling costs include, for example, the costs for administration or sale negotiations. For the calculation of the wholesale price and retail trade for Pasta<sub>egg</sub> and Pasta<sub>pea</sub>, handling costs of 35% and a mark-up of 10% were used.

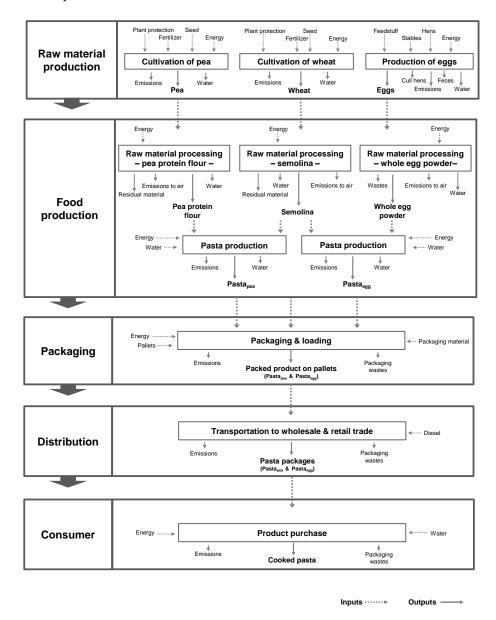


Figure 1. The value chain of the pasta production for Pasta<sub>egg</sub> and Pasta<sub>pea</sub>.

## 2.3. Carbon Footprint of the Pasta Products Based on Protein from Egg and Peas

The carbon footprints of the two pasta products were based on the estimated fluxes of all relevant GHGs, mainly  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$ , according to their global warming potential for a 100-year time

Foods 2016, 5, 17 4 of 8

frame [34] and expressed in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents (CO<sub>2</sub>eq) per kg pasta product, based on a life cycle assessment approach. Accordingly, CO<sub>2</sub>eq emissions from the production taking into account all relevant pre-chain emissions were estimated for the carbon footprint of the pasta products according to the relevant products and processes involved in the different value chains (Table 1). The GHG emissions of the production of wheat, pea, egg and water were downscaled to the amounts correspondingly required for the pasta product [4]. These were 0.8 kg semolina, 0.3 L water and 0.2 kg whole egg for the production of one kg dry Pasta<sub>egg</sub> and 0.8 kg semolina, 0.3 L water and 0.2 kg pea protein flour for the production of one kg Pasta<sub>pea</sub>. The emissions for the whole egg powder production were calculated according to a steam-drying process, using a vibro-fluid bed dryer [35]. The process data were translated into GHG emissions for the respective whole egg powder using data provided by the Ecoinvent database [36].

**Table 1.** Relevant greenhouse gas (GHG) emission fluxes for the products and processes of the considered value chains.

	Reference Unit	GHG Emissions (kg CO <sub>2eq</sub> <sup>1</sup> )	Source
Products			
Pea protein flour	kg protein	0.94	[36]
Wheat	kg wheat	0.58	[4]
Egg	kg egg	3.00	[4]
Water	kg water	$3.19 \times 10^{-4}$	[36]
Processes			
Egg drying	kg egg	0.78	[35]
Semolina milling	kg wheat	0.06	[37]
Pasta production	kg pasta	0.27	[37]
Packaging	kg pasta	0.13	[37]
Transport and Distribution	kg pasta	0.11	[37]

<sup>1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents.

For the pea protein flour production and water, data provided by the Ecoinvent database [36] were used. Data for the milling process of wheat, pasta production, packaging and distribution were taken from Ruini and Marino [37].

# 3. Results

## 3.1. Costs of Pasta Production

The total production costs for one kg Pasta<sub>egg</sub> with a content of 0.8 kg semolina, 0.3 L water and 0.2 kg whole egg sum to  $1.00 \, \text{€/kg}$  dry pasta (Figure 2). In comparison, production costs for one kg Pasta<sub>pea</sub> with 0.2 kg pea protein flour instead of whole egg sum to  $1.10 \, \text{€/kg}$  dry pasta. Including assumptions on the wholesale process results in prices of  $1.65 \, \text{€/kg}$  pasta Pasta<sub>egg</sub> and  $1.85 \, \text{€/kg}$  pasta for Pasta<sub>pea</sub>. The calculated retail price which has to be paid by the consumer is  $2.70 \, \text{€/kg}$  for the Pasta<sub>egg</sub> and  $3.00 \, \text{€/kg}$  pasta for the Pasta<sub>pea</sub>. Thus, the Pasta<sub>egg</sub> has an estimated  $0.30 \, \text{€/kg}$  pasta lower price than the Pasta<sub>pea</sub>.

Foods **2016**, 5, 17 5 of 8

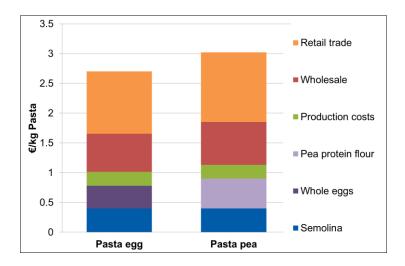


Figure 2. Price calculation for Pastaegg and Pastapea.

Decisive factors for the retail price are the costs of ingredients and the production process. The pea protein flour has a purchase price of  $2.50 \, \text{€/kg}$  dry matter more expensive than the whole egg (purchase price of  $1.90 \, \text{€/kg}$  dry matter). Accordingly, the Pasta<sub>egg</sub> has a higher retail price.

## 3.2. Carbon Footprint of Pasta Production

The  $CO_2$ eq emissions for the whole production of the two pasta types (from the agricultural steps to the final product) are 1.79 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg dry pasta for the  $Pasta_{egg}$  and 1.22 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg dry pasta for the  $Pasta_{pea}$  (Figure 3).

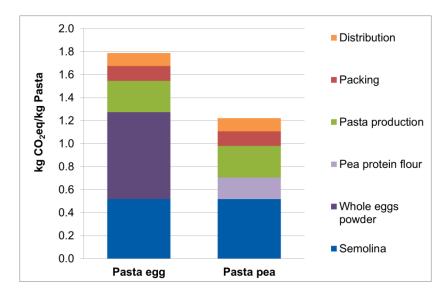


Figure 3. Carbon footprint of different pasta types.

The difference between the emissions stems from the high emissions of the whole egg powder production. The production of the pea protein flour requires a high amount of energy for the processes of grinding as well as air classification. Anyhow, in comparison to the egg production, the total emissions of pea flour production are much lower than the production of the whole egg powder.

## 4. Discussion

The production costs of the two pasta products differ a little (0.30 €/kg pasta), and this is mainly determined by the higher costs of pea protein flour extraction compared to the costs of egg

pasteurization. This finding is in accordance with others [24,27]. In the case of pea protein flour, one possible reason for the higher protein price may be the limited demand of pea protein flour compared to whole egg. However, the protein concentration of the pasta based on whole egg is slightly lower (204 g/kg dry pasta) compared to the pasta based on pea flour (212 g/kg dry pasta). Taking this difference into account with a protein-corrected composition of the two pastas, however, only marginally affects the cost difference of the two pastas (0.29  $\notin$  /kg pasta).

The techno-functional and sensory quality of a new product is also an important criterion for the consumer. The aspects of sensory attributes such as the taste or the overall impression of a pea-rich pasta product were analyzed by Linsberger *et al.* [16]. The pasta products of their study consisted of 50% pea flour and 50% durum flour or 100% pea flour. With regard to the techno-functionality, it was found that an increase of legumes causes a higher cooking loss. Furthermore, the taste, structure and color of legume-rich pasta products were judged inferior, especially for durum flour pasta. A reduction of the legume flour to 20% pea protein flour in the product has been proven to achieve much better results in such a sensorial test [5].

In comparison to the reference pasta product (Pasta<sub>egg</sub>), Pasta<sub>pea</sub> was shown to emit 35.5% (0.42 kg  $CO_2$ eq/kg product) less GHGs over the whole value chain. The difference between the emissions stems from the high emissions of whole egg powder production and the pre-chain emissions due to feed and husbandry of the hens. The production of the pea protein flour also requires a high amount of energy for the processes of grinding as well as air classification, resulting in high GHG emissions. However, in comparison to the egg production, the total emissions of pea-based pasta are still low [15,27]. This finding is in accordance with other studies, which show the potential impact of changed diets on the environment and especially on greenhouse gas emissions [4,38,39].

Compared to the small change in the ingredients of the product, the impact on the carbon footprint is substantial. Mainly due to higher costs of the pea protein flour, the calculated selling price would be increased 10% (0.30 €/kg pasta). It can be imagined that a communication of the impact on the carbon footprint to the consumer could be a strong selling argument, which justifies the higher price. Furthermore, the positive effects of pea cultivation for agriculture, and the likewise positive effects for human health, may be a benefit for the consumer and society as a whole.

**Acknowledgments:** This project was funded by the project LeguAN "Innovative and Integrated Value Creation Concepts for Functional Food and Animal Feed from Domestic Pulses: from Cultivation to Use", sponsored by the Federal Institute for Agriculture and Nutrition (BLE). The publication of this article was funded by the Open Access fund of the Leibniz Association.

**Author Contributions:** A.N. and A.M. designed the research hypothesis and the system boundaries for the analysis; A.N. and P.W. analyzed the data; all authors were involved in writing the paper.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

#### References

- 1. Blanco, G.; Gerlagh, R.; Suh, S.; Barrett, J.; de Coninck, H.C.; Diaz Morejon, C.F.; Mathur, R.; Nakicenovic, N.; Ofosu Ahenkora, A.; Pan, J.; et al. Drivers, trends and mitigation. In Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change; Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; Edenhofer, O., Pichs-Madruga, R., Sokona, Y., Farahani, E., Kadner, S., Seyboth, K., Adler, A., Baum, I., Brunner, S., Eickemeier, P., et al, Eds.; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, 2014.
- 2. Steinfeld, H.; Gerber, P.; Wassenaar, T.; Castel, V.; Rosales, M.; de Haan, C. *Livestock's Long Shadow*. *Environmental Issues and Options*; Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome, Italy, 2006.
- 3. Wirsenius, S.; Hedenus, F.; Mohlin, K. Greenhouse gas taxes on animal food products: Rationale, tax scheme and climate mitigation effects. *Clim. Chang.* **2011**, *108*, 159–184. [CrossRef]
- González, A.D.; Frostell, B.; Carlsson-Kanyama, A. Protein efficiency per unit energy and per unit greenhouse gas emissions: Potential contribution of diet choices to climate change mitigation. *Food Policy* 2011, 36, 562–570. [CrossRef]
- 5. Nielsen, M.A.; Sumner, A.K.; Whalley, L.L. Fortification of pasta with pea flour and air-classified pea protein concentrate. *Cereal Chem.* **1980**, *57*, 203–206.

6. Siddique, K.M.; Johansen, C.; Turner, N.; Jeuffroy, M.-H.; Hashem, A.; Sakar, D.; Gan, Y.; Alghamdi, S. Innovations in agronomy for food legumes. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* **2012**, *32*, 45–64. [CrossRef]

- 7. Wehling, P. Cultivation and breeding of legumes in germany-current status and perspectives. *J. Kulturpflanzen* **2009**, *61*, 359–364.
- 8. Iqbal, A.; Khalil, I.A.; Ateeq, N.; Sayyar Khan, M. Nutritional quality of important food legumes. *Food Chem.* **2006**, *97*, 331–335. [CrossRef]
- 9. Böhm, H.; Aulrich, K.; Berk, A. Rohprotein—und Aminosäurengehalte in Körnerleguminosen und Getreide; Content of Protein and Amino Acids in Grain Legumes and Cereals; Zwischen Tradition und Globalisierung—9. Wissenschaftstagung Ökologischer Landbau, 20–23 March 2007; Zikeli, S., Claupein, W., Dabbert, S., Kaufmann, B., Müller, T., Valle Zárate, A., Eds.; Universität Hohenheim: Stuttgart, Deutschland, 2007.
- 10. Xu, B.; Chang, S.K.C. Comparative study on antiproliferation properties and cellular antioxidant activities of commonly consumed food legumes against nine human cancer cell lines. *Food Chem.* **2012**, *134*, 1287–1296. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 11. Duranti, M. Grain legume proteins and nutraceutical properties. *Fitoterapia* **2006**, 77, 67–82. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 12. Alonso, R.; Orúe, E.; Marzo, F. Effects of extrusion and conventional processing methods on protein and antinutritional factor contents in pea seeds. *Food Chem.* **1998**, *63*, 505–512. [CrossRef]
- 13. Abd El-Hady, E.A.; Habiba, R.A. Effect of soaking and extrusion conditions on antinutrients and protein digestibility of legume seeds. *LWT Food Sci. Technol.* **2003**, *36*, 285–293. [CrossRef]
- 14. Alonso, R.; Grant, G.; Dewey, P.; Marzo, F. Nutritional assessment *in vitro* and *in vivo* of raw and extruded peas (*Pisum sativum* 1.). *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2000**, 48, 2286–2290. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 15. Boye, J.I.; Aksay, S.; Roufik, S.; Ribéreau, S.; Mondor, M.; Farnworth, E.; Rajamohamed, S.H. Comparison of the functional properties of pea, chickpea and lentil protein concentrates processed using ultrafiltration and isoelectric precipitation techniques. *Food Res. Int.* **2010**, *43*, 537–546. [CrossRef]
- 16. Linsberger, G.; Schonlechner, R.; Berghofer, E. Herstellung von Keksen, Snackprodukten und Teigwaren aus Getreide und einheimischen Leguminosen. *Nutrition* **2006**, *30*, 505–514.
- 17. Alamprese, C.; Iametti, S.; Rossi, M.; Bergonzi, D. Role of pasteurisation heat treatments on rheological and protein structural characteristics of fresh egg pasta. *Eur. Food Res. Technol.* **2005**, 221, 759–767. [CrossRef]
- 18. Schneider, A.V.C. Overview of the market and consumption of puises in europe. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2002**, *88*, 243–250. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 19. Bevilacqua, M.; Braglia, M.; Carmignani, G.; Zammori, F.A. Life cycle assessment of pasta production in italy. *J. Food Qual.* **2007**, *30*, 932–952. [CrossRef]
- 20. Cederberg, C.; Sonesson, U.; Henriksson, M.; Sund, V.; Davis, J. *Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Swedish Production of Meat, Milk and Eggs 1990 and 2005*; SIK-Institutet för livsmedel och bioteknik: Borås, Schweden, 2009.
- 21. KTBL. *Betriebsplanung Landwirtschaft* 2012/2013; Kuratorium für Technik und Bauwesen in der Landwirtschaft (KTBL): Darmstadt, Germany, 2012.
- 22. LELF. Datensammlung für die Betriebsplanung und Die Betriebswirtschaftliche Bewertung Landwirtschaftlicher Produktionsverfahren—Ackerbau, Grünlandwirtschaft und Tierproduktion; Ministerium für Ländliche Entwicklung, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz des Landes Brandenburg (MULV): Potsdam, Germany, 2010.
- 23. Rosenberger, G.; Damme, K. Weitere nutztiere-geflügel. In *Die Landwirtschaft: Tierische Erzeugung: Grundlagen der Fütterung, Grundlagen der Tierzucht, Rinderhaltung und—Fütterung, Schweinehaltung und—Fütterung;* Verband der Landwirtschaftsberater in Bayern e.V., Ed.; BLV: München, Germany, 2007.
- 24. Van Horne, P.L.M.; Bondt, N. *Impact of eu Council Directive 99/74/ec "Welfare of Laying Hens" on the Competitiveness of the eu Egg Industry*; The Agricultural Economics Research Institute (LEI): The Hague, The Netherlands, 2003.
- 25. Group, G.W.S. Pea Starch and Pea Protein. Available online: http://www.westfalia-separator.com/applications/renewable-resources/pea-starch-pea-protein.html (accessed on 7 August 2014).
- 26. Al-Abbas, S.; Bogracheva, T.Y.; Topliff, I.O.; Crosley, I.; Hedley, C.L. Separation and characterisation of starch-rich fractions from wild-type and mutant pea seeds. *Starch Stärke* **2006**, *58*, 6–17. [CrossRef]
- 27. Wild, F. Herstellung und Charakterisierung von Proteinprodukten aus Palerbsen und Deren Potential zur Bildung von Proteinmatrices Mit Hohen Lipidanteilen in Futtermitteln für Salmoniden; Technische Universität Berlin: Berlin, Germany, 2012.

28. Ruini, L. Pasta and sustainability. In Proceedings of the World Pasta Day Conference, Istanbul, Turkry, 25 October 2013.

- 29. Caboni, M.F.; Boselli, E.; Messia, M.C.; Velazco, V.; Fratianni, A.; Panfili, G.; Marconi, E. Effect of processing and storage on the chemical quality markers of spray-dried whole egg. *Food Chem.* **2005**, 92, 293–303. [CrossRef]
- 30. Karge, F.; (Institut für Lebensmittel—und Umweltforschung e.V., Nuthetal, Germany). Personal communication, 2014.
- 31. Bundesamt, S. 1000 L Trinkwasser kosteten 2013 im Durchschnitt 1,69 Euro; Statistisches Bundesamt: Wiesbaden, Germany, 2014.
- 32. Panno, D.; Messineo, A.; Dispenza, A. Cogeneration plant in a pasta factory: Energy saving and environmental benefit. *Energy* **2007**, *32*, 746–754. [CrossRef]
- 33. Available online: http://www.existenzgruender.de/SharedDocs/Downloads/DE/Checklisten-Uebersichten/Preiskalkulation-Rechnungswesen/03\_check-Preiskalkulation-Handel.html (accessed on 20 December 2015).
- Solomon, S.; Qin, D.; Manning, M.; Alley, R.B.; Berntsen, T.; Bindoff, N.L.; Al, E. Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis; Contribution of Working Group i to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK; New York, NY, USA, 2007; pp. 31–34.
- 35. Mujumdar, A.S. Handbook of Industrial Drying; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, USA, 2014.
- 36. Weidema, B.; Hischier, R. *Ecoinvent Data v.* 2.2.; Agroscope Reckenholz-Tänikon Research Station ART: Zürich and Dübendorf, Switzerland, 2010.
- 37. Ruini, L.; Marino, M. Lca of semolina dry pasta produced by barilla. In Proceedings of the Sustainable Development: A Challenge for European Research, Brussels, Belgium, 26–28 May 2009.
- 38. Carlsson-Kanyama, A.; González, A.D. Potential contributions of food consumption patterns to climate change. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* **2009**, *89*, 1704–1709. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 39. Reijnders, L.; Soret, S. Quantification of the environmental impact of different dietary protein choices. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* **2003**, *78*, 664–668.



© 2016 by the authors; licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons by Attribution (CC-BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).