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Reference:

Cagnetta Cristina, Saerens Bart, Meerburg Francis A., Decru Stijn O., Broeders Eddie, Menkveld Wilbert, Vandekerckhove Tom G.L., De Vrieze Jo, Vlaeminck Siegfried, Verliefde Arne R.D.,- High-rate activated sludge systems combined with dissolved air flotation enable effective organics removal and recovery
Bioresource technology - ISSN 0960-8524 - 291(2019), 121833

Full text (Publisher's DOI): <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.BIORTECH.2019.121833>

To cite this reference: <https://hdl.handle.net/10067/1610980151162165141>

Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0960-8524(19)31063-6
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2019.121833>
Article Number: 121833
Reference: BITE 121833

To appear in: *Bioresource Technology*

Received Date: 5 April 2019
Revised Date: 14 July 2019
Accepted Date: 15 July 2019

Please cite this article as: Cagnetta, C., Saerens, B., Meerburg, F.A., Decru, S.O., Broeders, E., Menkveld, W., Vandekerckhove, T.G.L., De Vrieze, J., Vlaeminck, S.E., R. D. Verliefde, A., De Gussemme, B., Weemaes, M., Rabaey, K., High-rate activated sludge systems combined with dissolved air flotation enable effective organics removal and recovery, *Bioresource Technology* (2019), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2019.121833>

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High-rate activated sludge systems combined with dissolved air flotation enable effective organics removal and recovery

Cristina Cagnetta ^{a, 1}, Bart Saerens ^{b, 1}, Francis A. Meerburg ^{b, 1}, Stijn O. Decru ^a,
Eddie Broeders ^c, Wilbert Menkveld ^c, Tom G.L. Vandekerckhove ^a, Jo De Vrieze ^a,
Siegfried E. Vlaeminck^{a, d}, Arne R. D. Verliefde ^e, Bart De Gusseme ^a,
Marjoleine Weemaes ^{b, 2}, Korneel Rabaey ^{a, 2, *}

^a Center for Microbial Ecology and Technology (CMET), Ghent University, Coupure Links 653, 9000 Ghent, Belgium.

^b Aquafin NV, Dijkstraat 8, 2630 Aartselaar, Belgium.

^c Nijhuis Water Technology, Innovatieweg 4, 7007 Doetinchem, The Netherlands.

^d Research group of Sustainable Energy, Air and Water Technology, University of Antwerp, Groenenborgerlaan 171, 2020 Antwerp, Belgium.

^e Particle and Interfacial Technology Group (PaInT), Ghent University, Coupure Links 653, 9000 Ghent, Belgium.

¹ Equally contributed

² Equally contributed

* Corresponding author. E-mail address: Korneel.Rabaey@UGent.be; Tel. +32 9 264 5976;

Fax. +32 9 264 6248; <http://cmet.ugent.be>.

1 Abstract

2 High-rate activated sludge (HRAS) systems typically generate diluted sludge which requires
3 further thickening prior to anaerobic digestion (AD), besides the need to add considerable
4 coagulant and flocculant for the solids separation. As an alternative to conventional
5 gravitational settling, a dissolved air flotation (DAF) unit was coupled to a HRAS system or a
6 high-rate contact stabilization (HiCS) system. The HRAS-DAF system allowed up to 78%
7 removal of the influent solids, and the HiCS-DAF 67%. Both were within the range of values
8 typically obtained for HRAS-settler systems, albeit at a lower chemical requirement. The
9 separated sludge had a high concentration of up to 47 g COD L⁻¹, suppressing the need of
10 further thickening before AD. Methanation tests showed a biogas yield of up to 68% on a
11 COD basis. The use of a DAF separation system can thus enable direct organics removal at
12 high sludge concentration and with low chemical needs.

13 Keywords

14 Adsorption/Bio-oxidation system; Dissolved air flotation (DAF); High-rate activated sludge
15 (HRAS) system; Sludge thickening; Waste activated sludge (WAS);

16 1 Introduction

17 Municipal wastewater is produced in vast quantities, today representing an unused source for
18 water, energy, organics and nutrients (Verstraete et al., 2009). Municipal wastewater is
19 typically treated in a conventional activated sludge (CAS) system. The goal is to create clean
20 water for discharge or reuse by removing organic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus, with
21 minimal waste sludge formation. To improve the recovery of organics from wastewater, a
22 two-stage adsorption/bio-oxidation system (AB system) can be implemented instead of CAS
23 (Versprille et al., 1985; Boehnke et al., 1997). The primary treatment stage of an AB system is
24 an aerobic A-stage for partial carbon removal. The A-stage operates as a high-rate activated
25 sludge (HRAS) process, with sludge-specific loading rates between 2 and 10 kg
26 biodegradable chemical oxygen demand per kg of volatile suspended solids per day (kg
27 bCOD kg VSS⁻¹ d⁻¹). This is followed by a lowly loaded B-stage to ensure nitrogen removal
28 and final polishing (Boehnke et al., 1997). Compared with CAS systems, HRAS systems are
29 operated at a short hydraulic retention time (HRT, 30–60 min) and solids retention time (SRT;
30 < 2 days). This results in a low degree of organics mineralization, so that the majority of the
31 organics are redirected to the sludge via biological flocculation, sorption and storage
32 mechanisms (Boehnke et al., 1997; Jimenez et al., 2015; Meerburg et al., 2015). The produced
33 A-sludge is well suited for organic resource and energy recovery, given its high
34 biodegradability, with a conversion efficiency to CH₄ of 60% to even up to 70% during
35 anaerobic digestion (AD) (Van Haandel and van der Lubbe, 2007; De Vrieze et al., 2013).
36 Theoretically, it is possible to achieve energy-neutral wastewater treatment through the AB
37 system combined with AD of the A-stage sludge (Constantine et al., 2012). Compared with
38 physical-chemical primary treatment, HRAS systems offer the advantage that they can
39 effectively remove soluble organics as well. In full-scale AB plants treating domestic
40 wastewater, the A-stage typically removes around 45–68% of TSS, and 45–74% of COD (de

41 Graaff et al., 2016; Ge et al., 2017; Trzcinski et al., 2016). However, sludge produced at high
42 loading rates and short SRTs suffers from poor settling characteristics. In case gravitational
43 settling is used, this may result in sub-optimal solid/liquid separation (Modin et al., 2014;
44 Ramalho, 2013). Typically, FeCl_3 is added to improve sludge settleability, and achieve
45 phosphorus removal at the same time (Jiang and Graham, 1998; de Graaff et al., 2016). Still,
46 even with the addition of FeCl_3 , A-stage systems currently only recover between 24–48% of
47 the organic carbon in sewage as sludge (de Graaff et al., 2016). Due to low compaction during
48 the settling process, the concentration of A-sludge is often limited to 0.5–1.5% solids
49 (Cagnetta et al., 2016), and further thickening is required prior to AD, necessitating the
50 addition of polyelectrolytes.

51 To advance towards an energy-neutral or even energy-positive wastewater treatment, it is
52 necessary to maximize recovery of sewage organics. For this purpose, Meerburg et al. (2015)
53 proposed the use of a high-rate contact stabilization (HiCS) system as an improvement of the
54 HRAS system. This system creates a feast-famine regime in the A-stage, which was shown to
55 improve bio-flocculation, bio-sorption and storage of the organics, increasing the overall
56 recovery of organics into sludge (Meerburg et al., 2015). Alternative technologies include the
57 retention and concentration of A-sludge via the use of a membrane bioreactor type HRAS
58 (HR-MBR), producing a solids-free effluent (Akanyeti et al., 2010; Faust et al., 2014). Similar
59 to other HRAS sludge types, thickening of the HiCS sludge and HR-MBR sludge is however
60 still required before AD, which may lead to further bCOD loss.

61 This work proposes to improve the separation of A-stage sludge and increase its solids
62 concentration by means of dissolved air flotation (DAF). The DAF process relies on flotation
63 of (sludge) particles via hydrophobic interactions with micro-bubbles produced by
64 supersaturating the liquid with a gas, typically air (Haarhoff, 2008; Wang et al., 2005). To
65 achieve efficient solid/liquid separation in a DAF unit, dosage of coagulants (FeCl_3 , AlCl_3 or

66 polyelectrolytes), and in some cases also flocculants, is necessary to effectively neutralize
67 negative charges on the sludge particles, so they can form larger aggregates (Liu and Fang,
68 2003). Treatment of municipal wastewater with DAF in combination with an aerated contact
69 tank has already been tried in limited cases. Such systems can remove up to 81% of the
70 influent TSS and 67% of the COD, using waste activated sludge (WAS) generated in the
71 downstream secondary treatment as inoculum for the contact tank (Ding et al., 2015). DAF
72 has also been used to thicken secondary CAS sludge, and offers multiple benefits compared to
73 a settler, *e.g.*, lower hydraulic retention times, lower volumetric requirements, better solids
74 separation, and increased thickening of the sludge up to 7% solids (Bolto and Gregory, 2007;
75 Bratby and Marais, 1976; Wang et al., 2005). Because of the high solids concentration in the
76 sludge, a DAF system may suppress the need of a sludge thickening step prior to AD and may
77 thus replace the combination of settler and thickener, leading to economic advantages (Ding
78 et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2005).

79 In this work, it was hypothesized that a HRAS/HiCS system can be successfully used in
80 combination with DAF to improve the solid/liquid separation of A-stage systems to increase
81 the sludge concentration to a level competitive to the combination of gravity settling and
82 thickening. To evaluate the use of HRAS/HiCS-DAF as a primary treatment step (A-stage) in
83 municipal wastewater treatment, the following was assessed in a pilot-scale reactor setup: (1)
84 removal of organic matter, (2) degree of concentration of the DAF sludge, and (3) biogas
85 conversion of the sludge with AD. An assessment on nitrogen removal from the DAF effluent
86 (B-stage) is also given.

87 2 Materials and Methods

88 2.1 Pilot-scale high-rate activated sludge system combined with dissolved air flotation 89 setup

90 The pilot-scale HRAS-DAF consisted of a cylindrical contact tank (A-stage) with a diameter
91 of 1.6 m and a working volume of 2 m³, connected to a 2 m³ DAF unit (Nijhuis Water and
92 Technology, The Netherlands) (Figure 1). Municipal wastewater (Table 1) was collected from
93 the wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) of Aartselaar (Belgium), after grit removal and a
94 sand trap. It was filtered in a drum filter to remove large particles (1 mm pore size), and fed to
95 the contact tank at a flow rate of 2 m³ h⁻¹. The contact tank was continuously mixed and
96 aerated by means of fine-bubble aeration at a dissolved oxygen set point between 1.5 and 2.5
97 mg L⁻¹. The mixed liquor (ML) was transferred to the DAF unit with a cavity pump. The
98 coagulant was dosed in the ML right before the cavity pump, and the polymer(s) was/were
99 added in the loop of the flocculator pipes that connected the contact tank to the DAF.

100 Pressurized air (7 bar) was added at a flowrate of 0.6 L min⁻¹ to a pressurized internal recycle
101 stream of the DAF effluent (4–5 bar). This so-called “white water” was injected into the feed
102 pipe of the DAF unit at various points in the piping system (see below) at atmospheric
103 pressure, which made it supersaturated with air and caused microbubbles to form. The
104 floating sludge was removed from the DAF unit with a skimmer, and collected in a non-
105 aerated mixed return tank with an approximate retention time of 3.5 hours. Part of this sludge
106 was recirculated to the contact tank with a recycle ratio of 0.021–0.027 to achieve a TSS
107 concentration in the contact tank of around 1 g L⁻¹. Sludge recirculation was automatically
108 stopped when the volume in the return tank dropped below 250 L, as the production of return
109 sludge was dependent on the performance of the DAF unit and on daily fluctuations of the
110 wastewater composition. Wasting of sludge was performed when the volume in the return
111 tank rose above 300 L, and was stopped when the volume decreased below 280 L. These

112 settings were chosen to approach a SRT of 1 day, to be well below the maximum of 2 days
113 defined for HRAS systems (Meerburg et al., 2015).

114 The test period lasted 164 days, and can be divided in two different phases, based on different
115 strategies used: single polymer (treatment 1, 104 days) and dual polymer (treatment 2, 65
116 days). During treatment 1, 40% FeCl₃ was added at a final concentration of 50 mg L⁻¹ to assist
117 coagulation of the sludge, as preliminary batch tests had shown that this concentration led to a
118 good coagulation performance (data not shown). The optimal iron dosage was likely a
119 combined result of iron required for coagulation as well as for phosphorus removal, since Fe³⁺
120 precipitated as FePO₄ is not available for coagulation of sludge particles anymore. An anionic
121 polyacrylamide based (PAM) polymer (A135.HP, Kemira: linear copolymers of acrylamide
122 and acrylic acid, molecular weight 11.000.000 – 12.000.000 g mol⁻¹, charge density +/- 40
123 mol%) was dosed at a concentration of 3 mg L⁻¹ to assist formation of sludge aggregates. In
124 the first 64 days, the anionic polymer was dosed in the piping system 1.5 m before entering
125 the DAF unit. The pressurized white water was injected into the DAF at the point of entry of
126 the ML. On day 65, in order to improve the sludge flocculation, the configuration was
127 changed (Figure 1). After dosing the coagulant in the ML, the ML was pumped through a pipe
128 length of 4 m (inner diameter 56 mm with Reynolds Number 19000), after which roughly half
129 of the pressurized white water was injected in the pipe to increase floc buoyancy.

130 Subsequently, the ML was pumped through a 12 m plug-flow flocculator (PFF, a serpentine
131 of pipes with different inner diameters: 33 mm in the first 1 m to favor polymer mixing, and
132 44 mm inner diameter in the remaining 11 m to apply further turbulence and mixing;
133 Reynolds numbers were 32000 and 24000, respectively) before entering the DAF unit. The
134 anionic polymer was added directly in the PFF after 0.5 m. The remaining white water was
135 added to the DAF unit at the point of entry of the ML.

136 Treatment 2 lasted for 65 days and the same coagulant was dosed (40% FeCl₃ at 50 mg L⁻¹).

137 The addition of two polymers occurred directly in the PFF, with a cationic organic PAM
138 polymer (C492 Kemira: linear copolymers of acrylamide and the cationic ester
139 acryloyloxyethyltrimethyl-ammonium chloride, molecular weight 5.000.000 – 7.000.000 g
140 mol⁻¹, charge density 10 mol%) dosed at 2 mg L⁻¹, 0.5 m after the first white water injection
141 point, and an anionic PAM polymer (A135.HP, Kemira) dosed at 0.5 mg L⁻¹, 0.5 m further.
142 Both polymers were added from 0.1% stock solutions that were replaced every 1 to 3 days. As
143 such, the effect of dual polymer dosage could be investigated, as literature reports that dual
144 cationic-anionic polymer dosage may form more stable floc aggregates compared with those
145 formed when a single polymer is dosed (Petzold et al., 2003) (see also paragraph 3.1.2). As
146 the effectiveness of a polymer for flocculation depends on the characteristics of the
147 wastewater matrix and sludge flocs, the choice for the specific polymer types used in this
148 study was made in agreement with the supplier, based on jar flocculation tests (Kemira;
149 personal communication). Before each treatment and on day 65 of treatment 1, the contact
150 tank was inoculated with secondary WAS (8.46 ± 1.46 g TSS L⁻¹), from the Aartselaar
151 WWTP. The WAS was pumped in the contact tank until the ML reached a concentration of 1
152 g TSS L⁻¹. Liquid samples of domestic wastewater, ML, effluent and DAF sludge were
153 collected 3 times per week and analyzed for total COD (tCOD), soluble COD (sCOD), TSS
154 and VSS. Total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) and total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN) were analyzed
155 every two weeks.

156 2.2 *Pilot-scale high-rate contact stabilization system combined with dissolved air flotation* 157 *setup*

158 The same pilot setup described in section 2.1 was used for 46 days in the HiCS-DAF
159 configuration. In this configuration, the contact tank was not aerated, while the sludge return
160 tank was aerated by means of fine-bubble aeration at a working volume between 260 L and
161 270 L (as explained in section 2.1) and a dissolved oxygen set point between 2.0 and 3.0 mg

162 L⁻¹ (Figure 1). As such, the advantage or disadvantage of a HiCS system over an HRAS
163 system could be investigated. On the first day of the HiCS-DAF treatment, the return tank was
164 inoculated with 300 L of secondary WAS (8.46 ± 1.46 g TSS L⁻¹), from the Aartselaar
165 WWTP. Before entering the DAF unit, the ML was dosed with coagulant and flocculants
166 using the same dual polymer approach as in treatment 2 of the HRAS-DAF configuration.
167 However, the dosages were lower: 40% FeCl₃ was dosed at 30 mg L⁻¹ to apply a similar
168 Fe/COD_{influent} ratio as in treatment 1 (Table 1), cationic polymer was dosed at 1.5 mg L⁻¹, and
169 anionic polymer at 0.5 mg L⁻¹. This was done in accordance with batch flocculation tests to
170 determine the optimal polymer dosage for the HiCS sludge (data not shown). Other test
171 conditions were kept identical over the treatment periods, although natural variation in
172 wastewater composition and temperature did occur.

173 2.3 *Biomethane potential tests*

174 The BMP tests were carried out to estimate the anaerobic biodegradability of the A-sludge
175 obtained from the pilot-scale HRAS-DAF and HiCS-DAF systems. The tests were performed
176 in triplicate under mesophilic conditions (35 °C) in serum flasks with a working volume of 80
177 mL. Inoculum or substrate were replaced alternately by tap water in the control tests. The
178 substrate to inoculum ratio was maintained at 0.5 g COD g⁻¹ VS_{inoculum} with the inoculum
179 diluted with tap water to 10 g VS L⁻¹. For HRAS-DAF, BMP tests were performed with
180 sludge generated after 14 days and 76 days from the start of treatment 1, and after 53 days
181 from the start of treatment 2. Finally, for the HiCS-DAF, two BMP tests were performed with
182 sludge generated after 22 and 38 days of operation. Co-digestion of A-sludge generated
183 during HiCS-DAF (day 9) with secondary WAS (8.46 ± 1.46 g TSS L⁻¹) from a full-scale bio-
184 P installation treating the same wastewater influent as the pilot, in a ratio of 70% A-sludge
185 and 30% WAS, TSS based. Controls, with only A-sludge or WAS, were also added. The
186 inoculum biomass for these tests was obtained from a full-scale anaerobic digester treating

187 municipal wastewater sludge (Aquafin, Leuven, Belgium) at 13, 27, 24 and 27 g VS L⁻¹ for
188 the tests during HRAS-DAF treatments 1, 2, HiCS-DAF and co-digestion of A-sludge and
189 WAS, respectively. Flasks were sealed with a rubber stopper and an aluminum sealer, and
190 then connected to glass columns in which biogas production was measured by means of water
191 displacement. Biogas volumetric production was checked every day during the first week and
192 two times per week (Monday and Thursday) afterwards. Biogas composition was evaluated at
193 the end of the experiment, once the biogas production reached the steady state and was
194 constant for three sampling points. Methane yield was expressed as the COD of methane
195 (CH₄) produced per gram of COD of substrate. Values are reported at standard temperature
196 (237 K) and pressure (101325 Pa) (STP) conditions.

197 2.4 *Post-treatment of dissolved air flotation effluent for nitrogen removal*

198 Four identical batch setups were used to evaluate nitrification as post-treatment after the
199 HiCS-DAF A-stage. Each setup consisted of a 1 L Schott bottle containing a 0.5 L mixed
200 liquor with a final concentration of 0.72 ± 0.05 g VSS L⁻¹ freshly acquired activated sludge
201 from a municipal WWTP (Ghent, Belgium). Two out of four mixed liquors were synthetic
202 with 70 mg NH₄⁺-N L⁻¹, 0.5 g NaHCO₃ L⁻¹, 0.2 g MgSO₄·7H₂O L⁻¹, 0.1 g CaCl₂·2H₂O L⁻¹,
203 0.005 g KH₂PO₄-P L⁻¹ and 1 mL L⁻¹ of trace element solution (Third et al., 2001). For the
204 remaining two setups, DAF effluent was mixed with the biomass, with an ammonium
205 concentration of 19 and 23 mg N L⁻¹. The mixtures were continuously stirred and aerated at
206 28 °C, while the pH was controlled between 7.2 and 7.4 using 0.02 M solutions of HCl or
207 NaOH. Liquid samples were taken over time (at 0 h, 1.2 h, 2.7 h, 4.0 h, 5.1 h and 6.3 h) for
208 TAN, nitrite and nitrate analyses. Anoxic batch activity tests were performed with anammox
209 sludge originating from a DEMON facility (Nieuwveer Breda, The Netherlands) to
210 investigate the feasibility of anammox as a post-treatment for DAF effluent. Serum flasks of
211 120 mL were used, containing 80 mL of mixed liquor with a final biomass concentration of

212 0.33 ± 0.01 g VSS L⁻¹. Conditions imposed on the anammox biomass to test for different
213 sources of inhibition are given in supplementary information (SI). The synthetic medium was
214 a pH 7.2 corrected medium of 25 mM HEPES containing 70 mg NH₄⁺-N L⁻¹, 70 mg NO₂⁻-N
215 L⁻¹, 0.5 g NaHCO₃ L⁻¹, 0.2 g MgSO₄·7H₂O L⁻¹, 0.1 g CaCl₂·2H₂O L⁻¹, 0.005 g KH₂PO₄-P L⁻¹
216 and 1 mL L⁻¹ of trace element solution (Third et al., 2001). To the DAF effluent, 40 mg NO₂⁻-N
217 L⁻¹ was added to enable the anammox process. Rubber stoppers sealed off the flasks, after
218 which they were flushed with N₂ gas. Tests were performed in triplicate on a temperature
219 controlled shaker (120 rpm and 28°C). Liquid samples were taken over time (at 0 h, 1.1 h, 1.6
220 h, 2.6 h and 3.5 h) for TAN and nitrite analysis.

221 2.5 Analytical techniques

222 The tCOD, sCOD, TSS, VSS, TAN, and TKN analyses were performed according to
223 Standard Methods (Greenberg et al., 1992). Biogas composition was analyzed with a Compact
224 GC (Global Analyser Solutions, The Netherlands) equipped with a Porabond precolumn and a
225 Molsieve 5A column. Concentrations of CH₄, CO₂ and H₂ were determined using a thermal
226 conductivity detector with a lower detection limit of 1 ppmv for each gas. Nitrite and nitrate
227 concentrations were determined on a 930 Compact Ion Chromatograph (Metrohm,
228 Switzerland), equipped with a conductivity detector. During the anammox batch tests, liquid
229 samples for ammonium and nitrite determination were always immediately analyzed
230 spectrophotometrically with the Berthelot and Montgomery reaction (Bucur, B., et al. (2006);
231 Montgomery and Dymock, (1961)), including a triplicate standard curve for each analysis.
232 Measurements were obtained using a Tecan infinite plate reader (Tecan, Switzerland).

233 2.6 Statistical analysis

234 Statistical analysis of the operational data was carried out using the software SigmaPlot 13
235 (Systat Software, Inc., San Jose California USA, www.sigmaplot.com). The normality and

236 equal variances (homoscedasticity) were evaluated by means of the Shapiro-Wilk and Brown-
237 Forsythe tests, respectively. A parametric t-test was used to compare the reactors when
238 normality and homoscedasticity could be confirmed, otherwise a non-parametric Mann-
239 Whitney U Test was used.

240 3 Results and Discussion

241 A HRAS system (or HiCS system) coupled with a DAF unit, was evaluated as an alternative
242 to a HRAS-settler combination for primary treatment of municipal wastewater (A-stage). The
243 main goals were to (1) increase removal efficiency of the wastewater organics, (2) increase
244 sludge concentration so that gravity-thickening is no longer required, and (3) increase the
245 conversion of sludge chemical energy to methane through AD, to advance towards energy-
246 neutral wastewater treatment. Table 1 lists the characteristics of the influent wastewater and
247 mixed liquor for the three subsequent treatments.

248 3.1 Performance of high-rate activated sludge systems combined with dissolved air 249 flotation-pilots

250 3.1.1 High-rate activated sludge system combined with dissolved air flotation: impact of 251 mixing regime of coagulant/flocculant prior to DAF separation

252 For wastewater treatment systems such as a HRAS system where a positively charged
253 coagulant is used (i.e., Fe^{3+}), the suspended particles generally have a positively charged
254 surface and thus, an anionic PAM polymer should give best flocculation performances (Bolto
255 and Gregory, 2007). Thus, during treatment 1, FeCl_3 and an anionic PAM polymer were used
256 to coagulate and flocculate the HRAS sludge flocs into floc-aggregates. An optimal mixing
257 regime is essential to uniformly distribute coagulant and flocculant in solution, and to create
258 shear-induced collisions between polymer molecules and particles to form floc-aggregates

259 suitable to DAF separation (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Wang et al., 2005). The first
260 experimental period (days 1 - 64), where the plug-flow flocculator (PFF) was not used, did
261 not yield satisfactory organics removal. Only $51 \pm 17\%$ of the TSS, $53 \pm 20\%$ of the VSS and
262 $50 \pm 13\%$ of the tCOD in the influent could be removed (Figure 2), leaving a substantial
263 fraction of organics in the effluent. It was hypothesized that the short distance between the
264 polymer addition and the DAF unit did not allow sufficient mixing in the pipes, and thus
265 resulted in insufficient adsorption of the polymer onto the flocs and floc-aggregating action of
266 the polymer, resulting in the formation of small and unstable floc-aggregates with poor
267 floatability. From day 65, a PFF unit was added which improved floc formation. Part of the
268 pressurized white water was added to the PFF before polymer dosage to increase the degree of
269 turbulence of the flow in the PFF, allowing a high energy mixing which is crucial for high
270 molecular weight polymers such as the A135HP used in this study, and allowed more
271 collision of flocs. The addition of white water in the PFF also allowed the formation of floc-
272 aggregates with enmeshed microbubbles, which likely further enhanced flotation capacity.
273 Moreover, the 12 m length of the PFF system increased the contact time between polymer and
274 sludge, allowing better polymer dispersion and improved floc-aggregates formation. As a
275 result, the organics removal efficiency in the last 40 days of treatment 1 was increased to $78 \pm$
276 12% of the TSS, $82 \pm 10\%$ of the VSS and $63 \pm 14\%$ of the total COD (Figure 2), which lies
277 within the values typically obtained for conventional HRAS-settler systems (de Graaff et al.,
278 2016; Ge et al., 2017; Trzcinski et al., 2016). After further optimization, replacing gravity-
279 settling with DAF separation in HRAS systems thus has the potential to improve the removal
280 of organics from domestic wastewater albeit at considerably smaller land footprint.

281 3.1.2 High-rate activated sludge system combined with dissolved air flotation: impact of a
282 dual polymer system

283 The solid/liquid separation in DAF systems occurs by means of hydrophobic interactions
284 between floc-aggregates and air microbubbles. Therefore, increasing aggregation and
285 adhesion is the key for an effective solids separation and to increase organics removal
286 efficiency (Bolto and Gregory, 2007). In the second treatment of the HRAS-DAF system,
287 optimization of hydrophobic interactions between microbubbles and floc-aggregates was
288 investigated with the so-called dual polymer system, where a combination of a cationic PAM
289 polymer (C492) and an anionic PAM polymer (A135HP) are used to enhance flocculation
290 (Yu et al. 1996; Fan et al., 2000; Petzold et al., 2003). These polymers adsorb on the sludge
291 flocs with different mechanisms: cationic polymers interact electrostatically with negative
292 sites on the sludge flocs while anionic polymers adsorb on negatively-charged surfaces
293 through ion bridging, interacting with cations and positive patches (e.g., from the coagulation
294 phase and the cationic polymer) that function as bridges between the polymer and the sludge
295 floc surface (Bolto and Gregory, 2007). The dual polymer system combines electrostatic
296 patch (formation of positive and negative charge patches due to the cationic polymer) and ion
297 bridging (anionic polymer), which enhances charge neutralization (Bolto and Gregory, 2007;
298 Petzold et al., 2003). Polymer conformation has also been reported to play a predominant role
299 in flocculation. The use of a linear anionic polymer, alike the A130HP used in this study, can
300 provide better interparticle ion bridging when adsorbed on particles with pre-adsorbed
301 polymer of cationic charge rather than when dosed alone (Yu et al. 1996). Removal
302 efficiencies during this second treatment were $70 \pm 12\%$ for the TSS, $71 \pm 11\%$ for the VSS
303 and $57 \pm 10\%$ for the total COD (Figure 2). The removal efficiency appeared to be lower
304 compared to the first treatment, although the difference was not significant with 95%
305 confidence ($p = 0.303$ for the TSS; $p = 0.065$ for the VSS; $p = 0.128$ for the tCOD). The

306 influent COD and ML concentration were 2.25 and 1.44 times lower, respectively, compared
307 with the previous treatment period, due to seasonal variation of the wastewater (Table 1). The
308 effluent of the HRAS-DAF had a similar organics concentration during treatment 1 and
309 treatment 2 (Figure 3) ($p = 0.422$ for the TSS; $p = 0.462$ for the VSS; $p = 0.063$ for the COD).
310 Hence, irrespective of the initial concentration of the wastewater, the effluent of both
311 treatments reached a similar quality. This suggests that the system performed better during
312 treatment 2, although immediate conclusions are difficult to draw given the lower influent
313 strength compared to treatment 1. The system would likely achieve higher removal
314 efficiencies when treating medium- or high-strength wastewater, as opposed to the low-
315 strength wastewater in this study. Anionic polymers, when used in a single polymer dosing
316 scheme (*i.e.*, treatment 1) may lead to the generation of sludge flocs more susceptible to daily
317 variations in wastewater concentration, since lower influent suspended solids can lead to
318 polymer overdosing when the dosage rate is not dynamically controlled, and thus to the
319 formation of heavy flocs not suitable for flotation. In contrast, the improved charge
320 neutralization resulting from the use of a dual polymer system, can potentially ensure a higher
321 stability of the flocs formed, irrespective of the seasonal variations of the wastewater (Bolto
322 and Gregory, 2007; Petzold et al., 2003). Moreover, the combination of cationic and anionic
323 polymers may reduce the overall polymer dosing (Yu et al. 1996; Fan et al., 2000) as shown
324 in the current study (Table 1), which would make polymer overdosing less likely and improve
325 the resistance of the system against perturbations in influent solids load. This was the case in
326 the current study as lower overall dosage in treatment 2 did not seem to lead to significantly
327 lower removal efficiencies and effluent quality, although it is difficult to quantify the true
328 effect of the dual polymer dosage, given the lower influent strength in treatment 2 (Figure 2
329 and Figure 3).

330 3.1.3 High-rate contact stabilization system combined with dissolved air flotation

331 During the following treatment, the configuration of the pilot-scale was changed to a HiCS-
332 DAF. This change consisted of aerating the return flow in the return tank, and leaving the
333 contact tank unaerated (Figure 1). It was hypothesized that a HiCS-DAF system could
334 improve the removal efficiencies due to improved overall sludge capture, and thus likely
335 improve sludge recovery as CH_4 , due to the improved bioflocculation that occurs in contact
336 stabilization systems, compared with HRAS systems (Meerburg et al., 2015). Removal
337 efficiencies during this treatment were similar to the values obtained during treatment 2 of the
338 HRAS-DAF configuration ($p = 0.440$ for the TSS; $p = 0.350$ for the VSS; $p = 0.621$ for the
339 COD) (Figure 2). The influent tCOD concentrations during this treatment were lower
340 compared to treatment 1 of the HRAS-DAF but similar to treatment 2 (Table 1). Effluent
341 concentrations during this treatment were also similar to the values obtained during HRAS-
342 DAF treatment 2 (Figure 3) ($p = 0.582$ for the TSS; $p = 0.539$ for the VSS; $p = 0.044$ for the
343 COD). The amounts of coagulant and polymer dosed during this treatment were however
344 lower: the coagulant dosage was 40% lower than for HRAS-DAF treatment 1 and 2, and total
345 polymer dosage was 33% and 20% lower than in HRAS-DAF treatment 1 and 2, respectively
346 (Table 1). The presence of an aerated stabilization tank likely enhanced bioflocculation and
347 floc formation, similar to what has been observed in other studies (Meerburg et al., 2015;
348 Rahman et al., 2016). In combination with the use of a dual polymer system, this likely
349 resulted in a lower requirement of chemicals to obtain similar separation efficiency.

350 3.2 Sludge concentration: dissolved air flotation as a combination of a settler and a 351 thickener

352 Coupling a HRAS or HiCS treatment system to a DAF led to the formation of a more
353 concentrated sludge compared to sludge generated with classic HRAS systems, where a settler

354 is used for sludge separation (Figure 4). In case of the HRAS-DAF with single polymer
355 dosage, the sludge had a concentration of 47 ± 10 g COD L⁻¹, which is 4 – 9 times higher than
356 that of conventional HRAS systems (Figure 4). The sludge concentrations achieved here are
357 similar to those reported for sludge gravity thickened before AD, at 40–50 g L⁻¹
358 (Tchobanoglous et al., 2003). The sludge concentrations achieved during treatment 2 of the
359 HRAS-DAF configuration and during HiCS-DAF were lower, at 23 ± 6 g COD L⁻¹ and 26 ± 5
360 g COD L⁻¹, respectively (Figure 4). These sludge concentrations are still higher than those
361 achieved with a conventional HRAS-settler system (Figure 4). In a HRAS treatment system,
362 by replacing a settler by a DAF unit, WWTPs could, thus potentially reduce energy and
363 capital expenditures required for sludge thickening, and this has been investigated by means
364 of an economic assessment (see below). Furthermore, a HRAS-DAF system would have a
365 lower area footprint compared to a primary settler system. A similar advantage in sludge
366 concentration exists when comparing the HRAS-DAF or HiCS-DAF systems to a HR-MBR.
367 Akanyeti et al. (2010) and Faust et al. (2014) reported a sludge concentration of 3.8 g COD L⁻¹
368 and 11.4 g COD L⁻¹ by applying a SRT of 1 day and a HRT of 1.2 and 0.7 days,
369 respectively, using a HR-MBR setup.

370 The reason why the sludge generated during the last two treatments was less concentrated
371 compared to treatment 1 is likely due to the lower wastewater strength in this period (Figure
372 1). The ratio between sludge COD and influent COD was similar between the different
373 treatments, at 122 ± 43 and 137 ± 50 for HRAS-DAF during treatment 1 and 2, respectively,
374 and at 142 ± 51 for the HiCS-DAF. It might therefore prove to be difficult to further increase
375 the sludge concentration in this system when treating low-concentrated wastewater. The lower
376 influent strength during treatment 2 and the HiCS/DAF treatment also led to a lower F/M ratio
377 (as seen in Table 1). This may explain the differences in tCOD/VSS ratio of the sludge, which
378 decreased from 1.84 ± 0.29 in treatment 1 to 1.43 ± 0.33 in treatment 2, and 1.59 ± 0.97 in the

379 HiCS-DAF treatment. Possibly, the lower F/M ratio during the latter two treatments resulted
380 in a higher incidence of endogenous decay and, thus, a slight shift in sludge characteristics
381 towards secondary sludge, which has a lower COD/VSS ratio than primary sludge
382 (Tchobanoglous et al., 2003)

383 3.3 Conversion efficiencies to methane

384 Conversion efficiencies to CH₄ for sludge generated during HRAS-DAF treatment 1 (single
385 polymer) were 68 ± 1% and 58 ± 1% for the sludge harvested after 14 and 76 days of
386 operation, respectively, which is comparable with values reported for AD of A-sludge from
387 conventional HRAS-settler systems (up to 70%) and primary sludge (about 60%) (De Vrieze
388 et al., 2013; De Vrieze et al., 2016). Conversion efficiencies to CH₄ during subsequent
389 treatments were lower, at 40 ± 2% during HRAS-DAF treatment 2 (dual polymer) and 42 ±
390 3% for sludge generated in HiCS-DAF (dual polymer), which may have been a result of the
391 lower tCOD/VSS ratio during treatment 2 and the HiCS-DAF treatment (see above).
392 The influent COD concentration was considerably higher during treatment 1 of the HRAS-
393 DAF compared with subsequent treatments (Table 1). Possibly, the lower incoming
394 wastewater COD resulted in a proportionally higher loss of biodegradable COD in the sewer
395 system, and an increased relative presence of recalcitrant organics in the sludge. The lower
396 reactor loading rate could also have resulted in an overdose of coagulant or flocculant(s)
397 the system. For instance, whereas the dosage rate of FeCl₃ remained constant between
398 treatment 1 and treatment 2, the weight ratio between the Fe dosed and the tCOD of the
399 influent rose from 0.04 to 0.10 (Table 1). Fe is an important cofactor and coenzyme for
400 methanogens and methanogenic activity is thus strongly dependent on the presence and
401 availability of Fe in the substrate (Zandvoort et al., 2006). Several studies showed that
402 increased concentrations of Fe resulted in an increase of CH₄ production and, thus, a high
403 dosage of Fe³⁺ should not cause a lower CH₄ yield (Hoban et al., 1979; Cagnetta et al., 2016).

404 However, Fe^{3+} overdose could lead to depletion of phosphorus (P) or trace elements
405 substantial for the methanogenic activity (Feng et al., 2009; Jiang and Graham, 1998;
406 Zandvoort et al., 2006). In this study, co-digestion of A-sludge generated during the HiCS-
407 DAF treatment with secondary WAS (70% A-sludge and 30% WAS, TSS based) was
408 performed to test the hypothesis that the A-sludge was depleted in P or trace elements, which
409 could then be provided by the WAS. The CH_4 yield for the A-sludge in co-digestion with
410 WAS was $280 \pm 42 \text{ mg COD-CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1}\text{COD}_{\text{fed}}$, while in case of the A-sludge digested solely
411 the yield was $365 \pm 12 \text{ mg COD-CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1}\text{COD}_{\text{fed}}$, indicating that depletion of P or trace
412 elements was most likely not the cause of the lower conversion efficiencies obtained during
413 the second treatment.

414 The polymers used in the present study were polyacrylamide (PAM) based, and PAM is
415 widely used at WWTP level to enhance sludge dewatering and thickening prior to AD (Dai et
416 al., 2014). Although PAM are generally accepted as non-toxic and inert to deterioration,
417 contradictory results are reported about PAM biodegradation under aerobic and anaerobic
418 conditions. El-Mamouni et al. (2002) showed that PAM are highly recalcitrant to microbial
419 degradation, due to its high molecular weight. However, Dai et al. (2014) demonstrated that
420 after hydrolysis and digestion of easy biodegradable organics, PAM carbon backbone can be
421 broken down in different smaller molecules, and consumed as a carbon source for CH_4
422 production. Thus, degradation of PAM polymers did not seem to hamper anaerobic digestion.
423 The main difference between HRAS-DAF treatment 1 and the following treatments is that in
424 treatment 1 only an anionic polymer was used to assist flocculation, while during treatment 2
425 and the HiCS-DAF treatment, a dual polymer system (cationic and anionic polymers) was
426 used. There are no studies in literature assessing different behavior of sludge types dewatered
427 using anionic or cationic PAM, which are both mainly copolymers of acrylamide, or a
428 combination of these, towards anaerobic degradation and digestion. In a dual polymer system,

429 cationic and anionic polymers interact with sludge particles and with each another forming
430 more stable floc-aggregates compared with those formed when a single polymer is dosed
431 (Petzold et al., 2003). This increased stability might have resulted in a reduced hydrolysis of
432 the floc-aggregates which were then more difficult to hydrolyze and not accessible to
433 hydrolytic-acidogenic bacteria. This might be the cause of the lower yields obtained in the last
434 two treatments compared with treatment 1. Further optimization studies on the HRAS/HiCS-
435 DAF systems should focus on different types and dosage of coagulants (e.g., AlCl_3 or Poly-
436 aluminum chloride) and polymer(s), optimization of the storage concentration to avoid
437 possible polymer degradation, and implementation of an automated dosing control system
438 based on the daily variation of the solids load. Additional investigation of the effect of PAM
439 on the hydrolysis of sludge floc-aggregates during AD of sludge could likely ameliorate the
440 system.

441 3.4 *Post-treatment of dissolved air flotation effluent for nitrogen removal*

442 As the DAF effluent remains rich in ammonia, post-treatment is necessary to ensure a
443 dischargeable effluent quality. Several possibilities arise to remove nitrogen in the so called
444 B-stage: nitrification-denitrification, nitrification-denitrification or partial nitrification and
445 anammox (PN/A). Nitrifying and anammox bacteria are generally more sensitive to
446 environmental stress factors than denitrifying organisms (Cao et al., 2017). Therefore, if
447 nitrification or anammox treatment of DAF effluent is feasible, so will denitrification be.
448 Nitrification is the microbial oxidation of ammonium (AO) to nitrate and consists of two
449 steps. The first step is catalyzed by bacteria (AOB) or archaea (AOA) and transforms
450 ammonium to nitrite. Subsequently, nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) convert nitrite to nitrate.
451 Nitrification of DAF effluent was tested in duplicate using batch activity tests and was
452 compared to nitrification in synthetic medium. Nitrite accumulated as ammonium was
453 oxidized during the experiment, meaning that the maximum activity of the AOB/AOA was

454 higher than that of the NOB. For this, the maximum specific activity of NOB was represented
455 as the nitrate production rate, while for the AOB/AOA activity, the nitrite accumulation rate
456 was added to the nitrate production rate. Comparable maximum AOB/AOA and NOB activity
457 of about 150–170 and 120–130 mg N g⁻¹ VSS d⁻¹, respectively, were observed in synthetic
458 medium and DAF effluent (further information in SI). This finding proves that there is no
459 acute inhibiting effect of DAF effluent on nitrifying activity, thus rendering post-treatment of
460 DAF effluent with nitrification-denitrification feasible.

461 PN/A is a process that is expanding in use, with a growing number of full-scale applications
462 (Vlaeminck et al., 2012). In this process, half of the ammonium is oxidized to nitrite by AOB
463 or AOA, followed by the oxidation of the remaining ammonium using the produced nitrite as
464 electron acceptor by anammox bacteria, generating nitrogen gas as major final product. The
465 reasons for the growing interest in PN/A is that there is no need for carbon addition, sludge
466 production is about 80 % lower and almost 60 % less oxygen is required compared to
467 nitrification-denitrification (Cao et al., 2017; Morales et al., 2015). In order to test the effect
468 of DAF effluent on the anammox activity, anoxic batch activity tests were performed under
469 different conditions (further information in SI). About 60–65 % of the maximum anammox
470 activity was retained when treating DAF effluent compared to the ideal conditions in synthetic
471 medium (Figure 5). This observed inhibition could not be attributed to particulate matter,
472 phosphorous limitation or inorganic carbon limitation. The observed inhibition is in contrast
473 with an earlier study investigating the treatment of pre-treated sewage with anammox, where
474 no inhibition was observed when comparing to synthetic medium (Saha et al., 2015).

475 Nonetheless, high biomass specific anammox activity of 255–275 mg NH₄⁺-N g⁻¹ VSS d⁻¹
476 was obtained, rendering the use of anammox for post-treatment of DAF effluent feasible. The
477 NO₂⁻/NH₄⁺ ratio in the experiments treating DAF effluent were slightly higher than the ratio
478 in synthetic medium (Figure 5). This might be due to the occurrence of denitrification on

479 some biodegradable COD passing the DAF installation. Thus, nitrification was not inhibited
480 when exposed to DAF effluent, as opposed to the anammox activity, which was inhibited by
481 about 35–40 %. Nonetheless, both processes achieve sufficiently high conversion rates
482 rendering them feasible as a post-treatment unit after a DAF installation.

483 **4 Conclusions**

484 Coupling a DAF unit with a HRAS system allowed removal of 78% of the influent TSS when
485 an anionic polymer was dosed. The DAF acted as a combination of settling and gravitational
486 thickening, generating A-sludge with a concentration of up to 47 g COD L⁻¹. 68% of the
487 sludge COD was converted to methane during AD. Application of a dual polymer system
488 resulted in lower removal efficiencies, sludge concentration and AD yields, albeit at a similar
489 quality of the effluent. This was likely due to the lower concentration of the wastewater
490 organics (more than 2-fold lower) during these treatment periods.

491 **Acknowledgements**

492 CC and KR were supported by the FWO-MOST (G.0535.13) project (Research Foundation
493 Flanders) “The Domestic Biorefinery” and by the European Research Council Starter Grant
494 Electrotalk. JDV was supported as postdoctoral fellows by the Research Foundation Flanders
495 (FWO-Vlaanderen). TGLV was supported by the project grant SB-141205 of the Agency for
496 Innovation by Science and Technology (IWT Flanders). ARDV was supported by the EFRO
497 Interreg V Flanders-Netherlands program. BDG was supported by European Research
498 Council Starter Grant Electrotalk. The authors also thank Tim Lacoere for the help preparing
499 Figure 1.

500 **Appendix: Supplementary information**

501 Supplementary information to this article can be found online.

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623 **Figure and Table Captions**

624 **Figure 1.** Pilot-scale A-stage-DAF setup in HRAS-DAF and HiCS-DAF configurations.

625 Acronyms stand for: an.pol: anionic polymer. cat.pol: cationic polymer.

626 **Figure 2.** Removal efficiency of TSS, VSS and total COD (tCOD) over the three treatments.

627 **Figure 3.** Influent and effluent concentrations of TSS, VSS and tCOD over the three

628 treatments.

629 **Figure 4.** TSS, VSS and tCOD concentrations for the sludge generated during HRAS-DAF

630 and HiCS-DAF treatments. Values reported for HRAS-settler* and HRAS-settler** are for A-

631 sludge collected from Nieuwveer WWTP (Breda, NL) in November 2013 and October 2015,

632 respectively (Cagnetta et al., 2016).

633 **Figure 5.** Biomass specific ammonium, nitrite removal rate and $\text{NO}_2^-/\text{NH}_4^+$ removal ratio of

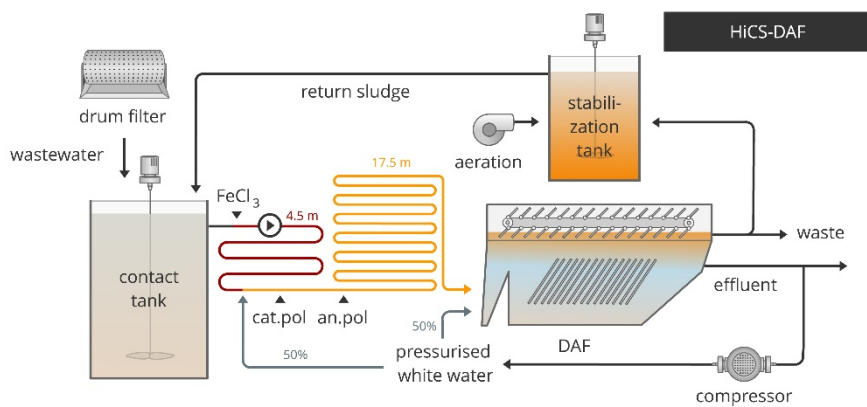
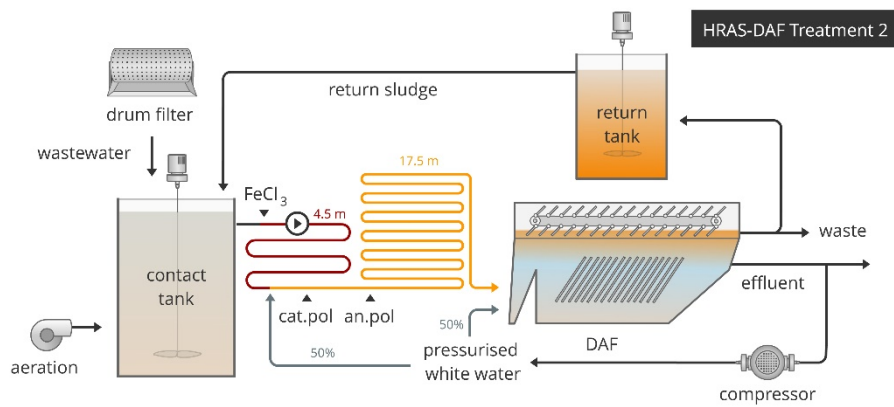
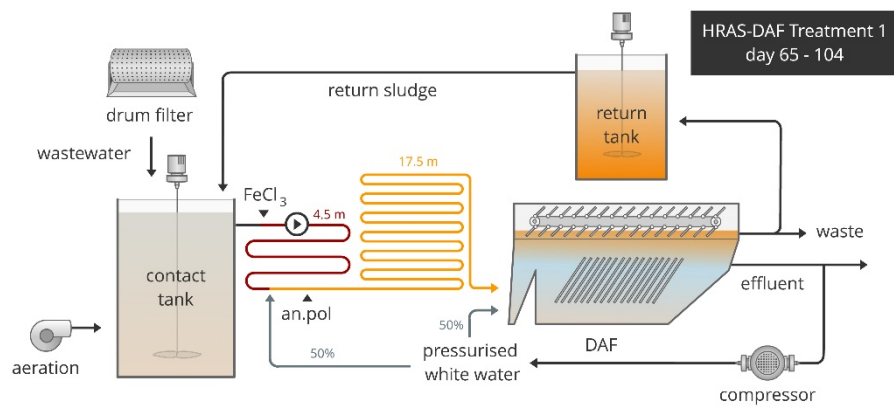
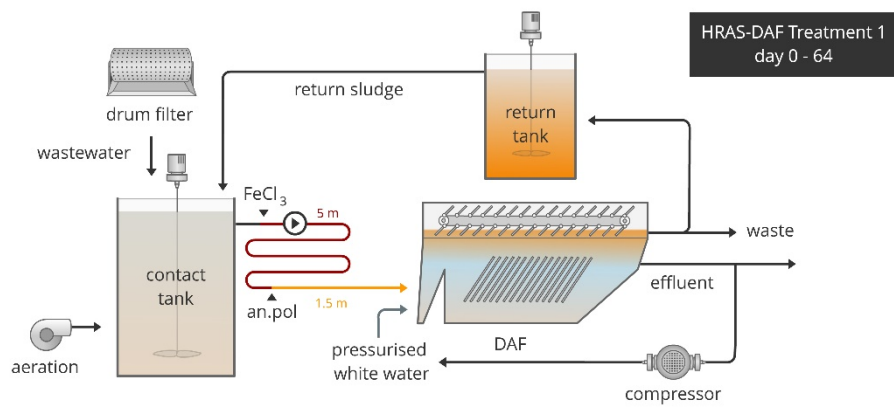
634 anammox biomass in (from left to right) synthetic medium (ideal conditions), DAF effluent,

635 filtered DAF effluent, filtered DAF effluent with 5 mg P L^{-1} and filtered DAF effluent with 5

636 mg P L^{-1} and $0.5 \text{ g NaHCO}_3 \text{ L}^{-1}$.

637 **Table 1.** Characteristics of domestic wastewater and mixed liquor. Standard deviations are

638 calculated over time during the different treatments.



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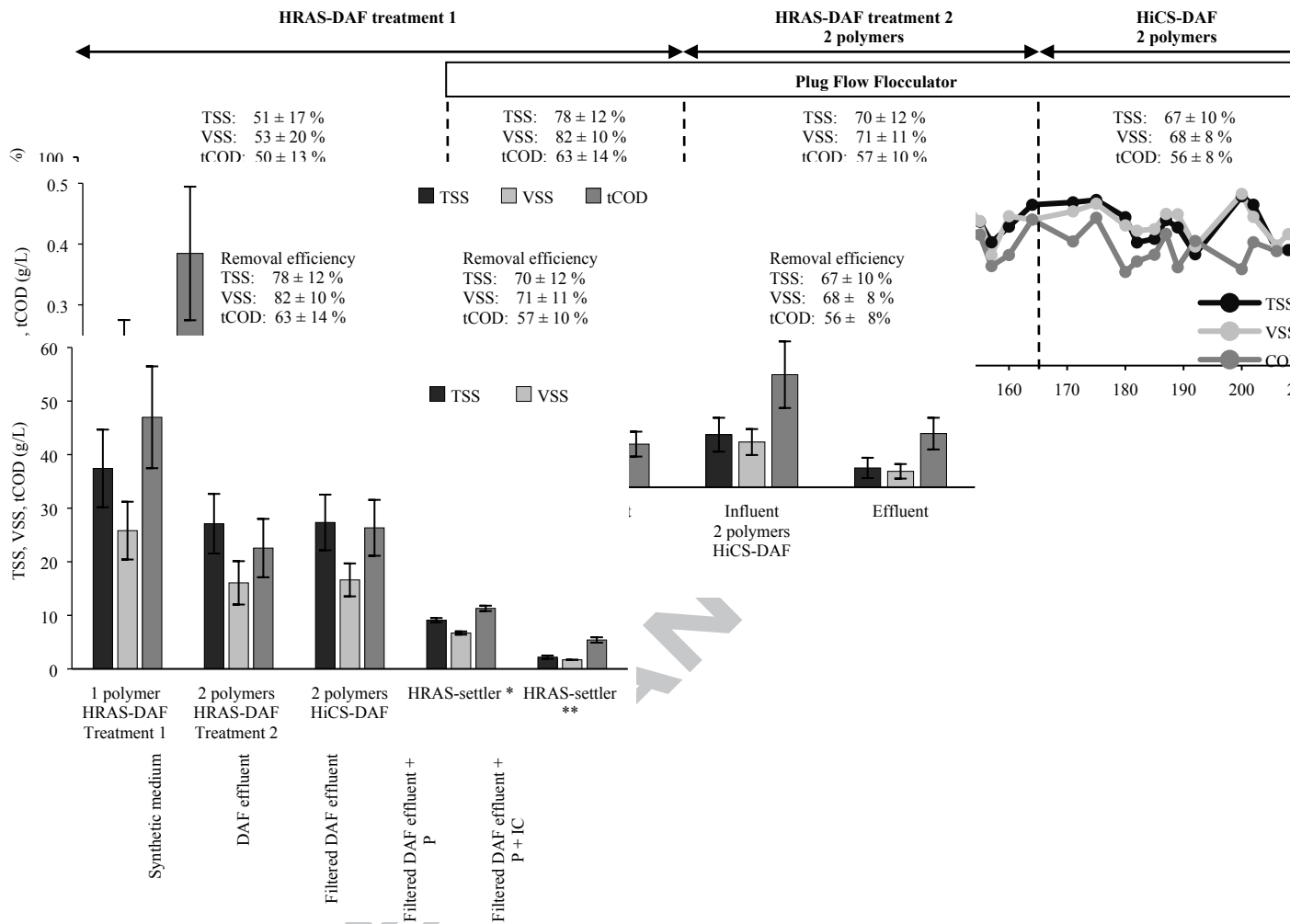
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	HRAS-DAF treatment 1	HRAS-DAF treatment 2	HiCS-DAF
Number of samples	26	20	18

Municipal wastewater (influent)

Total suspended solids, TSS (g L^{-1})	0.19 ± 0.09	0.08 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.03
Volatile suspended solids, VSS (g L^{-1})	0.15 ± 0.07	0.07 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.02
Volatile suspended solids, VSS (%)	79	85	86
Total chemical oxygen demand, tCOD (g L^{-1})	0.38 ± 0.12	0.17 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.05

Soluble chemical oxygen demand, sCOD (g L ⁻¹)	0.10 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.01
Soluble chemical oxygen demand, sCOD (%)	26	31	31
Total Kjeldahl nitrogen, TKN (mg N L ⁻¹)	52 ± 11	37 ± 11	33 ± 9
Total ammonia nitrogen, TAN (mg N L ⁻¹)	32 ± 10	16 ± 4	21 ± 3
Phosphate, P (mg L ⁻¹)	1.9 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 0.7	1.3 ± 0.5

Mixed liquor

Total suspended solids, TSS (g L ⁻¹)	1.14 ± 0.40	0.73 ± 0.25	1.02 ± 0.46
Volatile suspended solids, VSS (g L ⁻¹)	0.66 ± 0.20	0.43 ± 0.15	0.48 ± 0.18
Volatile suspended solids, VSS (%)	58	60	48
Food to Microorganisms ratio, F/M (kg COD kg ⁻¹ MLVSS d ⁻¹)	14.1 ± 5.9	9.0 ± 4.1	9.2 ± 4.3
Fe/COD _{influent} (g Fe g ⁻¹ COD)	0.02 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01

Dosage of coagulant and polymer

40% FeCl ₃ (mg L ⁻¹)	50	50	30
Cationic polymer (C492, Kemira) (mg L ⁻¹)	-	2	1.5
Anionic polymer (A130.HP, Kemira) (mg L ⁻¹)	3	0.5	0.5

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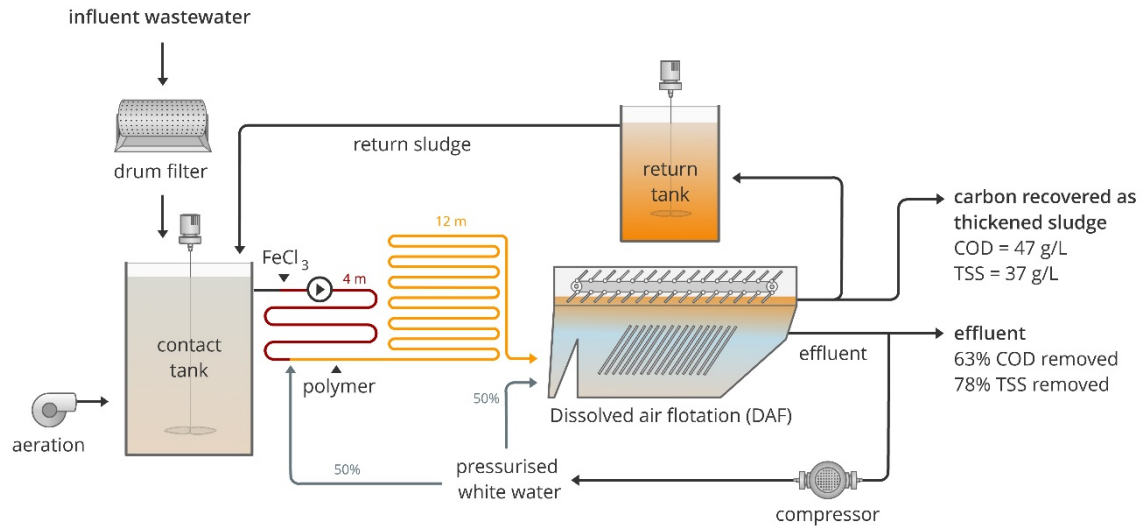
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650 Highlights

- 651 • A high-rate activated sludge system was coupled to a dissolved air flotation unit.
- 652 • Removal of up to 78% TSS and 63% COD from domestic wastewater.

653 • The HRAS-DAF sludge did not need further thickening before anaerobic digestion.

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