

1 **Integrating microalgae tertiary treatment into activated sludge systems for**
2 **energy and nutrients recovery from wastewater**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 In this study, microalgae digestate and secondary effluent were used to grow microalgae in
24 a tertiary wastewater treatment, and then, the biomass was co-digested for biogas generation.
25 A 30L closed-photobioreactor was used for microalgae cultivation. The biomass, mainly
26 composed by *Scenedesmus* sp., reached and maintained a concentration of 1.1 gTSS/L during
27 30 days. A complete removal of N-NH₄⁺ and P-PO₄³⁻ and high nitrates and organic matter
28 removals were achieved (58 % N-NO₃⁻ and 70 % COD) with 8d of HRT. The potential biogas
29 production of the cultivated microalgae was determined in batch tests. To improve their
30 biodegradability, a novel method combining their co-digestion with activated sludge after a
31 simultaneous autohydrolysis co-pretreatment was evaluated. After the co-pretreatment, the
32 methane yield increased by 130 %. Thus, integrating microalgae tertiary treatment into
33 activated sludge systems is a promising and feasible solution to recover energy and nutrients
34 from waste, improving wastewater treatment plants sustainability.

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38 **Keywords:** anaerobic digestion, autohydrolysis pretreatment, bioenergy, biogas, centrate,

39 microalgal biomass

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Until now, wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) were mainly conceived for removing
43 contaminants and organic matter, and were designed and managed to protect human and
44 environmental health (Muga and Mihelcic, 2008). However, the increasing water scarcity
45 forces the need for new technological solutions with low cost and low energy demand (Chisti,
46 2008). To transform a conventional wastewater treatment system into a self-sustainable
47 process it is necessary to shift from the current model towards a new one in which wastewater
48 treatment systems will become a low energy processing industry, able to generate marketable
49 products rather than wastes. For this reason, special efforts have been made recently to
50 increase energy and resource recovery from wastewater by producing valuable byproducts
51 (e.g. biofuels) from WWTPs.

52

53 Under this scenario, nature-based treatment solutions, such as microalgae-based systems, are
54 conceived as a breakthrough to a new model for wastewater treatment (Pittman et al., 2011).
55 Indeed, such systems are able to reuse nutrients from wastewater and other wastes (i.e.
56 digestate from anaerobic digestion) in order to grow microalgae biomass which can be used
57 as bioenergy feedstock (Uggetti et al., 2014a). However, the alternative of recycling
58 microalgae digestate has been poorly explored. The main concern in the use of digestate as
59 nutrient for microalgae growth is the elevated ammonium content. Though, this
60 inconvenience may be solved by diluting it with another low strength waste effluent (i.e.
61 secondary effluent from wastewater treatment).

62

63 Considering small-medium conventional WWTPs based on the activated sludge process with
64 anaerobic digestion for waste activated sludge (WAS) treatment, a microalgae

65 photobioreactor (PBR) could be introduced as a tertiary treatment in order to improve the
66 treated water quality and increase the biogas production (Figure 1). Indeed, the microalgae
67 biomass produced in the PBR could be co-digested with waste activated sludge from the
68 conventional plant. In such a case, their co-digestion could improve the methane productivity
69 and the hydrolysis efficiency compared to each substrate mono-digestion, increasing the
70 bioenergy recovery efficiency of the plant (Zhen et al., 2016). In fact, recent investigation
71 has reported higher methane yield and/or rate when microalgae and WAS are co-digested
72 (Beltran et al., 2016; Neumann et al., 2015). Besides, WAS has inherent enzymes inside its
73 extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) which are released after a thermal pretreatment at
74 55°C resulting in autohydrolysis of WAS (Carvajal et al., 2013). Hence, the co-pretreatment
75 and subsequent co-digestion of microalgae and WAS may improve the hydrolysis. Moreover,
76 the digestate from the anaerobic digestion could be reused as a source of nutrients for
77 microalgae biomass growth together with the secondary effluent. In this way, the quality of
78 treated wastewater would be improved, as compared to conventional biological systems, and
79 the digestate would be treated while increasing the concentration of nutrients for microalgae
80 growth.

81

82 Following the scheme proposed in Figure 1, this article addresses a novel approach in the
83 field of wastewater treatment. Previous studies focused on microalgae production for biogas
84 production (i.e., Passos et al., 2015, 2013; Passos and Ferrer, 2014), were addressed to treat
85 urban wastewater by means of high rate algal ponds as a secondary treatment. Differently,
86 this study proposes an integrated system of activated sludge and microalgae tertiary treatment
87 for nutrients and bioenergy recovery from wastewater. Thus, the objectives of this research
88 were: 1) to study the microalgal biomass production treating the secondary wastewater

89 effluent and digestate; and 2) to quantify the methane yield of harvested microalgae biomass
90 co-digested with waste activated sludge after an autohydrolysis pretreatment.

91

92 **2. Methodology**

93 ***2.1 Experimental set-up***

94 Experiments were carried out at the laboratory of the GEMMA Research Group (Barcelona,
95 Spain). Microalgae were grown in a closed cylindrical photobioreactor (30L). The PBR was
96 fed with microalgae uncentrifuged digestate diluted in secondary effluent from a pilot high
97 rate algal pond (HRAP) treating municipal wastewater. The latter came from a pilot system
98 treating municipal wastewater which comprised a primary settler, a high rate algal pond
99 (HRAP) and a secondary settler (Gutiérrez et al., 2016). The digestate was obtained from
100 lab-scale anaerobic digesters (1.5 L) that produced biogas from microalgae biomass
101 harvested from the HRAP. A detailed description of the anaerobic digesters and HRAP may
102 be found in Passos et al. (2015).

103

104 ***2.2 Photobioreactor operation***

105 A mixed microalgae culture obtained from a pilot high rate algal pond was utilized as
106 inoculum to start-up the photobioreactor. This inoculum consisted of a community of
107 microalgae, bacteria, protozoa and small metazoan, specifically dominated by the microalgae
108 genus *Chlorella* sp., *Scenedesmus* sp. and *Stigeoclonium* sp. The closed photobioreactor was
109 located indoors and consisted of a cylindrical vessel made of polymethyl methacrylate with
110 a working volume of 30 L. The mixed liquor was stirred by means of an air sparger placed
111 at the bottom of the photobioreactor, at a flow of 10 L/min and a pressure of 0.034 MPa using
112 a 105 W air compressor (model ACQ-012, JAD, China). The photobioreactor design and

113 operation characteristics may be found elsewhere (Arias et al., 2017). The culture in the
114 photobioreactor was in continuous operation alternating light:dark periods of 12 h. During
115 the illuminance period, light was supplied by an external lamp (600W, Sunmaster, USA)
116 placed at 80 cm in front of the photobioreactor, providing 19,000 lux (289 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$). The
117 temperature of the culture along the experimental period ranged from 25 to 29 °C.

118

119 The photobioreactor was fed once a day (semi-continuously) with microalgae digestate
120 diluted in secondary effluent at a ratio of 1:50, and operated at 8 days of hydraulic retention
121 time (HRT) and solids retention time (SRT). The dilution ratio of 1:50 was performed in
122 order to decrease the ammonium (N-NH_4^+) content to concentrations below 10 mg/L in the
123 photobioreactor influent. The physico-chemical characterization of the digestate and
124 secondary effluent used as influent for microalgae growth in the photobioreactor is shown in
125 Table 1.

126

127 ***2.3 Biochemical methane potential assay***

128 ***2.3.1. Substrates and inoculum***

129 The microalgae biomass used in the biochemical methane potential (BMP) assays was
130 collected from the photobioreactor effluent after stable operation. At the time, the microalgae
131 biomass was clearly dominated by *Scenedesmus* sp. Harvested biomass was settled for 1 day,
132 and then thickened for 3h to reach the target total solids (TS) concentration of 2.8 %. This
133 procedure was performed at 5°C to preserve microalgae properties.

134

135 WAS was used as co-substrate for *Scenedesmus* sp digestion. It was obtained from a
136 secondary settler of a conventional WWTP (Barcelona, Spain). WAS had a TS and VS
137 content of 1.8 % and 1.3 %, respectively. It was stored at 5 °C until use.

138

139 Mesophilic digested sludge from the same WWTP (Barcelona, Spain) was used as inoculum
140 for BMP assays and was stored at 5 °C until use.

141

142 ***2.3.2. Autohydrolysis pretreatment: preliminary solubilisation assay***

143 A preliminary solubilisation assay was carried out in order to determine the optimal contact
144 time for the autohydrolysis pretreatment. The assay was performed at 55 °C in order to
145 activate WAS enzymes (Carvajal et al., 2013).

146

147 The autohydrolysis pretreatment was carried out in four glass bottles with a total volume of
148 250 mL and liquid volume of 200 ml each. Bottles were placed in a heater under mild
149 continuous mixing using multi magnetic stirrers at a constant temperature of 55 °C. Trials
150 were prepared with microalgae and WAS alone (controls) and with mixtures of microalgae
151 and WAS at different proportions: 50 % microalgae + 50 % WAS and 80 % microalgae + 20
152 % WAS (on a VS basis).

153

154 Time course of biomass solubilisation was analysed from the solubilisation curves defined
155 by the solubilisation ratio (S) obtained at increasing exposure times. The solubilisation ratio
156 was defined as follows:

$$S = \frac{VS_s}{VS} \cdot 100 \quad (1)$$

157

158 where S is the solubilisation ratio expressed as a percentage, VSS is the soluble volatile solids
159 concentration and VS refers to the total volatile solids concentration.

160

161 In order to compare the experimental data of the microalgae and WAS mixtures with the
162 expected solubilisation ratio without substrates interaction, the theoretical solubilisation ratio
163 was calculated using the following equation:

$$S_{calc} = f_A \cdot S_A + f_{WAS} \cdot S_{WAS} \quad (2)$$

164

165 where S_{calc} is the calculated solubilisation ratio expressed as a percentage, f_A and f_{WAS} refer
166 to the proportion of microalgae and WAS content in each solubilisation trial, respectively,
167 and S_A and S_{WAS} are the experimental solubilisation ratio of microalgae and WAS tested
168 alone, respectively.

169

170 **2.3.3. Microalgae and WAS co-digestion BMP assays**

171 BMP tests were carried out in order to determine the methane yield and rate (k) of co-
172 digestion trials with microalgae and WAS, after an autohydrolysis pretreatment. The
173 pretreatment was applied simultaneously to both substrates, taking into account the results of
174 the preliminary solubilisation assay in terms of exposure time (Section 2.2.2). Three
175 conditions were tested: i) 20 % of microalgae and 80 % of WAS, ii) 50 % microalgae and 50
176 % of WAS and iii) 80 % of microalgae and 20% of WAS (on a VS basis). The mono-digestion
177 of each substrate (with and without pretreatment) was also performed as control.

178

179 All experimental trials were prepared in triplicate with a substrate to inoculum (S/I) ratio of
180 0.5 g CODVS/g VS according to Passos et al. (2013). A blank trial without substrate was
181 used to quantify the amount of methane produced by the inoculum. After adding the proper
182 amount of both substrates and the inoculum, serum bottles (160 mL) were filled with distilled
183 water up to 100 mL, flushed with Helium gas, sealed with butyl rubber stoppers and
184 incubated at 35 °C until biogas production ceased.

185

186 A first-order kinetic model (Equation (3)) was applied to assess the performance and the
187 kinetics of (co-)digestion assays.

$$B = B_0 \cdot [1 - \exp(-k \cdot t)] \quad (3)$$

188

189 where B represents the cumulative methane production (mL CH₄/gVS), B_0 is the final
190 methane production (mL CH₄/gVS), k refers to the first-order kinetic constant (days⁻¹) and t
191 is time (days).

192

193 The pair of experimental data (B, t) was adjusted by the least square method using the SOLVE
194 function from Excel. This allowed the determination of parameters k and B_0 of each co-
195 digestion assay.

196

197 Furthermore, experimental data obtained by each co-digestion mixture was compared to
198 theoretical values calculated from microalgae and WAS specific methane productions
199 (Equation (4)):

$$BMP_{calc} = f_A \cdot BMP_A + f_{WAS} \cdot BMP_{WAS} \quad (4)$$

200

201 where BMP_{calc} is the calculated BMP, f_A and f_{WAS} refer to the percentage of microalgae and
202 WAS content in each trial, respectively, and BMP_A and BMP_{WAS} are the experimental
203 methane yield of microalgae and WAS mono-digestions, respectively.

204

205 ***2.4 Analytical procedures***

206 ***2.4.1 Tertiary wastewater treatment***

207 Nutrients removal (nitrogen and phosphorous) was monitored taking samples twice per week
208 at the end of the light phase in the photobioreactor influent (1/50 digestate/secondary
209 effluent) and in the mixed liquor of the photobioreactor. Orthophosphate (P- PO_4^{3-}), nitrite
210 (N- NO_2^-) and nitrate (N- NO_3^-) were determined using ion chromatograph DIONEX
211 ICS1000 (Thermo-scientific, USA), operated in isocratic mode with Na_2CO_3 and $NaHCO_3$
212 as eluents at a temperature of 30 °C and a flow of 1 ml/min. Values lower than 0.9 mg/L of
213 N- NO_2^- , 1.12 of N- NO_3^- , and 0.8 mg/L of P- PO_4^{3-} were considered below the limit of
214 detection (LOD). On the other hand, ammonium (N- NH_4^+) was measured by the colorimetric
215 method indicated in Solorzano (1969). Total inorganic nitrogen (TIN) was calculated as the
216 sum of N- NH_4^+ , N- NO_2^- and N- NO_3^- . Samples were analyzed in triplicate. Soluble chemical
217 oxygen demand (CODs) was determined according to Standard Methods (APHA-AWWA-
218 WPCF, 2001).

219

220 Culture conditions as water temperature and pH were continuously measured by probes
221 placed *in situ* and monitored by a pH-meter with a temperature sensor (Mettler Toledo, USA).
222 Data was collected in periods of 2–3 min in a computer with the software LabVIEW®.

223

224 **2.4.2 Microalgae biomass production**

225 In order to evaluate the microalgae biomass production, turbidity was measured by means of
226 a turbidimeter (HI 93703, HANNA Instruments, Italy) 3-5 days per week sampling at the end
227 of the light phase. Then, total suspended solids (TSS) were determined from the correlation
228 shown in Eq. (5) ($R^2 = 0.9951$) between turbidity and the dry weight of algal biomass
229 determined gravimetrically as total suspended solids according to the standard method 2540-
230 D (APHA-AWWA-WPCF, 2001).

231

$$TSS \left(\frac{g}{l}\right) = 0.0026 \cdot Turbidity + 0.2046 \quad (5)$$

232

233 Microalgae evolution was monitored once a week using an optic microscope (Motic, China)
234 equipped with a camera (Fi2, Nikon, Japan), connected to a computer with the software NIS-
235 Element viewer®. Microalgae species were identified *in vivo* using conventional taxonomic
236 books (Bourrelly, 1985; Palmer, 1962).

237

238 **2.4.3 Biogas production**

239 The total volatile solids (VS) and soluble volatile solids (VSs) were analysed according to
240 Standard Methods (APHA AWWA-WPCF, 2001). The soluble fraction was obtained after
241 biomass centrifugation (UNICEN20, 4200 rpm, 8min, 20 °C) followed by filtration via glass-
242 fiber filters (0.45 µm).

243

244 The cumulative biogas production was determined from the pressure increase in the
245 headspace volume of the bottles measured with a manometer (GMH 3161 Greisinger,

246 Germany). The methane content in biogas was periodically analysed by gas chromatography,
247 using a chromatograph with a thermal conductivity detector (Trace GC Thermo Finnigan
248 with Hayesep packed column) and injector/detector/oven temperatures were 150, 250, 35 °C,
249 respectively, using helium gas as carrier.

250

251 **3. Results and discussion**

252 *3.1 Wastewater treatment performance*

253 The closed photobioreactor was operated as a tertiary wastewater treatment to remove
254 nutrients (N and P) from the secondary effluent (treated wastewater). Additionally, it treated
255 the digestate, which in turn increased the concentration of nutrients for microalgae growth.
256 Although the concentration of nutrients was not constant over the experimental period,
257 N-NH₄⁺ was almost completely removed and P-PO₄³⁻ was never detected in the
258 photobioreactor effluent (Figure 2). The pH was not regulated and values ranged from 9.4 to
259 11.5 in dark and light periods, respectively, due to the photosynthetic activity.

260

261 As shown in Figure 2, initial N-NO₃⁻ showed a decreasing pattern over time. This is due to
262 the variations on nitrification processes in the secondary effluent caused by seasonal changes
263 in the HRAP performance (Arias et al., 2017 and Garcia et al., 2000), leading to changes in
264 N-NO₃⁻ concentrations in the influent. In any way, the average removal during the period of
265 the experiment was 58 %. Indeed, the lack of N-NH₄⁺ could enhance nitrates consumption
266 as nitrogen source by microalgae since it has been shown that microalgae tend to prefer
267 N-NH₄⁺ over N-NO₃⁻, and nitrate consumption does not occur until N-NH₄⁺ is almost
268 completely consumed (Garcia et al., 2000).

269

270 Regarding the CODs, the average concentration in the influent was 141 ± 4 mg/L, which was
271 reduced by 50.6 % over the first 3 weeks of operation and 70 % during the last 2 weeks
272 (Figure 2). This increase in the COD removal efficiency during the last 2 weeks might be
273 caused by an increment in the proportion of biodegradable organic matter in the influent.
274 Notwithstanding, the CODs of the photobioreactor effluent was always below the discharge
275 limit of 125 mg O₂/L (Directive 98/15/EC, 1998).

276

277 The biomass was clearly dominated by *Scenedesmus* sp. In general, the performance of this
278 culture as a tertiary treatment for the digestate diluted in secondary effluent is comparable to
279 other studies using different microalgae species that typically grow on wastewater. Olguín et
280 al. (2003) treated anaerobically digested pig slurries diluted in seawater, and achieved
281 removals around 90, 87 and 50 % for N-NH₄⁺, P-PO₄³⁻ and COD, respectively. Similar
282 results were obtained by Cañizares et al. (1994), achieving removals above 90 % in both
283 N-NH₄⁺ and P-PO₄³⁻ during the treatment of the pretreated pig slurries with *Spirulina*
284 *maxima*.

285

286 In previous studies most of the removal efficiencies achieved with different microalgae
287 consortia range between 60 % and 99 % (Olguín et al., 2003; Ruiz-Marin et al., 2010; Van
288 Den Hende et al., 2016; Viruela et al., 2016). Such removals demonstrate that in general,
289 algae-based wastewater treatment systems are a feasible alternative for nutrients and organic
290 matter removal regardless of the type of culture. Remarkably, the results of this study reached
291 higher removals of NH₄⁺ and P-PO₄³⁻ in comparison to the study of Viruela et al. (2016) and
292 Wang et al. (2010) treating only anaerobic effluents (centrate), and the study of Arias et al.
293 (2017), treating microalgae digestate diluted with secondary effluents. This fact could be

294 directly influenced by an efficient uptake of nutrients by microalgae, which can be considered
295 by means of the high biomass concentration reached in this study. Additionally, the HRT of
296 8 d might be also contributing to the high removals obtained in both nutrients and COD in
297 this study. Indeed long retention times are recommended to improve removal efficiencies in
298 cases of low nutrients availability (Munoz and Guieysse, 2006).

299

300 **3.2 Microalgae growth**

301 As shown in Table 1, the secondary effluent had low N-NH₄⁺ concentration (0.5 mg/L) and
302 the digestate provided an additional N-NH₄⁺ and phosphorous source to the photobioreactor
303 which enhanced microalgae growth. During the experiment, the biomass showed an
304 exponential growth during the first 5 days, increasing the initial concentration of 0.5 gTSS/L
305 by 57.0 %. After that, a constant concentration of 1.1±0.1 gTSS/L was achieved and
306 maintained throughout the experiment. The high biomass obtained in this study suggests the
307 utilization of all the influent dissolved inorganic N and P available in form of N-NH₄⁺,
308 N-NO₃⁻ and P-PO₄³⁻, but also of other organic forms of N and P as shown by (García et
309 al., 2002).

310

311 At the beginning the mixed culture was mainly dominated by *Stigeoclonium* sp. However,
312 after the 10th day, the culture was clearly dominated by *Scenedesmus* sp. This could be
313 influenced by the N/P ratio (12:1) in the photobioreactor. Indeed, Viruela et al., (2016) and
314 Xin et al., (2010) reported ratios from 5:1 to 12:1 to be the optimal for the dominance of
315 *Scenedesmus* sp. over other species. This specie in particular is known to have high growth
316 rate in spite of low nutrients availability, specially to P limitation (Cai et al., 2013; Xin et al.,
317 2010). In addition to nutrients availability in the culture, high adaptability of this genus to

318 several factors could facilitate their dominance over other green microalgae and
319 cyanobacteria. These factors include high tolerance to light limitation (Liu et al., 2017) as
320 well as high light intensities (Huisman et al., 1999), efficient adaptation to wide ranges of pH
321 from 7.1 (Zhang et al., 2014) to 10.5 (da Fontoura et al., 2015). Indeed, their adaptability to
322 grow in the digestate of different biomass feedstocks has already been demonstrated
323 (Marcilhac et al., 2014; Uggetti et al., 2014a). These studies highlighted their capacity to
324 grow under high N-NH₄⁺ content, phosphorous limitation and high pH. Furthermore, this
325 species is among the fastest growing green microalgae in wastewater and produce high yields
326 in terms of carbohydrates or lipids (Komolafe et al., 2014; Rodolfi et al., 2009), which
327 represents an advantage in terms of their conversion to biogas or biofuels.

328

329 In addition to *Scenedesmus* sp., a variety of microalgae and cyanobacteria have shown the
330 capacity to grow on diluted and undiluted digestates from various sources. For instance, the
331 digestate from swine slurry (Cheng et al., 2015), sewage sludge (Uggetti et al., 2014b),
332 abattoir digestate (Bchir et al., 2011), swine manure (Hu et al., 2012) and poultry manure
333 (Iyovo et al., 2010) are adequate for microalgae biomass production. Regarding the studies
334 focused on recycling microalgae digestate for biomass production, Prajapati et al., (2014)
335 used the digestate from anaerobic digestion of *Chroococcus* sp. diluted in tap water as
336 nutrient supplement for microalgal growth. In that case, the microalgae concentration was
337 0.8±0.1g TSS/L in a batch process. Likewise, in the study of Arias et al. (2017), digestate
338 diluted with secondary effluent was employed to grow and select cyanobacteria, achieving a
339 biomass production between 0.4 and 1.05 g TSS/L. In our research, higher concentrations
340 (1.1±0.1 g TSS/L) were reached by utilizing digestate diluted with secondary effluent under
341 semi-continuous mode.

342

343 ***3.3 Autohydrolysis pretreatment effect on biomass solubilisation***

344 The effect of the autohydrolysis pretreatment was initially evaluated by the biomass
345 solubilisation increase (Figure 3). WAS reached the highest solubilisation ratio (25.7 %) and
346 microalgae the lowest (11.4 %). In view of the results, microalgae showed to be less
347 biodegradable than WAS due to the resistant structure of their cell wall. case in particular,
348 *Scenedesmus* has been reported to have a complex multilayer cell wall (Tukaj and
349 Bohdanowicz, 1995):

350

351 The results obtained in this study are in accordance with those obtained by Mahdy et al.,
352 (2015), who observed higher solubilisation rates with WAS than microalgae after a thermal
353 pretreatment at 120 °C for 40 min. Besides, similar solubilisation rates for WAS were
354 obtained by Carvajal et al. (2013) (25 % for proteins and 21 % for carbohydrates), who
355 studied how inherent enzymes of WAS were released by applying a thermal pretreatment at
356 55 °C.

357

358 Considering the mixed substrates, at the end of the assay the solubilisation ratios were 21 %
359 and 15 % for the mixtures with 50 % and 80 % of microalgae, respectively. Indeed, the
360 solubilisation ratio decreased proportionally to the concentration of WAS decrease
361 ($R^2=0.95$). This proportionality was confirmed by comparing experimental data with
362 theoretical solubilisation ratios, calculated from Equation (2). This means that there was no
363 co-pretreatment effect, since microalgae solubilisation was not improved by pretreating it
364 together with WAS. Therefore, inherent enzymes of WAS released during the autohydrolysis
365 pretreatment were not effective at disrupting microalgae cell wall.

366

367 Finally, Figure 3 shows that all assays reached an asymptote by the end of the assay, meaning
368 that solubilisation ratio increase was stabilised by that time. **An increase on the contact time**
369 **would not entail a significant increase of substrate solubilisation**, whereas it would increase
370 the amount of energy needed for the pretreatment. Therefore, 7.5 hours was selected as the
371 optimum contact time for the autohydrolysis pretreatment prior to biochemical methane
372 potential assays. This is in accordance with our previous studies which showed that a contact
373 time of 8 hours was the optimum when pretreating microalgae at low temperature (Passos et
374 al., 2013).

375

376 ***3.4 Biochemical methane potential of pretreated microalgae and WAS co-digestion***

377 The anaerobic co-digestion BMP assays lasted 41 days (Figure 4). Regarding the pure
378 substrates, WAS showed the highest methane yield (139 mL CH₄/g VS) while microalgae
379 presented the lowest (82 mL CH₄/g VS) (Table 2). Nonetheless, after the pretreatment,
380 microalgae presented a higher increase with respect to WAS. Indeed, the pretreatment
381 applied to microalgae increased the methane yield by 64 %, achieving a value of 134 mL
382 CH₄/g VS. On the other hand, pretreated WAS showed a production of 204 mL CH₄/g VS,
383 which represents an increase of 47 %. These results are in accordance with the literature
384 highlighting the importance of microalgae pretreatment, since their resistant cell wall
385 hampers microalgae hydrolysis and anaerobic fermentation (Passos et al., 2014). Particularly,
386 *Scenedesmus* sp. has a complex rigid cell wall which makes even more difficult the
387 accessibility of enzymes to the substrate during the digestion process (González-Fernández
388 et al., 2012).

389

390 The cumulative methane yield of the co-digestion trials were 187 mL CH₄/g VS, 162 mL
391 CH₄/g VS and 132 mL CH₄/g VS for the mixtures of WAS with 20 %, 50 % and 80 % of
392 microalgae, respectively. In order to detect potential co-digestion synergies, the theoretical
393 methane yields were calculated according to Equation (4). The results showed neither
394 positive nor negative synergies between substrates, meaning that the co-digestion did not
395 improve microalgae anaerobic biodegradability. The lack of WAS enzymes effect on
396 *Scenedesmus* sp. cell wall disruption, or the low C/N ratio might be responsible for the lack
397 of synergies. These results are in agreement with Costa et al. (2012), who studied the co-
398 digestion of macroalgae species (*Ulva* and *Gracilaria*) with WAS without any pretreatment.
399 Additionally, Neumann et al. (2015) studied the co-digestion of *Botryococcus braunii* and
400 WAS and synergies were neither identified. On the contrary, Wang et al. (2013) observed 23
401 % increase in biogas production when co-digesting *Chorella* sp. and WAS, with 41 % of
402 microalgae. Despite *Chorella* sp. has a rigid cell wall due to its high content of cellulose, the
403 co-digestion with WAS enhanced the hydrolysis.

404

405 The methane content in biogas of each co-digestion assay was periodically measured (Table
406 2). Results showed no differences among trials. Thus, the methane content was independent
407 of the ratio between co-digestion substrates (Caporgno et al., 2015) and it was neither
408 affected by the autohydrolysis pretreatment nor by the co-digestion.

409

410 Moreover, the methane production rate was also analysed through the apparent kinetic
411 constant (k) of the first-order experimental model, as defined in Equation (3). Table 2 shows
412 that substrates without pretreatment had the lowest values of k (0.16 days⁻¹ and 0.17 days⁻¹
413 for microalgae and WAS, respectively), whereas pretreated substrates increased their kinetic

414 constants up to 0.27 days^{-1} and 0.25 day^{-1} for microalgae and WAS, respectively. Thus, a
415 significant increase of the production rate (69 % for microalgae and 47 % for WAS) was
416 observed by applying the pretreatment. Moreover, the co-digestion trials showed higher
417 kinetic constants (0.29 days^{-1} , 0.32 days^{-1} and 0.30 days^{-1} for 20 %, 50 % and 80 % of
418 microalgae content co-digestions) as compared to the mono-digestions. This evidenced how
419 the co-digestion of microalgae and WAS can improve the mono-digestion of both substrates.
420 Costa et al. (2012), Neumann et al. (2015) and Wang et al. (2013) agreed that co-digestion
421 of microalgae and WAS improved the kinetic constant despite having different conclusion in
422 terms of the final methane yield. This result was considered the main advantage of the studied
423 microalgae and WAS co-digestion, as it may reduce the time needed for reaching the highest
424 biogas production. This means that lower hydraulic retention times, hence smaller digesters
425 could be used, reducing the costs.

426

427 ***3.5 The approach of recycling nutrients in a bioenergy producing system***

428

429 This study highlights the viability of integrating an algae-based tertiary wastewater
430 treatment system in a conventional WWTP that includes both processes: activated sludge and
431 anaerobic digestion. This short term study also offers an alternative to the recycling use of
432 digestate.

433 Although the reuse of digestate as biofertilizer can promote a sustainable biogas production
434 (Solé-Bundó et al., 2017), this substrate can be combined with secondary effluents as an
435 alternative substrate to produce microalgal biomass. Additionally, this process could improve
436 the treatment of remaining nutrients from secondary effluents and taking advantage of the

437 nutrients contained in the digestate. Considering the promising results here included, further
438 studies based in long term conditions are recommended. This approach would involve a
439 promising opportunity to close the biorefinery loop, accomplishing a sustainable and self-
440 supporting use of resources and reducing disposal costs and environmental impacts.

441

442 **4. Conclusions**

443 Microalgal anaerobic digestate diluted with secondary wastewater was an effective source of
444 nitrogen and phosphorus for microalgae growth in a photobioreactor. A complete uptake of
445 N-NH₄⁺ and P-PO₄³⁻ was observed, while a constant production of 1.1 gTSS/L of algal
446 biomass was achieved. This biomass, mainly composed by *Scenedesmus* sp., supported a low
447 methane yield (82 mlCH₄/gVS) that was improved by 130 % after an autohydrolysis co-
448 pretreatment and co-digestion with waste activated sludge. Thus, integrating microalgae
449 tertiary treatment into activated sludge systems is a promising and feasible solution to recover
450 energy and nutrients from waste, improving wastewater treatment plants sustainability.

451

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460

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631

632 **Table 1.** Composition of the wastewater used as photobioreactor feedstock.

| Parameter | Digestate | Secondary effluent | Photobioreactor influent ^a |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------|
| pH | - | - | 7.9 ± 0.3 |
| TSS (g/L) | 13.4 ± 8.5 | ^b | 0.26 ± 0.17 |
| VSS (g/L) | 12.3 ± 6.5 | ^b | 0.24 ± 0.13 |
| Alkalinity (mg CaCO ₃ /L) | - | - | 153 ± 38.4 |
| CODs (mg O ₂ /L) | 122.8 ± 25.9 | 18.3 ± 5.5 | 141.1 ± 36.1 |
| N-NH ₄ ⁺ (mg/L) | 459 ± 166.5 | 0.21 ± 0.84 | 9.17 ± 3.33 |
| N-NO ₂ ⁻ (mg/L) | <LOD ^c | 1.44 ± 0.69 | 1.53 ± 0.91 |
| N-NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L) | <LOD ^c | 15.94 ± 4.94 | 15.94 ± 4.94 |
| TIN | - | - | 26.64 ± 3.06 |
| P-PO ₄ ³⁻ (mg/L) | <LOD ^c | 2.18 ± 0.87 | 2.18 ± 0.87 |

TIN: Total Inorganic Nitrogen

^a*Photobioreactor influent prepared by diluting the digestate in secondary effluent (1:50 ratio).*

^b*TSS and VSS in the secondary effluent presented values <0.03 g L⁻¹.*

^c*LOD: Limit of Detection.*

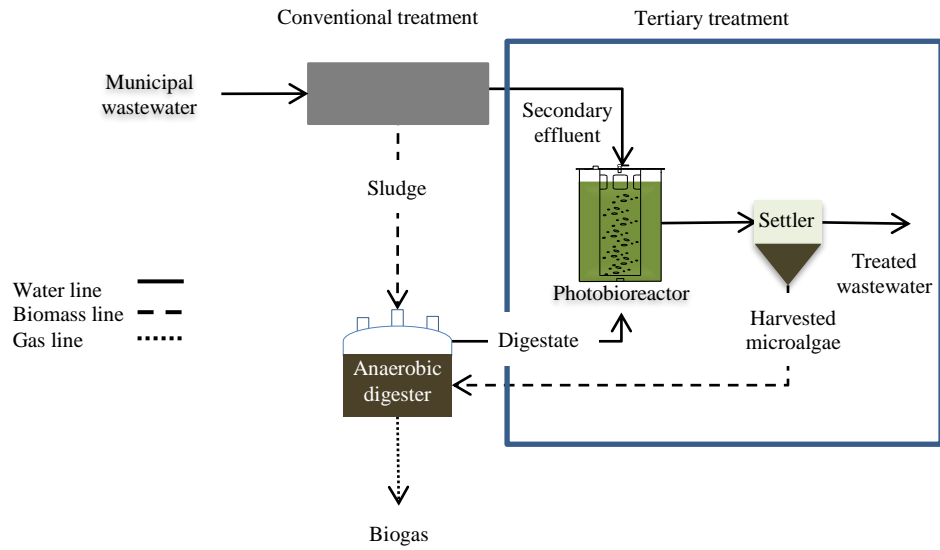
633

634 **Table 2.** Experimental results and data analysis at the end of the biochemical methane
 635 potential assays.

| | Methane yield | % CH ₄ | <i>k</i> |
|------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | mg CH ₄ /g VS | % | day ⁻¹ |
| Microalgae (M) | 82 ± 10 | 63.3 ± 0.1 | 0.16 |
| WAS | 139 ± 3 | 63.9 ± 0.8 | 0.17 |
| (M)p | 134 ± 6 | 64.0 ± 0.1 | 0.27 |
| (WAS)p | 204 ± 3 | 63.5 ± 0.3 | 0.25 |
| (20 %M+80 %WAS)p | 187 ± 9 | 64.0 ± 0.4 | 0.29 |
| (50 %M+50 %WAS)p | 162 ± 6 | 64.3 ± 0.9 | 0.32 |
| (80 %M+20 %WAS)p | 132 ± 2 | 64.6 ± 0.7 | 0.30 |

p = pretreated

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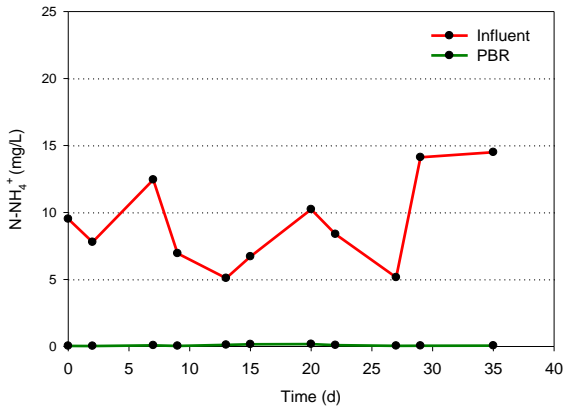


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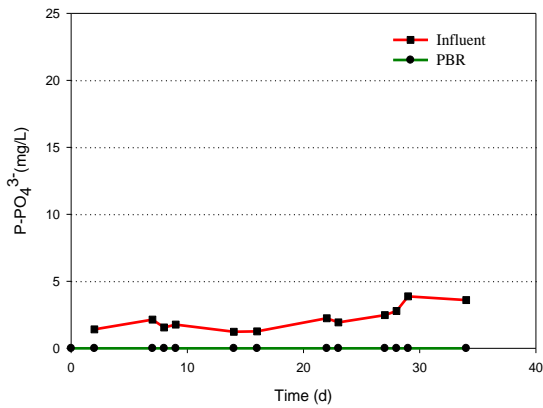
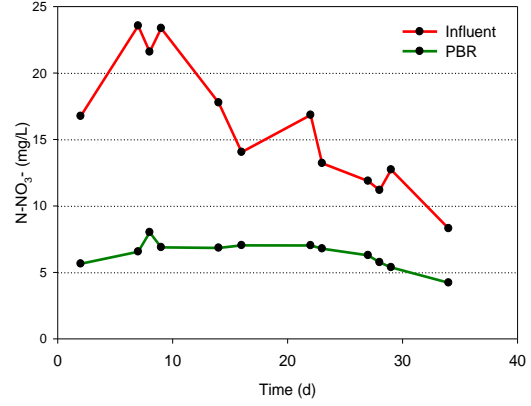
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639 **Figure 1.** General scheme of the system proposed in this study.

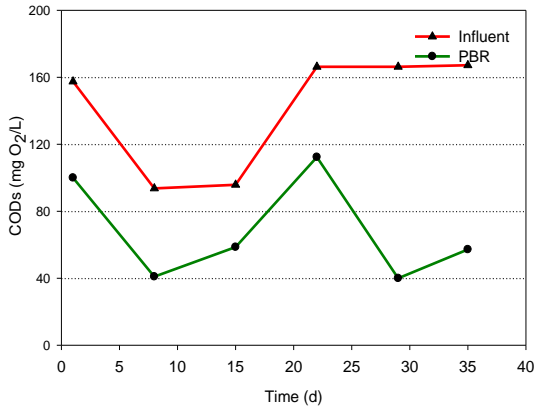
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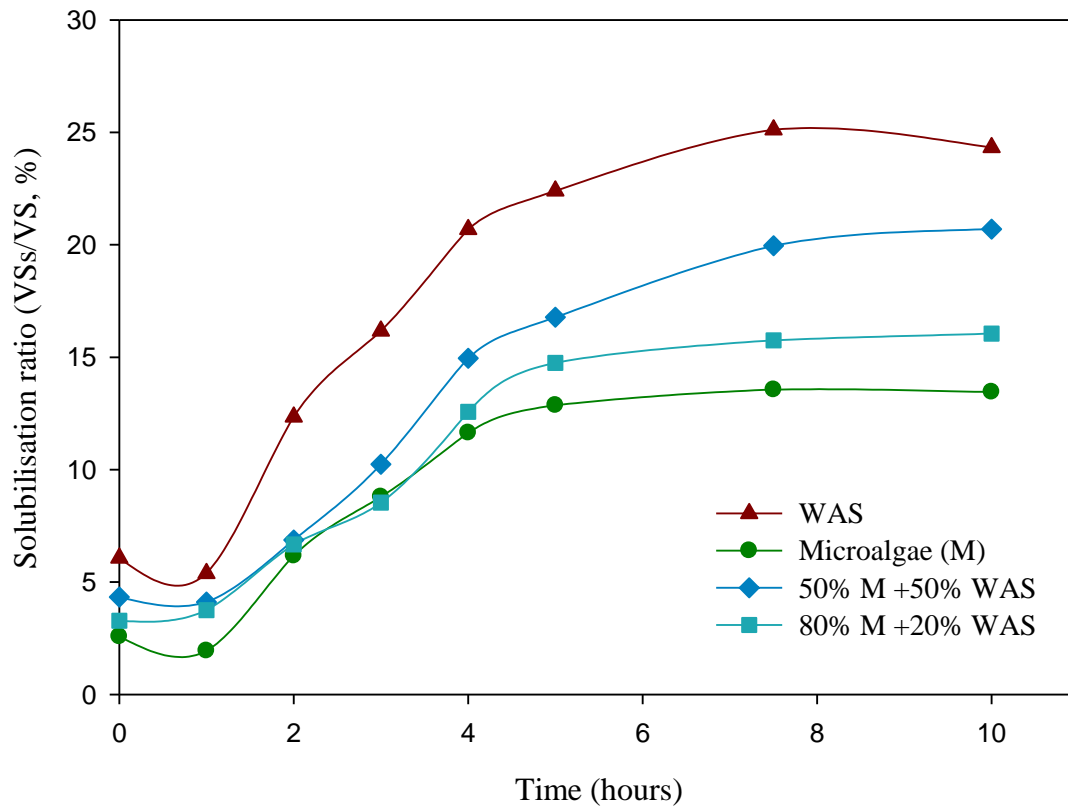


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643

644 **Figure 2.** Influent and photobioreactor concentrations of ammonium (N-NH₄⁺),
 645 orthophosphates (P-PO₄³⁻), nitrates (N-NO₃⁻) and soluble chemical oxygen demand (CODs).



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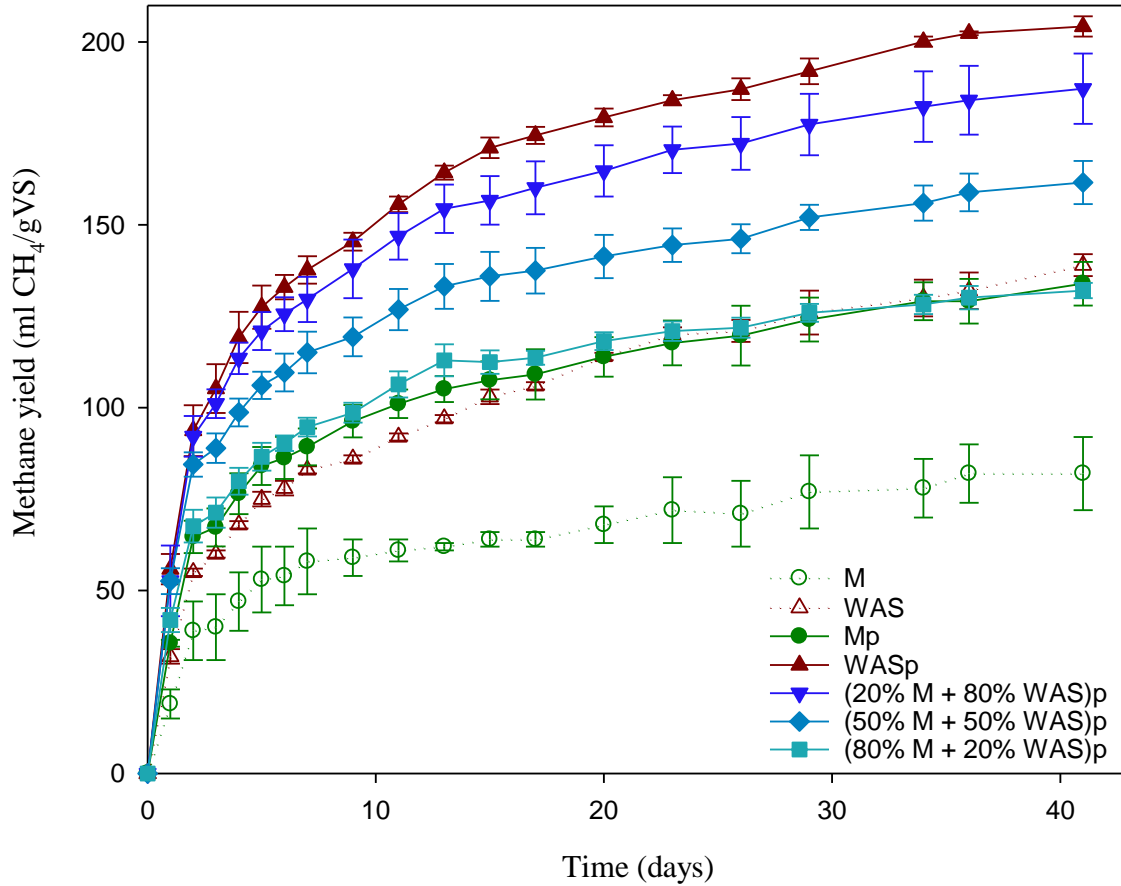
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Figure 3. Solubilisation ratio over the solubilisation assay (10 h).

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Note: M= microalgae; WAS= waste activated sludge.

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Figure 4. Cumulative methane yield (mg CH₄/g VS) over the biochemical methane potential assays with *Scenedesmus* sp. and WAS (co-digestion and mono-digestion). Symbols represent the mean value and standard deviation.

Note: M= microalgae; WAS= waste activated sludge; p = pretreated