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▶ To cite this version:

F. Forouzanmehr, Q.H. Le, K. Solon, V. Maisonnave, O. Daniel, et al.. Plant-wide investigation of sulfur flows in a water resource recovery facility (WRRF). Science of the Total Environment, 2021, 801, pp.149530. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.149530 . hal-03323823

HAL Id: hal-03323823 https://hal.science/hal-03323823

Submitted on 20 Sep 2022

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1 Plant-wide investigation of sulfur flows in a water resource recovery facility (WRRF)

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10 Abstract

11 Even though sulfur compounds and their transformations may strongly affect wastewater treatment processes, their 12 importance in water resource recovery facilities (WRRF) operation remains quite unexplored, notably when it comes 13 to full-scale and plant-wide characterization. This contribution presents a first-of-a-kind, plant-wide quantification of 14 total sulfur mass flows for all water and sludge streams in a full-scale WRRF. Because of its important impact on (post-15 treatment) process operation, the gaseous emission of sulfur as hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) was also included, thus enabling a comprehensive evaluation of sulfur flows. Data availability and quality were optimized by experimental design and 16 17 data reconciliation, which were applied for the first time to total sulfur flows. Total sulfur flows were successfully 18 balanced over individual process treatment units as well as the plant-wide system with only minor variation to their 19 original values, confirming that total sulfur is a conservative quantity. The two-stage anaerobic digestion with 20 intermediate thermal hydrolysis led to a decreased sulfur content of dewatered sludge (by 36%). Higher (gaseous) H₂S 21 emissions were observed in the second-stage digester (42% of total emission) than in the first one, suggesting an impact 22 of thermal treatment on the production of H₂S. While the majority of sulfur mass flow from the influent left the plant 23 through the treated effluent (>95%), the sulfur discharge through dewatered sludge and gaseous emissions are critical. 24 The latter are indeed responsible for odour nuisance, lower biogas quality, SO₂ emissions upon sludge combustion and 25 corrosion effects.

Keywords: Wastewater treatment, Sulfur mass flows, Experimental design, Plant-wide data analysis, Data
 reconciliation

28 1. Introduction

29 Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) are no longer viewed solely for protecting the aquatic environment and ensuring the required effluent quality in terms of chemical oxygen demand and nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus), 30 but instead, they are increasingly regarded as water resource recovery facilities (WRRFs) with growing interest for 31 32 energy and resource recovery (Hao et al., 2019; Solon et al., 2019a). The energy recovery is mostly in the form of methane-containing biogas produced from anaerobic digestion (Guest et al., 2009) that can be combusted on-site for 33 heat and electricity generation or cleaned-up and sold (Puchongkawarin et al., 2015). The resource recovery in WRRFs 34 35 typically relates to phosphorus and nitrogen recovery which are of the interest due to limited resource of phosphorus 36 and substantial energy requirement for nitrogen production and greenhouse gas emission, respectively (Galloway and 37 Cowling, 2002; Marti et al., 2008; Mihelcic et al., 2011; Puchongkawarin et al., 2015).

38 Sulfur cycle influences both energy recovery and resource recovery, in addition to safety concerns. The methane 39 production can be negatively affected by the competition of sulfate-reducing bacteria and methanogens for hydrogen and acetate (Harada et al., 1994; Muyzer and Stams, 2008; Visser et al., 1993). Moreover, sulfide, especially in un-40 41 dissociated form, has an inhibitory effect on anaerobes (e.g. methanogens and acetogens) which are involved in the 42 anaerobic digestion of sludge (Appels et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2008; Guerrero et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016). 43 Generation of high concentration of hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) in biogas necessitates further processing of biogas before co-generation due to its corrosive properties (Tchobanoglus et al., 2003); hence lowering the profitability of produced 44 45 biogas.

46 The sulfur cycle is strongly linked to that of other elements such as nitrogen and phosphorus through various biological 47 and (geo)chemical processes (Lomans et al., 2002; Puyol et al., 2017; Solon et al., 2019b). These interactions include 48 the reoxidation of iron sulfide in the aeration tank (Schippers and Jørgensen, 2002) and subsequent precipitation of phosphate with released iron (Ge et al., 2013; Gutierrez et al., 2010), effects on the performance of enhanced biological 49 phosphorus removal (EBPR) process as a result of SRB activity (Baetens et al., 2001; Wanner et al., 1987; Yamamoto-50 51 Ikemoto et al., 1994) and exposure to high sulfide concentration (Rubio-Rincón et al., 2017a, 2017b; Saad et al., 2017), 52 interactions between sulfide, phosphate and iron in anaerobic digestion (Ge et al., 2013; Roussel and Carliell-Marquet, 53 2016), and the simultaneous sulfide oxidation and nitrate reduction known as autotrophic denitrification which has 54 been implied in the development of new processes e.g. SANI (Lau et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2009).

55 Sulfur in gaseous form is a challenge. Because of gaseous emission especially in form of H₂S, public concern has arisen about WRRFs in the vicinity of residential areas (Frechen, 1988; Gostelow et al., 2001; Lebrero et al., 2013). 56 57 Consequently, the odour collection and treatment are becoming more and more required in WRRFs. H₂S emission 58 occurs in two categories of process units (Gostelow et al., 2001); process units that only promote emission of previously 59 formed H₂S e.g. wastewater inlet works and process units in which both formation and emission occur e.g. primary 60 settling/thickening. Based on information from literature, the two important sources of emission are primary treatments 61 and sludge treatment units (Dincer and Muezzinoglu, 2008; Jiang et al., 2017; Lebrero et al., 2011; Ras et al., 2008), 62 whereas the biological treatment units (aerobic, anoxic tanks and secondary settling) were shown to be less emissive 63 (Frechen, 2004).

Despite mentioned importance, less attention has been given to the sulfur cycle when it comes to full-scale studies. What makes full-scale sulfur studies a challenging task might be the complexity of the sulfur cycle due to the multiphase nature of sulfur (i.e. liquid, solid and gaseous states), a wide range of sulfur species and redox states, ranging from sulfide (-2) to sulfate (+6), interrelated conversions and transformations and difficult sampling and measurements especially for gaseous sulfur.

A key step towards enhancing sulfur studies in WRRFs is quantifying the distribution of sulfur in a plant-wide level as it is helpful for: (i) identifying key sulfur flows, (ii) enabling quantitative comparison of sulfur flows in different streams, (iii) identifying the influence of process units on sulfur flows, (iv) identifying key spots for sulfur recovery and/or reducing the negative effects of sulfur and (v) facilitating the correct design of odour collection and treatment facilities as data is typically scarce.

74 In literature, several studies partly addressed the distribution of sulfur flows in the sludge treatment units, providing 75 valuable information in regard to the effect of process units on the sulfur flows (Dewil et al., 2008, 2009; Fisher et al., 76 2017; Yoshida et al., 2015). The role of secondary sludge thickening in reducing sulfur flows towards successive 77 process treatment was highlighted by Dewil et al. (2008, 2009), who traced flows of total sulfur through four WWTPs. 78 By mapping the sulfur flows in the sludge processing of six WWTPs with different configurations, Fisher et al. (2017) 79 noted higher sulfur recovery in sludge at sites with a combination of primary and secondary treatments, attributing it 80 to the incorporation of sulfate into the biomass and capturing and sending more solids to the sludge processing. Other 81 factors increasing sulfur recovery were higher efficiency of the primary settling tank, thickening and dewatering units, 82 as well as higher iron content in the digesters. Nevertheless, the comprehensive sulfur management in WRRFs requires

a plant-wide level approach as most process units are more or less affected by the sulfur cycle and because sulfur can
be distributed to water, sludge and gaseous streams.

85 In the process of tracking sulfur flows, Fisher et al. (2017) mentioned the limitations in data availability and quality, 86 which highlights the importance of thorough experimental design and data reconciliation for tracking substance flows 87 (Behnami et al., 2016; Meijer et al., 2002, 2015; Puig et al., 2008). To address this issue, Le et al. (2018) developed a 88 mass balanced-based experimental design procedure which provides Pareto-Optimal solutions (i.e. measurement 89 layouts) in terms of their cost and accuracy of key variables. These solutions guarantee the subsequent reconciliation 90 of the collected dataset through data reconciliation. Reconciliation, in this context, means that the value of variables, 91 regardless of being measured or not, would be calculated from other measurements based on the constraints in the 92 form of mass balances. This methodology is applied to a WRRF to trace sulfur flow to ensure the quality of data but 93 also prevent trivial measurements.

This study aims to quantify the distribution of sulfur flow in a municipal WRRF, addressing all process units in the water line and sludge line as well as taking into account water, sludge and gaseous streams. The case study plant had an innovative configuration in sludge treatment by having two-stage digestion with intermediate thermal treatment, which enabled the evaluation of sludge post-treatment processes on sulfur flow distributions. The total sulfur mass flows were obtained following three steps: experimental design, data collection and data reconciliation. The sulfur flows throughout the plant were compared, identifying key flows and how they are influenced by unit processes.

100 2. Material and methods

101 **2.1. WRRF under study**

The municipal WRRF under study (**Fig. 1**) has a capacity of 620,000 P.E. and comprises pre-treatment, secondary treatment and sludge treatment. Pre-treatment process consists of screening and grit and grease removal, followed by primary settling equipped with lamella plates. The primary settling effluent is sent to secondary treatment in an integrated fixed-film activated sludge (IFAS) process for the removal of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus. The secondary treatment is realized in seven compartments: a pre-anoxic reactor, an anaerobic reactor, an anoxic reactor, an aerated reactor with carriers, a de-oxygenation reactor without aeration, a post-anoxic reactor with methanol addition and a post-aeration tank with aluminium chloride addition for chemical phosphorus removal. Effluent from the secondary clarifier passes through filtration as a tertiary treatment before final discharge. During intense rain events, the potential surplus influent wastewater flow is directed towards the rain treatment line which is based on chemically enhanced primary treatment.

112 Primary and secondary sludge are pumped to the gravity thickener and dynamic thickener (rotary drums), respectively. 113 The thickened primary and secondary sludge as well as a small fraction of the thickened sludge originating from the 114 rain treatment line are mixed in a sludge buffer tank. Anaerobic digestion is performed in two stages, the first of which takes place in two parallel units. The first-stage digested sludge is pre-dewatered by a centrifuge and sent to a thermal 115 116 hydrolysis unit (165°C, 8 bar, 30 minutes). The thermally treated sludge is diluted and cooled by adding some treated 117 effluent. The subsequent second stage digestion is performed in a single unit. All three digester tanks have the same 118 volume (6100 m³) and are equipped with air injection to the headspace for biological removal of hydrogen sulfide from 119 biogas (microaeration process). The second-stage digested sludge is sent to a storage tank and then dewatered by a 120 centrifuge. The filtrate of primary and secondary thickening, centrate of pre-dewatering and post-dewatering as well 121 as the reuse water, which is used for internal usages e.g. cleaning, return to the upstream of pre-treatment.



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Fig. 1: Simplified process flow diagram of the WRRF under study. The total sulfur mass flows in the streams are given as a percentage of the total sulfur mass flow in the influent. Water streams, sludge streams and gas streams are shown in blue, brown and yellow lines, respectively. Key variables used in experimental design and data reconciliation are given in bold. The mass balances (#m) were derived around individual and/or combined process units; in the latter case, the boundaries are shown by dashed boxes.

128 2.2. Measurement campaign

The measurement campaign was performed during two weeks in June 2019. The measurement layout in this campaign was selected by following an experimental design procedure (section 2.3.1). The sampling method in the water line and sludge treatment lines were composite samples and grab samples, respectively. The water and sludge samples were analysed for total sulfur (g S.m⁻³) using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) following NF EN ISO 11885 standard. An overview of the measurements including the sampling points and the number of samples is provided in section B2 in the Supplementary Information (SI).

Determination of gaseous sulfur from unit processes where high emission levels were expected was done by monitoring the emitted hydrogen sulfide as the dominant gaseous sulfur species. Other volatile sulfur compounds in the gas phase were assumed negligible, such that hydrogen sulfide was considered as an approximation of total sulfur in the gas phase.

139 The studied process units included primary settler, primary thickener, sludge buffer tank, anaerobic digesters and 140 digested sludge storage tank. The data of sulfur mass flows in the biogas of anaerobic digesters were collected from 141 the supervisory control and data acquisition system (SCADA). In case of other process units, which were completely 142 covered, the myKlearSens H₂S meter (Klearios, France) and OdaLog[®] H₂S meters (App-Tek, Australia) were installed 143 on their ventilation pipes. Continuous measurements of gaseous H_2S were performed with a frequency of 5 minutes 144 over two weeks. In order to obtain the mass flow, air flow rates in the ventilation pipes were measured on the first day 145 of the campaign using pitot tube, hot-wire and helix anemometers. The flow rates of the water and sludge streams were 146 collected from the SCADA system.

147 **2.3. Quantification of total sulfur mass flows**

The main goal of this study was the quantification of the total sulfur flows in the WRRF. Experimental design was applied to select sampling points that guaranteed obtaining a reliable and adequate data set through subsequent data reconciliation. The experimental design and data reconciliation procedures were based on the principle of mass conservation, the conservative quantity being total sulfur.

152 2.3.1. Experimental design

Experimental design was applied to choose the measurement layout to obtain the required information with a minimal number of measurements and maximum accuracy. The step-wise experimental design procedure of Le et al. (2018) (see section A1 in SI) was followed to this end. This experimental design procedure evaluates possible measurement layouts through redundancy analysis and identifies the list of optimum solutions in terms of cost and accuracy that guarantee the reconciliation of key variables. Reconciliation means that the value of key variables, regardless of being measured or not, would be calculated from other measurements based on the constraints in the form of mass balances. The applied experimental design procedure consists of 7 steps, which are detailed below.

160 As a first step, the main goal was translated into key variables, in this case 17 total sulfur mass flows (section A3 in 161 SI). The key variables covered water, sludge and gas lines and were selected as streams which were expected to contain significant sulfur loads and/or to be involved in important sulfur conversions, based on information from literature and 162 163 expert knowledge. Gas streams which were expected to contain a significant amount of sulfur were added a priori as 164 measured variables (6 streams, see Fig. 1 or Table A5 in SI). Five of them were taken up as key variables (see Table 165 A3 in SI). Second, mass balances for total sulfur flows were defined around individual and/or combined process units (section A4 in SI). Third, data inventory was done based on historical data and expert knowledge to estimate the mean 166 values, expected uncertainties and the measurement cost of potential additionally measured variables (section A5 in 167 168 SI). The potential additional measured variables were limited to total sulfur concentrations. The flow rate 169 measurements were limited to ones already installed in the plant (30 out of 33 flows were measured). The experimental 170 design procedure then performed a redundancy analysis (step 4-6 of Fig. A1 in SI) and solved a multi-objective 171 optimization problem (step7), minimising the cost (number of additional measurements) and maximizing the accuracy 172 (precision improvement of key variables). The results were visualised in a Pareto-optimal front that was used to select 173 the measurement layout.

174 **2.3.2. Data reconciliation**

The collected dataset was subject to the mass balance-based data reconciliation procedure of Le, (2019, see section B1 in SI). Provided there is sufficient redundancy in the dataset, this procedure provides better estimates for the key variables in terms of their mean value and uncertainty. In addition, the applied procedure performs several gross error detection techniques. The procedure can be divided into three steps, input preparation, data reconciliation and gross error detection, which are detailed below. The data reconciliation procedure required three input information, namely, key variables, mass balances and preprocessing of the raw measurements. The key variables and mass balances were the same as for the experimental design step. Pre-processing of the raw dataset involves listing the mean values and uncertainty of the measured variables. Determination of variable uncertainties was done taking into account the measurement errors, standard error and sampling method (see section B2 in SI).

The extent of data reconciliation was assessed based on two indicators, namely the correction factor and the precision improvement. The correction factor (Δ_x) reflects the accuracy of measurements and is defined as the ratio of the difference between the mean of the measurement (mean(x)) and the mean of the reconciled value $(mean(\bar{x}))$ to the mean of the measurement, expressed in percentage.

$$\Delta_x = \frac{mean(x) - mean(\bar{x})}{mean(x)}$$
Eq.1

The precision improvement (i_x) , also known as the effect of balancing (van der Heijden et al., 1994), is defined as the ratio of the difference between the variance of the measurement (var(x)) and the variance of the reconciled value $(var(\bar{x}))$ to the variance of the measurement, expressed in percentage. The higher the precision improvement, the more accurate the value of the key variable is known after data reconciliation.

$$i_x = \frac{var(x) - var(\bar{x})}{var(x)} \times 100$$
 Eq.2

Furthermore, the dataset was checked for gross errors by testing the dataset against alternative hypotheses: (1) the null hypothesis, H_0 , that no gross error is present, and (2) the alternative hypothesis, H_1 , that gross errors are present. Three tests were incorporated in the data reconciliation procedure, namely, global test, nodal test and measurement test. The global test provides a general signal if there is a potential gross error in the data set, the nodal test narrows this down to individual constraints and the measurement test suggests potential suspected measurements with gross errors. Details of these tests can be found in Le (2019).

199 3. Results and discussion

3.1. Experimental design- selection of measurement layout

201 Key variables were selected from the water line, sludge line and gas streams (Table A3 in SI). The experimental design 202 evaluated whether or not the main goal, subsequent reconciliation of the key variables, was achievable for the given 203 set of measurements and potential additionally measured variables (section A6 in SI). Based on the process flow sheet 204 and the initially available measurements, 17 potentially additional sampling points for the measurement of total sulfur were identified, corresponding to $2^{17} = 1,310,072$ potential measurement layouts, i.e. combinations of potential 205 206 additional sampling points. All measurement layouts were evaluated by the experimental design procedure. From all 207 possible combinations, 3534 measurement layouts could result in the reconciliation of key variables and thus were 208 considered as solutions, seven of them were optimal solutions, lying on the Pareto-front (Fig. 2, details of Pareto-Optimal solutions including the sampling points of each solution are given in section A6 in SI). Each of these solutions 209 210 is a measurement layout that guarantees the improvement of defined key variables and is optimal in terms of cost and 211 accuracy.

The Pareto-front groups the Pareto-optimal solutions meaning that a lower cost of measurements can only be obtained at the expense of lower accuracy of key variables and vice versa, higher accuracy can be obtained at the expense of a higher cost. Solution 1 was the cheapest measurement layout with 11 additional sampling points for the measurement of total sulfur concentration. Solution 7 with 17 additional measurements provided the highest accuracy and was selected as the measurement layout in this study.



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Fig. 2: Solutions of experimental design. Solutions are expressed in terms of cost (c) and accuracy (v). Each x represents a solution: the line filled circles represent the Pareto-front, containing all optimal solution.

Overall, the experimental design procedure proved successful in identifying Pareto-optimal measurement layouts, balancing the number of measurements and their accuracy, despite handling the given relatively complex process configuration including many possible sampling points.

3.2. Data Reconciliation- Quality check

A data quality check was performed for the water and, sludge streams, as well as for the gas streams. For each of them correction factor, precision improvement, gross error detection was analysed.

226 **3.2.1. Water and sludge streams**

227 Data reconciliation results in reconciled (i.e. improved) values for key variables, which could be measured or 228 unmeasured variables. The measured key variables (total sulfur mass flows) in the water and sludge streams had 229 correction factors (Eq. 1) ranging from 1% to 15% (Fig. 3a). The maximum correction factors in the water line and 230 sludge line were seen in the influent wastewater (MS3) with an 8.7% increase in the value of raw measurement and 231 thickened primary sludge (MS62) with a 14.9% decrease in the raw measurement, respectively. This value for the feed 232 and digested sludge of the first stage digestion (MS66 and MS68) and second stage digestion (MS75 and MS78), which 233 have high retention time, was below 13%. Overall, the correction factors were low, reflecting that all imposed 234 constraints (mass balances) were met by small changes in the values of raw measurements. This indicates good 235 reliability of the raw measurements.

The total sulfur mass flow in the centrate of pre-dewatering (MS69) was an unmeasured key variable (i.e. both flow and total sulfur concentration were unmeasured) for which the calculated mass flow from raw data was 15 ± 92 kgS.d⁻¹ compared to 50 ± 40 kgS.d⁻¹ from the reconciled data set that shows a 244% correction factor (data is given in section B3 in SI).

The precision improvement (Eq. 2) of the key variables through data reconciliation, quantifying the reduction in measurement uncertainty, is summarized in **Fig. 3b**. The average precision improvement of the key variables in the water line and the sludge line was 72%. Total sulfur mass flow in the primary sludge (MS51) had the highest precision improvement (96%). The uncertainty of the total sulfur mass flow in the primary sludge, which was defined as the ratio of the standard error to the mean, was reduced significantly: from 79% in raw measurements to 19% in reconciled value (section B3 in SI). Raw measurements from full-scale WRRFs bear uncertainties for various reasons, e.g., influent dynamics, sampling method and measurement errors. For instance, the significant variations in the total sulfur concentrations in the primary sludge during the measurement campaign could be attributed to the different solid content of the grab samples.

The precision improvement of measured variables by data reconciliation is beneficial for further data handling. This improvement relies on redundancy in the measured data set that allowed variables to be estimated in several independent ways from separate sets of constraints imposed by mass balances. The improvement of the standard deviation of raw measurements by data reconciliation techniques was also reported for flow, COD and phosphorus in literature (Behnami et al., 2016; Puig et al., 2008).

The global test, nodal test and measurement test detected no gross error in the total sulfur mass flows in the water line and the sludge line. It is important to note that the high uncertainty of raw measurements (average of 26%) may influence the detection of gross errors. However, in this case, there is an agreement between measured values and reconciled values expressed through a low correction factor (15%).

258 **3.2.2.** Gas streams

259 The values of the six measured gas streams are given in **Table B2** in SI. Five of them were key variables (MS121, 260 MS122, MS124, MS125, MS126), which means that their value was also reconciled, i.e., calculated from other variables. However, their mean values and uncertainties hardly improved upon data reconciliation, the value of 261 262 correction factor and precision improvement being less than 1% (Fig. 3a, 3b). The very low precision improvement indicates that data reconciliation did not really reconcile ('improve') these variables. The latter behaved as non-263 redundant variables in the sense that their values could not be estimated from other sets of measurements in the mass 264 265 balances, even though they were indicated as redundant through the (theoretical) redundancy analysis. Such variables 266 are referred to as "practically non-redundant" (Narasimhan and Jordache, 1999). The reason why the total sulfur mass 267 flows in the gas streams were practically non-redundant in this study is because of their small mass flows compared to those in the water and sludge streams. In case of primary settling, for instance, the sulfur flow in the gas stream 268 (MS124) and influent wastewater (MS3) were 2.0 ± 0.5 kgS.d⁻¹ and 5817 ± 947 kgS.d⁻¹, respectively (for more detail 269 270 see Table B3 in SI). Indeed, the sulfur mass flows in gas streams were much smaller than the variance of the total 271 sulfur mass flows in water and sludge streams, which for the mentioned example is 2 orders of magnitude smaller.

272 Because of their practical non-redundancy, gross error detection could not be applied to the measurements of total 273 sulfur in the gas phase. Still, the measurements in these gas streams were considered to be quite reliable because of the nature of the measurement: the units were covered and the air was extracted through a ventilation pipe, in which the 274 275 H₂S analyser and the flow meter were installed. The reliability of the measurement is illustrated by the relatively low uncertainty range. For instance, the measured value of the total sulfur mass flow in the biogas of second stage digestion 276 (MS122) was $16.9 \pm 2.5 \text{ kgS.d}^{-1}$ (Table B3 in SI). For comparison, if this variable would not have been measured but 277 278 calculated from the available measurements and prevailing mass balances, its value would have been 279 $58.5 \pm 50.1 \text{ kgS.d}^1$, showing 85% uncertainty. Such high uncertainties, often above 100%, were also reported by 280 Yoshida et al. (2015) when calculating the gaseous emissions from some process units in a conventional wastewater 281 treatment plant were calculated from other measurements using mass balances. Similar results were also reported by 282 Fisher et al. (2017) when calculating the total sulfur mass flows in the biogas of an anaerobic digester from total sulfur 283 measurements in the feed and outlet of the digester.

Despite representing smaller mass flows, gaseous sulfur streams are very important due to the problems associated with emitted sulfur even in small quantities. They therefore need to be accurately determined by direct measurements rather than calculated from other measurements through mass balances. Indeed, it was shown in this study that gaseous sulfur streams cannot be accurately calculated through data reconciliation (i.e., do not qualify as key variables) because their values are very small compared to those of sulfur loads in the liquid and sludge streams.



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Fig. 3: The indicators of data reconciliation a) Correction factor b) Precision improvement for quality check of the key
variables. Measured key variables (black) and unmeasured key variables (yellow).

293 **3.2.3.** Effectiveness of experimental design and data reconciliation

In this work, the effectiveness of combining mass balance-based experimental design and data reconciliation procedures was demonstrated for the first time for reliable quantification of total sulfur flows and for a relatively complex WRRF. The Pareto-optimal measurement layouts put forward by the experimental design procedure showed valid for the identification of key variables. Data reconciliation and gross error detection provided better estimates for the total sulfur mass flows in the water line and the sludge line, fitting the total flow and total sulfur mass balances and characterized by a relatively high accuracy.

A balanced data set is a prerequisite for performing any type of process evaluation of full-scale water resource recovery facilities. Raw measurements are never fully accurate so the mass balances would not close perfectly without proper data reconciliation and gross error detection. For instance, model calibration and validation on erroneous data would lead to laborious and unjustified model calibrations of kinetics and stoichiometric parameters (Meijer, 2004). It is therefore, essential to reconcile the raw measurements to verify (gross) errors and improve their accuracy before being implemented.

306 3.3. Distribution of total sulfur mass flows

The plant-wide distribution of total sulfur mass flows using the reconciled data set is summarized in **Fig. 1**. In order to facilitate the comparison of streams, the total sulfur mass flows of the streams are expressed as the percentage of the total sulfur mass flows in the influent wastewater (the absolute values are given in section B3 in SI). In what follows,

310 the total sulfur distribution in the water line, sludge line and gas streams is discussed consecutively.

311 **3.3.1.** Sulfur distribution in the water line

The influent wastewater (MS3, 100% total sulfur mass flow) is combined with the reject water from the sludge treatment line $5.8 \pm 1.2\%$ and then enters the primary settling process (**Fig. 1**). Most of the total sulfur mass flow entering primary settling remained in the water line with the pre-settled wastewater (MS6) accounting for $102 \pm 23\%$ of the total sulfur present in the influent. The high mass of sulfur in the pre-settled wastewater indicates that sulfur in the influent wastewater is mostly in soluble form. This is in agreement with the findings of Dewil et al. (2008), who reported that sulfate accounts for 99% of the sulfur in the influent wastewater.

After secondary treatment, comprising IFAS-based biological treatment (including anaerobic/anoxic/aerobic zones) and secondary settling, the water stream (MS19) still comprised $96 \pm 23\%$ of the total sulfur mass flow in the incoming wastewater (MS3). This is within the range of 78-98% reported by Fisher et al. (2017), including observations from six wastewater treatment plants with different process configurations and influent wastewater flow rate. Overall, the amount of total sulfur in the water line is hardly affected by conventional (secondary) water treatment processes. Still, sulfur discharges through the dewatered sludge and gaseous emissions are critical because of their important impact on (post-treatment) process operation.

325 **3.3.2.** Sulfur distribution in the sludge line

The primary sludge (MS51) and secondary sludge (MS53) streams contained about equal amounts of total sulfur mass 326 327 flows, amounting to $3.7 \pm 0.9\%$ and $4.5 \pm 1.1\%$ of the influent wastewater, respectively. In contrast, the distribution of 328 sulfur during thickening was different for primary and secondary sludge. In the primary thickener, the majority of sulfur was directed to the thickened sludge (MS62, $3.1 \pm 0.8\%$) rather than filtrate (MS104, $0.5 \pm 0.2\%$), while the 329 330 secondary thickener resulted in a higher release of sulfur (57%) to the filtrate (MS55, $2.6 \pm 0.8\%$) compared to thickened sludge (MS60, $1.9 \pm 0.5\%$). The long hydraulic retention time in the primary thickener (gravity thickening) 331 332 promoted the biological formation of sulfide, which may be emitted to the hydrogen sulfide or react with present metals 333 and form metal sulfide; hence reducing the soluble sulfur in the filtrate. As for the secondary sludge, soluble sulfur is expected to be in the form of sulfate due to the redox conditions in the aeration zone as the last step of biological 334 335 treatment. Moreover, no significant microbial activity is expected in secondary thickener (rotary drums), in which

physical separation between liquid and solid forms would take place. Of the total sulfur mass flow entering secondary thickening, 57% was directed to filtrate that is in agreement with the 50-68% values reported by Fisher et al. (2017). A lower value (38%) was reported in the gravity belt thickener by Dewil et al. (2008). The direction of sulfur to filtrate rather than the thickened sludge makes the dynamic thickener an important unit for reducing sulfur mass flows to the subsequent sludge treatment units (e.g., anaerobic digestion) as was also concluded by (Dewil et al., 2008). Besides thickened primary sludge and secondary sludge, the sludge buffer tank receives a fraction of thickened rain sludge (MS64, $0.2 \pm 0.1\%$).

The contributions of different sludge sources, namely primary thickened sludge, secondary thickened sludge and thickened rain sludge in terms of total sulfur flow to sludge buffer tank were about 60%, 36% and 4%, respectively. A correlation between the primary sludge volatile solids content – as a source of organic sulfur in the form of proteinaceous matter - and the hydrogen sulfide concentration in the biogas has been suggested by Erdirencelebi and Kucukhemek (2018). This study strengthens their findings through the quantification of the total sulfur flow in the primary thickened sludge, which clearly represents a considerable contribution to anaerobic digestion.

349 During the first stage digestion, the total sulfur mass flow decreased from $5.2 \pm 1.0\%$ in the feed to $4.8 \pm 1.0\%$ in the 350 digested sludge, implying that sulfur mostly remained in the digested sludge. Other studies have not detected 351 significant flows of sulfur in the biogas during the studying of sulfur flows in anaerobic digestion (Dewil et al., 2008; Du and Parker, 2013; Yoshida et al., 2015). During the digestion process, the formation of insoluble sulfide and 352 353 hydrogen sulfide are expected due to the reduction of sulfate and also degradation of organic sulfur especially from 354 primary sludge source (Du and Parker, 2013). Sulfur removed in the centrate following the pre-dewatering of the 355 anaerobically digested sludge (MS69) was $0.9 \pm 0.7\%$ of the sulfur in the influent wastewater, showing that 18% sulfur entering pre-dewatering process being removed in the centrate. Fisher et al. (2017) reported the range of 0.5-23.1% 356 357 and the range was attributed to different solid separation efficiencies of the dewatering processes. On the other hand, 358 other studies noted minimal sulfur in the centrate of the dewatering process that was explained by the formation of insoluble metal sulfide complexes in the anaerobic digester (Dewil et al., 2008; Yoshida et al., 2015). 359

Despite a small increase in the mass of sulfur during thermal hydrolysis, which was due to the addition of reuse water containing sulfur, the total sulfur mass flow during the thermal hydrolysis remained the same with $3.9 \pm 0.8\%$ and $4.0 \pm 0.8\%$ sulfur mass flow in the feed (MS70) and outlet (MS75) of this unit, respectively. Liu et al. (2015) studied the release of sulfur-containing odorants during the pyrolysis of sewage sludge and noted that the formation of H₂S, the predominant odorant, at 150°C was insignificant. Although not yet addressed in the literature, the solubilisation of organic sulfur during thermal hydrolysis may promote the formation and emission of hydrogen sulfide to the biogas
 of subsequent anaerobic digestion.

Sulfur mass flow in the second stage of anaerobic digestion following thermal hydrolysis decreased from $4.0 \pm 0.8\%$ 367 in the feed (MS75) to $3.7 \pm 0.7\%$ in the digested sludge (MS78). This implies that 7% of the sulfur in the feed of 368 second-stage digestion unit ends up in the biogas, which is considerable. The further reduction in the total sulfur flow 369 370 in the sludge line through second-stage digestion is particularly interesting knowing that the degradation of sulfur species already occurred during the first-stage digestion, which indicates a possible effect of sludge thermal treatment. 371 372 The hydrolysis of organic material during thermal hydrolysis especially in case of organic sulfur present in the protein of biomass. According to Du and Parker (2013), a small fraction of protein in secondary sludge, which are likely the 373 374 major contributors of organic sulfur in these streams, are not very well biodegradable in anaerobic digestion, so it could 375 be that this source of sulfur was not degraded during the first stage digestion. While proteins are protected from the enzymatic hydrolysis during anaerobic digestion by the cell wall, thermal pre-treatment destroys the cell walls and 376 377 makes the proteins accessible for biological degradation (Neyens and Baeyens, 2003). In another study, Bougrier et al. (2008) noted strong solubilisation of protein (95%) during thermal hydrolysis at 170°C and Brooks (1970) reported 378 379 40-60% solubilisation of organic material. Therefore, elimination of the rate-limiting factor in anaerobic digestion, i.e. 380 hydrolysis, (Wilson and Novak, 2009) and the cell destruction might explain the increasing removal of sulfur in the 381 second stage digestion.

The total sulfur mass flows removed through the centrate of post-dewatering (MS80) units was $0.5 \pm 0.2\%$, showing 13.6% sulfur removal through centrate of post-dewatering. This high sulfur removal was due to the solubilisation of sulfur happening during thermal hydrolysis. Overall, the total sulfur mass flow in the reject water i.e., the centrates of primary sludge and secondary sludge thickening, pre-dewatering and post-dewatering processes, accounted for $5.8 \pm 1.2\%$ of the sulfur mass flow in incoming wastewater. The amount of total sulfur mass flow in the post-dewatered sludge (MS82) was $3.3 \pm 0.9\%$ of the total sulfur in the influent wastewater.

The unique configuration of the two-stage anaerobic digestions with intermediate pre-dewatering, thermal hydrolysis and post-dewatering in the case study plant caused a 36% decrease in the total sulfur mass flow. Lower sulfur content in the dewatered sludge is desirable especially when the sludge is further used for co-combustion with other fuels in power stations or cement kilns, or incineration in dedicated sludge combustors because lower sulfur dioxide (SO₂) is emitted with the fuel gases (Van de Velden et al., 2008; Werther and Ogada, 1999).

393 **3.3.3. Gaseous sulfur streams**

394 The amount of H₂S gas streams monitored in this study accounted for $0.7 \pm 0.1\%$ of the total sulfur mass flows in the 395 influent wastewater (Fig. 1). Despite representing only small fractions of the total sulfur load, H_2S emissions are critical 396 because they cause odour nuisance, lower biogas quality and corrosion. Of the total gaseous sulfur emissions, 78% 397 were related to the biogas of the first stage and the second stage digestion and 22% from fugitive emissions during 398 primary settling, primary thickening, sludge buffer tank and digested sludge storage tank. Note that only the H₂S emissions from these process units were measured, the H₂S emission from other process units such as biological 399 400 treatment was assumed negligible. No significant odour was detected in the biological treatment and clarifiers during 401 the measurement campaign which supports previous studies that showed the lowest emission from these units (Frechen, 402 2004). Nevertheless, while previous studies were merely qualitative (based on odour emissions), this study enabled 403 the full quantification of gaseous sulfur emissions and their comparison.

404 The majority of H₂S mass flow was detected in the second stage digestion (MS122, $0.29 \pm 0.06\%$) and first stage 405 digestion (MS121, $0.25 \pm 0.08\%$), which accounted for 78% of the total mass of emitted H₂S. The high mass flow of 406 gaseous H₂S in the second-stage digestion is in line with the abovementioned potential effect of sludge thermal 407 treatment on H₂S formation.. Two other emissive process units were primary thickener (MS125) and primary settling (MS124) with $0.03 \pm 0.01\%$ and $0.09 \pm 0.03\%$ of the total sulfur mass flows in the influent, respectively. The long 408 409 hydraulic retention time (HRT) of the primary thickener and reductive conditions promotes the formation and 410 subsequent emission of gaseous sulfur which was also accompanied by a drop in the ORP and pH of the samples taken 411 from thickened sludge. The mass of emitted sulfur from sludge buffer tank (MS126) was $0.02 \pm 0.01\%$. It was expected 412 to have more emission due to the presence of biomass from thickened secondary sludge that could increase the reduction of remained sulfate and organic sulfur. One explanation could be the presence of iron in the thickened rain 413 414 sludge which might lead to the formation of FeS and thus less sulfur in gas streams. The lowest sulfur flow to the gas 415 streams was detected in the digested sludge storage tank (MS127) with 0.01%.

416 **3.4. Implications for research and practice**

In this work, a thorough investigation of total sulfur flows was performed, identifying key sulfur flows over individual unit processes in a plant-wide context and pointing out their relative importance. The large majority of sulfur mass flow in the influent (96 \pm 23) left the plant through the treated effluent. The sulfur in dewatered sludge accounted for 3.3 ± 0.9 %, while gaseous emissions amounted to 0.7 ± 0.1 %. Despite forming a small portion of total sulfur flow, 421 the gaseous sulfur flows are highly undesirable and therefore require collection and treatment prior to release to the 422 atmosphere or utilisation of biogas in co-generation.

423 The detailed quantification of gaseous streams showed that most (gaseous) H₂S emissions, namely 42% of total H₂S 424 emission, were produced in the second-stage anaerobic digester, ending up in the biogas. The higher H₂S emissions 425 from the second-stage digester compared to first stage (35.7%) suggests an impact of thermal treatment on the 426 production of H₂S. Further investigation on the mechanisms and conversion of sulfur species –organic and inorganic species- are required for understanding this trend and applying control techniques as high H₂S flows reduce the quality 427 428 of biogas and cause corrosion problems on downstream equipment. H₂S was also produced in the primary thickener (13.5%) and the primary settler (4.9%). The relatively high H₂S emissions from the primary (gravity) thickener 429 430 suggests the formation and emission of hydrogen sulfide during relatively long hydraulic retention time. In view of 431 accurately modelling H_2S emissions, H_2S formation under anaerobic conditions thus needs to be considered to 432 overcome the limitation of currently available H₂S emission models (Santos et al., 2013).

When the treated sludge is used for combustion, it is beneficial to have low sulfur content in view of SO_2 formation upon combustion. In this regard, the secondary (drum) thickener proved effective for limiting sulfur flows towards the subsequent sludge treatment by directing majority of entering sulfur flows towards the centrate. Sludge treatment through two-stage digestion configuration with intermediate thermal hydrolysis and pre and post dewatering also considerably reduced (by 36%) the total sulfur content remained in dewatered sludge.

438 4. Conclusions

- Sulfur mass flows in a full-scale water resource recovery facility (WRRF) were quantified for the first time on a plant wide level, assessing liquid, sludge and gas streams simultaneously.
- 441 Total sulfur was demonstrated to be a conservative quantity, allowing the reliable quantification of total sulfur
 442 flows through mass balance-based experimental design and data reconciliation procedures.
- The water treatment line hardly affected the incoming sulfur flows as sulfur was mostly removed through the
 treated effluent. Amounting to about 8% of the sulfur in the influent wastewater, the sulfur flows in the
 primary and secondary sludge caused high H₂S emissions in primary thickener and in both stages of anaerobic
 digestion. In particular, the relatively higher H₂S emissions from the second-stage digester suggested an
 impact of the thermal treatment resulting in increased H₂S production.

Gaseous sulfur loads representing a relatively low mass are non-redundant in practice, which means that their
 values cannot be accurately determined from measured variables and mass balances. Gaseous H₂S emissions
 therefore need to be measured directly for obtaining reliable data.

451 **5.** Acknowledgements

- 452 This work was performed within the framework of the EUR H2O'Lyon (ANR-17-EURE-0018) of Université de Lyon
- 453 (UdL), within the program "Investissements d'Avenir" operated by the French National Research Agency (ANR). The
- 454 work of Kimberly Solon was supported by the Research Foundation Flanders (FWO) through an ERC runner-up
- 455 project for Eveline Volcke and by European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the
- 456 Marie Sklodowska-Curie Grant Agreement No. 846316 (WISEFLOW). The authors thank Sylvain Chastrusse,
- 457 Christophe Renner, Jonathan Coulmin, Vanessa Gromand, Ian Garcia-Fernandez from Veolia for facilitating and
- 458 carrying out the measurement campaign.

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