



## 27 **1. Introduction**

28 Biogas from the anaerobic digestion of organic solid waste and wastewater represents a  
29 renewable energy source with a significant potential to reduce the current world's fossil  
30 fuel dependence (Hermann et al., 2016). Biogas can be used as a fuel for the on-site  
31 generation of domestic heat or steam and electricity in industry, as a substrate in fuel  
32 cells or as a substitute of natural gas prior upgrading (Andriani et al., 2014; Muñoz et  
33 al., 2015). For instance, the use of this biofuel in the European Union during 2014  
34 supported a production of electricity and heat of 63.4 and 32.2 TWh, respectively (EBA,  
35 2016). Biogas conversion to biomethane is highly recommended due to the high  
36 concentration of impurities present in the raw biogas: CO<sub>2</sub> (25-60%), CO (<0.6%), H<sub>2</sub>S  
37 (0.005-2%), N<sub>2</sub> (0-2%), NH<sub>3</sub> (<1%), H<sub>2</sub>O (5-10%), O<sub>2</sub> (0-1%), siloxanes (0-0.02%) and  
38 halogenated hydrocarbons (VOC <0.6%) (Ryckebosch et al., 2011). In fact, biogas  
39 upgrading is a mandatory step required prior biomethane injection into natural gas grids  
40 or use as a vehicle fuel, which must provide concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub> ≥95%, CO<sub>2</sub> ≤2%,  
41 O<sub>2</sub> ≤0.3% and negligible amounts of H<sub>2</sub>S according to most international regulations  
42 (Muñoz et al., 2015). In this context, the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from raw biogas would  
43 contribute to reduce the transportation costs and to increase the calorific value of  
44 biomethane, while the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S would limit the corrosion in pipelines, boilers,  
45 engines, etc. (Posadas et al., 2015a).

46 Several physical-chemical and biological technologies are nowadays available at  
47 commercial scale to remove CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S from biogas. Pressure swing adsorption,  
48 amine/water/organic scrubbing or membrane separation are typically applied to remove  
49 CO<sub>2</sub>, while activated carbon filtration, chemical precipitation or anoxic/aerobic  
50 biotrickling filtration provide satisfactory levels of H<sub>2</sub>S removal (Mann et al., 2016;  
51 Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016; Muñoz et al., 2015). However, these H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub>

52 removal technologies must be sequentially implemented to remove both biogas  
53 contaminants, which makes physical-chemical biogas upgrading a costly and complex  
54 two-stage process (Muñoz et al., 2015). The few technologies supporting a  
55 simultaneous removal of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S from low S-strength biogas (i.e. chemical  
56 scrubbing) exhibit high environmental impacts and operating costs (Tippayawong and  
57 Thanompongchart, 2010). In this context, algal-bacterial photobioreactors have recently  
58 emerged as an environmentally friendly and cost-efficient alternative to remove CO<sub>2</sub>  
59 and H<sub>2</sub>S from raw biogas in a single step process (Bahr et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2016).

60 Photosynthetic biogas upgrading in algal-bacterial photobioreactors is based on the  
61 simultaneous fixation of CO<sub>2</sub> by microalgae and oxidation of H<sub>2</sub>S to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> by sulfur  
62 oxidizing bacteria or chemical reactions, the latter supported by the high dissolved  
63 oxygen (DO) concentrations present in the cultivation broth (Posadas et al., 2015a;  
64 Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016). The economic and environmental sustainability of this  
65 process can be boosted via integration of biogas upgrading with the recovery of  
66 nutrients from digestate in the form of a valuable algal-bacterial biomass (Serejo et al.,  
67 2015; Posadas et al., 2015a, 2016; Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2016).

68 Several investigations aiming at integrating photosynthetic biogas upgrading with  
69 digestate treatment have been recently carried out in indoors high rate algal ponds  
70 (HRAPs) interconnected to biogas absorption columns (AC) under artificial  
71 illumination (Bahr et al. 2014; Alcántara et al., 2015; Posadas et al. 2015a, 2016; Serejo  
72 et al. 2015; Meier et al. 2015; Toledo-Cervantes et al. 2016, 2017). Despite the rapid  
73 optimization of this technology (Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016, 2017), the constant  
74 temperature (often in the optimum range) and irradiation (often too low compared to  
75 solar irradiation) prevailing under laboratory conditions still hinder the complete  
76 understanding of a process designed to be ultimately implemented outdoors under solar

77 irradiation. Therefore, the evaluation of the performance of photosynthetic biogas  
78 upgrading under outdoors conditions is crucial to understand the influence of the diurnal  
79 variations of light irradiance and temperature on the quality of the upgraded biogas.  
80 Similarly, process operation to minimize the desorption of O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> from the  
81 cultivation broth to the upgraded biogas, and to maximize nutrient recovery from  
82 digestates, must be optimized to the particular conditions prevailing during outdoors  
83 operation.

84 Despite the remarkable environmental advantages of using digestates as a nutrient  
85 source during biogas upgrading, their high nutrients content results in high biomass  
86 concentrations in the HRAPs (7-50 g L<sup>-1</sup>) and the need to operate the process at low  
87 digestates flowrates. This severely decreases the photosynthetic efficiency of the system  
88 as a result of mutual shading and entails a net consumption of water to compensate  
89 evaporation losses (Posadas et al., 2016). In this context, all studies carried out to date  
90 set the make-up water input to maintain similar effluent and influent flowrates in order  
91 to guarantee a constant biomass output, which resulted in the generation of effluents  
92 with residual nutrient concentrations (Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016; Posadas et al.,  
93 2016). On this basis, there is an urgent need to develop novel photobioreactor designs  
94 and operational strategies to minimize effluent generation while maintaining high  
95 microalgae productivities using digestates as a nutrient source.

96 This work aimed at evaluating the potential of a novel pilot scale HRAP interconnected  
97 to an AC via recirculation of the settled cultivation broth under outdoors conditions  
98 during the simultaneous upgrading of biogas and treatment of centrate. Process  
99 performance was evaluated under pseudo-steady state conditions at different alkalinity  
100 levels and make-up water supply regimes from June to October. Under each operational  
101 stage, process performance was also assessed during one diurnal cycle of temperature

102 and irradiance. A novel strategy decoupling biomass productivity from the effluent  
103 flowrate via control of the biomass wastage from the settler was applied to maximize  
104 the recovery of carbon and nutrients from biogas and centrate in the form of harvested  
105 biomass. Finally, the influence of the recycling liquid/biogas (L/G) ratio on the  
106 efficiency of biogas upgrading was also evaluated during a 24 h diurnal cycle.

## 107 **2. Materials and methods**

### 108 **2.1 Biogas and centrate**

109 A synthetic biogas mixture, composed of CO<sub>2</sub> (29.5%), H<sub>2</sub>S (0.5%) and CH<sub>4</sub> (70%),  
110 was used as a model biogas (Abello Linde; Spain). Centrate was obtained from the  
111 centrifuges dehydrating the anaerobically digested sludge of Valladolid wastewater  
112 treatment plant and stored at 4 °C prior to use. Centrate composition along the  
113 experimental period was subjected to the typical variations of real wastewaters: total  
114 organic carbon (TOC) = 70±8 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, inorganic carbon (IC) = 522±40 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, total  
115 nitrogen (TN) = 580±102 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> = 553±67 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> = 34±7 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and  
116 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> = 9±9 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

### 117 **2.2 Experimental set-up**

118 The pilot plant was located outdoors at the Department of Chemical Engineering and  
119 Environmental Technology of Valladolid University (41.39° N, 4.44° W). The  
120 experimental set-up consisted of a 180 L HRAP with an illuminated surface of 1.20 m<sup>2</sup>  
121 (length = 170 cm; width = 82 cm; depth = 15 cm) and two water channels divided by a  
122 central wall and baffles in each side of the curvature. The HRAP was interconnected to  
123 an external 2.5 L bubble absorption column (internal diameter = 4.4 cm; height = 165  
124 cm) provided with a metallic gas diffuser (2 μm pore size) located at the bottom of the  
125 column. The HRAP and AC were interconnected via external liquid recirculation of the  
126 supernatant of the algal-bacterial cultivation broth from an 8 L settler located at the

127 outlet of the HRAP (Fig. 1). The internal recirculation velocity of the cultivation broth  
128 in the HRAP was  $\approx 20 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ , which was provided by the continuous rotation of a 6-  
129 blade paddlewheel.

130 **<Figure 1>**

### 131 **2.3 Operational conditions and sampling procedures**

132 Process operation was carried out from June 29<sup>th</sup> to October the 4<sup>th</sup> 2016. Based on a  
133 previous study conducted by Norvill et al. (2017) in a similar HRAP treating urban  
134 wastewater at 4 days of hydraulic retention time (HRT) in the same location, a constant  
135 biomass productivity of  $15 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  was set throughout the 92 days of operation. The  
136 required C, N and P input to maintain this biomass productivity was  $9.7 \text{ g C d}^{-1}$ ,  $1.9 \text{ g N}$   
137  $\text{d}^{-1}$  and  $0.2 \text{ g P d}^{-1}$ , assuming a C, N and P biomass content of 45, 9 and 1%, respectively  
138 (Posadas et al., 2015b). This required a centrate flow rate of  $3.2 \text{ L d}^{-1}$  (considering an IC  
139 and  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$  stripping of 20%, and the absence of P removal by precipitation; Posadas et  
140 al. (2013)) and a biogas flow rate of  $74.9 \text{ L d}^{-1}$  (assuming an average  $\text{CO}_2$  removal  
141 efficiency in the AC of 80% based on Posadas et al. (2015a)). The recycling  
142 liquid/biogas (L/G) ratio in the AC was fixed at 0.5 according to Toledo-Cervantes et al.  
143 (2016). The liquid and biogas residence time in the AC under these operational  
144 conditions were 96 and 48 min, respectively. The settled biomass in the settler was  
145 continuously recirculated to the HRAP at a flow rate of  $7.2 \text{ L d}^{-1}$ . This, together with the  
146 external recycling, resulted in a HRT in the settler of 4.4 h. This process configuration  
147 has been shown to increase the settleability of the algal-bacterial biomass, while  
148 avoiding biomass degradation in the settler (Valigore et al., 2012; Park et al., 2011,  
149 2013). Biomass harvesting was performed by daily removing the required settled  
150 biomass volume according to its total suspended solids (TSS) concentration in order to  
151 maintain the above mentioned biomass productivity.

152 The HRAP was initially filled with tap water ( $IC = 550 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and inoculated to an  
153 initial concentration of  $210 \text{ mg TSS L}^{-1}$  with *Chlorella* sp. from a HRAP treating  
154 centrate at the Department of Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technology of  
155 Valladolid University (Spain). The system was inoculated on June 29<sup>th</sup>, and after 5 d of  
156 inoculum acclimation batchwise, three different operational conditions were tested  
157 (corresponding to stages I, II and III) to optimize the simultaneous outdoors biogas  
158 upgrading and centrate treatment from a technical and environmental view point (Table  
159 1).

160 <Table 1>

161 Stage I (reference state) was conducted at a centrate IC concentration of  $522 \pm 40 \text{ mg C}$   
162  $\text{L}^{-1}$ . During stages II and III, the IC concentration of the centrate was increased up to  
163  $2024 \pm 124 \text{ mg C L}^{-1}$  by addition of  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  and  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ , which increased the pH of the  
164 centrate from  $8.38 \pm 0.33$  in stage I to  $9.94 \pm 0.09$  and  $10.06 \pm 0.13$  in stages II and III,  
165 respectively (Table 1). Tap water was fed to the HRAP in stages I and II to compensate  
166 evaporation losses and maintain an effluent flowrate of  $0.6 \pm 0.4$  and  $0.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ L d}^{-1}$ ,  
167 respectively, thus minimizing the loss of carbon, nutrients and fresh water. The effluent  
168 from the system was returned to the HRAP in stage III to minimize the supply of  
169  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  and  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ , with a subsequent decrease in the supply of make-up water. Each  
170 operational stage was maintained for approximately one month, where temperature,  
171 solar irradiation and number of sun hours remained approximately constant (Table 1).  
172 The results obtained for the liquid phase throughout the three operational stages were  
173 provided as average values along with their corresponding standard deviation from  
174 measurements recorded for four consecutive days during each steady state.

175 The ambient and cultivation broth temperatures, influent and effluent flowrates, DO and  
176 pH in the cultivation broth, and the photosynthetic active irradiation (PAR) were daily

177 monitored. Gas samples of 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of the raw and upgraded biogas were drawn twice a  
178 week to monitor the concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$ . The inlet and outlet  
179 biogas flowrates in the AC were also measured to accurately determine both  $\text{CO}_2$  and  
180  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removals, and  $\text{CH}_4$  losses by absorption. Liquid samples of 100 mL from the  
181 centrate and the treated effluent after settling were withdrawn twice a week to monitor  
182 the pH, TSS concentration, and concentrations of dissolved TOC, IC, TN,  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{N-NO}_2^-$ ,  
183  $\text{N-NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{P-PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  following sample filtration through 0.20  $\mu\text{m}$  nylon  
184 filters. Likewise, liquid samples of 25 mL were drawn from the cultivation broth and  
185 from the bottom of the settler twice a week to monitor the algal-bacterial TSS  
186 concentration. The algal-bacterial biomass harvested from the settler under steady state  
187 was washed three times with distilled water and dried for 24 hours at 105  $^\circ\text{C}$  to  
188 determine its elemental composition (C, N, P and S). Process monitoring and biomass  
189 harvesting were always conducted at 9:00 a.m. along the entire experimental period.  
190 At the end of each operational stage, the outdoors temperature and PAR, along with the  
191 temperature, DO concentration and pH in the HRAP, settler and AC were measured  
192 every 30 minutes during one entire diurnal cycle from one hour prior to dawn to one  
193 hour after sunset. The composition and flowrate of the upgraded biogas were recorded  
194 every hour, and the concentrations of TOC, IC and TN in the HRAP, settler and AC  
195 were analyzed every 2 hours.

#### 196 **2.4 Influence of the L / G ratio on the quality of the upgraded biogas**

197 L/G ratios ranging from 0.5 to 5 were tested at the end of stage III (4<sup>th</sup> - 7<sup>th</sup> October) to  
198 optimize the quality of the upgraded biogas. A biogas flowrate of 74.9  $\text{L d}^{-1}$  was  
199 maintained while the liquid flowrates were set at 37.5, 74.9, 149.8 and 374.5  $\text{L d}^{-1}$   
200 (providing L/ G ratios of 0.5, 1, 2 and 5, respectively). Each L/G ratio was maintained  
201 for 12 h during one-day diurnal cycle. The ambient temperature and PAR, along with



202 the temperature, DO and pH in the HRAP, settler and AC, and the composition and  
203 flowrate of the upgraded biogas, were measured every two hours from one hour prior to  
204 dawn to one hour after sunset.

## 205 **2.5 Analytical procedures**

206 The monthly average ambient temperatures, PARs and number of sun hours were  
207 provided by the official AEMET meteorological station located at the University of  
208 Valladolid. CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, CH<sub>4</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> gas concentrations were determined using a  
209 Varian CP-3800 GC-TCD (Palo Alto, USA) according to Posadas et al. (2015a).  
210 Temperature and DO concentration were determined using an OXI 330i oximeter  
211 (WTW, Germany). An Eutech Cyberscan pH 510 (Eutech instruments, The  
212 Netherlands) was used for pH determination. The PAR was measured with a LI-250A  
213 light meter (LI-COR Biosciences, Germany). The concentrations of dissolved TOC, IC  
214 and TN were measured using a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH analyzer (Japan) coupled with a  
215 TNM-1 chemiluminescence module. N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentration was determined with an  
216 ammonium specific electrode Orion Dual Star (Thermo Scientific, The Netherlands).  
217 The concentrations of N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, N-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were quantified by HPLC-IC  
218 according to Posadas et al. (2013). All analyses were carried out according to Standard  
219 Methods (APHA, 2005).  
220 The determination of the C, N and S content of the algal-bacterial biomass was  
221 conducted in a LECO CHNS-932 analyzer, while phosphorus content was determined  
222 spectrophotometrically after acid digestion in a microwave according to Standard  
223 Methods (APHA, 2005). The identification, quantification and biometry measurements  
224 of the microalgae assemblage under steady state were performed by microscopic  
225 examination (OLYMPUS IX70, USA) of biomass samples (fixed with lugol acid at 5%  
226 and stored at 4 °C prior to analysis) according to Sournia (1978).

## 227 **3. Results and discussion**

### 228 **3.1. Environmental parameters**

229 The average ambient temperature, PAR and number of sun hours slightly decreased  
230 from stage I (July) to stage III (September), which is inherent to outdoors environmental  
231 conditions in European latitudes (Table 1). Despite these variations, the environmental  
232 conditions were comparable throughout the three experimental stages and therefore the  
233 imposed operational conditions can be considered the main parameters influencing  
234 process performance.

235 The DO concentration, temperature and pH in the cultivation broth of the HRAP during  
236 a diurnal cycle at the end of each operational stage were directly correlated with the  
237 ambient temperature and light irradiance (Fig. A.1-A.4). Hence, the DO concentration  
238 in the HRAP during steady state in stages I, II and III fluctuated from 1.4 to 15.6, 1.3 to  
239 16.7 and 0.9 to 13.2 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. A.2). Microalgae activity was not  
240 inhibited at such low-moderate DO concentrations, since pernicious effects on  
241 photosynthesis are typically encountered above 25 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> (Molina et al., 2001). The  
242 average temperature and pH in the cultivation broth of the HRAP under steady state  
243 during stages I, II and III were 25±6, 25±6 and 19±5°C, and 8.9±0.4, 10.0±0.0 and  
244 9.9±0.0, respectively (Fig. A.3 and A.4). The higher pH recorded in stages II and III  
245 was attributed to the higher pH of the centrate fed to the system compared with that  
246 used during stage I. Moreover, the lower buffer capacity of the cultivation broth in this  
247 first operational stage (Table 1; Fig. A.5) resulted in significant variations of the pH  
248 along the day (from 8.3 to 9.4), which confirmed the key role of alkalinity for pH  
249 control in algal-bacterial photobioreactors (Posadas et al., 2013). The lower pH values  
250 recorded in the AC compared to those in the HRAP, regardless of the operational stage,  
251 were due to the acidification of the recycling broth caused by the absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> and

252 H<sub>2</sub>S (Posadas et al., 2016) (Fig. A.4). Despite these sharp daily variations in  
253 temperature, DO and pH, all parameters remained in the acceptable range to support  
254 microbial activity (Posadas, 2016).  
255 Finally, the evaporation rates during stages I, II and III accounted for 7±2 L, 9±1 and  
256 3±2 L m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. A.6). The highest evaporation rate here recorded was  
257 ~1.5 times higher than the maximum predicted for an arid area by Guieysse et al.  
258 (2013). These high values were attributed to the high temperatures and turbulence in the  
259 HRAP as a result of the typical oversizing of the motor of the paddlewheel in lab scale-  
260 pilot systems (Posadas et al., 2015c; Guieysse et al., 2013). In this context, the scale-up  
261 of this experimental set-up will likely entail lower evaporation rates.

### 262 **3.2 Biogas upgrading**

263 The composition of the biomethane obtained during stage I significantly varied  
264 depending on the environmental conditions compared to stages II and III, where the  
265 concentration of all biogas components remained approximately constant (Fig. 2). CH<sub>4</sub>  
266 concentrations in the upgraded biogas during stage I ranged from 72 to 93 %, while the  
267 removal efficiencies (REs) of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S ranged from 50 to 75 % and from 91 to  
268 100%, respectively. Average CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations of 90±2 % and 91±1 % were recorded  
269 in the upgraded biogas during stages II and III, respectively, along with CO<sub>2</sub>-REs of  
270 86±4% and a complete H<sub>2</sub>S removal regardless of the operational conditions (Fig. 2a).  
271 These results also showed that the absence of effluent in stage III did not influence the  
272 quality of the upgraded biogas. O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the biomethane during the  
273 three operational stages ranged from 0.1 to 2.0% and from 0.6 to 5.0%, respectively,  
274 depending on the pH of the cultivation broth and on the alkalinity (Fig. 2c). These  
275 values were only slightly higher than those reported by Toledo-Cervantes et al. (2016)  
276 during the indoors operation of a similar process at a L/G ratio of 1, which validated the

277 results obtained under laboratory conditions. CH<sub>4</sub> absorption in the AC was negligible,  
278 with average losses of 2.2±1.2% (on a mass basis) along the three operational stages.  
279 The biomethane composition obtained was both compliant with international  
280 regulations for injection into natural gas grids in Europe (i.e. Belgium and The  
281 Netherlands) and Latin-America (i.e. Chile), and suitable for use as autogas (Muñoz et  
282 al., 2015).

### 283 <Figure 2>

284 The main fluctuations in the composition of the upgraded biogas were recorded during  
285 stage I, which were attributed to the diurnal variations in irradiation and temperature. In  
286 this context, the concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> in the upgraded biogas  
287 ranged from 70.5 to 86.8%, 8.8 to 24.7%, 0 to 0.1%, 0.7 to 1.1% and 2.6 to 4.2%,  
288 respectively, during the diurnal cycle evaluated in stage I (Fig. 3). The increase in the  
289 alkalinity of the cultivation broth during stages II and III (from 267±56 mg IC L<sup>-1</sup> in  
290 stage I to 2174±253 and 2660±48 mg IC L<sup>-1</sup> during stages II and III, respectively)  
291 reduced the variability in the composition of the upgraded biogas. In this sense, CH<sub>4</sub>,  
292 CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> concentrations in stage II ranged from 87 to 92%, 5 to 9%, 0 to 1% and  
293 1 to 3%, respectively, while in stage III these concentrations varied from 85 to 93%, 4  
294 to 12%, 0 to 2% and 1 to 3%, respectively (Fig. 3). H<sub>2</sub>S was completely removed in  
295 both stages.

296 The highest CO<sub>2</sub>-REs, which entailed also the highest CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations in the  
297 upgraded biogas, were recorded at the lowest ambient temperature regardless of the  
298 operational stage as a result of the higher solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> (Sander, 1999). A 60%  
299 decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is expected when temperature increases from 10 to 40°C  
300 (Sander, 1999). However, the high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradient supported by the high  
301 alkalinity of the cultivation broth in stages II and III compensated the decrease in CO<sub>2</sub>

302 solubility mediated by the 30 °C temperature increase (Fig. A.3). The correlation  
303 between the temperature of the cultivation broth in the settler and the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration  
304 in the upgraded biogas was only significant during stage I. This result suggested that  
305 CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in a low alkalinity media is controlled by the influence of the  
306 temperature on the aqueous solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> (according to the Henry's Law constant)  
307 (Sander, 1999). However, the influence of the temperature on the concentration of O<sub>2</sub> or  
308 N<sub>2</sub> in the upgraded biogas was negligible likely due to their limited aqueous solubility  
309 (Fig. A.7). These results confirmed the high influence of the ionic strength of the  
310 recycling cultivation broth on the quality of the upgraded biogas (Bahr et al. 2014). The  
311 higher CO<sub>2</sub>-REs recorded in stages II and III compared to stage I were likely mediated  
312 by the pH increase in the cultivation broth, which significantly enhanced the CO<sub>2</sub>  
313 concentration gradient (Bahr et al. 2014; Toledo-Cervantes et al. 2016). The CO<sub>2</sub>-REs  
314 here reported were always higher than those recorded by Bahr et al. (2014) during  
315 simultaneous biogas upgrading and centrate treatment (~40%), and similar to those  
316 obtained by Serejo et al. (2015), who reported an average CO<sub>2</sub>-RE of ~80% at a L/G  
317 ratio of 10 during the upgrading of biogas combined with the treatment of diluted  
318 anaerobically digested vinasse.

319 **<Figure 3>**

320 The high aqueous solubility of H<sub>2</sub>S (three times higher than that of CO<sub>2</sub>) resulted in  
321 high H<sub>2</sub>S-REs, comparable to those recorded in previous studies carried out under  
322 laboratory conditions (Bahr et al., 2014; Posadas et al., 2015a; Serejo et al., 2015;  
323 Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016; Lebrero et al., 2016). A complete H<sub>2</sub>S removal was  
324 observed in stages II and III due to the higher pH of the cultivation broth (Fig. 2b),  
325 which was in agreement with the results obtained by Bahr et al. (2014). H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation  
326 ratios (defined as the ratio between the mass of S-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in the HRAP cultivation broth

327 and the mass of H<sub>2</sub>S absorbed in the AC) of 36±13, 47±9 and 47±7 % were recorded  
328 during stages I, II and III, respectively. In this sense, an incomplete H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation to  
329 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was also observed by Toledo-Cervantes et al. (2016) and Lebrero et al. (2016)  
330 likely due to the low O<sub>2</sub> concentration in the absorption column. Despite the fact that  
331 the highest DO concentrations were achieved during stage I, the lowest H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation  
332 ratio recorded in this period was associated to the effect of the temperature on the  
333 solubility of the H<sub>2</sub>S in a low ionic strength medium and therefore, to the limited H<sub>2</sub>S  
334 mass transfer efficiency from the biogas to the liquid phase.

### 335 **3.3 Influence of the L/G ratio on the quality of the upgraded biogas**

336 The similar PAR and outdoor temperatures recorded during the five consecutive days of  
337 this study allowed an unbiased comparison of the influence of the L/G ratio on  
338 biomethane composition (Fig. A. 8). In fact, similar DO concentrations and temperature  
339 profiles were recorded in the HRAP regardless of the tested L/G ratio (Fig. A. 9),  
340 although the pH of the cultivation broth in the HRAP and AC varied depending on the  
341 L/G ratio tested (Figs. A.9-A.11). Thus, the daily average pH of the cultivation broth in  
342 the AC was 8.8±0.1, 9.4±0.1, 9.6±0.1 and 9.8±0.8 at L/G ratios of 0.5, 1, 2 and 5,  
343 respectively (Fig. A.10). This pH increase at higher L/G ratios was attributed to the  
344 lower CO<sub>2</sub> transferred per volume of recycling cultivation both, which prevented the  
345 acidification of the broth in the AC.

346 **<Figure 4>**

347 L/G ratios > 1 supported a significant decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the upgraded  
348 biogas, which ranged from 1.8 to 3.7% and corresponded to CO<sub>2</sub>-REs ≈ 95% (Fig. 4b).  
349 The increase in pH in the cultivation broth of the AC at increasing L/G ratios supported  
350 higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations gradient between the biogas and liquid phase, which  
351 enhanced CO<sub>2</sub>-REs (Posadas et al., 2016). In our particular study, the maximum CO<sub>2</sub>

352 mass transfer capacity was achieved at a L/G ratio of 1. In this context, Serejo et al.  
353 (2015) recorded a maximum CO<sub>2</sub> mass transfer (CO<sub>2</sub>-RE of 95±2%) at a L/G ratio of  
354 15, pH of 8 and IC concentrations ≈80 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. On the other hand, Toledo-  
355 Cervantes et al. (2016) recorded a CO<sub>2</sub>-RE of 98.8±0.2% regardless of the tested L/G  
356 (0.5-60) at a pH of 10 and IC concentration ≈4000 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. These studies confirmed the  
357 key role of the alkalinity of the recycling cultivation broth on the biogas upgrading  
358 efficiency compared to other operational parameters.

359 H<sub>2</sub>S was completely removed regardless of the tested ratio likely due to its high aqueous  
360 solubility (Bahr et al., 2014; Serejo et al., 2015). The O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> concentration in the  
361 upgraded biogas only increased significantly at a L/G ratio of 5 (up to 5.5% and 12.8%,  
362 respectively) (Fig. 4c, 4d). Indeed, the increase in the L/G ratio mediated a higher  
363 desorption of O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> from the recycling, which negatively impacted the final  
364 concentration of CH<sub>4</sub> in the upgraded biogas. In this context, the maximum CH<sub>4</sub>  
365 concentration (94%) was obtained at L/G ratios of 1 and 2 (Fig. 4a).

### 366 **3.4 Wastewater treatment performance**

367 The wastewater treatment efficiency of the HRAP was evaluated under pseudo-steady  
368 state at the three operational stages evaluated (Fig. 5; Figs. A12-A13).

369 **<Figure 5>**

370 The TOC effluent concentrations, which ranged from 14 to 85 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, were similar to  
371 the influent TOC concentrations due to the low biodegradability of the centrate, the  
372 concentration effect caused by the high water evaporation rates in the HRAP and the  
373 low or negligible effluent flowrates (Posadas et al., 2013; 2015c) (Fig. 5a). Despite the  
374 low DO concentrations recorded in the cultivation broth (<2 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>) in the early  
375 morning could have partially limited organic matter oxidation (Metcalf and Eddy,

2003), the removals of TOC estimated by mass balance calculations ranged from 59±7% (stage III) to 74±7% (stage I) (Table 2) (Fig. A.3).

**<Table 2>**

The TIC-REs in stage I were higher than those recorded in stages II and III as a result of the higher inorganic carbon feeding and C-CO<sub>2</sub> REs in the AC during these latter stages (Table 2). Therefore, only 65±6 and 66±8% of the total carbon removed in stages II and III was recovered in the harvested biomass, while a 97±1% carbon recovery was observed during stage I (Table 3). Despite the higher pH values should have promoted lower IC removals by stripping based on the limited CO<sub>2</sub> aqueous equilibrium concentration, the lower IC loading during stage I resulted in a lower fraction of C removed by stripping (Table 3) (Posadas et al., 2013) (Fig. 5b).

Similar TN-REs of 86±4, 87±4 and 80±4% were recorded during stages I, II and III, respectively, while a complete N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> removal occurred during the entire experimental period (Table 2; Fig. 5c, 5d). Nitrification was not inhibited by the high pH values prevailing during stages II and III or the low DO concentrations (<1 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>) present in the first hours in the morning (Fig. A.3). N-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations were low compared to N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> despite temperatures higher than 28°C were always recorded close to midday, which are known to promote the partial oxidation of N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Fig. 5e; Figs. A.2-A.3) (Metcalf and Eddy, 2003). The oxidation ratios (referred to [N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + N-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>] mass outputs compared to TN mass input, Posadas et al. (2015a)) were 11±2, 13±4 and 19±8% during stages I, II and III, respectively. The high nitrification activity, together with the high evaporation rates, induced an increase in N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration in the cultivation broth up to 148 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in stage I, 198 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in stage II and 293 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in stage III, this latter increase mediated by the absence of effluent from the HRAP (Fig. 5f). The nitrogen recovered in the harvested biomass accounted for 65±3, 54±18 and



401 76±19% of the total nitrogen removed during stages I, II and III, respectively (Table 3).  
402 These values were considerably higher than those recorded by Posadas et al. (2015a)  
403 (45±7%) and Toledo-Cervantes et al. (2017) (19±13% and 36±18%) in a similar indoors  
404 experimental set-up during the simultaneous treatment of biogas and digestates as a  
405 result of the lower microalgae productivities in those studies.

406 <Table 3>

407 High P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> REs of 92±2, 84±5 and 85±5% were recorded during stages I, II and III,  
408 respectively (Table 2). The higher P-RE in stage I was likely mediated by the higher P  
409 content of the harvested biomass (Table 3). In this regard, P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> concentration in the  
410 cultivation broth increased up to 6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in stage I, 15 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in stage II and 17 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
411 in stage III. These increasing P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> concentration were also supported by the  
412 evaporation rate and the low or negligible effluent flowrates (Fig. 5g). A P mass balance  
413 revealed that approximately 100% of the P removed was recovered in the harvested  
414 biomass, despite high pH values are known to promote PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> precipitation (Cai et al.,  
415 2013) (Table 3).

416 Finally, H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation supported an increase in SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration in the cultivation  
417 broth of the HRAP from 60 to 495 mg L<sup>-1</sup> through the 92 operational days, also  
418 triggered by the high evaporation rates and low effluent flowrates (Fig. 5h). The fraction  
419 of H<sub>2</sub>S not fully oxidized to sulphate would have remained as S-intermediates in the  
420 liquid phase (S<sup>0</sup>, thiosulfate or sulfite) (Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016). This was  
421 confirmed by the observation of S<sup>0</sup> accumulation on the walls and diffuser of the AC  
422 during stage I (Photograph 1, appendix), while a S mass balance revealed that only  
423 26±5, 17±3 and 16±3% of the S removed was recovered in the harvested biomass  
424 during stages I, II and III, respectively (Table 3). Further analyses to determine the  
425 actual sulfur compounds present in the cultivation broth are required.

### 426 **3. 5 Concentration and composition of the algal-bacterial biomass**

427 The steady state biomass concentrations in the HRAP during stages I, II and III  
428 averaged  $660\pm 17$ ,  $1078\pm 84$  and  $665\pm 79$  mg TSS L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. A. 14). The operational  
429 strategy here evaluated based on the control of biomass productivity via regulation of  
430 the settled biomass wastage rate successfully maintained the concentration of algal-  
431 bacterial biomass below light limiting values. At this point it should be stressed that the  
432 theoretical biomass concentration generated based on the centrate composition would be  
433  $\approx 2000$  mg TSS L<sup>-1</sup> (with P as the limiting nutrient). The good settling characteristics of  
434 the algal-bacterial (supporting TSS-REs in the settler of  $80\pm 9\%$ ) were likely promoted  
435 by the short HRT in the settler and the continuous recirculation of the settled biomass,  
436 which boosted the enrichment of rapidly settling algal-bacterial flocs (Valligore et al.,  
437 2011; Park et al., 2011).

438 The elemental composition of the harvested biomass remained within the typical range  
439 reported in literature, regardless of the operational stage (Posadas et al., 2016; Bi et al.,  
440 2013). C, N and P content in the biomass decreased from stage I to stage II and slightly  
441 increased in stage III (Table 3). The different C/N/P (g/g/g) ratios present in the  
442 cultivation broth of the HRAP (100/39/2, 100/6/1 and 100/12/1 during stages I, II and  
443 III, respectively) could have influenced this final biomass composition, despite the C/N  
444 ratio in the harvested biomass remained always at the optimum value of 6 regardless of  
445 the operational conditions (Serejo et al., 2015). The main differences were recorded in  
446 the S content, which decreased from 0.4% in stage I to 0.2% in stages II and III (Table  
447 3). The higher S content in the biomass was recorded concomitantly with the occurrence  
448 of S precipitation (Photograph 1, appendix), and was attributed to the likely S  
449 absorption into the biomass.

450 The inoculated *Chlorella* sp. was gradually replaced by *Chloroidium saccharophilum*  
451 (*Chlorella saccharophila*) during stage I. *Chloroidium saccharophilum* was the  
452 dominant microalga species during stage I (94%) and stage III (100 %), while  
453 *Pseudanabaena* sp. accounted for 6% and 54% of the total number of microalgae cells  
454 in stages I and II, respectively (Fig. 6). *Pseudanabaena* sp. has been consistently found  
455 in a similar indoors experimental set-up during the simultaneous upgrading of biogas  
456 and digested vinasse treatment (Posadas et al. 2015a; Serejo et al. 2015). The lower  
457 microalgae diversity recorded outdoors compared to that observed under laboratory  
458 conditions in a similar experimental set-up was likely due to i) the recirculation of the  
459 settled biomass and ii) the high alkalinity in the cultivation broth in stages II and III  
460 (Serejo et al., 2015; Posadas et al., 2015a; Toledo-Cervantes et al., 2016, 2017; Park et  
461 al., 2011).

462 <Figure 6>

#### 463 **4. Conclusions**

464 This work constitutes the first proof-of-concept study of photosynthetic biogas  
465 upgrading coupled with centrate treatment at pilot scale under outdoors conditions. The  
466 feasibility of a zero-effluent process operation was also demonstrated. Temperature  
467 played a key role on the efficiency of biogas upgrading at low-to-medium alkalinities,  
468 while high alkalinities enhanced process robustness against daily temperature  
469 variations. Process operation at L/G ratios of 1-2 provided a biomethane complying  
470 with most international regulations. A consistent centrate treatment was achieved  
471 regardless of the operational conditions, while the decoupling of biomass productivity  
472 from the HRT allowed high recoveries of C, N and P.

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576 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

577 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of the outdoors experimental set-up used for the  
578 continuous upgrading of biogas.

579 **Figure 2.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub> (■), (b) CO<sub>2</sub> (◆) and H<sub>2</sub>S (▲),  
580 and (c) O<sub>2</sub> (●) and N<sub>2</sub> (○) in the upgraded biogas. The removal efficiencies of CO<sub>2</sub> (◇)  
581 and H<sub>2</sub>S (Δ) are also displayed in figure 2b.

582 **Figure 3.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub>, (b) CO<sub>2</sub>, (c) O<sub>2</sub> and (d) N<sub>2</sub> in the  
583 upgraded biogas during the one-day cycle evaluated in stages I (◆), II (■) and III (▲).

584 **Figure 4.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub>, (b) CO<sub>2</sub>, (c) O<sub>2</sub> and (d) N<sub>2</sub> in the  
585 upgraded biogas at L / G ratios of 0.5 (◆), 1 (□), 2 (▲) and 5 (○).

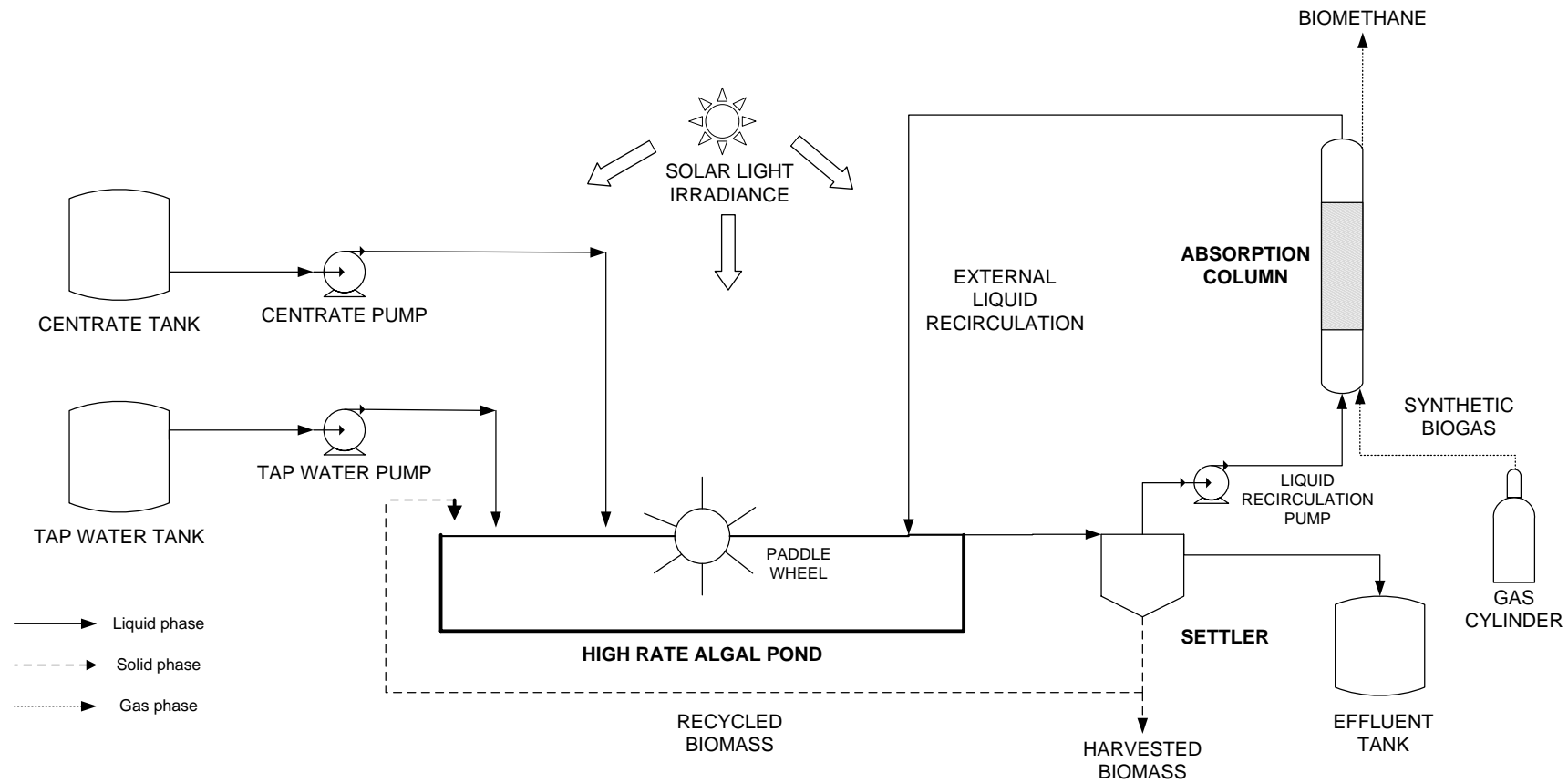
586 **Figure 5.** Time course of the influent (◆) and effluent (◇) concentrations of (a) TOC, (b)  
587 IC, (c) TN, (d) N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, (e) N-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, (f) N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, (g) P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> and (h) SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> throughout  
588 the three operational stages.

589 **Figure 6.** Time course of the structure of microalgae population in the HRAP: (■ )  
590 *Chlorella* sp., (□ ) *Pseudanabaena* sp. and (□ ) *Chloroidium saccharophilum*.

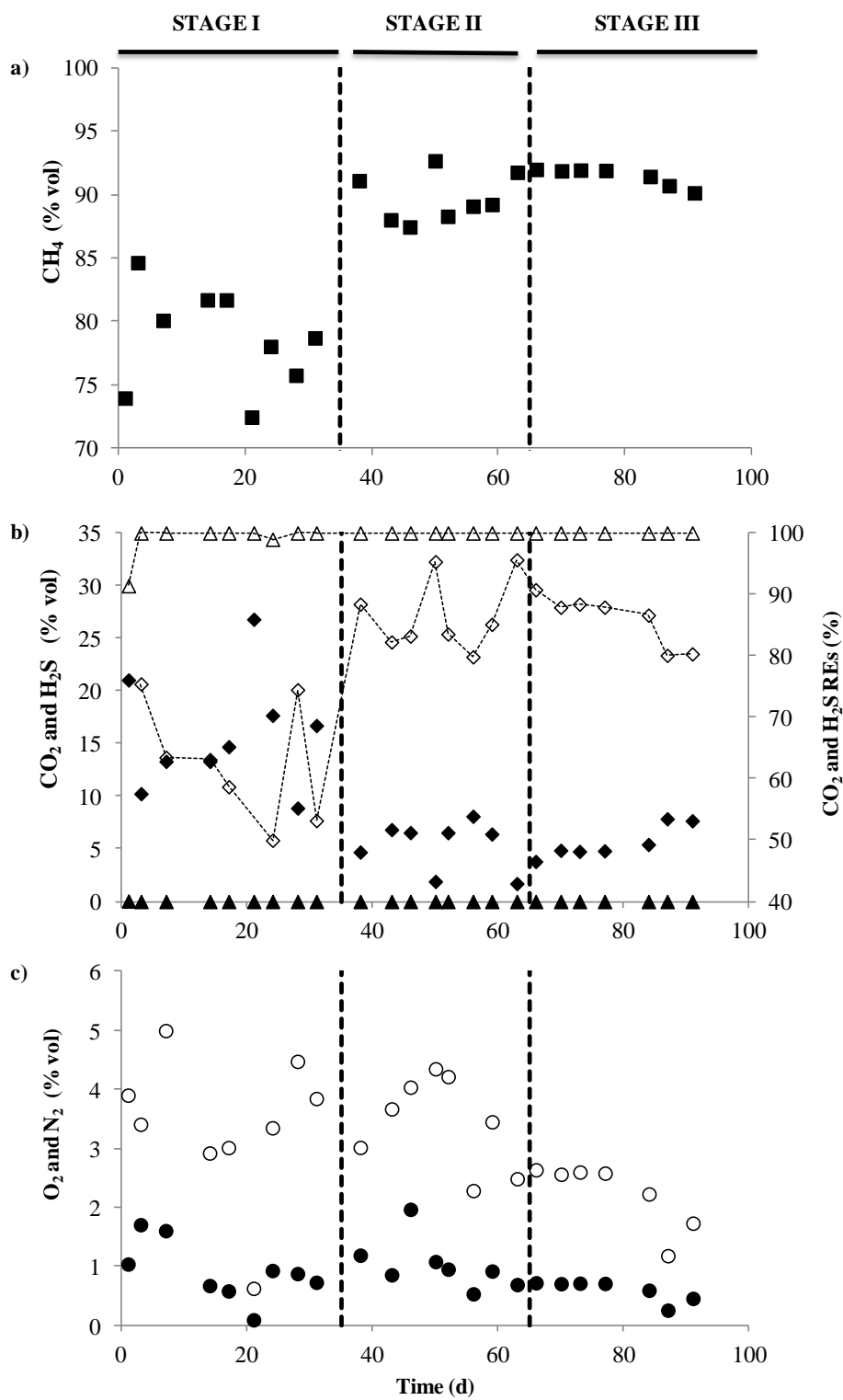
**Figure**

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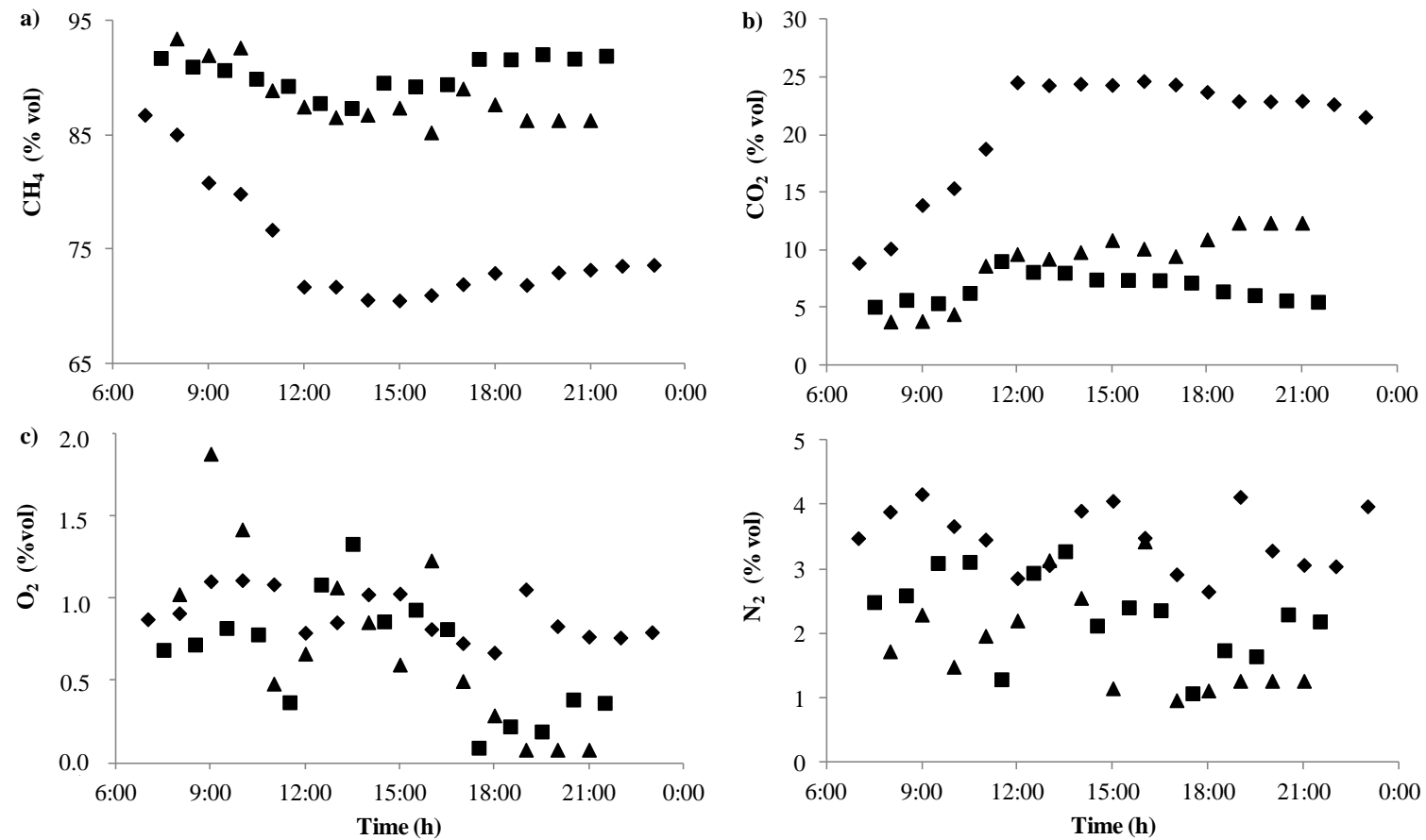
**Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of the outdoors experimental set-up used for the continuous upgrading of biogas.



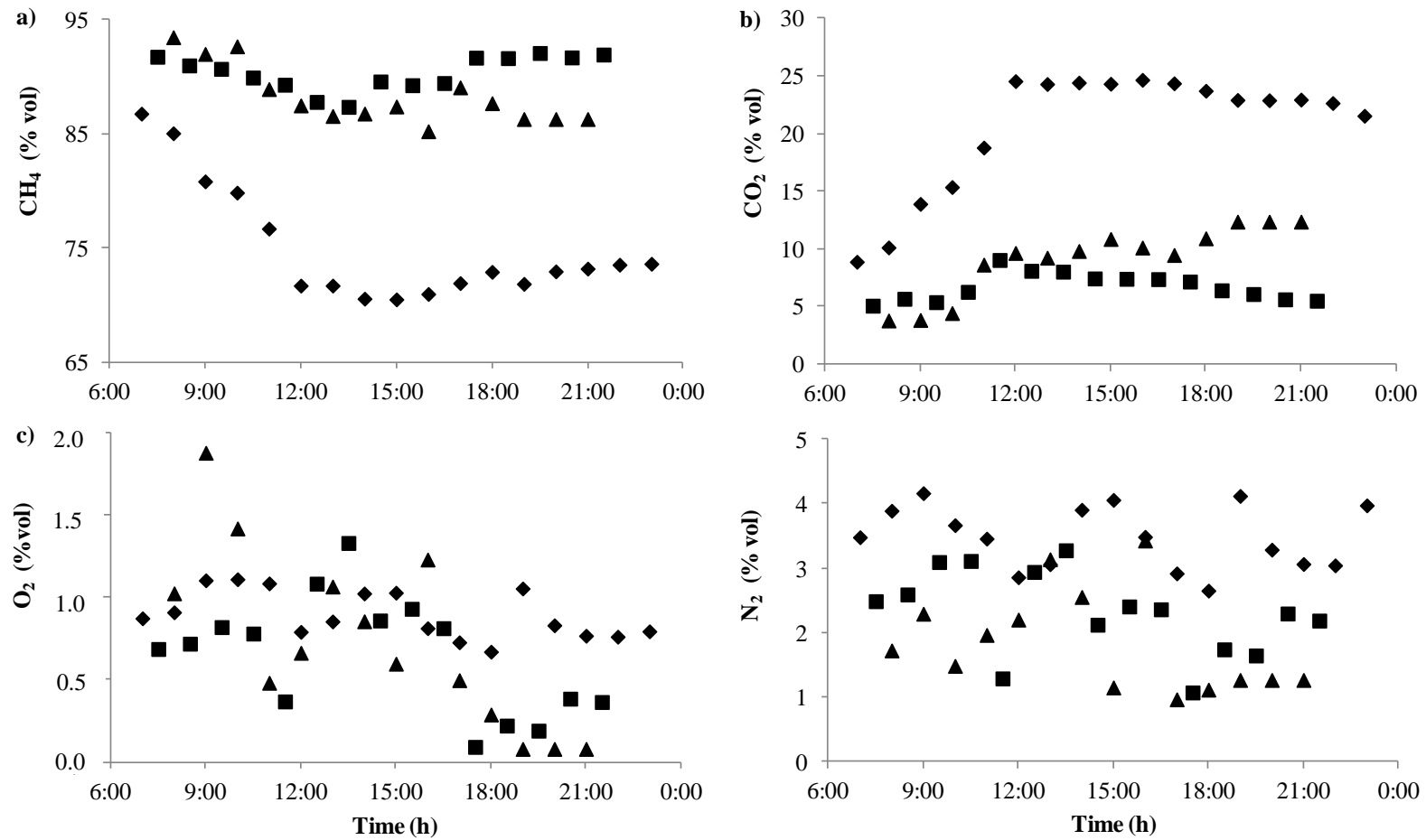
**Figure 2.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub> (■), (b) CO<sub>2</sub> (◆) and H<sub>2</sub>S (▲), and (c) O<sub>2</sub> (●) and N<sub>2</sub> (○) in the upgraded biogas. The removal efficiencies of CO<sub>2</sub> (◇) and H<sub>2</sub>S (△) are also displayed in figure 2b.



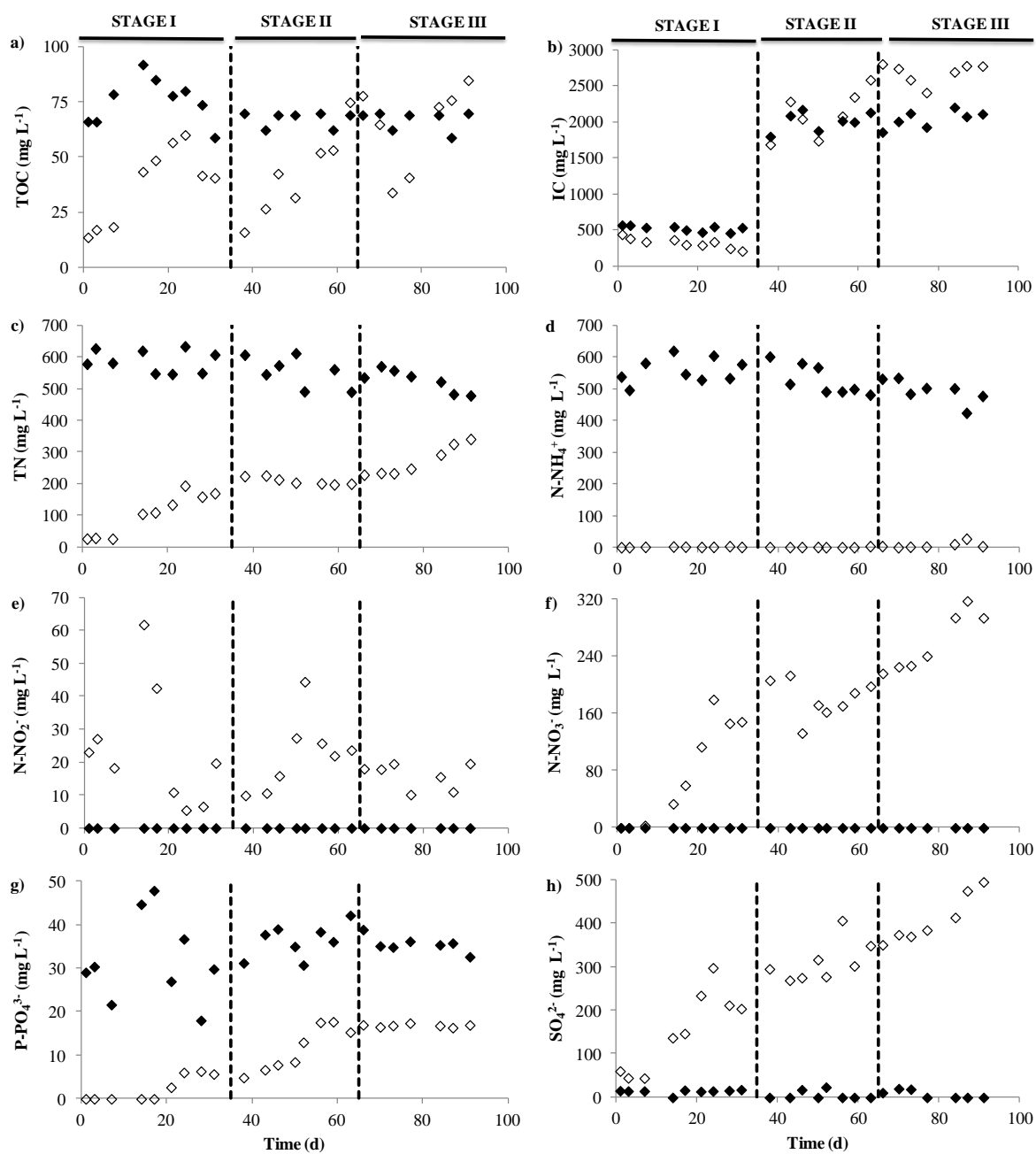
**Figure 3.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub>, (b) CO<sub>2</sub>, (c) O<sub>2</sub> and (d) N<sub>2</sub> in the upgraded biogas during the diurnal cycle evaluated in stages I (◆), II (■) and III (▲).



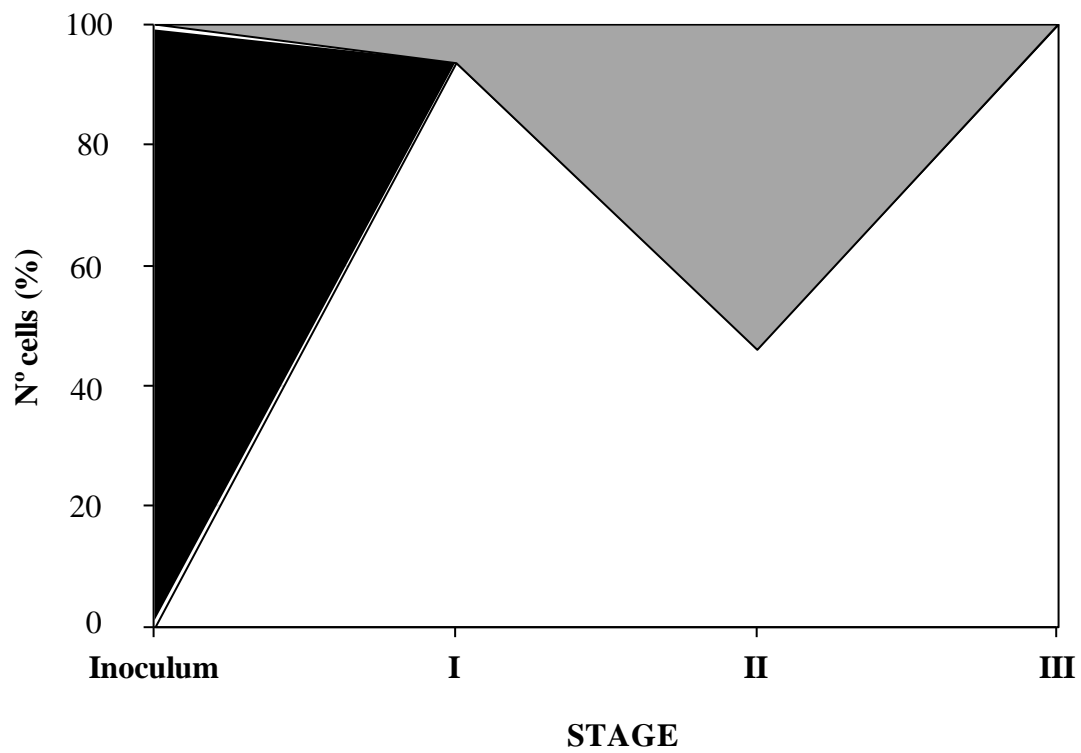
**Figure 4.** Time course of the concentration of (a) CH<sub>4</sub>, (b) CO<sub>2</sub>, (c) O<sub>2</sub> and (d) N<sub>2</sub> in the upgraded biogas at L / G ratios of 0.5 (◆), 1 (□), 2 (▲) and 5 (○).



**Figure 5.** Time course of the influent ( $\blacklozenge$ ) and effluent ( $\diamond$ ) concentrations of (a) TOC, (b) IC, (c) TN, (d)  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ , (e)  $\text{N-NO}_2^-$ , (f)  $\text{N-NO}_3^-$ , (g)  $\text{P-PO}_4^{3-}$  and (h)  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  throughout the three operational stages



**Figure 6.** Time course of the structure of microalgae population in the HRAP: (■) *Chlorella* sp., (■) *Pseudanabaena* sp. and (□) *Chloroidium saccharophilum*.



**Table 1.** Environmental and operational parameters during the three operational stages.

PARAMETER	STAGE		
	I	II	III
Date	05/07 - 08/08	09/08 – 06/09	07/09 – 04/10
Average temperature (°C)	23.8 ± 6.7	23.5 ± 6.4	20.0 ± 6.7
Average PAR ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	1427 ± 65	1258 ± 140	946 ± 174
Number of sun hours (h)	12 ± 1	11 ± 1	9 ± 1
IC <sub>influent</sub> (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	522 ± 40	2009 ± 135	2040 ± 120
Effluent from the settler (L d <sup>-1</sup> )	0.6	0.8	No effluent



**Table 2.** Steady state removal efficiencies of total organic carbon, total inorganic carbon, total nitrogen, ammonium and phosphorus during the three operational stages.

STAGE	Removal efficiencies (%)				
	TOC	TIC	TN	N-NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	P-PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup>
<b>I</b>	74±7	95±1	86±4	100±0	92±2
<b>II</b>	57±6	72±8	87±4	100±0	84±5
<b>III</b>	59±7	75±7	80±8	99±1	85±5

**Table 3.** Carbon and nutrient recovery via biomass assimilation estimated from the carbon and nutrients removal, and the biomass elemental composition of the harvested biomass during stages I, II and III.

STAGE	Carbon and nutrient recovery as biomass (%)				Biomass elemental composition (%)			
	C	N	P	S	C	N	P	S
<b>I</b>	97±1	65±3	100±0	26±5	41.1	6.7	1.1	0.4
<b>II</b>	65±6	54±18	91±9	17±3	35.8	5.7	0.7	0.2
<b>III</b>	66±8	76±19	99±1	16±3	37.8	6.5	0.8	0.2

**Electronic Annex**

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