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Characterization and evaluation of poplar and pine wood in twin biotrickling filters treating a mixture of NH3, H2S, butyric acid and ethylmercaptan

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We thank the reviewer comment and addressed the editor comment about proofreading of the manuscript by a coreous review. Changes performed are highlighted in the manuscript.

Editor

Comments to the Author:

There are still issues with language and grammar. Please have the manuscript proofread.

Reviewing: 1

Comments to the Author

It is a good contribution using organic packing material for treatment of gas phase pollutant using biotrickling filters

Reviewing: 2

Comments to the Author

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1	Characterization and evaluation of poplar and pine wood in twin
2	biotrickling filters treating a mixture of NH ₃ , H ₂ S, butyric acid and
3	ethylmercaptan
4	Jerónimo Hernández ¹ , Antonio David Dorado ² , Javier Lafuente ¹ , Xavier Gamisans ² ,
5	Óscar Jesús Prado ³ and David Gabriel ¹
6	¹ GENOCOV Research Group, Department of Chemical, Biological and Environmental Engineering,
7	Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Edifici Q, 08193 Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain. Telephone number:
8	+34 93.581.15.87, Fax number: +34 93.581.20.13
9	² Department of Mining Engineering and Natural Resources, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Bases
10	of Manresa 61-73, 08240 Manresa, Spain.
11	³ Aeris Environmental Technologies, Edifici Eureka s/n, Campus de la Universitat Autònoma de
12	Barcelona, 08193 Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain.
13	Corresponding author e-mail: david.gabriel@uab.cat
14	Abstract
15	Biotrickling filters for waste gas treatment are often packed with expensive, inert packing
16	materials. In this work, poplar and pine wood chips were evaluated as low-cost packing
17	materials in two biotrickling filters for the simultaneous treatment of a mixture of organic and

1 inorganic volatile compounds. Bioreactors were operated at gas contact times of 22-34 s. Inlet 18 loading rates of 3.5±1.0 gN-NH₃ m⁻³h⁻¹ and 6.5±1.1 gS-H₂S m⁻³h⁻¹ were supplied, while 19 ethylmercaptan (EM) and butyric acid were fed at loads of 3.6 ± 1.2 g m⁻³h⁻¹ and 6.0 ± 2.1 g m⁻³h⁻¹ 20 ¹, respectively. A thorough characterization of both support mediapacking materials revealed 21 some differences in the physical-chemical properties, mainly in their water retentivity and 22 buffer capacity. Despite of these such differences, both bioreactors performed similarly. 23 24 Bioreactors were able to achieve complete removal of NH₃ and butyric acid, while H₂S and 25 EM removal efficiencies over 90% and 70%, respectively, were found. N-species analyses in 26 the leachate proved high nitrification rates for in both woodsbiotrickling filters. The Control of 27 pH control-was essential for maintaining nitrification activity. Other oxidation processes were hardly affected by pH changes. Both woods showed potentially attractive as support 28 29 mediapacking materials for biofiltration. Thus, availability and durability of woods are decisive factors to tip the balance. 30

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32 Novelty or Significance. The work compares the performance of two biotrickling filters 33 packed with two types of wood chips commonly used in biofilters. No previous works have 34 directly compared the performance of two types of woods in biotrickling filters for the treatment of a range of organic and inorganic odorants because biotrickling filters are 35 36 commonly packed with inert packing materials. Results indicated that the two types of woods 37 tested behaved similarly and, more interestingly, showed equivalent treatment capacities than

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that of inert packing <u>materials</u> in the removal of a range of typical pollutants in odorant waste gases. Research is of particular interest for improving <u>biofiltration</u> knowledge of <u>biofiltration</u>. In addition, <u>since inorganic packing materials commonly used in biotrickling filters are much</u> more expensive than organic packing materials, this research has large practical implications in the cost-benefit of full-scale biotrickling filtration systems <u>becasue inorganic packing materials</u> commonly used in biotrickling filters are much more expensive than organic packing materials.

Keywords: Biotrickling filters, Organic media; packing characterization; odorants treatment,
 twin bioreactors

INTRODUCTION

The use of bioreactors for gaseous effluents treatment is a widely recognized biotechnology that has been successfully applied during the last decades in a wide range of industries for the abatement of a wide spectrum of pollutants. Among the different configurations, biotrickling filters have demonstrated their capabilities to remove odorant pollutants in processes such as the treatment of gaseous emissions from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) or composting processes. However, biotrickling filters use inorganic packing materials such as plastic or ceramic beds because of the presence of a continuously flowing water phase over the packed bed. Such conditions could potentially damage organic packing materials and cause reactor flooding [1]. Regarding organic materials, the use of different types of wood chips has been reported in conventional biofilters, a bioreactor configuration without a continuous water phase flowing over the packing material [2-4]. The main advantages of wood chips as packing material are their low purchasing price, their capacity to act as water reservoir due to a high water holding capacity, as well as their capacity to avoid packing material compaction-of the material [1]. Specifically, their-water retentivity and water holding capacity of wood chips, which are favorable in comparison to inorganic packing materials, could be beneficial during unexpected situations such as a liquid phase recirculation failure or during the treatment of extremely dry streams at high

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temperatures, which could end up in drying out the packing material dry out. However,
an organic material can be more rapidly exhausted and biodegraded under high water
content conditions, which may hinder its use in biotrickling filters. The number of
studies with biotrickling filters packed with wood chips is scarce in literature [5-6].
Chen et al. [7], studied the performance of two wood chips-based biofilters to reduce
odor, H ₂ S and NH ₃ from swine barn ventilation air distinguishing two kinds of woods:
western cedar and oak wood. However, to the authors' knowledge there is no study
indicating if a particular kind of wood is more effective than others when used in
biotrickling filters-to-the authors knowledge. However, little attention has been paid to
the specific characteristics of different types of woods in relation to biotrickling filters
performance in terms of removal efficiency (RE), even ILess attention has been paid in
trying to find evidences of advantages/disadvantages of using pine or poplar wood chips
as packing materials [8]. The use of poplar and pine wood chips results is highly
interesting from an economical perspective due to their affordability and low price (45-
$60 \in m^{-3}$ and $40-50 \in m^{-3}$, respectively). Thus, it is interesting to study wood chips
performance as packing material in-depth, since it is an easy-to-get media, landfill
disposable and a proven-cost-effective material as confirmed in previous studies [9]. In
this sense, the present work is the first work that to compared twin biotrickling filters
packed with two different kinds of woods by an exhaustive evaluation in terms of media
characterization and bioreactors performance for the treatment of a multi-component
gaseous stream.
Regarding pollutants usually treated by <u>in biofiltration biofilters</u> , NH_3 and H_2S are

Regarding pollutants usually treated $\frac{\text{by}-\text{in}}{\text{biointration} \text{biointers}}$, NH₃ and H₂S are common inorganic-volatile inorganic compounds widely studied due to their presence in a range of processes sites such as composting plants, livestock facilities, fish processing industries or WWTPs among others. NH₃ concentrations up to 120 ppmv and H₂S

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concentrations in the range of 10-60 ppmv are often found in those such industries [1]. EM and butyric acid are volatile organic compounds mainly present at low concentrations, which may only lead to a malodorous-bad odor problem. Butyric acid has a sour, sweaty smell and belongs to hydrophilic volatile fatty acids group typically generated when organic matter is decomposed under anaerobic conditions [10]. In turn, volatile organic sulfur compounds such as ethylmercaptan (EM) and dimethyldisulfide (DMDS) have lately received intensive attention because of their very low odor threshold, high toxicity, and potential corrosive effect [11]. Specifically, EM is a moderately soluble in water and toxic organic compound with an odor threshold as low as 0.7 μ g L⁻¹ (0.28 ppm_v) [12]. It has been also classified as one of the most annoying compounds in odor emissions [13]. Overall, the complex mixture used herein comprises some of the most typical and most annoving pollutants released in real emissions. It is important to highlight that the oxygen content might not limit microbial biodegradation at the pollutants load typically encountered in these facilities [1].

Based on the promising results obtained in a previous study [9], the present work focused on the evaluation of several properties of poplar and pine wood susceptible to affect the biofiltration process-process. In addition, this work focused and on the to comparisone – of the behavior of both materials under identical conditions in a biotrickling filter configuration; treating a mixture of H₂S, NH₃, EM and butyric acid during a period of more than three months.

113 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Experimental setup and operating conditions of <u>the</u>**bioreactors**

The experimental setup consisted of two parallel<u>PVC</u> biotrickling filters made in PVC with a height of 70 cm and an internal diameter of 8.6 cm. Reactors were packed with

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poplar and pine wood chips, respectively, up to a height of 50 cm, resulting in a packed 117 bed volume of 2.9 L per biofilter. The polluted air was supplied in up-flow mode. Inlet 118 H₂S and NH₃ concentrations were provided from pure gas cylinders and mixed with 119 fresh air using digital mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst, The Netherlands). EM was fed 120 by means of a double-head peristaltic pump (Mod. 403 U/VM2, Watson Marlow, 121 England) that pumped air into glass bubblers containing liquid EM 97% (97% purity, 122 Sigma Aldrich, United States). Pure butyric acid was fed by means of a microburette 123 Multiburette 2S (Crison Inst. S.A., Spain). The liquid level in both bioreactors was kept 124 constant by means of two peristaltic pumps (Mod. 302 S, Watson Marlow, England) 125 controlled by a home-made LabWindowsTM $\overline{\text{CVI}}$ application. More <u>dD</u>etailed 126 characteristics of the biofiltration setup can be found elsewhere [6]. 127

128 Inoculation at ambient temperature (18 - 23°C) was carried out during 48 hours in both reactors at ambient temperature (18 - 23°C) by continuous recirculation during 48 hours 129 of an activated sludge mixture at an initial concentration of 1.5 g VSS L^{-1} containing i) 130 enriched ammonium ammonium-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) taken withdrawn from a pilot 131 plant where partial nitrification was achieved taking place and ii) aerobic sludge from a 132 urban WWTP (Manresa, Spain). Use of aerobic sludge from WWTPs for inoculation is 133 widely accepted since a wide spectrum of microorganisms is encountered [14-15]. A 134 more detailed description of packing materials characteristics as well as the inoculation 135 procedure of the reactors is provided in the Supplementary Material section S1. Several 136 137 samples were extracted along the experimental period in order to identify sulfuroxidizing and nitrifying bacteria. However, the organic nature of the wood chips made 138 difficult to obtain DNA from biofilm samples to produce reliable results. Thus, it was 139 not possible to characterize characterization of the microbial communities in the 140

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biotrickling filters was not possible. Either way, to carry out an in-depth –microbial
characterization of biotrickling filters was not the scope of this work.

Inlet concentrations of $48.5 \pm 9.4 \text{ ppm}_{v}$ of NH₃, $40.2 \pm 3.1 \text{ ppm}_{v}$ of H₂S, $11.7 \pm 3.8 \text{ ppm}_{v}$ of EM and $13.3 \pm 3.4 \text{ ppm}_v$ of butyric acid were kept constant throughout the experimental period, corresponding to loads of 3.5 ± 1.0 g N-NH₃ m⁻³ h⁻¹-of N-NH₃, -6.5 ± 1.1 g S-H₂S m⁻³ h⁻¹ of S-H₂S, 3.6 ± 1.2 g EM m⁻³ h⁻¹ of EM and 6.0 ± 2.1 g butyric acid m⁻³ h⁻¹ of butyric acid, respectively. Those are typical concentrations susceptible to be found at industrial facilities such as composting, food processing or WWTPs among others [1-2, 16]. During the experimental period, -a constant gas flow rate of 310 L h⁻¹ was fed to each biofilter, corresponding to an initial empty bed residence time (EBRT) of 34 s. However, due to operational failures this initial value was significantly reduced in the poplar wood reactor (PPWR) due to operational failures. Bioreactors were operated at a room temperature of $22 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C and the recirculation flow rate was set at 130 mL min⁻¹. The liquid phase was continuously renewed by the automated supply of tap water. Make-up water flow rate varied between 600 and 2520 mL day⁻¹, corresponding to an hydraulic residence time (HRT) between 1.00 and 0.24 day. Thus, the Gas/Liquid ratio defined as the inlet gas flow rate divided by the renovation of the fresh liquid renewal varied from 12400/1 to 2953/1. The pH control was set on-from day 28 onwards by means of the permanent addition of NaOH (0.02 g L^{-1}) in the make-up water flow.

2.2 Analytical methods

H₂S concentration was measured using an electrochemical H₂S sensor (Sure-cell, Euro-Gas Management Services LTD, England) with a detection limit of 1 ppm_v. NH₃ concentration was determined after bubbling the gas stream in acidified water and later on-passed through an ammonium flow analyzer later on [17]₅ with a detection limit of 5

mg N-NH₄⁺ L⁻¹. For EM and butvric acid determination. a A calibrated Gas Chromatograph (6890N, Agilent Tech. S.A., Spain) was employedused for EM and butyric acid determination, with a detection limit of 2 ppm_y for both compounds. Chloride, N-ammonium, N-nitrite, N-nitrate, S-sulfate and P-phosphate ions concentration in leachate samples were determined in an ICS-1000 Ion Chromatograph (Dionex Corp., United States) equipped with an IonPac AS9-HC column with a detection limit of 5 mg L⁻¹ for all species. Leachate pH and conductivity were measured by means of a pH 28 sensor and a MicroCM 2100 sensor (Crison Instr. S.A., Spain), respectively. According to the specifications of the instrumentation employed in this work, the following standard deviations were considered: 10% for EM and butyric acid RE, 1.5% for H₂S RE, 1-2% for species measured by ionic chromatography and 1% for the continuous flow analyzer. Regarding packing materials characterization, methods employed to evaluate materials properties are described elsewhere [18]. Finally, sulfur oxidation processin-of bioreactors was verified through $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production rates, which were calculated through mass balances as detailed in the Supplementary Material section S2.

3 RESULTS

Packing materials characterization

The suitability of poplar and pine wood as packing material for biofiltration was evaluated by means of different physical-chemical parameters commonly studied in biofiltration (Tables 1 and 2). Among the natural carriers used in biofiltration, woods are the most extensively used together with compost, peat and soil [19]. However, the comparison of the behavior of different woods in biotrickling filters is still unexplored. Elementary analyses were performed to identify the capacity of each packing material to

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191	potentially provide macronutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorous necessary for
192	biomass growth. Both materials presented a similar nutrient content: 46-49% C, 0.3% N,
193	less than 0.1% S and 0.05% P. Concerning the specific surface area, which was
194	measured by the BET technique (Table 1), wood-wood-based materials showed a
195	slightly lower specific surface area value (inferior tobelow 1.3 m ² g ⁻¹) than materials
196	like <u>compared to</u> compost and coconut fiber-but- <u>A</u> much lower specific surface area
197	<u>was found</u> compared to porous materials <u>like such as</u> carbons (up to 950 m ² g ⁻¹).
198	The Packing materials pH of packing materials was close to neutral or slightly acid (pH
199	≈ 6.7 for pine wood <u>chips</u>) while the <u>ir</u> buffer capacity was between 35 and 50 mL SO ₄ ²⁻
200	L^{-1} (Table 1). Sorption capacities were determined for both dry and wet materials to
201	obtain information regarding about the interactions nature between the contaminant, the
202	packing materials and the aqueous phase. Poplar wood adsorption capacities of 0.05 and
203	0.06 mg toluene g^{-1} packing material were achieved under dry and wet conditions,
204	respectively, according to the procedure detailed in Dorado et al. [17]. Pine wood
205	showed a 30% decrease in its adsorption capacity (from 0.06 to 0.04 mg toluene g^{-1}
206	packing material) under wet conditions, which can be consideredare the common
207	<u>normal</u> operating conditions in biofilters. Larger reductions of in the adsorption capacity
208	under wet conditions have been reported in other common mediapacking materials [20].
209	In the materials presented herein, a lower water holding capacity and a similar porosity
210	of both materials (0.88) could explain a minor reduction of such adsorption capacity.
211	Moreover, the water retentivity measured, expressed as the water percentage lost per
212	hour, revealed that both materials can retain their water content efficiently. In any case,
213	the maximum sorption capacity of the materials was less than 0.10 mg toluene g^{-1}
214	material. The water holding capacity and water retentivity are related to packing
215	materials structural configuration. Depending on the material specific structure, water

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Despite the fact that water molecules can be more or less time retained in the material, 216 but after a certain period of time without the supply of extra water, all media packing 217 materials might-lose most of its-their water content after a certain period of time without 218 the supply of extra water. For instance, when dealing with a dry moisture stream, it 219 would be interesting to operate with materials with a large water retentivity in order to 220 avoid packing material desiccation and allow microorganisms maintaining their activity. 221 In the case of wood chips as unique packing material, several studies employing 222 conventional biofilters achieved the highest reduction efficiencies for odor 223 224 concentration and NH₃ removal when keeping the filter media moisture content over 225 60% (wet basis) [7,21]. Thus, both parameters, among others, were considered key 226 factors to take into account when choosing the most suitable packing material for a specific scenario. 227

Regarding pressure drop through the packed bed (ΔP), intrinsic ΔP for dry packing 228 229 materials was below 1 cm water column per meter of packing material height in both cases (Table 2). Results agreed with typical \underline{AP} ranges for pressure drop through 230 packing materials [20]. Interestingly, ΔP slightly increased with the presence of water 231 inside the packing material even if this influence was more remarkable at higher 232 233 superficial velocities (data not shown). In the case of poplar wood, the ΔP achieved was twice that obtained for pine wood, which is a sign of indicated a higher resistance to air 234 flow due to the superficial rugosity of the material. Both materials were evaluated at 235 under the same water content. ΔP increases increased between 5 and 30% over 236 compared with that under dry conditions, which did not have a significant impact in 237 terms of energy consumption costs as shown in Table 2. Besides punctual episodes, ΔP 238 239 in both reactors never exceeded 7 cm of water column per meter of packing material height (figure S1 in Supplementary Material) during the entire operational period. The 240

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electricity consumption was calculated considering a kilowatt-hour cost of $0.08 \in kWh^{-1}$ and by means of a previously reported empirical expression $P(kW) = 3.64 \cdot 10^{-4} \times -Q$ (m³ h⁻¹) [22] considering a kilowatt-hour cost of $0.08 \in kWh^{-1}$]. The increase in the electrical consumption due to the ΔP was estimated according to a mechanical energy balance: $P(W) = \Delta P (N m^{-2}) \times -Q_{-1}(m^{3} s^{-1})$ where P is the consumption power, ΔP is the pressure drop and Q is the flowrate circulating through the packing material.

Regarding energy costs associated to blow the air through the packing material, a difference of 2.5% between materials was found (Table 1 and 2). Therefore, the main difference between packing materials laid in their purchase cost of the support materials and their durability. The purchase cost, which is directly related with the availability of each wood, had a significant impact in the overall costs, not only because of the large volumes usually required for biofilter construction but also because of packing materials replacement due to their limited durability-caused by a low mechanical and chemical resistance. Table 1 shows the purchase price of both packing materials according to prices of year 2014, Spanish market. The durability was estimated according to previous experiences of suppliers (Melcourt, UK).

258 Sulfur compounds removal

Regarding H₂S removal, both bioreactors maintained analogous trends. Initial REs around 50% were measured, which increased gradually up to REs above 85% on day 13 and remained that high the rest of the study (Figure 1a and b). Both reactors were able to biodegrade H₂S to SO_4^{2-} from the beginning of the experimental period-on (Figure 2). Since unexpected situations are likely to occur during real operation, some malfunctioning episodes were used to evaluate the resilience capacity of wood chipbased biotrickling filters. Thus, EM RE varied significantly during the fluidization of the

packing material due to a flooding episode, denoting a low capacity to face suchunexpected failure.

Both bioreactors startup took around 20 days until achieving REs above 85% (Figure 1c and d). Nevertheless, after reinoculation of both reactors on day 34 to reactivate the nitrification process, EM REs were lower than those before reinoculation. Two weeks before reinoculation, EM REs of $94 \pm 5\%$ and $88 \pm 8\%$ were measured for PPWR and pine wood reactor (PNWR), respectively, while a. After day 34-onwards, average REs decreased down to $75 \pm 13\%$ and $83 \pm 16\%$ for PPWR and PNWR, respectively. It is likely that flooding episodes in PPWR on days 37 and 58 negatively affected the EM elimination, leading to these such significant differences in EM REs in comparison with PNWR.

Both the startup period and unexpected operational changes lead to a significant dispersion of results. Despite of such variability, a similar trend was found in terms of EC of sulfur compounds (figure S2 in Supplementary Material). Both reactors performed similarly showing that the maximum EC was not reached for H₂S removal. However, from day 13 onwards, a pseudo-stationary period was achieved and RE values of 96 \pm 4% and 97% \pm 2 were measured for PPWR and PNWR, respectively, corresponding to maximum EC values of 6.5 \pm 0.9 and 5.6 \pm 0.6 g m⁻³ h⁻¹. A plateau in the EC vs LR profile (figure S2b and S2d) was found at around 2 g EM m⁻³ h⁻¹, particularly in the case of the PPWR reactor.

Moreover, oxidation of reduced sulfur compounds was verified by assessing the S-SO₄²⁻ production rates (S-SO₄²⁻ r_p) along the time course of the experimental period (Figure 3) as well as a function of the total S load (figure S3a and S3b in Supplementary Material). The S-SO₄²⁻ r_p increased 30% between days 9 and 18 of operation. During the startup of both bioreactors S-SO₄²⁻ r_p progressively increased until day 24, where r_p was stabilized

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291	at around up to $6.5 \text{ g S-SO}_4^{2-} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Besides punctual episodes, no significant impact of
292	pH was observed on $\frac{S-SO_4}{2}r_p$, even in the case of a pH drop to pH 5 during startup
293	(days 14 to 18). On the contrary, $\underline{S-SO_4}^2 r_p$ was clearly affected in PPWR on days 37
294	and 58 due to a flooding/fluidization episode (arrow A in figure 2). Finally, it is
295	important to mention that the $\underline{S-SO_4}^{2-}r_p$ drop observed in both reactors on day 64 was
296	due to an experiment performed to evaluate the effect of an EM feeding interruption
297	(arrow B in figure 2). <u>SoConsequently</u> , the expected <u>S-SO₄²⁻</u> r_p drops <u>of</u> , which were
298	around 13 and 42% in PPWR and PNWR, respectively, were caused by a decrease in
299	the $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production.
300	It is worth mentioning that the $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$ in both reactors were lower than the total S
301	loaded as H ₂ S and EM (figures S3a and S3b in Supplementary Material), indicating that
302	a fraction of the S was not recovered and that was probably converted to other S species
303	such as elemental sulfur or thiosulfate. The impact of such S unbalance was more
304	noticeable in the case of the PPWR reactor in which the percentage of $S-SO_4^{2-}$
305	recovered was around 75-80%.
306	Ammonia removal
307	No significant differences were observed between reactors in terms of NH ₃ RE, which
308	remained close to 100% all over the experimental period because of the large solubility
309	of NH ₃ . However, N-species concentration in PPWR showed no evidences of nitrifying
310	activity during the first month of operation, while slight signs of nitrification were was
311	noticed in PNWR. Simultaneously, during the first two operational weeks, a pH
312	decrease from neutral to pH below 5 occurred in both reactors. On days 13 and 18, the
313	HRT was reduced from 1 day to 5.7 hours (indicated in Figure 3a and 3b with arrows).
314	Moreover, from day 28 on, pH was controlled at 7 by the permanent addition of a NaOH
315	0.02 g L ⁻¹ solution to the make-up water line (indicated in both figures with an arrow).

Even though neutral pH was reestablished, nitrifying activity remained almost negligible. Hence, both reactors were reinoculated on day 34 to reactivate nitrification. **Right after** Then, a gradual increase on NO₃⁻ production was observed. Simultaneously, while NH_4^+ concentration progressively decreased. In less than 15 days, both bioreactors were capable to oxidize almost all the NH₃ supplied to N-NO₃⁻ (Figure 3a and 3b). The rest of the experimental period almost full NH₃ conversion to nitrate was achieved, besides punctual days that operational failures occurred resulting in slight accumulations of NH_4^+ in the liquid phase (e.g. on day 46, PNWR suffered a partial flooding of the upper part of the bioreactor due to a pump pipe blockage). Besides punctual failure episodes suffered on days 59 and 80, a very similar behavior was observed in the PPWR (Figure 3a). Nitrogen mass balances were assessed for both reactors (figure S4 in Supplementary Material) showing that deviations in the N recovery oscillated between 20 and 55% in both reactors, with a larger dispersion in the case of the PPWR.

Butyric acid removal

Butyric acid was removed almost completely right after the startup of both bioreactors. As discussed in the next section, the high solubility of this pollutant allowed achieving complete elimination during the whole experimental period.

336 4 DISCUSSION

Regarding to–NH₃ removal, the nitrification capacity in both bioreactors remained almost negligible during the startup phase, which was attributed to the progressive acidification of the liquid phase due to SO_4^{2-} production, which led to pH values below 5 after 12 days of operation in both bioreactors. Characterization of packing materials

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showed a slightly acidic leachate, which was consistent with Lou and Lindsey [23] who reported a pH between 4.5-5 for pine wood. Slightly acid pH of woods can be related with resin acids content [24]. Often, buffering capacities of packing materials are not enough to compensate the production of acidic by-products from microbial oxidation in the biofiltration of waste gases containing significant loads of pollutants such as H_2S or VOCs. In this sense, several studies have proved that the acidification of the liquid phase can negatively affect the nitrification process [6, 25-27]. Park et al. [26] proved that working at pH above 6.5 the maximal nitrification rate could be was reduced to a half working at pH above 6.5, while. Jiang et al. [28] observed that the N-NH₄⁺ fraction in the leachate (between 50 and 75%) was substantially superior than that of $N-NO_2^-$ and N-NO₃⁻ at pH values equal or above 6 due to a probable NH_4^+ elimination by absorption and reaction to (NH₄)₂SO₄. Similarly, Rabbani et al. [29] achieved reached REs over 90% for H₂S and NH₃ in an acidified bioreactor, since because the stream ratio-H₂S/NH₃ ratio permitted an effective removal of both pollutants by biological oxidation of H_2S to sulfate and a subsequent chemical reaction of ammonium with and sulfate to form $(NH_4)_2SO_4$.

Moreover, free ammonia (FA) and/or free nitrous acid (FNA) accumulation can inhibit AOB [30]. During the first two weeks of operation FA and FNA concentrations in PNWR never exceeded 1.3 mg N-FA L^{-1} and $2 \cdot 10^{-5}$ mg N-FNA L^{-1} , respectively. Considering iInhibitions thresholds have been reported by Jubany et al. [31] of as 5.8 mg N-FA L⁻¹ for AOB, 0.16 mg N-FNA L⁻¹ for AOB, 0.78 mg N-FA L⁻¹ for NOB and 0.02 mg N-FNA L⁻¹ for NOB. Consequently, it is likely that AOB and NOB were inhibited by FA and/or FNA inhibited AOB and NOB, particularly in these biofilter sections of the bioreactors closer to the inlet, where loads are were higher. However, no significant impact on the overall nitrification process was observed. Nevertheless, in

367	order to decrease the TA concentration and to increase the pit, the first was stepwise
	decreased twice on days 13 and 18 from 24 to 5.7 hours and the while a permanent
368	addition of a NaOH solution (0.02 g L^{-1}) was performed. These actions permitted a
369	decrease of the N-NH ₄ ⁺ concentration from 200 mg N-NH ₄ ⁺ L ⁻¹ -to 55 mg N-NH ₄ ⁺ L ⁻¹
370	during the following 14 days of operation, while pH values reached neutral values.
371	During the first 10 days of operation, where pH was kept at 6.5-7.0, nitratation rates of
372	0.04 g N m ⁻³ h ⁻¹ were calculated [32] denoting <u>a certainsome</u> nitrifying activity.
373	However, right after the pH decay, N-NO ₃ ⁻ production was interrupted right after the pH
374	decay (days 13-20). The efforts to reestablish neutral pH in the bioreactors could-did not
375	recover the nitrifying activity for of PPWR, while the slight evidences of PNWR
376	nitrification capacity were was not enough to avoid a restart of both reactors. Hence,
377	both reactors were reinoculated on day 34. Thereafter, N-NO3 ⁻ concentration was
378	progressively increased. In approximately 15 days, most of the NH ₃ supplied $(3.5 \pm 1.0$
379	g N-NH ₃ m ⁻³ h ⁻¹) was oxidized to NO ₃ ⁻ reaching concentrations up to 50 mg N-NO ₃ ⁻ L ⁻¹ .
380	In general, N-NO3 ⁻ production was similar in both reactors. Slight differences in pH
381	observed on day 25 onwards were attributed to the lower buffer capacity of PNWR (51
382	and 35 mL SO_4^{2-} L ⁻¹ for poplar and pine wood, respectively), as well as to the presence
383	of resin acids in pine wood [24]. However, the pH in a bioreactor is strongly influenced
201	by the acid/basic character of the pollutants supplied. Furthermore, similar nitrogen
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385	recoveries around 40% were found in previous studies [33-35]. These deviations from
385 386	recoveries around 40% were found in previous studies [33-35]. These deviations from ideality can be attributed to several facts, mainly biological processes such as
385 386 387	recoveries around 40% were found in previous studies [33-35]. These deviations from ideality can be attributed to several facts, mainly biological processes such as denitrification or biomass growth. Moreover, butyric acid presence could favor
385 386 387 388	recoveries around 40% were found in previous studies [33-35]. These deviations from ideality can be attributed to several facts, mainly biological processes such as denitrification or biomass growth. Moreover, butyric acid presence could favor denitrification. It is important to mention that a nitrogen mass balance carried out during
385 386 387 388 389	recoveries around 40% were found in previous studies [33-35]. These deviations from ideality can be attributed to several facts, mainly biological processes such as denitrification or biomass growth. Moreover, butyric acid presence could favor denitrification. It is important to mention that a nitrogen mass balance carried out during the entire experimental period (figure S4 in Supplementary Material) confirmed that

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Thus, NH₃ elimination by mere adsorption onto the packing material was negligible considering the low loads supplied and the fact that the system operated more than 100 days. In addition, the low adsorption capacity of packing materials under wet operating conditions [17] ensured that, in the long-term operation under constant loading rates, bioreactors were in equilibrium after a few days in terms of ad/absorption considering such low adsorption capacities.

In contrast with the nitrification process, sulfide oxidation showed a higher stability. The SO_4^{2} production increased from the beginning of the experimental period. Concentrations close to 400 mg $S-SO_4^{2-}L^{-1}$ after 14 days of operation were found in both reactors without the necessity needing of a selective inoculation. This fact confirmed that the presence of sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in an aerobic sludge from a WWTP used as inoculum, which was estimated to be around 1.5% [36], was adequate to biodegrade H₂S to SO_4^{2-3} as previously observed by Fortuny et al. [37] in a biotrickling filter treating high H₂S loads. Previous works performing specific inoculation and treating mixtures of H₂S and NH₃ at-under similar loads and performing specific inoculation required between 5 and 10 days to oxidize most of the H₂S to SO_4^{2-} [38-39]. In the work presented herein, the low specific surface area found for of both materials $(1.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ was a handicap if compared with porous materials such as activated carbon $(950 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ [40]. It is worth noticing that specific surface areas in Table 1 are referred to the total surface area including micropores, which may be hardly available under normal operating conditions of a biotrickling filter due to biomass growth and to the presence of a water layer over the biofilm. Taking into account these data and considering that no selective specific inoculation was carried out in this study, the 7-8 days duration required observed for sulfur sulfide oxidation to occur-process, which last around 7-8 days, werecan be considered as a relatively short startup period.

Figure 2 shows that the $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production rate did not reach the maximal production during the days that the HRT was reduced although both materials showed high capacity to keep suitable wet conditions, thus-and avoiding dry areas that would lead to poor growth and, thus, reduced REs. Although water holding capacities of poplar and pine wood are not significantly different, the water retentivity, indicates indicated that poplar wood retains water more effectively, which beneficiate wet conditions inside the packing material for microorganisms maintenance (the drying rate was half of that for the pine wood). However, although this is interesting in terms of water preservation in poorly watered biofilters it can be detrimental for adsorption and absorption of more hydrophobic pollutants such as ethylmercaptan. It is likely that this the latter could be one was the reason factor for which that PPWR was more affected biofilters performance duringby flooding episodes. Furthermore, and leaving aside punctual episodes, $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production in both bioreactors was stabilized with the HRT set at 5.7 hours and the pH controlled in the range 5.9 - 7.7. In this sense, Jiang et al. [28] studied the pH effect on sulfur oxidation stability in a range of 4 to 8.5. It was proved showing that, under all the pHs studied, over 90% of the final product was SO₄²⁻ under all the pHs studied, proving the robustness of this process. It is important to highlight that sulfur oxidizing species able to develop at pHs from 1 (i.e. Acidithiobacillus caldus bacteria) to 10 (i.e. Thioalcalivibrio spp.) have been reported in literature [41], proving the robustness of this process. Regarding EM elimination, REs over 85% were reached after day 20 of operation, while butyric acid was almost completely removed right afterfrom the beginning of the

experimental period. Probably, the <u>a</u> difference of 5-fold times in order of magnitudedifference in their Henry constant (H_{EM}: $1.6 \cdot 10^{-1}$ g aq⁻¹ (gas/aqueous) and

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 $H_{Butyric acid}$: 8.7·10⁻⁶ g aq⁻¹ [9, 42]), favored butyric acid absorption in the liquid phase. 441 Total organic carbon measurements were carried out to quantify the amount of butyric 442 acid removed by mere absorption in the liquid phase or by biological activity. However, 443 Measurements measurements were not reliable since the detachment of the organic 444 media disguised the results. It is important to highlight that the EM removal robustness 445 is directly related to the first degradation step in which the C-S bond is broken and 446 metabolized by heterotrophic biomass. After that, the degradation pathway is the same 447 than that corresponding to the H_2S oxidation [43]. Moreover, the acidification of both 448 bioreactors during the startup phase had surely a negative effect on EM absorption, 449 450 which is favored under alkaline conditions [44]. However, such an effect was not 451 observed in the present study. Arellano-García et al. [44] observed that EM solubility was enhanced by around 80% by increasing the pH from 7.0 to 10.0. They considered 452 that the EC of their system was limited by the low oxidation activities of their 453 alkaliphilic microbial culture and that a pH control system was a must in order to set the 454 most suitable pH to favor the elimination of the pollutants to be treated. Furthermore, 455 EBRT studies (data not shown) suggested that the main responsible for the incomplete 456 EM elimination was the a mass transfer limitation, since pollutants such as mercaptans 457 require large EBRTs [12]. 458

In both bioreactors no nutrients were added to the make-up water solution, since it is widely accepted that most of natural organic media have enough nitrogen and phosphorous content for developing a process culture [1]. Similarly, the organic matter content detected (around 95% by weight) constituted an alternative substrate source for biofilter microorganisms which could be used during starvation periods such as process shut-downs, process rotation or intermittent loads [17].

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465	Since physical-chemical properties of both woods do not underscore a significant
466	different behavior in terms of RE, economic costs associated to the acquisition purchase
467	and use maintenance of packing materials become a differentiating key factor. Woods
468	are a promising packing material for biofiltration because it is a largely available and
469	cost-effective resource, thus becoming a promising packing material for biofiltration.
470	Moreover, current forest management practices provide huge amounts of low-quality
471	wood, which could be used in the construction of biofilters [45]. While estimated
472	PNWR shows an annual material costs for PNWR were between 10 and 16 € m ⁻³ y ⁻¹ , the
473	PPWR represent a 25% decrease of the lower cost was estimated for the PPWR around
474	25% at the local prices of the present study (Table 1). Considering the energy to blow
475	the air through the packing material in relation to the pressure drop, the use of pine or
476	poplar <u>wood chips</u> represents a difference in the annual total cost of 7.3 % (Table 2).
477	Thus, according to market prices in relation to materials accessibility in the zone of
478	implantation, since -elimination capacities reached were similar for both woods, the use
479	of a kind of wood can be more attractive just for because of economical reasons
480	according to market prices in relation to materials accessibility in the zone of
481	implantationwithout affecting the elimination capacities reached. In this sense, further
482	research is needed to establish materials durability based on long-term studies, which
483	would be useful to perform more accurate suitability and economical studies with both
484	packing materials.

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486 4. CONCLUSIONS

487 The co-treatment of a complex mixture of NH_3 , H_2S , EM and butyric acid was 488 successfully achieved in bio<u>trickling filters</u> packed with poplar and pine wood as 489 an alternative to inorganic materials. Overall, taking all the evaluated properties into

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consideration, poplar and pine wood are support media potentially suitable to keep active the biomass growing on their surface and, subsequently, show a good performance in the abatement of a wide range of compounds. Even thoughDespite of the differences observed in the materials characterization, no significant variations in the REs were observed under biofiltration conditions for the two different kinds of woods. Thus, only economical aspects such as durability and material cost, according to material availability, become relevant to choose the most suitable organic support mediapacking material in the case of wood supports.

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- 507 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS
- **AOB -** Ammonium oxidizing bacteria
- **BET Brunauer Emmett and Teller**
- **DMDS Dimethyldisulfide**
- **EBRT -** Empty bed residence time
- **EC** Elimination capacity
- **EM Ethylmercaptan**
- **FA -** Free ammonia

515	FNA - Free nitrous acid

- **HRT -** Hydraulic residence time
- **LR Loading rate**
- **NOB -** Nitrite oxidizing biomass
- **PNWR Pine wood reactor**
- **PPWR Poplar wood reactor**
- **PVC Polyvinyl chloride**
- **RE Removal efficiency**
- **rp Production rates**
- **VOC Volatile organic compound**
- **VSS volatile suspended solids**
- **WWTP wastewater treatment plant**
- ΔP pressure drop

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Characterization and evaluation of poplar and pine wood in twin biotrickling filters treating a mixture of NH₃, H₂S, butyric acid and ethylmercaptan Jerónimo Hernández¹, Antonio David Dorado², Javier Lafuente¹, Xavier Gamisans², Óscar Jesús Prado³ and David Gabriel¹ ¹ GENOCOV Research Group, Department of Chemical, Biological and Environmental Engineering, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Edifici Q, 08193 Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain. Telephone number: +34 93.581.15.87, Fax number: +34 93.581.20.13 ² Department of Mining Engineering and Natural Resources, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Bases of Manresa 61-73, 08240 Manresa, Spain. ³ Aeris Environmental Technologies, Edifici Eureka s/n, Campus de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, 08193 Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain. Corresponding author e-mail: david.gabriel@uab.cat Abstract Biotrickling filters for waste gas treatment are often packed with expensive, inert packing materials. In this work, poplar and pine wood chips were evaluated as low-cost packing

materials in two biotrickling filters for the simultaneous treatment of a mixture of organic and inorganic volatile compounds. Bioreactors were operated at gas contact times of 22-34 s. Inlet loading rates of 3.5 ± 1.0 gN-NH₃ m⁻³h⁻¹ and 6.5 ± 1.1 gS-H₂S m⁻³h⁻¹ were supplied, while ethylmercaptan (EM) and butyric acid were fed at loads of 3.6 ± 1.2 g m⁻³h⁻¹ and 6.0 ± 2.1 g m⁻³h⁻¹ ¹, respectively. A thorough characterization of both packing materials revealed some differences in the physical-chemical properties, mainly in their water retentivity and buffer capacity. Despite of such differences, both bioreactors performed similarly. Bioreactors were able to achieve complete removal of NH₃ and butyric acid, while H₂S and EM removal efficiencies over 90% and 70%, respectively, were found. N-species analyses in the leachate proved high nitrification rates in both biotrickling filters. Control of pH was essential for maintaining nitrification activity. Other oxidation processes were hardly affected by pH changes. Both woods showed potentially attractive as packing materials for biofiltration. Thus, availability and durability of woods are decisive factors to tip the balance.

Novelty or Significance. The work compares the performance of two biotrickling filters packed with two types of wood chips commonly used in biofilters. No previous works have directly compared the performance of two types of woods in biotrickling filters for the treatment of a range of organic and inorganic odorants because biotrickling filters are commonly packed with inert packing materials. Results indicated that the two types of woods tested behaved similarly and, more interestingly, showed equivalent treatment capacities than that of inert packing materials in the removal of a range of typical pollutants in odorant waste

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38 gases. Research is of particular interest for improving biofiltration knowledge. In addition, this 39 research has large practical implications in the cost-benefit of full-scale biotrickling filtration 40 systems becasue inorganic packing materials commonly used in biotrickling filters are much 41 more expensive than organic packing materials.

Keywords: Biotrickling filters, Organic media; packing characterization; odorants treatment, twin bioreactors

1 INTRODUCTION

The use of bioreactors for gaseous effluents treatment is a widely recognized biotechnology that has been successfully applied during the last decades in a wide range of industries for the abatement of a wide spectrum of pollutants. Among different configurations, biotrickling filters have demonstrated their capabilities to remove odorant pollutants in processes such as the treatment of gaseous emissions from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) or composting processes. However, biotrickling filters use inorganic packing materials such as plastic or ceramic beds because of the presence of a continuously flowing water phase over the packed bed. Such conditions could potentially damage organic packing materials and cause reactor flooding [1]. Regarding organic materials, the use of different types of wood chips has been reported in conventional biofilters, a bioreactor configuration without a continuous water phase flowing over the packing material [2-4]. The main advantages of wood chips as packing material are their low purchasing price, their capacity to act as water reservoir due to a high water holding capacity as well as their capacity to avoid packing material compaction [1]. Specifically, water retentivity and water holding capacity of wood chips, which are favorable in comparison to inorganic packing materials, could be beneficial during unexpected situations such as a liquid phase recirculation failure or during the treatment of extremely dry streams at high temperatures, which could end up in the packing material dry out. However, an organic material can be more rapidly exhausted and biodegraded under high water content conditions, which may hinder its

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> use in biotrickling filters. The number of studies with biotrickling filters packed with 67 wood chips is scarce in literature [5-6]. Chen et al. [7] studied the performance of two 68 wood chips-based biofilters to reduce odor, H_2S and NH_3 from swine barn ventilation air 69 distinguishing two kinds of woods: western cedar and oak wood. However, to the 70 authors' knowledge there is no study indicating if a particular kind of wood is more 71 effective when used in biotrickling filters. However, little attention has been paid to the 72 specific characteristics of different types of woods in relation to biotrickling filters 73 performance in terms of removal efficiency (RE)Less attention has been paid in trying to 74 find evidences of advantages/disadvantages of using pine or poplar wood chips as 75 76 packing materials [8]. The use of poplar and pine wood chips is highly interesting from an economical perspective due to their affordability and low price (45-60 \in m⁻³ and 40-77 50 \in m⁻³, respectively). Thus, it is interesting to study wood chips performance as 78 packing material in-depth since it is an easy-to-get media, landfill disposable and a cost-79 effective material [9]. In this sense, the present work is the first work that compared twin 80 biotrickling filters packed with two different woods by an exhaustive evaluation in terms 81 of media characterization and bioreactors performance for the treatment of a multi-82 component gaseous stream. 83

> Regarding pollutants usually treated in biofilters, NH₃ and H₂S are common volatile 84 inorganic compounds widely studied due to their presence in a range of sites such as 85 composting plants, livestock facilities, fish processing industries or WWTPs among 86 others. NH₃ concentrations up to 120 ppmv and H₂S concentrations in the range of 10-87 60 ppmv are often found in such industries [1]. EM and butyric acid are volatile organic 88 compounds mainly present at low concentrations, which may only lead to a bad odor 89 90 problem. Butyric acid has a sour, sweaty smell and belongs to hydrophilic volatile fatty 91 acids group typically generated when organic matter is decomposed under anaerobic

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conditions [10]. In turn, volatile organic sulfur compounds such as ethylmercaptan (EM) and dimethyldisulfide (DMDS) have lately received intensive attention because of their very low odor threshold, high toxicity, and potential corrosive effect [11]. Specifically, EM is a moderately soluble in water and toxic organic compound with an odor threshold as low as 0.7 μ g L⁻¹ (0.28 ppm_v) [12]. It has been also classified as one of the most annoying compounds in odor emissions [13]. Overall, the complex mixture used herein comprises some of the most typical and most annoying pollutants released in real emissions. It is important to highlight that the oxygen content might not limit microbial biodegradation at the pollutants load typically encountered in these facilities [1].

Based on the promising results obtained in a previous study [9], the present work focused on the evaluation of several properties of poplar and pine wood susceptible to affect the biofiltration process. In addition, this work focused on the comparison of the behavior of both materials under identical conditions in a biotrickling filter configuration treating a mixture of H_2S , NH_3 , EM and butyric acid during a period of more than three months.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Experimental setup and operating conditions of the bioreactors

The experimental setup consisted of two parallel PVC biotrickling filters with a height of 70 cm and an internal diameter of 8.6 cm. Reactors were packed with poplar and pine wood chips, respectively, up to a height of 50 cm, resulting in a packed bed volume of 2.9 L per biofilter. The polluted air was supplied in up-flow mode. Inlet H₂S and NH₃ concentrations were provided from pure gas cylinders and mixed with fresh air using digital mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst, The Netherlands). EM was fed by means of a double-head peristaltic pump (Mod. 403 U/VM2, Watson Marlow, England) that

pumped air into glass bubblers containing liquid EM (97% purity, Sigma Aldrich,
United States). Pure butyric acid was fed by means of a microburette Multiburette 2S
(Crison Inst. S.A., Spain). The liquid level in both bioreactors was kept constant by
means of two peristaltic pumps (Mod. 302 S, Watson Marlow, England) controlled by a
home-made LabWindowsTM application. Detailed characteristics of the biofiltration
setup can be found elsewhere [6].

Inoculation at ambient temperature (18 - 23°C) was carried out during 48 hours in both reactors by continuous recirculation of an activated sludge mixture at an initial concentration of 1.5 g VSS L^{-1} containing i) enriched ammonium-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) withdrawn from a pilot plant where partial nitrification was taking place and ii) aerobic sludge from a urban WWTP (Manresa, Spain). Use of aerobic sludge from WWTPs for inoculation is widely accepted since a wide spectrum of microorganisms is encountered [14-15]. A more detailed description of packing materials characteristics as well as the inoculation procedure of the reactors is provided in the Supplementary Material section S1. Several samples were extracted along the experimental period in order to identify sulfur-oxidizing and nitrifying bacteria. However, the organic nature of wood chips made difficult to obtain DNA from biofilm samples to produce reliable results. Thus, characterization of microbial communities in the biotrickling filters was not possible. Either way, an in-depth microbial characterization of biotrickling filters was not the scope of this work.

Inlet concentrations of $48.5 \pm 9.4 \text{ ppm}_v$ of NH_3 , $40.2 \pm 3.1 \text{ ppm}_v$ of H_2S , $11.7 \pm 3.8 \text{ ppm}_v$ of EM and $13.3 \pm 3.4 \text{ ppm}_v$ of butyric acid were kept constant throughout the experimental period, corresponding to loads of $3.5 \pm 1.0 \text{ g N-NH}_3 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, $6.5 \pm 1.1 \text{ g S-}$ $H_2\text{S} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, $3.6 \pm 1.2 \text{ g EM} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ and $6.0 \pm 2.1 \text{ g}$ butyric acid $\text{m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively. Those are typical concentrations susceptible to be found at industrial facilities such as

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composting, food processing or WWTPs among others [1-2, 16]. During the experimental period, a constant gas flow rate of 310 L h⁻¹ was fed to each biofilter, corresponding to an initial empty bed residence time (EBRT) of 34 s. However, this initial value was significantly reduced in the poplar wood reactor (PPWR) due to operational failures. Bioreactors were operated at a room temperature of $22 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C and the recirculation flow rate was set at 130 mL min⁻¹. The liquid phase was continuously renewed by the automated supply of tap water. Make-up water flow rate varied between 600 and 2520 mL day⁻¹, corresponding to a hydraulic residence time (HRT) between 1.00 and 0.24 day. Thus, the Gas/Liquid ratio defined as the inlet gas flow rate divided by of the fresh liquid renewal varied from 12400/1 to 2953/1. The pH control was set from day 28 onwards by means of the permanent addition of NaOH (0.02 g L^{-1}) in the make-up water flow.

2.2 Analytical methods

H₂S concentration was measured using an electrochemical H₂S sensor (Sure-cell, Euro-Gas Management Services LTD, England) with a detection limit of 1 ppm_y . NH₃ concentration was determined after bubbling the gas stream in acidified water and passed through an ammonium flow analyzer later on [17] with a detection limit of 5 mg N-NH4⁺ L⁻¹. A calibrated Gas Chromatograph (6890N, Agilent Tech. S.A., Spain) was used for EM and butyric acid determination with a detection limit of 2 ppm_v for both compounds. Chloride, N-ammonium, N-nitrite, N-nitrate, S-sulfate and P-phosphate ions concentration in leachate samples were determined in an ICS-1000 Ion Chromatograph (Dionex Corp., United States) equipped with an IonPac AS9-HC column with a detection limit of 5 mg L^{-1} for all species. Leachate pH and conductivity were measured by means of a pH 28 sensor and a MicroCM 2100 sensor (Crison Instr.

S.A., Spain), respectively. According to the specifications of the instrumentation employed in this work, the following standard deviations were considered: 10% for EM and butyric acid RE, 1.5% for H₂S RE, 1-2% for species measured by ionic chromatography and 1% for the continuous flow analyzer. Regarding packing materials characterization, methods employed to evaluate materials properties are described elsewhere [18]. Finally, sulfur oxidation in bioreactors was verified through S-SO42-production rates, which were calculated through mass balances as detailed in the Supplementary Material section S2.

3 RESULTS

177 Packing materials characterization

The suitability of poplar and pine wood as packing material for biofiltration was evaluated by means of different physical-chemical parameters commonly studied in biofiltration (Tables 1 and 2). Among the natural carriers used in biofiltration, woods are the most extensively used together with compost, peat and soil [19]. However, the comparison of the behavior of different woods in biotrickling filters is still unexplored. Elementary analyses were performed to identify the capacity of each packing material to potentially provide macronutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorous necessary for biomass growth. Both materials presented a similar nutrient content: 46-49% C, 0.3% N, less than 0.1% S and 0.05% P. Concerning the specific surface area, which was measured by the BET technique (Table 1), wood-based materials showed a slightly lower specific surface area (below 1.3 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) compared to compost and coconut fiber. A much lower specific surface area was found compared to porous materials such as carbons (up to 950 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$).

191 The pH of packing materials was slightly acid (pH ≈ 6.7 for pine wood chips) while

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their buffer capacity was between 35 and 50 mL SO₄²⁻ L⁻¹ (Table 1). Sorption capacities were determined for both dry and wet materials to obtain information about the interactions nature between the contaminant, the packing materials and the aqueous phase. Poplar wood adsorption capacities of 0.05 and 0.06 mg toluene g⁻¹ packing material were achieved under dry and wet conditions, respectively, according to the procedure detailed in Dorado et al. [17]. Pine wood showed a 30% decrease in its adsorption capacity (from 0.06 to 0.04 mg toluene g⁻¹ packing material) under wet conditions, which are the normal operating conditions in biofilters. Larger reductions in the adsorption capacity under wet conditions have been reported in other packing materials [20]. In the materials presented herein, a lower water holding capacity and a similar porosity of both materials (0.88) could explain a minor reduction of such adsorption capacity. Moreover, the water retentivity measured, expressed as the water percentage lost per hour, revealed that both materials retain water efficiently. In any case, the maximum sorption capacity of the materials was less than 0.10 mg toluene g^{-1} material. The water holding capacity and water retentivity are related to packing materials structure. Despite the fact that water molecules can be more or less time retained in the material, all packing materials lose most of their water content after a certain period of time without the supply of extra water. For instance, when dealing with a dry moisture stream, it would be interesting to operate with materials with a large water retentivity to avoid packing material desiccation and allow microorganisms maintaining their activity. In the case of wood chips as unique packing material, several studies employing conventional biofilters achieved the highest reduction efficiencies for odor concentration and NH₃ removal when keeping the filter media moisture content over 60% (wet basis) [7,21]. Thus, both parameters were considered key factors to take into account when choosing the most suitable packing material for a specific scenario.

Regarding pressure drop through the packed bed (ΔP), intrinsic ΔP for dry packing materials was below 1 cm water column per meter of packing material height in both cases (Table 2). Results agreed with typical ΔP ranges for packing materials [20]. Interestingly, ΔP slightly increased with the presence of water inside the packing material even if this influence was more remarkable at higher superficial velocities (data not shown). In the case of poplar wood, the ΔP was twice that obtained for pine wood, which indicated a higher resistance to air flow due to the superficial rugosity of the material. Both materials were evaluated under the same water content. ΔP increased between 5 and 30% compared with that under dry conditions, which did not have a significant impact in terms of energy consumption costs as shown in Table 2. Besides punctual episodes, ΔP in both reactors never exceeded 7 cm of water column per meter of packing material height (figure S1 in Supplementary Material) during the entire operational period. The electricity consumption was calculated by means of a previously reported empirical expression $P(kW) = 3.64 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot O(m^3 h^{-1})$ [22] considering a kilowatt-hour cost of 0.08 € kWh⁻¹. The increase in the electrical consumption due to the ΔP was estimated according to a mechanical energy balance: $P(W) = \Delta P (N m^{-2}) \cdot Q$ $(m^3 s^{-1})$ where P is the consumption power, ΔP is the pressure drop and Q is the flowrate circulating through the packing material.

Regarding energy costs associated to blow the air through the packing material, a difference of 2.5% between materials was found (Table 1 and 2). Therefore, the main difference between packing materials laid in their purchase cost and durability. The purchase cost, which is directly related with the availability of each wood, had a significant impact in the overall costs not only because of the large volumes usually required for biofilter construction but also because of packing materials replacement due to their limited durability. Table 1 shows the purchase price of both packing

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materials according to prices of year 2014, Spanish market. The durability was
estimated according to previous experiences of suppliers (Melcourt, UK).

245 Sulfur compounds removal

Regarding H₂S removal, both bioreactors maintained analogous trends. Initial REs around 50% were measured, which increased gradually up to REs above 85% on day 13 and remained that high the rest of the study (Figure 1a and b). Both reactors were able to biodegrade H_2S to SO_4^{2-} from the beginning of the experimental period (Figure 2). Since unexpected situations are likely to occur during real operation, some malfunctioning episodes were used to evaluate the resilience capacity of wood chip-based biotrickling filters. Thus, EM RE varied significantly during the fluidization of the packing material due to a flooding episode, denoting a low capacity to face such unexpected failure.

Both bioreactors startup took around 20 days until achieving REs above 85% (Figure 1c and d). Nevertheless, after reinoculation of both reactors on day 34 to reactivate the nitrification process, EM REs were lower than before reinoculation. Two weeks before reinoculation, EM REs of $94 \pm 5\%$ and $88 \pm 8\%$ were measured for PPWR and pine wood reactor (PNWR), respectively. After day 34, average REs decreased down to $75 \pm$ 13% and 83 \pm 16% for PPWR and PNWR, respectively. It is likely that flooding episodes in PPWR on days 37 and 58 negatively affected the EM elimination, leading to such significant differences in EM REs in comparison with PNWR.

Both the startup period and unexpected operational changes lead to a significant dispersion of results. Despite of such variability, a similar trend was found in terms of EC of sulfur compounds (figure S2 in Supplementary Material). Both reactors performed similarly showing that the maximum EC was not reached for H_2S removal. However, from day 13 onwards, a pseudo-stationary period was achieved and RE values

of 96 \pm 4% and 97% \pm 2 were measured for PPWR and PNWR, respectively, corresponding to maximum EC values of 6.5 \pm 0.9 and 5.6 \pm 0.6 g m⁻³ h⁻¹. A plateau in the EC vs LR profile (figure S2b and S2d) was found at around 2 g EM m⁻³ h⁻¹, particularly in the case of the PPWR reactor.

Moreover, oxidation of reduced sulfur compounds was verified by assessing the $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production rates $(S-SO_4^{2-}r_p)$ along the time course of the experimental period (Figure 3) as well as a function of the total S load (figure S3a and S3b in Supplementary Material). The S-SO₄²⁻ r_p increased 30% between days 9 and 18 of operation. During the startup of both bioreactors $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$ progressively increased until day 24 up to 6.5 g $S-SO_4^{2-}m^{-3}h^{-1}$ ¹. Besides punctual episodes, no significant impact of pH was observed on $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$, even in the case of a pH drop to pH 5 during startup (days 14 to 18). On the contrary, S- $SO_4^{2-}r_p$ was clearly affected in PPWR on days 37 and 58 due to a flooding/fluidization episode (arrow A in figure 2). Finally, it is important to mention that the $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$ drop observed in both reactors on day 64 was due to an experiment performed to evaluate the effect of an EM feeding interruption (arrow B in figure 2). Consequently, the expected $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$ drops of around 13 and 42% in PPWR and PNWR, respectively, were caused by a decrease in the $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production.

It is worth mentioning that the $S-SO_4^{2-}r_p$ in both reactors were lower than the total S loaded as H₂S and EM (figures S3a and S3b in Supplementary Material), indicating that

- a fraction of the S was not recovered and that was probably converted to other S species
- such as elemental sulfur or thiosulfate. The impact of such S unbalance was more
- noticeable in the case of the PPWR reactor in which the percentage of $S-SO_4^{2-1}$
- recovered was around 75-80%.
- 290 Ammonia removal

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No significant differences were observed between reactors in terms of NH₃ RE, which remained close to 100% all over the experimental period because of the large solubility of NH₃. However, N-species concentration in PPWR showed no evidences of nitrifying activity during the first month of operation, while slight nitrification was noticed in PNWR. Simultaneously, during the first two operational weeks, a pH decrease from neutral to pH below 5 occurred in both reactors. On days 13 and 18, the HRT was reduced from 1 day to 5.7 hours (indicated in Figure 3a and 3b with arrows). Moreover, from day 28 on, pH was controlled at 7 by the permanent addition of a NaOH 0.02 g L^{-1} solution to the make-up water line (indicated in both figures with an arrow). Even though neutral pH was reestablished, nitrifying activity remained almost negligible. Hence, both reactors were reinoculated on day 34 to reactivate nitrification. Then, a gradual increase on NO_3^- production was observed while NH_4^+ concentration progressively decreased. In less than 15 days, both bioreactors were capable to oxidize almost all the NH₃ supplied to N-NO₃ (Figure 3a and 3b). The rest of the experimental period almost full NH₃ conversion to nitrate was achieved, besides punctual days that operational failures occurred resulting in slight accumulations of NH4⁺ in the liquid phase (e.g. on day 46, PNWR suffered a partial flooding of the upper part of the bioreactor due to a pump pipe blockage). Besides punctual failure episodes suffered on days 59 and 80, a very similar behavior was observed in the PPWR (Figure 3a). Nitrogen mass balances were assessed for both reactors (figure S4 in Supplementary Material) showing that deviations in the N recovery oscillated between 20 and 55% in both reactors, with a larger dispersion in the case of the PPWR.

315 Butyric acid removal

Butyric acid was removed almost completely after the startup of both bioreactors. As discussed in the next section, the high solubility of this pollutant allowed achieving complete elimination during the whole experimental period.

DISCUSSION

Regarding NH₃ removal, the nitrification capacity in both bioreactors remained almost negligible during the startup phase, which was attributed to the progressive acidification of the liquid phase due to SO_4^{2-} production, which led to pH values below 5 after 12 days of operation in both bioreactors. Characterization of packing materials showed a slightly acidic leachate, which was consistent with Lou and Lindsey [23] who reported a pH between 4.5-5 for pine wood. Slightly acid pH of woods can be related with resin acids content [24]. Often, buffering capacities of packing materials are not enough to compensate the production of acidic by-products from microbial oxidation in the biofiltration of waste gases containing significant loads of pollutants such as H_2S or VOCs. In this sense, several studies have proved that the acidification of the liquid phase can negatively affect the nitrification process [6, 25-27]. Park et al. [26] proved that the maximal nitrification rate was reduced to a half working at pH above 6.5. Jiang et al. [28] observed that the N-NH₄⁺ fraction in the leachate (between 50 and 75%) was substantially superior than that of N-NO₂⁻ and N-NO₃⁻ at pH equal or above 6 due to a probable NH₄⁺ elimination by absorption and reaction to (NH₄)₂SO₄. Similarly, Rabbani et al. [29] reached REs over 90% for H₂S and NH₃ in an acidified bioreactor because the H_2S/NH_3 ratio permitted an effective removal of both pollutants by biological oxidation of H₂S to sulfate and a subsequent chemical reaction of ammonium and sulfate to form $(NH_4)_2SO_4$.

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340	Moreover, free ammonia (FA) and/or free nitrous acid (FNA) accumulation can inhibit
341	AOB [30]. During the first two weeks of operation FA and FNA concentrations in
342	PNWR never exceeded 1.3 mg N-FA L^{-1} and $2 \cdot 10^{-5}$ mg N-FNA L^{-1} , respectively.
343	Inhibitions thresholds have been reported by Jubany et al. [31] as 5.8 mg N-FA L^{-1} for
344	AOB, 0.16 mg N-FNA L^{-1} for AOB, 0.78 mg N-FA L^{-1} for NOB and 0.02 mg N-FNA L^{-1}
345	¹ for NOB. Consequently, FA and/or FNA inhibited AOB and NOB, particularly in
346	biofilter sections close to the inlet where loads were higher. However, no significant
347	impact on the overall nitrification process was observed. Nevertheless, in order to
348	decrease the FA concentration and to increase the pH, the HRT was stepwise decreased
349	twice on days 13 and 18 from 24 to 5.7 hours while a permanent addition of a NaOH
350	solution (0.02 g L^{-1}) was performed. These actions permitted a decrease of the N-NH ₄ ⁺
351	concentration from 200 to 55 mg $N-NH_4^+$ L ⁻¹ during the following 14 days of operation,
352	while pH reached neutral values. During the first 10 days of operation, where pH was
353	kept at 6.5-7.0, nitratation rates of 0.04 g N m ⁻³ h ⁻¹ were calculated [32] denoting some
354	nitrifying activity. However, N-NO3 ⁻ production was interrupted right after the pH
355	decay (days 13-20). The efforts to reestablish neutral pH in the bioreactors did not
356	recover the nitrifying activity of PPWR, while the slight evidence of PNWR nitrification
357	capacity was not enough to avoid a restart of both reactors. Hence, both reactors were
358	reinoculated on day 34. Thereafter, N-NO ₃ ⁻ concentration was progressively increased.
359	In approximately 15 days, most of the NH ₃ supplied $(3.5 \pm 1.0 \text{ g N-NH}_3 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1})$ was
360	oxidized to NO3 ⁻ reaching concentrations up to 50 mg N-NO3 ⁻ L ⁻¹ . In general, N-NO3 ⁻
361	production was similar in both reactors. Slight differences in pH observed on day 25
362	onwards were attributed to the lower buffer capacity of PNWR (51 and 35 mL SO_4^{2-} L ⁻¹
363	for poplar and pine wood, respectively), as well as to the presence of resin acids in pine
364	wood [24]. Furthermore, similar nitrogen recoveries around 40% were found in previous

studies [33-35]. These deviations from ideality can be attributed to several facts, mainly biological processes such as denitrification or biomass growth. Moreover, butyric acid presence could favor denitrification. It is important to mention that a nitrogen mass balance carried out during the entire experimental period (figure S4 in Supplementary Material) confirmed that almost all the ammonia supplied was biodegraded to nitrate after 30 days of operation. Thus, NH_3 elimination by mere adsorption onto the packing material was negligible considering the low loads supplied and the fact that the system operated more than 100 days. In addition, the low adsorption capacity of packing materials under wet operating conditions [17] ensured that, in the long-term operation under constant loading rates, bioreactors were in equilibrium after a few days in terms of ad/absorption considering such low adsorption capacities.

In contrast with the nitrification process, sulfide oxidation showed a higher stability. The SO_4^{2-} production increased from the beginning of the experimental period. Concentrations close to 400 mg $S-SO_4^{2-}L^{-1}$ after 14 days of operation were found in both reactors without needing a selective inoculation. This fact confirmed that the presence of sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in an aerobic sludge from a WWTP used as inoculum, which was estimated to be around 1.5% [36], was adequate to biodegrade H₂S to SO_4^{2-} as previously observed by Fortuny et al. [37] in a biotrickling filter treating high H₂S loads. Previous works performing specific inoculation and treating mixtures of H₂S and NH₃ under similar loads required between 5 and 10 days to oxidize most of the H_2S to SO_4^{2-} [38-39]. In the work presented herein, the low specific surface area of both materials $(1.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ was a handicap if compared with porous materials such as activated carbon (950 m² g⁻¹) [40]. It is worth noticing that specific surface areas in Table 1 are referred to the total surface area including micropores, which may be hardly available under normal operating conditions of a biotrickling filter due to biomass

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growth and to the presence of a water layer over the biofilm. Taking into account these
data and considering that no specific inoculation was carried out in this study, the 7-8
days required for sulfide oxidation to occur were considered as a relatively short startup
period.

Figure 2 shows that the $S-SO_4^{2-}$ production rate did not reach the maximal production during the days that the HRT was reduced although both materials showed high capacity to keep suitable wet conditions, thus avoiding dry areas that would lead to poor growth and reduced REs. Although water holding capacities of poplar and pine wood are not significantly different, the water retentivity indicated that poplar wood retains water more effectively, which beneficiate wet conditions inside the packing material for microorganisms maintenance (the drying rate was half of that for pine wood). However, although this is interesting in terms of water preservation in poorly watered biofilters it can be detrimental for adsorption and absorption of more hydrophobic pollutants such as ethylmercaptan. It is likely that the latter was the factor that affected biofilters performance during flooding episodes.

Furthermore, S-SO₄²⁻ production in both bioreactors was stabilized with the HRT set at 5.7 hours and the pH controlled in the range 5.9 - 7.7. In this sense, Jiang et al. [28] studied the pH effect on sulfur oxidation stability in a range of 4 to 8.5 showing that over 90% of the final product was SO_4^{2-} under all the pHs studied. It is important to highlight that sulfur oxidizing species able to develop at pHs from 1 (i.e. *Acidithiobacillus caldus* bacteria) to 10 (i.e. *Thioalcalivibrio* spp.) have been reported in literature [41], proving the robustness of this process.

Regarding EM elimination, REs over 85% were reached after day 20 of operation, while butyric acid was almost completely removed from the beginning of the experimental period. Probably, a 5-fold difference in their Henry constant (H_{EM} : 1.6·10⁻¹ g aq⁻¹

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415	(gas/aqueous) and $H_{Butyric acid}$: 8.7·10 ⁻⁶ g aq ⁻¹ [9, 42]) favored butyric acid absorption in
416	the liquid phase. Total organic carbon measurements were carried out to quantify the
417	amount of butyric acid removed by mere absorption in the liquid phase or by biological
418	activity. However, measurements were not reliable since the detachment of the organic
419	media disguised the results. It is important to highlight that the EM removal robustness
420	is directly related to the first degradation step in which the C-S bond is broken and
421	metabolized by heterotrophic biomass. After that, the degradation pathway is the same
422	than that corresponding to the H ₂ S oxidation [43]. Moreover, the acidification of both
423	bioreactors during the startup phase had surely a negative effect on EM absorption,
424	which is favored under alkaline conditions [44]. However, such an effect was not
425	observed in the present study. Arellano-García et al. [44] observed that EM solubility
426	was enhanced by around 80% by increasing the pH from 7.0 to 10.0. They considered
427	that the EC of their system was limited by the low oxidation activities of their
428	alkaliphilic microbial culture and that a pH control system was a must in order to set the
429	most suitable pH to favor the elimination of the pollutants to be treated. Furthermore,
430	EBRT studies (data not shown) suggested that the main responsible for the incomplete
431	EM elimination was a mass transfer limitation, since pollutants such as mercaptans
432	require large EBRTs [12].

In both bioreactors no nutrients were added to the make-up water solution, since it is 433 widely accepted that most of natural organic media have enough nitrogen and 434 phosphorous content for developing a process culture [1]. Similarly, the organic matter 435 436 content detected (around 95% by weight) constituted an alternative substrate source for biofilter microorganisms which could be used during starvation periods such as process 437 shut-downs, process rotation or intermittent loads [17]. 438

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Since physical-chemical properties of both woods do not underscore a significant different behavior in terms of RE, costs associated to the purchase and maintenance of packing materials become a key factor. Woods a largely available and cost-effective resource, thus becoming a promising packing material for biofiltration. Moreover, current forest management practices provide huge amounts of low-quality wood, which could be used in the construction of biofilters [45]. While estimated annual material costs for PNWR were between 10 and 16 \in m⁻³ y⁻¹ represent a 25% lower cost was estimated for the PPWR at the local prices of the present study (Table 1). Considering the energy to blow the air through the packing material in relation to the pressure drop, the use of pine or poplar wood chips represents a difference in the annual total cost of 7.3 % (Table 2). Thus, since elimination capacities reached were similar for both woods, the use of a kind of wood can be more attractive just because of economical reasons according to market prices in relation to materials accessibility in the zone of implantation. In this sense, further research is needed to establish materials durability based on long-term studies, which would be useful to perform accurate suitability and economical studies with both packing materials.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The co-treatment of a complex mixture of NH₃, H₂S, EM and butyric acid was successfully achieved in biotrickling filters packed with poplar and pine wood as an alternative to inorganic materials. Overall, taking all the evaluated properties into consideration, poplar and pine wood are support media potentially suitable to keep active biomass growing on their surface and, subsequently, show a good performance in the abatement of a wide range of compounds. Despite of the differences observed in the materials characterization, no significant variations in the REs were observed under

biofiltration conditions for the two different woods. Thus, only economical aspects such

as durability and material cost, according to material availability, become relevant to

choose the most suitable organic packing material in the case of wood supports.

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474	Catalunya.
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476	LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS
477	AOB - Ammonium oxidizing bacteria
478	BET - Brunauer Emmett and Teller
479	DMDS - Dimethyldisulfide
480	EBRT - Empty bed residence time
481	EC - Elimination capacity
482	EM - Ethylmercaptan
483	FA - Free ammonia
484	FNA - Free nitrous acid
485	HRT - Hydraulic residence time
486	LR - Loading rate
487	NOB - Nitrite oxidizing biomass
488	PNWR - Pine wood reactor

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2 3	489	PPWR - Poplar wood reactor	
4 5 6	490	PVC - Polyvinyl chloride	
0 7 8	491	RE - Removal efficiency	
9 10	492	rp - Production rates	
11 12	493	VOC - Volatile organic compound	
13 14	494	VSS - volatile suspended solids	
15 16	495	WWTP - wastewater treatment plant	
17 18	496	AP - pressure drop	
19 20	490		
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Table 1 Physical properties, estimated prices, durabilities and annual material cost of poplar and pine wood.

-	Parameter	Poplar wood	Pine wood
-	Water-holding capacity (g g ⁻¹)	1.16	1.35
	Water retentivity (% h ⁻¹)	- 0.67	-1.52
	Surface area (m^2g^{-1})	1.21	0.99
	рН	7.2	6.7
	Buffer capacity (mL $SO_4^{2-} l^{-1}$)	51	35
	Material cost (€ m ⁻³)	45-60	40-50
	Estimated durability (years)	5	3-4
	Annual material cost $(\mathcal{E} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ y}^{-1})$	9-12	10-16

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Figure 1

254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)







Figure 2 158x126mm (300 x 300 DPI)

