

1 Biotrickling filtration of isopropanol under intermittent loading conditions

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7 Abstract

8 This paper investigates the removal of isopropanol by gas phase biotrickling filtration. Two plastic
9 packing materials, one structured and one random, have been evaluated in terms of oxygen mass transfer
10 and isopropanol removal efficiency (RE). Oxygen mass transfer experiments were performed at gas
11 velocities of 104 and 312 m h⁻¹ and liquid velocities between 3 and 33 m h⁻¹. Both materials showed
12 similar mass transfer coefficients up to liquid velocities of 15 m h⁻¹. At greater liquid velocities, the
13 structured packing exhibited greater oxygen mass transfer coefficients. Biotrickling filtration experiments
14 were carried out at inlet loads (IL) from 20 to 65 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ and empty bed residence times (EBRT) from
15 14 to 160 s. To simulate typical industrial emissions, intermittent isopropanol loading (16 h/day, 5
16 day/week) and intermittent spraying frequency (15 min/1.5 hours) were applied. Maximum elimination
17 capacity (EC) of 51 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ has been obtained for the random packing (IL of 65 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹, EBRT of
18 50 s). The decrease in irrigation frequency to 15 min every 3 hours caused a decrease in the outlet
19 emissions from 86 to 59 mg C Nm⁻³ (inlet of 500 mg C Nm⁻³). The expansion of spraying to night and
20 weekend periods promoted the degradation of the isopropanol accumulated in the water tank during the
21 day, reaching effluent concentrations as low as 44 mg C Nm⁻³. After a 7 week starvation period, the
22 performance was recovered in less than 10 days, proving the robustness of the process.

23 Keywords

24 biotrickling filter, intermittent loading, isopropanol, oxygen mass transfer, volatile organic compounds

25 Introduction

26 Isopropanol is one of the main solvents used in chemical industries, and its manufacture worldwide
27 exceeds 1x10⁶ tonnes per year. This results in a significant production of solvent organic wastes,
28 including emissions to the atmosphere as volatile organic compounds (VOC). Since the abatement of

29 VOC is a factor in the protection of the environment and of public health in Europe [1], treatment
30 technologies for VOC removal are required. When emissions are characterised by high flow rates and low
31 VOC concentrations, biotreatments are suitable alternatives to conventional physicochemical
32 technologies, and have been classified as best available technologies (BAT) [2] owing to their low
33 operational costs and the minimisation of negative cross-media effects [3]. Compared to a conventional
34 biofilter, a biotrickling filter (BTF) allows better control of the physicochemical parameters, offers a
35 smaller footprint and higher removal rates. The BTF uses an inert packing material and involves the
36 continuous or intermittent trickling of water. In this configuration, the biomass attaches to the media and
37 develops a biofilm, thus the pollutant and the oxygen must be transferred from the gas phase to the
38 trickling liquid and then to the biofilm, where the biodegradation takes place.

39

40 To enhance the performance of the BTF it is necessary to understand the rate limiting steps of the process.
41 One of the most important limiting factors may be the mass transfer from gas to liquid and biofilm [4–6].
42 However, correlations commonly used for absorption in chemical processes do not correctly represent the
43 phenomenon occurring in BTFs due to the different hydrodynamic conditions of chemical absorption.
44 Absorption is marked by higher superficial velocities of the gas and liquid in comparison with BTF [7].
45 Treatment of hydrophilic compounds such as isopropanol, characterised by low Henry`s constants, could
46 typically be limited by oxygen transference. Consequently, oxygen mass transfer should be systematically
47 studied in these cases [7].

48

49 Despite being widely used in industrial and chemical processes, there are no previous studies on the
50 removal of isopropanol by biotrickling filtration. Literature data about the removal of isopropanol by
51 biofilters is also scarce compared with other solvents [8, 9]. These works have been performed under
52 continuous and constant loading; the removal of isopropanol under oscillating and/or discontinuous
53 emissions has not been previously reported. Most gaseous emissions from industrial processes are
54 intermittently generated due to short-time shut off periods during the night and/or weekends. In fact,
55 previous studies show that the operation of biofiltration under discontinuous VOC feeding regime can
56 produce a degeneration of the system`s performance, although the literature in this field is still limited.
57 Cox and Deshusses [10] reported that non-use periods cause a starvation condition on the
58 microorganisms, which has been identified as one of factors that causes a reduction in pollutant removal.

59 These researchers observed that after 2 days of starvation, the endogenous respiration activity dropped by
60 about 60 % and remained relatively constant thereafter.

61

62 The influence of long term starvation periods, without VOC feeding, also requires further study to
63 advance the applicability of this technology. In our previous work, the reacclimation period, after 3 weeks
64 without VOC feeding, was lower than 24 hours working at 60 s of EBRT in a BTF treating a mixture of
65 ethanol, ethyl acetate and methyl-ethyl ketone (MEK), and operating under discontinuous loading [11].

66

67 The purpose of the present research was to investigate the removal of isopropanol using a BTF, taking
68 into consideration the following objectives: (1) to determine the oxygen mass transfer coefficient of a
69 structured and a random packing material, establishing a relationship between the mass transfer
70 coefficient, the trickling flow rate and the specific surface area; (2) to compare the performance of the
71 process, in terms of EC and RE, under isopropanol discontinuous loading conditions at several EBRT by
72 using two BTFs operating in parallel, one filled with the structured and the other with the random
73 material; (3) to evaluate the influence of spraying frequency on the RE, and (4) to evaluate the response
74 of the BTFs to a long term starvation period representative of a holiday closure at an industrial site.

75 **Materials and methods**

76 Experimental set-up for the determination of oxygen mass transfer

77 The system consisted of a column of methacrylate (14.4 cm internal diameter, 80 cm height) and a
78 recirculation tank (10 L of water volume). The schematic of the experimental set-up is shown in Fig. 1.

79 The column was filled with two inert packing materials: a novel plastic cross-flow structured packing
80 material (Odourpack, Pure Air Solution, The Netherlands) with $410 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$ of specific surface area, and a
81 random packing material (Refill-Tech, Italy) consisting of polypropylene rings with a nominal diameter
82 of 5/8" and a specific surface area of $348 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$. The packing height was 20 cm for the structured packing
83 and 40 cm for the rings. The air stream (compressed, filtered and dried) was introduced through the
84 bottom of the columns, with the flow rate adjusted using a mass flow controller (Bronkhorst Hi-Tec, The
85 Netherlands). The experiments were carried out at two air superficial velocities of 104 m h^{-1} and 312 m h^{-1} .
86 The trickling water was recirculated using a centrifugal pump (HPR10/15, ITT, Great Britain) in

87 counter current mode with respect to the air flow rate, with a superficial velocity of the water between 3
 88 and 33 m h⁻¹. The equipment is completed with a dissolved oxygen probe (Cellox® 325i, WTW,
 89 Germany). An internal pump installed in the recirculation tank ensured the ideal mixing condition. The
 90 experiments were carried out at room temperature (21.2 ± 0.7 °C).

91

92 For the determination of $k_L a$ a dynamic method under inert conditions was used. The method consists of
 93 measuring the increase of the oxygen concentration with time in a tank in which the oxygen has been
 94 previously displaced by bubbling nitrogen gas. The experiment starts when the air blower and the
 95 recirculation pump are switched on; oxygen is transferred from the air to the water in the packed column
 96 causing an increase in the dissolved oxygen concentration in the recirculation tank. Under these
 97 conditions, oxygen mass balances are as follows:

98 - In the packed column:

$$99 \quad C_{out} = C^* - \frac{C^* - C}{\exp\left(\frac{L}{v} k_L a\right)}$$

100 (1)

101 where C_{out} is the predicted dissolved oxygen concentration at the bottom of the column, C is the predicted
 102 dissolved oxygen concentration in the recirculation tank, C^* is the oxygen solubility and L and v are the
 103 height of the column and the velocity of the trickling water, respectively.

104 - In the tank:

$$105 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{1}{\theta} (C_{out} - C) \quad (2)$$

106 where θ is the residence time in the tank.

107 The combination of Eqs (1) and (2) permits to obtain the variation of the predicted oxygen concentration
 108 with time:

$$109 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{1}{\theta} \left(C^* - \left(\frac{C^* - C}{\exp\left(\frac{L}{v} k_L a\right)} - C \right) \right) \quad (3)$$

110 Due to the dynamics of the probe is not fast enough, it is necessary to take into account the response time
111 constant of the probe, τ , defined as time that the probe achieves 63 % of the end value measured when the
112 probe is subjected to a step input assay [12]. The response time of the probe was determined by
113 transferring the oxygen probe from an ideal mixed tank in which the dissolved oxygen concentration was
114 displaced by bubbling nitrogen gas to a second tank which is saturated with dissolved oxygen. It was
115 assumed a first order dynamic according to Eq. (4) [13].

$$116 \quad \frac{dC_m}{dt} = \frac{(C - C_m)}{\tau} \quad (4)$$

117 where C_m is the measured dissolved oxygen concentration in the recirculation tank by the oxygen probe.

118 The value of $k_L a$ of the packed column was calculated by minimising the sum of squares of the difference
119 between the measured data recorded for dissolved oxygen concentration in the recirculation tank and the
120 value obtained from the mathematical resolution of Eqs. (3) and (4).

121 Experimental set-up for the removal of isopropanol

122 The experiment was performed using two identical laboratory-scale BTFs operating in parallel, named
123 BTF1 and BTF2. The experimental set-up is shown in Fig. 2. Each bioreactor was composed of three
124 cylindrical methacrylate modules in series, with a total bed length of 100 cm and an internal diameter of
125 14.4 cm. BTF1 was filled with the structured material and BTF2 with the random packing, in each using a
126 volume of 16.32 L. The bioreactors were also provided with 20 cm of top and bottom free spaces. The
127 stream contaminated with isopropanol was introduced through the bottom of the column of the BTFs. A
128 recirculation solution of 3 L, partially renewed every week, was fed into the bioreactor in counter-current
129 mode with respect to the air flow using a centrifugal pump at 2.5-3 L min⁻¹. A nutrient solution buffered
130 at pH 7 (21.65 g KNO₃ L⁻¹, 4.6 g Na₃PO₄·12H₂O L⁻¹ and Ca, Fe, Zn, Co, Mn, Na, Ni, B, I, Se, Cr, Cu and
131 vitamins at trace doses) was supplied to the recirculation tank using a peristaltic pump. The nutrient
132 solution flow rate was set to maintain a supplied mass ratio of carbon and nitrogen (C/N) of 35, in order
133 to assure that the nitrogen concentration in the recirculation solution was not limiting the biodegradation
134 process. C/N mass ratios between 13 and 70 are suggested in the literature for the operation of bioreactors
135 [14].

136 Influence of IL and EBRT on the removal of isopropanol

137 The operation of the bioreactors to determine the influence of IL and EBRT on the removal of
138 isopropanol was structured in three phases (A, B, C) of a 2-fold step decrease in inlet concentration, phase
139 A started with $1000 \text{ mg C Nm}^{-3}$. For each phase, several 1.8-fold IL step increases were carried out,
140 resulting in EBRTs from 15 to 160 s. The design parameters of the experiments are summarised in Table
141 1. Intermittent feeding of VOC was programmed to simulate shift working conditions, which consisted in
142 a regime of a period with VOC feeding of 16 hours per day (from 6:00 to 22:00 h) for 5 days at week, and
143 night and weekend periods without VOC supply. The air flow rate was kept constant during both periods.
144 Trickling water of 15 minutes every 1.5 hours was set during the VOC feeding period. During non-VOC
145 feeding periods, the trickling water was stopped.

146 Influence of spraying frequency on the removal of isopropanol

147 The influence of the spraying frequency on the global performance of the system was evaluated by testing
148 several patterns at an IL of $30 \text{ g C m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ and EBRT of 60 s on the random packing material. Three
149 frequency regimes were tested. Two of them were only applied during VOC feeding (16 hours per day, 5
150 days per week) with trickling water frequencies of 15 minutes every 1.5 hours or 15 minutes every 3
151 hours, spraying was stopped during the night and weekend periods. The expansion of spraying to the non-
152 VOC feeding periods was tested by trickling 15 minutes every 3 hours over the whole day (24 hours per
153 day, 7 days per week).

154 Influence of long-term starvation on the removal of isopropanol

155 The influence of a long period without VOC feeding on the performance of the BTF was evaluated by
156 stopping the supply of isopropanol for a period of 7 weeks. During this time, the air flow rate was
157 maintained at an EBRT of 60 s, and the water trickling was set to 15 minutes per day, to provide the
158 minimum amount of nutrients and moisture that assures biomass viability. After that, the supply of
159 isopropanol was restored using the same discontinuous VOC feeding mode (16 hours per day, 5 days per
160 week) that was applied before the VOC interruption; IL of $35 \text{ g C m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, EBRT of 60 s and a trickling
161 water frequency of 15 minutes every 4 hours was set.

162 Analytical methods

163 The oxygen concentration in the liquid was determined using a dissolved oxygen probe (Cellox® 325i,
164 WTW, Germany). The concentration of isopropanol was measured using a total hydrocarbon analyzer
165 (Nira Mercury 901, Spirax Sarco, Spain). The response factor of the total hydrocarbon analyzer was
166 determined by gas chromatograph (model 7890, Agilent Technologies, EEUU). The CO₂ concentration
167 was analysed using a nondispersive infrared carbon dioxide analyzer (GMP222, Vaisala, Finland). The
168 inlet and outlet gas streams were monitored daily. The pressure drop was monitored daily (MP101, KIMO
169 Instruments, Spain). To determine the quality of the recirculation solution, conductivity and pH (ph/Cond
170 340i, WTW, Germany), soluble chemical oxygen demand (COD), nitrate and suspended solids (SS)
171 concentrations were measured prior to the weekly purge. Soluble COD and nitrate concentrations were
172 measured using Merck Spectroquant kits (Merck KGaA, Germany): 114540 (COD) and 114773 (nitrate).
173 The SS concentrations were determined according to the Standard Methods for Examination of Water and
174 Wastewater [15].

175 **Results and discussion**

176 Determination of oxygen mass transfer coefficients

177 The determination of oxygen mass transfer coefficients was carried out for the two packing materials at
178 several liquid velocities. The k_La coefficients were obtained using the least squares method in order to
179 minimise the differences between the experimental data and the concentration of oxygen provided by the
180 simple mathematical model established by Eqs. (3) and (4). The response time of the probe (τ) was
181 determined earlier by means of a step input assay, resulting in a value of 19.4 ± 1.5 s. The effect of liquid
182 velocity on mass transfer is shown in Fig. 3. The two packing materials presented a relationship between
183 the liquid flow rate and the k_La values for a gas velocity of 104 m h^{-1} with similar values up to 15 m h^{-1} .
184 For liquid velocities higher than this value, the structured material showed greater values of k_La . That
185 difference cannot be explained by the slightly higher specific surface area of this material alone, it could
186 be attributed to the different air and water flow paths in both materials. Selecting a liquid velocity of 10 m
187 h^{-1} as representative of the operation of the BTFs in this study, a k_La approximately of 45 h^{-1} was obtained
188 for both packing materials, without differences between them. The values obtained herein are of the same
189 order of magnitude as those found by Kim and Deshusses [7] in previous papers. These authors reported a
190 value of about 25 h^{-1} for liquid velocities around 10 m h^{-1} using 1" Pall rings ($210 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$). These authors

191 showed that Onda's correlation overestimated the k_La values on biotrickling filtration by a factor of about
192 20 [16], indicating the need for determining oxygen mass transfer in the typical range of velocities of
193 biotreatments.

194

195 The influence of gas velocity on the oxygen mass transfer coefficients has been determined with an
196 additional test conducted at a gas velocity of 312 m h^{-1} . As an example, the results obtained for the
197 structured packing material are shown in Fig. 4. As can be expected, these experiments demonstrate that
198 k_La values were not significantly affected by gas velocities in the typical values of operation of BTFs.

199 Influence of inlet load and EBRT on the removal of isopropanol

200 The influence of inlet load on the removal of isopropanol in terms of EC and RE was evaluated. To
201 simulate the emissions of industrial facilities, an intermittent VOC loading regime and a discontinuous
202 trickling pattern was used. As an example, 24 hours of a typically daily evolution of VOC concentration
203 in the outlet gas stream of the BTF2 is shown in Fig. 5. This figure represents the outlet emission pattern
204 for two different stages where inlet concentrations of $1000 \text{ mg C Nm}^{-3}$ (IL of $65 \text{ g C m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, stage A-III,
205 Fig. 5a) and 500 mg C Nm^{-3} (IL of 35 mg C m^{-3} , stage B-II, Fig. 5b) were applied. As can be observed,
206 the operating regime resulted in peaks of concentration coinciding with the irrigation of the bed (15
207 minutes every 1.5 hours). These peaks are related to the accumulation of the pollutant in the trickling
208 water and subsequent desorption when trickling starts, resulting in outlet emission peaks. The comparison
209 between both stages shows the influence of loading in the emission pattern. In the periods between
210 trickling, a complete removal of pollutant was achieved for the lowest loading condition (Fig. 5b), while
211 leakage of pollutant occurred for the highest load (Fig. 5a).

212

213 The monitoring of the quality of the trickling water was carried out twice per week for the whole
214 experimental period. Average values along with the standard deviation are shown in Table 2. As shown
215 in Table 2, the pH and conductivity were kept in normal values for the development of the biological
216 process during the whole period. Nitrate in the water tank was kept above 10 mg N L^{-1} assuring that
217 nutrients were not limiting the bioprocess. Soluble COD values ranged between $700\text{--}1800 \text{ mg COD L}^{-1}$
218 depending on the loading conditions. The operational protocols regarding the quality of the trickling

219 water included a weekly purge of 1.5 L of water. In all cases, solvent removal with the purge represents
220 less than 5 % of the total amount of fed isopropanol during the week. In consequence, the organic carbon
221 in the purge was considered negligible for evaluation of the BTF performance in terms of inlet load (IL),
222 elimination capacity (EC) and removal efficiency (RE). About suspended solids, concentrations higher
223 than 500 mg L⁻¹ were only observed since month 3, indicating that significant detachment of solids from
224 the packing materials started as the biofilm thickened. Average values of the suspended solids
225 concentration from day 90 until the end of the experimentation period resulted in 3151 mg L⁻¹ and 1022
226 mg L⁻¹ for BTF1 and BTF2, respectively. The higher suspended solid concentrations in BTF1 than in
227 BTF2 can be associated with the capability of the structured packing material to drag the biomass, in
228 comparison with the random packing where biomass is detached with greater difficulty. In both
229 bioreactors, the pressure drop was kept below 48 Pa m⁻¹, indicating that non excessive accumulation of
230 biomass occurred. The accumulation of acetone as an intermediate product was not observed.

231
232 To quantify of the outlet concentration of VOC, the most unfavourable conditions were selected. So, the
233 average values of the previous 7 hours during VOC feeding (from 15:00 to 22:00 h: last five spraying
234 cycles) was used. The performance of BTF1 and BTF2 is shown in Fig. 6a and Fig. 6b, respectively. A
235 similar evolution of both BTFs during the whole experiment was observed. The start-up was carried out
236 using activated sludge from the secondary clarifier of the municipal wastewater treatment plant of Carlet
237 (Spain). In order to simulate the procedure of the industrial BTFs, the inoculum was not previously
238 adapted to degrade isopropanol. The systems were started by setting an EBRT of 160 s for BTF1 and 152
239 s for BTF2 and an inlet concentration of 1000 mg C Nm⁻³ (phase A-I, day 0–48). After 4–6 days of
240 operation, REs of 70 % were obtained. After that the performance was stable, with REs around 80 % for
241 both BTFs. On day 49 (phase A-II) and on day 70 (phase A-III) the EBRT was consecutively decreased to
242 90 and 50 s, increasing the IL to 35 and 65 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹, respectively. During these stages, both BTFs
243 presented similar variability in their performance with REs ranging between 60 and 85 %. In phase B, an
244 inlet concentration of 500 mg C Nm⁻³ was set. REs greater than 90 % were achieved by applying ILs of
245 18 (phases B-I, days 91–97) and 33 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ (phase B-II, days 98–104). In phase B-III (days 105–125),
246 with an IL of 64 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹, the REs significantly decreased to 60–70 %. Finally, the inlet concentration
247 applied in phase C was 250 mg C Nm⁻³. Working with an IL of 37 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ for BTF1, and 39 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹

248 ¹ for BTF2 (days 126–132), high REs with values around 80 % for BTF1 and 88 % for BTF2, were
249 observed. When the IL was increased to 65 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ (days 133–163), the performance of the BTFs
250 decreased to reach a RE of 49 % for BTF1 and 60 % for BTF2, coinciding with the minimum EBRT
251 applied (14 s).

252
253 The elimination capacity versus the inlet load is presented in Fig. 7 for the different EBRTs (BTF1 in Fig.
254 7a, BTF2 in Fig. 7b). Both BTF performed near complete degradation up to a critical IL of 30 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹
255 for all tested inlet concentrations (EBRT>25s). Maximum ECs of 44.7 ± 5.3 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ and 50.8 ± 3.4 g
256 C m⁻³ h⁻¹ were obtained for BTF1 and BTF2 respectively (IL of 65 g C m⁻³h⁻¹ and EBRT of 50 s).

257
258 No data related to the biodegradation of isopropanol under intermittent loading conditions has previously
259 been published in the literature. Previous studies on the removal of isopropanol under continuous loading
260 conditions are also scarce, and correspond with biofilters and trickled bed biofilters. Chang and Lu [8]
261 found ECs between 45–89 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ for isopropanol loadings of 50–90 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ with EBRT of 20–30
262 s. Krailas et al. [9] reported a maximum isopropanol elimination capacity of 276 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (equivalent to
263 165 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹) and an acetone production rate of 56 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (equivalent to 35 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹) at an inlet
264 load of 342 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (equivalent to 204 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹) using a biofilter. As can be seen, data reported in the
265 present study show lower values of EC than those from the literature, due to the discontinuous operation
266 used to mimic an industrial pattern. Results can also be compared with the removal of other hydrophilic
267 compounds by biotrickling filtration, such ethanol. Working under continuous loading conditions, Cox et
268 al. [17] found a critical IL of 70 g ethanol m⁻³ h⁻¹ (equivalent to 37 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹) at an EBRT of 57 s, and
269 Morotti et al. [18] determined a maximum EC of 46 g ethanol m⁻³ h⁻¹ (equivalent to 24 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹) using
270 an EBRT of 66 s and an inlet concentration of 1100 mg ethanol m⁻³. Working under intermittent loading
271 conditions, there are limited studies with BTF. In our previous work [19], a maximum EC of 48.5 g C m⁻³
272 h⁻¹ was obtained with an IL of 70.5 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ and an EBRT of 40 s treating a mixture 1:1 of ethyl acetate
273 and ethanol working with fluctuating conditions for 12 hours per day, 5 days at week using 1”
274 polypropylene rings as the packing material. Thus, the data presented in the present work is comparable
275 with those previously reported for the fluctuating conditions of other oxygenated solvents, showing the
276 capability of the system to adapt itself to the typical operation of industrial facilities characterised by
277 discontinuous VOC emissions.

278

279 The variation in the rate of carbon dioxide production with its elimination capacity is shown in Fig. 8a
280 and Fig. 8b for BTF1 and BTF2, respectively. No significant differences were obtained between the
281 bioreactors. An average yield of carbon dioxide of 0.25 ± 0.09 and 0.29 ± 0.09 g C CO₂ produced per g C
282 degraded for BTF1 and BTF2 was obtained during the entire experiment, respectively. This value is
283 similar to the data in the literature on treating oxygenated compounds. Sempere et al. [11] obtained an
284 average CO₂ yield coefficient between 0.18 and 0.40 g C CO₂ produced per g C degraded treating a
285 mixture of ethanol, ethyl acetate and methyl-ethyl ketone. Other researchers reported carbon
286 mineralisation between 17 % [18] and 46 % [17] treating ethanol.

287 Influence of spraying frequency on the removal of isopropanol

288 As discussed previously, the discontinuous regime of the spraying of the bed resulted in emissions of
289 isopropanol during irrigation, increasing the average outlet concentrations in the emission. A minimum
290 irrigation is required to supply the nutrients, but, due to the high solubility of non-degraded isopropanol in
291 water, the accumulation in the trickling liquid caused a fugitive emission that can be minimised,
292 optimising the frequency of the spraying. The effect of this variable on the average outlet concentration
293 was evaluated for the random packing material. Three regimes of spraying were applied at IL of 32 g C
294 m⁻³ h⁻¹ and EBRT of 60 s. Figs. 9a and 9b show the results of spraying 15 minutes every 1.5 hours and
295 every 3 hours, respectively, only during the VOC feeding period (16 hours per day). Fig. 9c corresponds
296 to a continuous trickling of 15 minutes every 3 hours over a 24 hours period, including the period without
297 VOC.

298

299 From Figs. 9a and 9b it can be observed that by decreasing the spraying frequency per day it was possible
300 to reduce the average daily outlet concentration from 86 to 59 mg C Nm⁻³ during the VOC feeding period.
301 This decrease in the average daily outlet concentration is related to the fewer peaks of the spraying pattern
302 of 15 minutes every 3 hours. The expansion of spraying at nights (Fig. 9c) caused a decrease in the
303 average outlet emission from 59 to 44 mg C Nm⁻³ during the isopropanol feeding period. Spraying during
304 non VOC feeding periods facilitated the VOC transfer to the biofilm and thus enhanced the degradation
305 of the accumulated isopropanol in the water tank. Therefore the transfer from water to the air during

306 spraying decreases. These results indicated that for the removal of hydrophilic compounds, the spraying
307 frequency is a critical parameter to achieve low emissions under discontinuous and oscillating patterns.

308 Influence of long term starvation on the removal of isopropanol

309 The BTFs were submitted to a starvation period to simulate a holiday industrial closure, in order to
310 evaluate their response after restoring VOC feeding. During the long-term starvation, the air flow rate was
311 maintained at an EBRT of 60 s, and water trickling was set to 15 minutes per day to assure biomass
312 viability conditions. The BTFs were kept under these conditions for up to 7 weeks. The VOC feeding was
313 restored using the same intermittent pattern of 16 hours per day that was applied before the VOC
314 interruption. An IL of around $35 \text{ g C m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, EBRT of 60 s and a trickling water of 15 minutes every 4
315 hours was set. The monitoring of the inlet and outlet VOC concentrations of BTF1 and BTF2 is presented
316 in Fig. 10a and Fig. 10b, respectively, once the VOC feeding was restored. As can be observed, REs of 80
317 % were obtained 5 days after the re-start up for both BTFs. After 10 days of operation, both BTFs
318 achieved REs of 90 %, similar values to those obtained in phase B-II, indicating that the performance of
319 the two bioreactors was fully recovered. These results show that the bacterial population can survive in
320 endogenous metabolism for more than 7 weeks if proper adequate operational conditions are adjusted.
321 Zhang and Bishop [20] suggested that extracellular polymeric substances can be a substrate during
322 starving periods. Shorter starvation periods have also been tested on the degradation of other compounds
323 in BTFs. Sempere et al. [11] reported on the successful reacclimation of a BTF degrading a mixture of
324 oxygenated compounds after a 3 week starvation period. Cox and Deshusses [10] found a great
325 reactivation of toluene-degrading BTFs after periods of 2 to 9 days without VOC feeding. The long
326 starvation period tested in this study is of interest due to the fact it has never previously been applied in
327 biotrickling filtration. It demonstrates the sturdiness of the biofiltration techniques to adapt to conditions
328 found in industrial facilities, avoiding the necessity for system re-inoculation with the subsequent saving
329 of costs.

330 **Conclusions**

331 The removal of isopropanol in two biotrickling filters with two packing material of similar specific
332 surface area, one structured and one random, was investigated. Oxygen mass transfer coefficients were
333 determined, showing similar values for liquid velocities up to 15 m h^{-1} at gas velocities of 104 and 312 m

334 h⁻¹. At higher liquid velocities, the structured packing material showed a greater mass transfer coefficient
335 attributed to the different air and water flow paths in both materials. Biotrickling filtration has been
336 shown as an effective technology for the removal of isopropanol in waste gases under intermittent loading
337 conditions (16 hours per day, 5 days per week), typical of industrial sites with night and weekend shut-
338 offs. Stable performance has been obtained with complete removal up to an inlet load of 30 g C m⁻³ h⁻¹.
339 At high loads, the random packing material showed a slightly higher removal capacity. Due to the low
340 Henry coefficient of isopropanol, it tends to accumulate in the water tank, causing a peak in the outlet
341 emission during intermittent spraying. Thus, this fact indicates that the frequency of irrigation is a crucial
342 parameter to achieve low emissions under intermittent loading of highly soluble compounds. Outlet
343 emissions were reduced by half by decreasing the spraying frequency during isopropanol feeding, and
344 expanding the irrigation to nights and weekends. This strategy allows the minimisation of peak emissions
345 from liquid-mass transfer during isopropanol feeding periods, and promotes the biodegradation of
346 isopropanol accumulated in water during non feeding periods. A fast re-start up after a 7 week starvation
347 period, one of the longest reported, corroborated that biotrickling filtration of soluble compounds under
348 intermittent loading is a robust technology for industrial applications.

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405 **Table 1** Experimental plan for the removal of isopropanol under intermittent loading conditions

		Days	C_{in} (mg C Nm ⁻³)	IL (g C m ⁻³ h ⁻¹)	EBRT (s)
Phase A	A-I	0–48	1000	20	160
	A-II	49–69	1000	35	90
	A-III	70–90	1000	65	50
Phase B	B-I	91–97	500	20	90
	B-II	98–104	500	35	50
	B-III	105–125	500	65	25
Phase C	C-II	126–132	250	35	25
	C-III	133–163	250	65	14

407 **Table 2** Quality of trickling water during the whole experiment

	BTF1		BTF2	
	Average	Std Dev	Average	Std Dev
pH	8.91	0.23	9.01	0.23
Conductivity (mS cm ⁻¹)	5.22	1.33	5.23	1.14
Nitrate conc.(mg N L ⁻¹)	30	23	38	33
Soluble COD (mg L ⁻¹)	1200	498	1107	540

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414 **Figure Captions**

415 **Fig. 1** Schematic of the experimental set-up for the determination of k_La

416 **Fig. 2** Schematic of the experimental set-up for the elimination of isopropanol

417 **Fig. 3** Influence of superficial liquid velocity on the oxygen mass transfer coefficient in BTFs

418 **Fig. 4** Influence of superficial gas velocity on the oxygen mass transfer coefficient for the structured
419 packing material

420 **Fig. 5** Outlet pattern emission during 24 hours monitoring of the biotrickling filtration of isopropanol
421 under intermittent loading conditions for BTF2 a) Phase A-III b) Phase B-II

422 **Fig. 6** Performance of the BTFs on the removal of isopropanol. Discontinuous line represents a 1.8 step
423 increase in the inlet load a) BTF1 b) BTF2

424 **Fig. 7** Isopropanol elimination capacity versus inlet load a) BTF1 b) BTF2

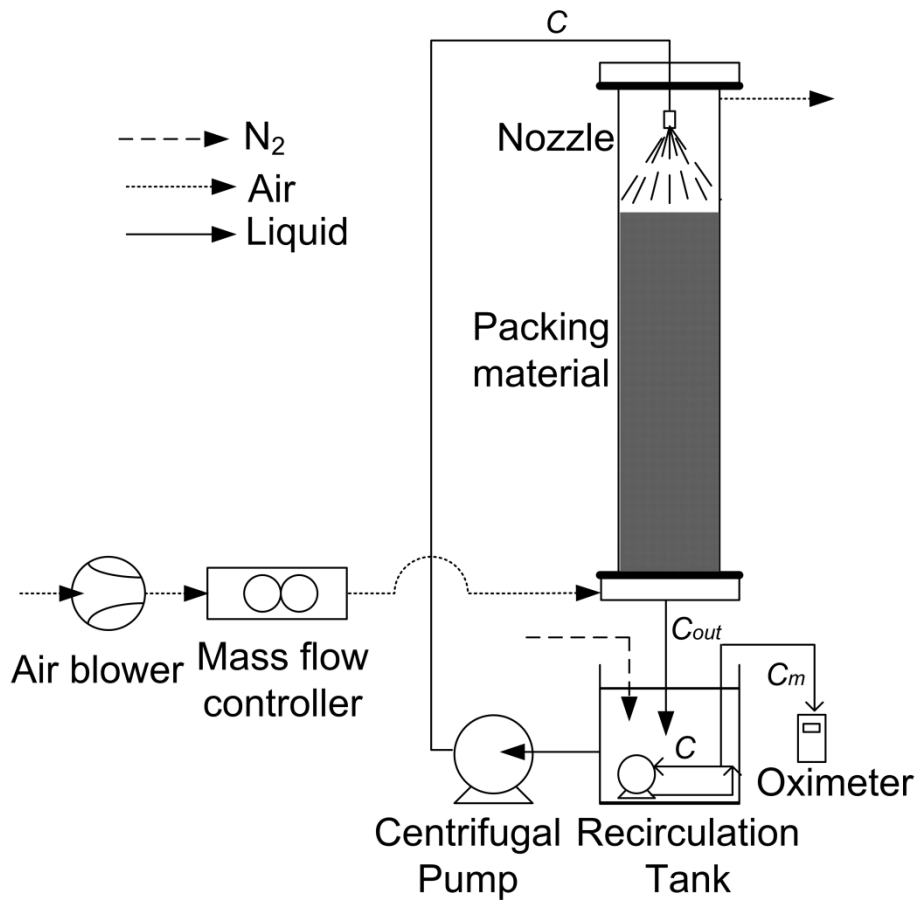
425 **Fig. 8** Production of carbon dioxide versus elimination capacity of isopropanol a) BTF1 b) BTF2

426 **Fig. 9** Influence of the spraying regime on the outlet pattern emission a) spraying 15 minutes every 1.5
427 hours during VOC feeding period b) spraying 15 minutes every 3 hours during VOC feeding period c) 15
428 minutes every 3 hours during 24 hours

429 **Fig. 10** Performance of the BTFs on the removal of isopropanol after 7 weeks of starvation a) BTF1 b)
430 BTF2

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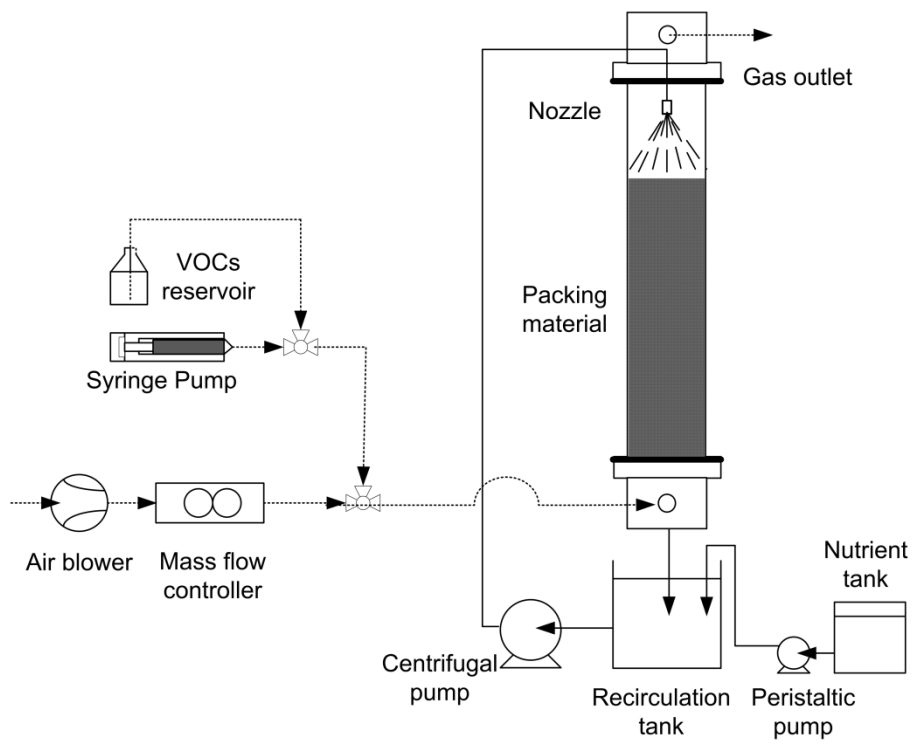
432 **Fig. 1** Schematic of the experimental set-up for the determination of $k_{L,a}$



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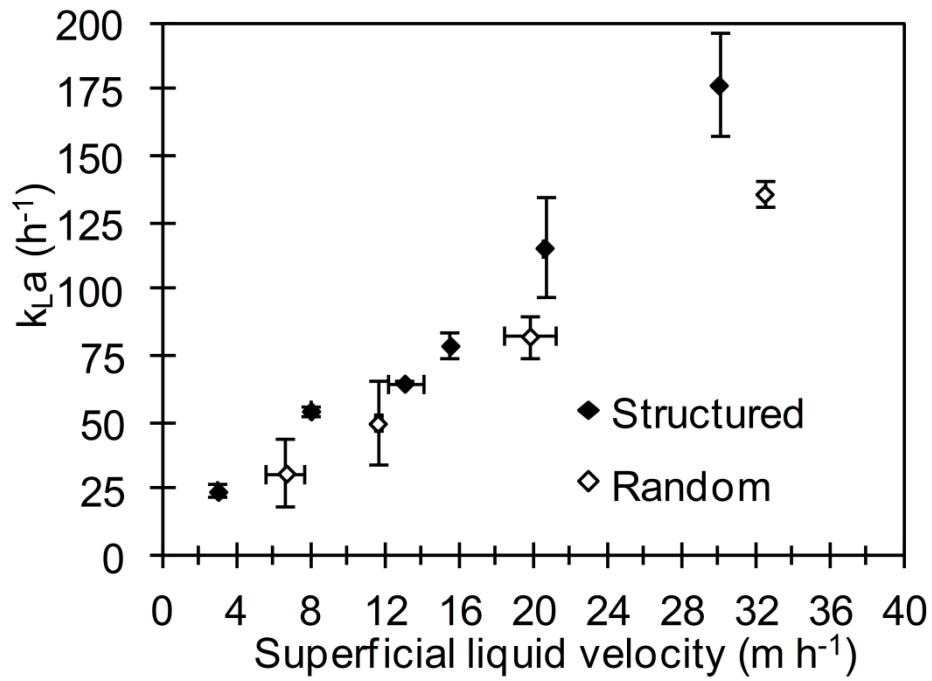
435 **Fig. 2** Schematic of the experimental set-up for the elimination of isopropanol



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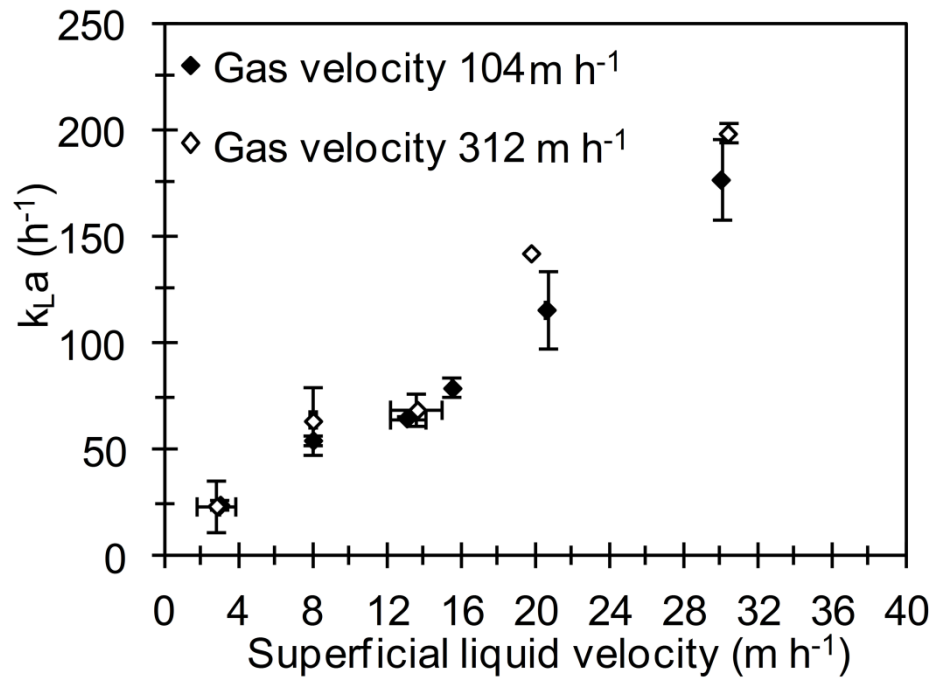
438 **Fig. 3** Influence of superficial liquid velocity on the oxygen mass transfer coefficient in BTFs



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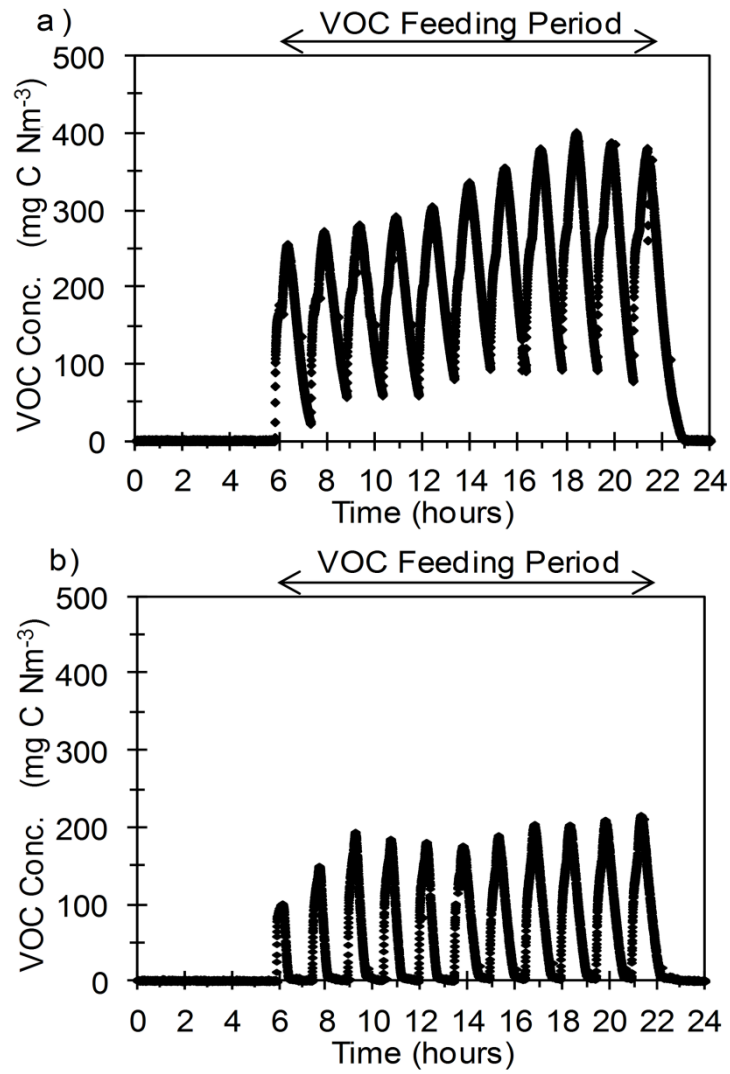
441 **Fig. 4** Influence of superficial gas velocity on the oxygen mass transfer coefficient for the structured
442 packing material



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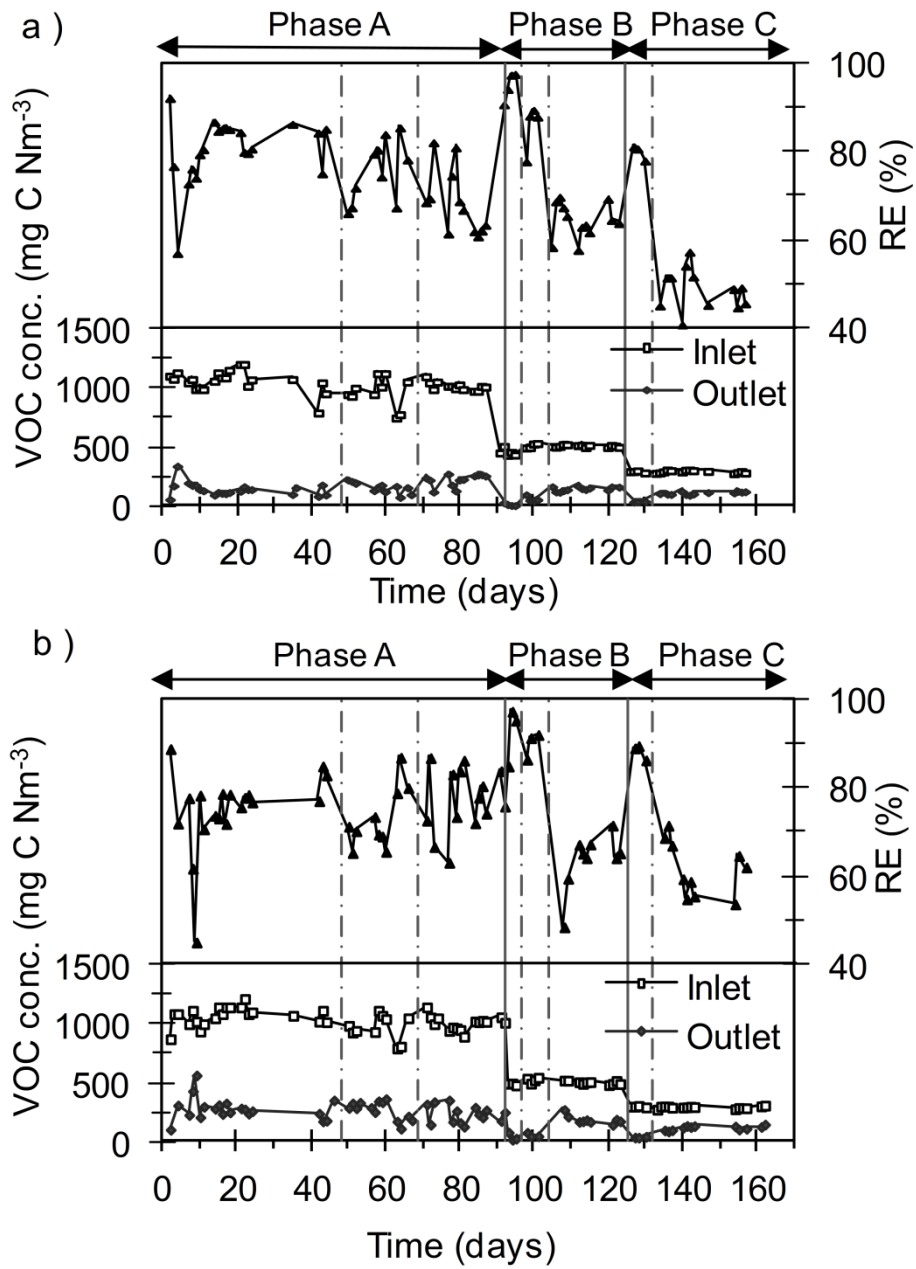
445 **Fig. 5** Outlet pattern emission during 24 hours monitoring of the biotrickling filtration of isopropanol
446 under intermittent loading conditions for BTF2 a) Phase A-III b) Phase B-II



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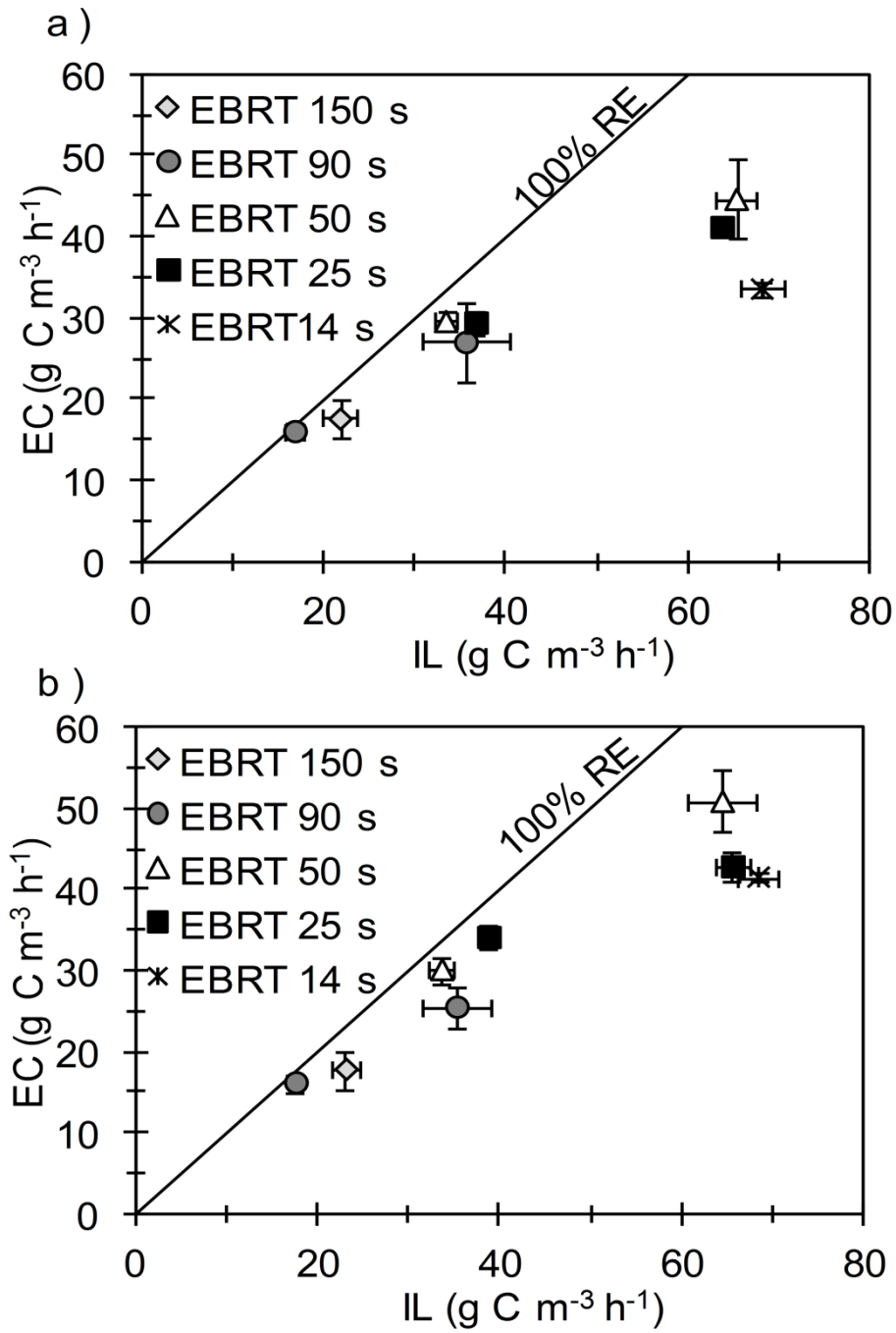
449 **Fig. 6** Performance of the BTFs on the removal of isopropanol. Discontinuous line represents a 1.8 step
 450 increase in the inlet load a) BTF1 b) BTF2



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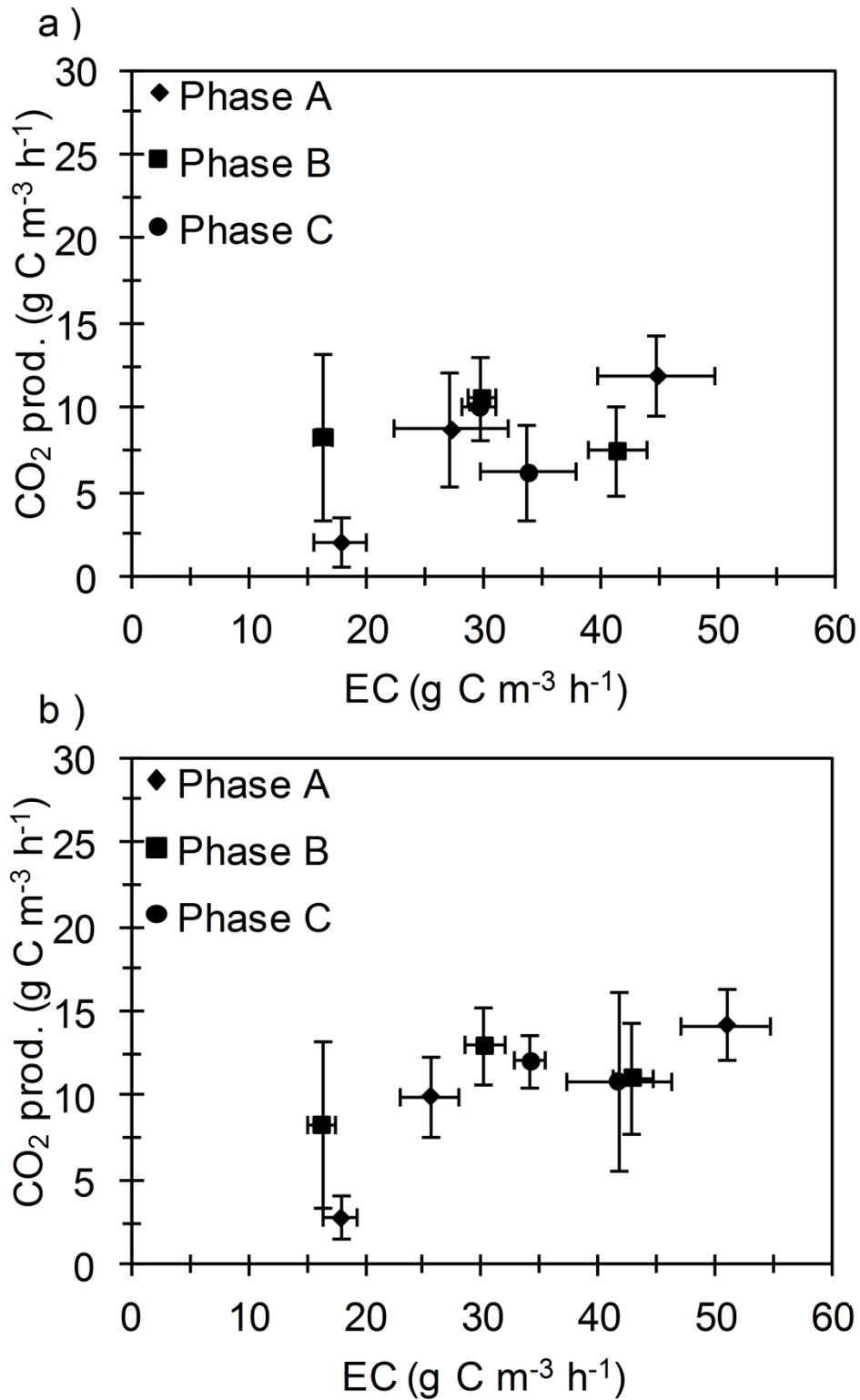
453 **Fig. 7** Isopropanol elimination capacity versus inlet load a) BTF1 b) BTF2



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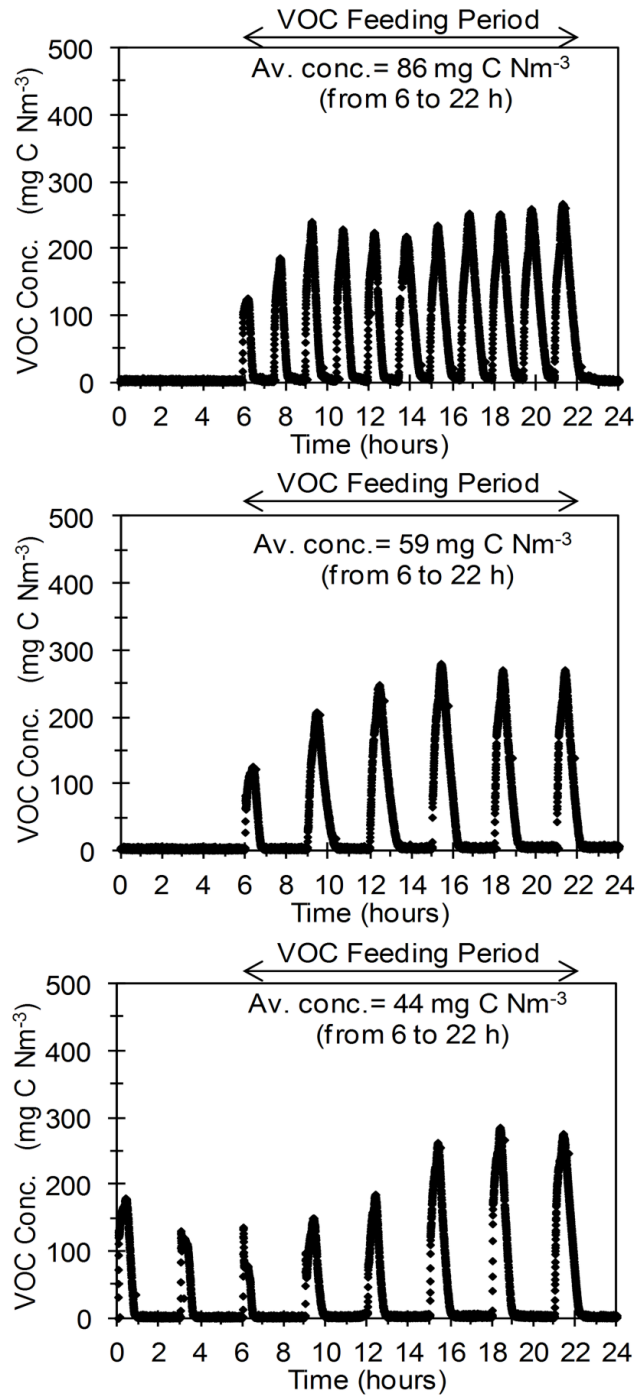
456 **Fig. 8** Production of carbon dioxide versus elimination capacity of isopropanol a) BTF1 b) BTF2



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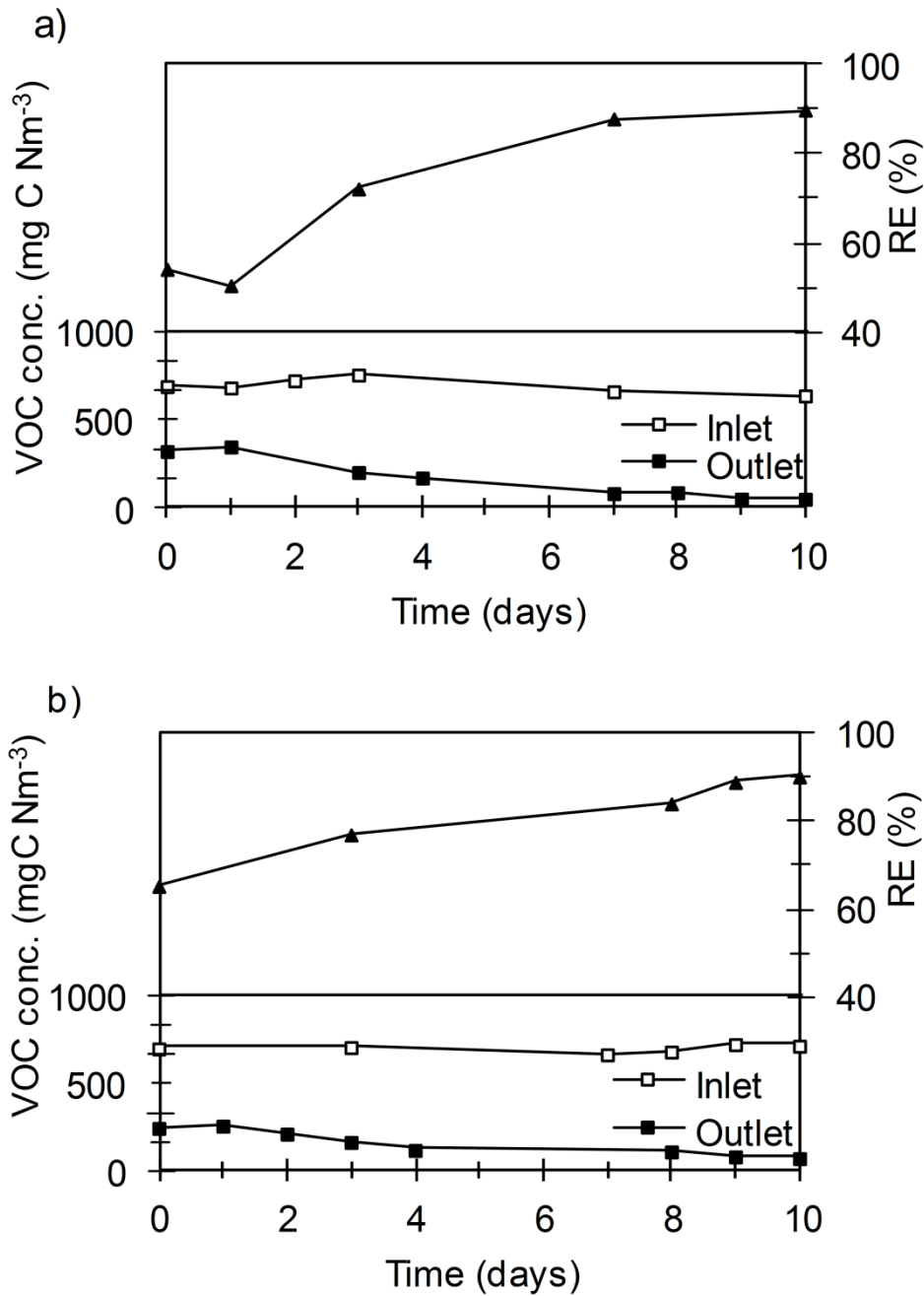
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 465 BTF2



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