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Unit Energy Consumption, Production, and Cost of Innovative Treatment Systems of Different Wastewater Streams

Jinze Li jli067@fiu.edu

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FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

UNIT ENERGY CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, AND COST OF INNOVATIVE TREATMENT SYSTEMS FOR DIFFERENT WASTEWATER STREAMS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

CIVIL ENGINEERING

by

Jinze Li

2021

To: Dean John L. Volakis College of Engineering and Computing

This dissertation, written by Jinze Li, and entitled Unit Energy Consumption, Production, and Cost of Innovative Treatment Systems for Different Wastewater Streams, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

Shonali Laha

 $\overline{}$ Berrin Tansel

Tiffany Troxler

Michael Sukop

Walter Z. Tang, Major Professor

_______ ______________

____ ________________

Date of Defense: March 26, 2021

The dissertation of Jinze Li is approved.

Dean John L. Volakis College of Engineering and Computing

Andrés G. Gil Vice President for Research and Economic Development and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2021

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my utmost gratitude to all the people who helped me during my doctoral studies. First and foremost, I'd like to thank my advisor, Dr. Walter Z. Tang, who has offered me valuable suggestions and endless support in my academic studies. In preparing the dissertation, he provided me with many necessary materials, advice of great value, and inspiration for new ideas. Without his patient, insightful criticism and expert guidance, this dissertation could not reach its present form. I also owe a special debt of gratitude to the members of my committee, Dr. Shonali Laha, Dr. Berrin Tansel, Dr. Tiffany Troxler, and Dr. Michael Sukop. The graduate courses that I took with them have empowered me to develop this dissertation.

My heartfelt thanks also go to Dr. Li Gu and Miss Jin Tang for their constructive suggestions in the preparation of the original manuscript. They also provided invaluable assistance in writing this dissertation.

I would like to greatly express my appreciation for the financial support from the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at Florida International University.

Last but not least, I wish to express my gratitude to my beloved parents for their love and great confidence in me. They provided everything in my life for me to finish this dissertation successfully.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

UNIT ENERGY CONSUMPTION, PRODUCTION, AND COST OF INNOVATIVE TREATMENT SYSTEMS FOR DIFFERENT WASTEWATER STREAMS

by

Jinze Li

Florida International University, 2021

Miami, Florida

Professor Walter Z. Tang, Major Professor

Innovative technologies such as micro-sieving, Anammox, and up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) hold the key in the sustainable design of Water Resource Recovery Facility (WRRF). In the past, assessment metrics on the effectiveness and economic feasibility of these technologies have not been systematically investigated. According to the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering, Unit energy and cost metrics could provide universal benchmarks in the design of WRRF. Therefore, the objectives of this study are to design innovative WRRF systems to achieve energy positive. These WRRFs were modeled by developing an Excel model to estimate the unit energy metrics. Database of different wastewater quality was developed according to literature data. An Excel model was also developed to estimate the cost due to the energy saving of innovative systems.

In treating young, medium, and old leachate, systems with the innovative technologies could save the unit energy consumption by 2.24-4.07 kWh/kg N_{removed} and the unit cost by \$0.86-2.09/kg CODremoved than conventional technologies. Treatment of young leachate costs less than other leachate in terms of per kg COD removed. Although micro-sieving decreases CH⁴ production, it reduces the size of the UASB. As a result, micro-sieving could reduce the unit cost by 27% compared with systems without primary treatment. The major saving was contributed by UASB which converts BOD to CH4. In addition, partial nitrification/anammox (PN/A) consumes less oxygen in removing nitrogen, which helps food processing treatment system achieve energy positive. In treatment of meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater, the mean unit energy consumptions in innovative systems were 1.49, 1.37, and 1.39 kWh/kg N_{removed} . Mean unit energy consumption is close to the unit energy consumption of PN/A. The average unit costs for three types of industrial wastewater are 0.54, 0.57, and 1.12 \$/kg CODremoved, respectively. Therefore, meat processing wastewater can be the most efficiently treated by using innovative technologies due to its high biodegradability.

For WWTPs in China, anaerobic-oxic plus anaerobic-anoxic-oxic, oxidation ditch, and sequencing batch reactor were the main technologies. Due to lower energy consumption, SBR is the best technology in small and medium WWTPs in China.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of problem

Most wastewater treatment plants applied energy-intensive aerobic activated sludge processes [1, 2]. According to statistics, WWTPs in China consumed electricity of 10,000 GWh in 2011, which made up for 0.2 % of the total industrial electricity consumption [3]. From 2011 to2017, the water supply and wastewater treatment accounted for approximately 0.67-0.75% of the total industrial energy consumption in China [4-10]. Energy consumption of electricity in the water production and supply industry increased by the rate of 5.7-10.7% per year in China. Increasing number and capacity of WWTPs to meet fast urbanization results in increased greenhouse gas production and resource consumption. Therefore, energy consumption has become a critical issue in the operation of WWTPs [11-13].

After vigorous research and development in the last two decades, innovative technologies such as micro-sieving, mainstream up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket, and partial nitrification/Anammox became effective, efficient, and practicable technologies in reducing energy consumption in WWTPs. These innovative technologies could be used either in retrofitting WWTPs to recover energy and nutrients from the wastewater or designing a new Water Resources Recovery Facility (WRRF). Properly adopted, they could turn conventional WWTPs from energy negative to energy-positive facilities. In literature, research focused on comparing the energy consumption and the demand of wastewater treatment systems based on specific wastewater quality. However, wastewater could be classified as leachate, food processing wastewater, industrial wastewater, and municipal wastewater. To my knowledge, there has never been a study that systematically

assesses innovative technologies as key processes in designing energy-positive WWTPs or WRRF. The effectiveness, efficiency, and economic feasibility of these technologies have never been evaluated in terms of unit energy consumption, production as well as operation cost per unit mass of pollutants removed for the different types of wastewater. This research attempts to apply the design metrics of Sustainable Environmental Engineering and to quantitatively evaluate innovative systems to achieve an energy positive design [14].

1.2. Literature review

1.2.1. Micro-sieving

Micro-sieving, or a rotating belt filter (RBF), offers more sustainable alternative than a traditional primary clarifier with a smaller footprint and lower capital costs [15, 16]. Since the land requirement of RBF is typically 10% of that of a primary clarifier [17], the capital cost of primary treatment could be saved by approximately 50% with RBFs compared with the conventional primary clarifier (PC) [18]. Typically, RBF can divert at least 50% of total suspended solids and 20% of biochemical oxygen demand from the main treatment stream to a mesophilic anaerobic digester [15, 19]. As a result, micro-sieving decreases the amount of oxygen needed for aeration by reducing the organic loading rate to aerobic biological treatment processes such as activated sludge. In addition, it increases biogas production for energy recovery because major chemical oxygen demand is diverted directly to anaerobic digesters in the form of primary sludge.

1.2.2. Up-Flow Anaerobic Sludge Blanket (UASB)

Mainstream UASB is the key technology in converting a wastewater treatment plant from energy consumption to energy production. In the treatment scheme, biodegradable COD in wastewater is converted into methane at an operating temperature between 15 and

35℃ [20]. Mainstream UASB eliminates the aeration process required during the removal of dissolved biodegradable COD, produces energy in the form of CH4, and generates a much smaller amount of sludge to be disposed of [21]. These advantages reduce the operational cost when compared with conventional wastewater treatment systems [22, 23].

1.2.3. Partial Nitrification/Ammonia (PN/A)

Developed in the beginning of the 1990s, the PN/A process is a cost-effective way to remove total nitrogen in wastewater [24]. PN/A process is a two-step biological transformation of ammonia to nitrogen gas. The first step is termed as partial nitrification. Ammonia oxidizing bacteria convert approximately 50% of the ammonia to nitrite under conditions that restrict nitrite-oxidizing bacteria growth. The second step is referred to as anaerobic ammonium oxidation or Anammox. Ammonium-Nitrogen is oxidized under anaerobic conditions by anaerobic ammonium oxidation bacteria that can use nitrite as the electron acceptor to produce N_2 [25]. Compared to the nitrification-denitrification process, PN/A process could reduce 60% of oxygen demand in the aeration process and eliminate organic carbon source requirements.

2. OBJECTIVES AND APPROACH

2.1. Objectives

The objectives of this dissertation are to assess the efficiency and economic feasibility of innovative technologies in treating different streams of wastewater. This is accomplished by characterizing the influence of industrial wastewater and leachate on the wastewater treatment system. Industrial wastewater and leachate have different concentrations of pollutants and biodegradability, which significantly affect the performance of micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A. Besides wastewater quality, parameters such as treatment technologies, design capacity, operation loading rate, and COD removal efficiency also have a significant influence on the energy consumption or production of WWTPs. Therefore, the objectives are as follows:

1) To evaluate the effects of primary treatment of micro-sieving vs. traditional primary clarifier and secondary treatment (biological process) in leachate treatment and analyze the unit energy and cost of different leachate treatment systems with innovative technologies such as Anammox and UFAB.

2) To evaluate the influence of micro-sieving on the treatment performance of the system with UASB and PN/A and compare sustainable assessment metrics of treatment systems using micro-sieving in terms of unit energy and cost.

3) To compare the unit energy consumption and production of different industrial wastewater treatments and conduct a unit cost analysis of the system based on various industrial wastewater qualities.

4) To compare the unit energy consumption of different treatment technologies in WWTPs in China and study relationships between the unit energy consumption and design capacity, operation loading rate, COD removal efficiency, and influent concentration of contaminants.

2.2. Materials and methods

Data concerning industrial wastewater, leachate at various landfill ages, and municipal wastewater are from peer-reviewed papers. Municipal wastewater flow rate, influent pollutant concentration, and treatment technologies were compiled from the China Urban Drainage Statistical Yearbook 2016. Innovative technologies can save energy and reduce carbon sources for removing COD and TN in WWTPs. However, it requires investment in innovative technologies and increases capital cost. On the other hand, the O&M costs could be significantly reduced due to the increased heat and electricity harvested by the new innovative technologies as well as sustainable engineering design. For quantifying the impacts of innovative technologies and design, it is necessary to determine if the cumulative benefit of energy-saving would be greater than increased capital cost and the reduced cumulative operation and maintenance (O&M) cost by the innovative technologies in the life cycle of the equipment. Therefore, unit energy and cost analysis are used to compare the economic feasibility of conventional methods and innovative technologies for treating different kinds of wastewater. For designing an energy positive WRRF, data was compiled from the peer-reviewed papers [26-28]. Excel 2010 and IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics 21.0 software were used to estimate energy and cost for different wastewater treatment systems. The effect of wastewater quality, flow rate, operation loading rate, treatment technologies on energy consumption was quantified by using these models. The current study collected different wastewater quality data and then an Excel-based model was developed. To reduce the space of the section, the performance of treatment systems with different technologies is shown in Appendix. Figure A.18, A.19, A.20, A.21, A.22, A.23, A.24 illustrate these results.

The unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) of different treatment processes in China were calculated based on design capacity, operation loading rate, COD removal, influent and effluent concentration of contaminants, and energy consumption in Excel as shown in Figure A.25. The unit energy consumption, production, and cost of leachate, food processing wastewater, and industrial wastewater system were estimated by the following equations [17, 26, 29-39]:

 $(CH_4$ production from UASB and anaerobic digester (kg/d)) Energy production(kWh/d) = (Energy recovery) (Enthalpy of combustion)

where

Energy recovery $= 38\%$

Enthalpy of combustion = 13.9 kWh/kg $CH₄$

Unit energy production(kWh/kg BOD_{removed}) = $\frac{\text{Energy production}(kWh/d)}{\text{BOD removal (kg/d)}}$

(2.1)

Energy consumption =
$$
\frac{\text{Aeration demand of aeration process (kgO}_2/d)}{\text{OT}_a}
$$

where

OT_a=Oxygen transfer efficiency (actual)=1.2 kg O₂/kWh

Unit energy consumption (kWh/ kg N_{removed}) N removal (kg/d) $=\frac{\text{Energy consumption (kWh/d)}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

(2.2)

It was assumed that UASB combining the heat and power technologies could convert 38% of CH⁴ (formed in the mainstream and the side stream anaerobic digestion) to electricity with an energy density of approximately 13.9 kWh/kg $CH₄$ [40]. The energy demand of a WWTP mainly includes the power consumption of the wastewater lift pump, aeration equipment, and sludge treatment. The energy consumption of biological treatment accounts for 50–70% of the overall energy consumption [41]. Therefore, the aeration energy of the biological treatment process was the dominant energy demand. Since biodegradable COD in wastewater is converted into CH₄ at 15 and 35 °C [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃. The unit energy consumption is estimated based on O_2 mass demand and oxygen transfer efficiency at 25 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ [26].

Capital cost of preliminary treatment(\$)= EXP [3.25972 +0.61915 ln(flow to the

treatment plant(MGD))]1000

Operation labor hour of preliminary treatment (hr/yr) = EXP [6.39872 + 0.23096 x +

$$
0.16496 x^2 - 0.0146 x^3
$$

Maintenance labor hour of preliminary treatment (hr/yr) = EXP [5.8461+ 0.20651 x +

$$
0.06884 x^2 + 0.02382 x^3 - 0.00441 x^4
$$

Total material and supply cost of preliminary treatment $(\frac{f}{f})$ = EXP [7.23566 + 0.39994

$$
x - 0.22498 x^2 + 0.1101 x^3 - 0.01103 x^4
$$

Electrical energy demand of grit removal $(kwh/yr) = EXP [6.30864 + 0.23453 x -$

$$
0.35844\ x^2 + 0.00871x^3]
$$

Electrical energy demand of flow measurements and screening $(kwh/yr) = EXP [7.1497 +$

$$
0.28856 x - 0.07886 x^2 + 0.014662 x^3
$$

The total electrical energy demand of preliminary treatment (kWh/yr) = Electrical energy demand of grit removal (kWh/yr) + Electrical energy demand of flow measurements and

screening (kWh/yr)

where

 $x=In(O)$

Q=flow to the treatment plant, MGD

(2.3)

Capital cost of rotating belt filter(\hat{s}) = 0.55Capital cost of priamry clarifier with 50% TSS

removal(\$)

Capital cost of priamry clarifier=-0.00002(Q)²+19.29(Q)+220,389

Q=32.6/surface overflow rate (influent flow rate)

Operating Power Consumption of rotating belt filter =129.6 kWh/d

Maintenance Materials cost of rotating belt filter $(\frac{f}{y}) = 2\%$ of capital costs of rotating

belt filter

(2.4)

TSS removal of primary clarifier $(\%) = 0.004006$ [Surface overflow rate (m/d)] +0.73782 TSS removal of rotating belt filter (%) =16.45ln [Influent TSS concentration(mg/L)]-29.1 (2.5)

Capital and O&M costs of preliminary and primary treatment are related to the flow rate. To quantify the influence of different wastewater quality on treatment systems, 1 MGD was assumed as the flow rate for different wastewater treatment systems. A rotating belt filter has a typical operating power consumption of 1.8-3.6 kW for a flow rate of 0.6 MGD [17]; two rotating belt filters with total energy consumption of 5.4 kW were used for

treating wastewater. Since micro-sieving could reduce the capital cost by 30%-60% when it is compared with conventional primary clarifier, it is assumed that the capital cost of micro-sieving is 55% of that of primary clarifier with 50% TSS removal according to the literature data. Maintenance cost is equal to 2% of capital cost [1]. Since the cost of the primary clarifier is calculated based on the same flow rate, the costs of rotating belt filters are the same for different wastewater treatment systems. However, TSS removal efficiency is positively correlated to the TSS concentration before the micro-sieving process [30]. Different wastewater quality leads to different treatment performance of micro-sieving.

The capital cost of UASB $(\text{\$}) = (\text{cost factors}) (\text{Volume of UASB (m}^3))$

(unit capital cost of $UASB(\$/m^3))$

Volume of UASB $(m^3) = (sludge\ production\ from\ UASB(m^3/d))(sludge\ age(d))$ where

sludge age=60 d for the leachate treatment system

sludge age=40 d for food processing and industrial wastewater treatment system

Cost factors= $(f_i)(f_{ac})$

 f_{ac} factor for costs for construction of additional units=1.43

 f_i = factor for additional capital costs (non-construction related) =1.72

unit capital cost of UASB=721.31 $\frac{m^3}{2}$ volume

(2.6)

Cavalcanti et al. [42] studied the performance of UASB reactors for treating raw wastewater. The results show that UASB could produce stable sludge at an anaerobic sludge age of 40 to 50 days at 25 ℃. In the municipal wastewater treatment system, 40 to 60% of the influent COD could be converted into CH₄ by UASB reactors at an anaerobic sludge age of 30 to 60 days at 15 to 30 ℃. In practice, the sludge age of UASB is greater than 20 to 40 days [26]. Old leachate has very low biodegradability, sludge age is assumed to be 60 days and 40 days for keeping stable performance of leachate and industrial wastewater treatment systems. When the flow rate of different wastewater treatment systems is 1 MGD or 3785.4 m^3/d , f_{ac} , f_i , and unit capital cost of UASB are 1.43, 1.72, and 721.31 γ m³ volume, which were calculated based on equations (A.6, A.7, and A.1).

Capital cost of PN/A(\$) =Equipment Cost of PN/A(\$)(Capital cost/Equipment Cost) where

Capital cost/Equipment Cost=2.405

Equipment Cost of $PN/A(\$) = (Volume of PN/A(MG))166438+155108$

(2.7)

In the current study, the PN/A process was operated in a sequencing batch reactor (SBR). SBR with different volumes and corresponding equipment costs were summarized by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency report [32]. Therefore, the equipment cost of PN/A SBR was estimated based on reactor volume, as shown in figure A.19 and equation (A.9). Capital cost includes equipment and construction costs. Cost of piping, installation, electrical, instrumentation, engineering, construction management (structural and civil) accounts for 85% of equipment cost [29]. Due to contingency, the capital cost is 30% higher than the designed capital cost [29]. Therefore, the ratio between capital cost and equipment cost is 2.405.

Capital cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification(\$)

=(costing factors)(Volume of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification (m³)) (unit capital cost of activated sludge tank $(\frac{2}{m^3})$)

 $=f_{ac}$ f_i V activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification(Unit capital cost of activated sludge

```
tank)
```
where

Cost factors= $(f_i)(f_{ac})$

 f_{ac} factor for costs for construction of additional units = 1.43

 f_i = factor for additional capital costs (non-construction related) =1.72

unit capital cost of activated sludge tank = 244.64 \$/m³ volume

(2.8)

If the flow rate of different wastewater treatment systems is 1 MGD or 3785.4 m^3/d ,

 f_{ac} , f_i , the unit capital cost of the activated sludge tanks are 1.43, 1.72, and 244.64 \$/m³ volume, which were calculated based on equations (A.6, A.7, and A.2).

Capital cost of final clarifier(\$)=(cost factors)(flow rate to final clarifier(m^3/d))(S_{fd}

 $(H_d/v₀)$ EXP (kX_t)) (unit capital cost of final clarifier(\$/m³))

where

 S_{fd} =settler safety factor=2

 H_d =settler height (m)=4m

 v_0 = vesilind constant=216 m/d

 $k=$ vesilind constant=0.35 L/gTSS

 X_t =activated sludge concentration=4.006 g/L

Cost factors= $(f_i)(f_{ac})$

 f_{ac} factor for costs for construction of additional units=1.43

 f_i = factor for additional capital costs (non-construction related) =1.72

unit capital cost of final clarifier= 412.40 \$/m³ volume

van Haandel and van der Lubbe [26] used 2 and 4 m as the default values for the safety factor and height of the final clarifier. Thus, these default values were selected for estimating the cost of the final clarifier. Sludge settleability affects the value of the Vesilind constants [26]. Without UASB, sludge to the final clarifier shows poor settleability. The Vesilind constants v_0 and k are assumed to be 144 m/d and 0.46 L/ g TSS. Since the settleability of sludge following mainstream UASB is good, Vesilind constants v_0 and k are 216 m/d and 0.35 L/ g TSS. As shown in table A.4, solid content and the specific gravity of the bulk sludge for activated sludge are 0.2-0.6% and 1-1.003. 0.4% and 1.0015 were assumed to be the corresponding solid content and the specific gravity of the bulk sludge. Therefore, the wet bulk sludge concentration of activated sludge equals 4.006 g/L. When the flow rate of different wastewater treatment systems is 1 MGD or 3785.4 m^3/d , f_{ac} , f_i , the unit capital cost of final clarifier are 1.43, 1.72, and $412.40 \text{ }\frac{\text{m}}{\text{m}^3}$ volume, which were calculated based on equations (A.6, A.7, and A.3).

Capital cost of anaerobic digestion (\$)

 $=(\text{costing factors})(\text{Volume of anaerobic digestion}(m^3))$ (unit capital cost of anaerobic

digestion $(\frac{\text{S}}{\text{m}^3})$

 $=$ f_{ac} f_iV_{sludge thickener}(Unit capital cost of anaerobic digestion)

where

Cost factors= $(f_i)(f_{ac})$

 f_{ac} factor for costs for construction of additional units=1.43 f_i = factor for additional capital costs (non-construction related) =1.72 unit capital cost of anaerobic digester=700.46 \$/m³ volume

Since combined heat and power could convert the CH⁴ formed in UASB and anaerobic digestion to heat for operating anaerobic digester at high temperature, operation temperature is assumed to be 35 ℃ in the anaerobic digester. Whene the flow rate of different wastewater treatment systems is 1 MGD or 3785.4 m^3/d , f_{ac} , f_i , and unit capital cost of anaerobic digester are 1.43, 1.72, and 700.46 γ/m^3 volume, respectively, which are calculated based on equations A.6, A.7, and A.4.

Capital cost of Package Granular Activated Carbon Columns(\$)=(1+(Miscellaneous

costs)/(construction cost))(0.0084 Q^3 –5.2233 Q^2 +1318.4 Q +27144)

Capital cost of Granular Carbon Regeneration $(\$)=(1+(Miscellaneous$

costs)/(construction cost))($2E-8x^3$ - 0.0018 x^2 + 93.965 x +2000000)

O&M cost of Package Granular Activated Carbon Columns($\sqrt[6]{y}$ r)=(0.0005 Q³-0.3763

 Q^2 +140.13Q+4959)

O&M cost of Granular Carbon Regeneration $(\frac{f}{y})$ =15.503 x + 128481

O&M cost of virgin Carbon (\$/yr)=(Activated carbon loss)(365d/y)(Cost of virgin

carbon) x

where

 $Q =$ plant flow (gpm)

 $x =$ regeneration capacity of activated Carbon (lb/day)

(Miscellaneous costs)/(construction cost)=0.28

Activated carbon loss=6%

Cost of virgin carbon=0.95\$/lb

(2.11)

Sharma [36] summarized the capital and the O&M cost of granular activated carbon columns, while the cost of granular carbon regeneration was calculated based on the flow rate and regeneration capacity of activated carbon. Capital cost includes construction cost and miscellaneous costs such as those for site works, overhead, profit, administration, and interest, which are equal to 28% of construction cost [36]. On average, the price of virgin carbon was \$0.70/lb-\$1.20/lb, while 5% to 7% of Granular Activated Carbon is lost during normal operation [43]. Thus, the cost of virgin carbon and activated carbon loss were assumed to be 0.95\$/lb and 6%, respectively.

Capital cost of aeration equipment($\hat{\mathcal{S}}$)=(cost factors)(Energy consumption of aeration

process (kWh/d)) (unit capital cost of aeration equipment(\$/kW))/(24h/d) where

Cost factors= $(f_i)(f_{ac})$

 f_{ac} = factor for costs for construction of additional units=1.43 f_i = factor for additional capital costs (non-construction related) =1.72 unit capital cost of aeration equipment=5276.43 \$/kw

(2.12)

Since the flow rate of different wastewater treatment systems is 1 MGD or 3785.4 m^3/d , f_{ac} , f_i , the unit capital cost of aeration equipment are 1.43, 1.72, and 5276.43 \$/kW, which were calculated based on equations A.6, A.7, and A.5.

O&M cost
$$
(\frac{C}{y}y) = (p+o+n+0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7m_{\text{me\&i}})
$$
 Capital cost

where

p= personnel cost =3.5 % of capital cost/yr

 $o=$ operation cost =1 % of capital cost/yr

m_{civ}=maintenance cost for civil works=0.75 % of capital cost/yr

 $m_{\text{me\&i}}$ =maintenance cost for mechanical, electrical and instrumentation equipmen=1.75 % of capital cost/yr

n=insurance cost=0.3% of capital cost/yr

(2.13)

The operation and maintenance costs (O&M costs) include items such as cost for personnel, operation, insurance, and maintenance, which are taken as percentages of the capital costs for cost estimation. Personnel, operation, insurance, and maintenance costs for civil works and for mechanical, electrical and instrumentation equipment (E&I) are equal to 2-5%, 0.5-1.5%, 0.2-0.4%, 0.5-1%, and 1-2.5% of the capital cost, respectively. 30% and 70% were used as the percentages of maintenance cost for civil works and for mechanical and E&I [26]. Therefore, it was assumed that the personnel, operation, insurance, and maintenance costs for civil works and for mechanical and E&I are 3.5%, 1%, 0.3%, 0.75%, and 1.75% of the capital cost, respectively.

O&M costs of sludge(US\$/yr)=(sludge production from AD(ton TSS/yr))(sludge disposal

cost(\$⁄ton TSS))

where

sludge disposal cost(\$⁄ton TSS)=280 \$/ton TSS

(2.14)

On average, the price of sludge disposal is 60 \$/ton TSS-500 \$/ton TSS [26]. Thus, the cost of sludge disposal is assumed to be 280\$/ ton TSS.

Capital cost(
$$
\frac{s}{yr}
$$
)=Capital cost($\frac{s}{a_i}$, n)
Capital cost(
$$
\$/yr
$$
) = $\frac{\text{Capital cost}(\$)}{a_{i,n}}$

$$
a_{i,n} = \frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i(1+i)^n}
$$

where

ai, n=annualization factor

i =interest rate (annual)=6%

n=economic lifetime of the treatment plant in years=20 (yr)

Unit capital cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Capital cost($/yr)(365 d/yr)}}{\text{COD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

$$
(2.15)
$$

Unit O & M cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{O & M cost ($/yr)(365 \text{ d/yr})}{COD \text{ removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(2.16)

Unit cost(\$/kg COD_{removed})=Unit capital cost(\$/kg COD_{removed})+Unit O&M cost(\$/kg

CODremoved)

(2.17)

For comparing the costs of different treatment systems, the total capital cost (\$) was annualized over the expected lifetime of the WWTP. Economic lifetime and interest rates were assumed to be 20 years and 6% [26]. Capital costs (\$) were transformed into annualized capital costs (\$/yr) based on the interest rate and lifetime. The total unit cost was calculated as the combination of the unit capital costs and the unit operational costs.

3. UNIT ENERGY AND COST COMPARISON OF TWO INNOVATIVE TREATMENT SYSTEMS OF YOUNG, MEDIUM AND OLD LEACHATES 3.1. Abstract

An Up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket reactor (UFAB) followed by a partial nitrification/anammox (PN/A) reactor was reported as one of the energy-positive systems in removing N from municipal wastewater. However, there are few cases of research assessing the efficiency and economic feasibility of this energy-positive process in treating young, medium, and old leachates with different treatment trains. The current study collected leachate quality data at different ages and developed an energy and cost estimation Excel model to compare systems using these innovative technologies with conventional leachate treatment. From energy and cost perspectives, two innovative biological processes could save conventional leachate treatment unit energy by 2.24-4.07 kWh/kg Nremoved and cost by \$0.86-2.09/kg CODremoved. Since the secondary treatment could only remove 10.2-37.3% of COD from old leachate, COD removal of old leachate mainly depends on the physical-chemical process rather than the biological process. Therefore, innovative biological technologies are more suitable for treating young leachate than old leachate. This study quantifies the cost benefits of the innovative technologies for treating leachate at different ages, which provides a valuable reference for future sustainable design of leachate treatment systems.

3.2. Introduction

Solid waste production increases with population and economic growth [44]. Landfilling is one of the common and important disposal methods of urban solid wastes worldwide [45]. In the United States and China, more than 53% and 80% of total solid

waste were disposed of in landfills, respectively [46-48]. Leachate, which is an unavoidable by-product in solid waste landfilling, contains a high concentration of organic matter and ammonia nitrogen [49, 50]. It would have a long negative effect on the aquatic environment if it were discharged directly into surface water and groundwater [51-53]. Therefore, landfill leachate as a unique wastewater pollution source must be properly treated before being discharged [45, 50, 54]. Leachate exhibits different compositions depending upon a variety of factors such as the quality and quantity of solid waste received, mode of operation, climatic conditions, depth of fill, and age of the landfill [55-58].

Landfilling age, which represents the degree of stabilization of the solids, is one of the most important parameters used in selecting a suitable leachate treatment method. Properties of leachate such as chemical oxygen demand (COD), biological oxygen demand (BOD), biodegradability, the content of humic substances, and ammonium nitrogen (NH⁴ + _N) dramatically change during solid waste decomposition in landfills [59-61]. Based on age, landfill leachates are commonly divided into young, medium, and old groups [59, 62-64]. Young leachate is commonly characterized by a high level of COD, high ratio of BOD/COD (ranging from 0.5 to 1), and a relatively low concentration of NH_4^+ ₋N [64-67]. The features of old leachate are relatively low COD concentrations, little biodegradability (BOD/COD \approx 0.1), high content of non-biodegradable soluble organic matter in the form of humic substances, high ammonia-nitrogen concentration, and low carbon-to-nitrogen ratio [64, 67-71]. The characteristics of medium leachate are somewhere between those values of the young and the old [72, 73].

Since leachate at various ages have a high concentration of NH_4^+ _N, COD, and different BOD/COD ratios, conventional treatment systems include primary physical

treatment, biological processes, and physical-chemical treatmentunits to meet the discharge requirements. Among these processes, biological processes were mostly applied for removing nitrogen and BOD from leachate [74-79]. For example, the activated sludge system with an autotrophic nitrification/heterotrophic denitrification process was commonly applied [50, 80]. Nitrification in a conventional activated sludge system converts most of the organic matters and ammonia nitrogen in leachate to $CO₂$ and $NO₃$. N under aerobic condition, while denitrification converts $NO₃⁻$ to $N₂$ with carbon source under anaerobic or anoxic conditions. However, nitrification and denitrification are relatively expensive in removing nitrogen, because it commonly requires external carbon sources, consumes a lot of energy for aeration, and produces large amounts of sludge [67].

Compared to the conventional methods, innovative technologies such as mainstream up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) and partial nitrification/Anammox (PN/A) are considered as sustainable technologies. Mainstream UASB is the key technology in converting a wastewater treatment plant from energy consumption to energy production. In the treatment scheme, biodegradable COD in wastewater is converted into CH⁴ at the operating temperature between 15 and 35℃ [20]. Mainstream UASB eliminates the aeration process required during the removal of dissolved biodegradable COD, produces energy in the form of CH4, and generates a much smaller amount of sludge to be disposed [21]. These advantages reduce operational costs when compared with conventional wastewater treatment [22, 23].

PN/A discovered in the 1990s is a two-step biological transformation of ammonia to nitrogen gas (N_2) [24, 81, 82]. During the partial nitrification step, 50-60% of ammonia in the influent is oxidized to nitrite [83, 84]. The remaining ammonia is subsequently

denitrified with nitrite to form N_2 and small amounts of nitrate in the Anammox step [85, 86]. In general, the PN/A process could save oxygen demand in nitrification by approximately 60%, eliminate external organic carbon source requirement for denitrification, and reduce sludge by 80-90% as compared to conventional nitrogen removal process [87-89]. As a result, mainstream UASB and partial nitrification/Anammox are considered as the most sustainable technologies to remove nitrogen. Garrido et al. [90] made mass and energy balances analysis of three kinds of Nremoval systems and demonstrated that the use of the mainstream anammox process offered an opportunity to recover the electricity. McCarty [91] compared O_2 consumption, CH⁴ production, and biosolid production of different N-removal systems and mainstream anaerobic treatment followed by mainstream anammox treatment. It has been shown conceptually to be the best energy-positive system for removing N. This research focused on comparing energy consumption and demand of wastewater treatment systems based on assumed wastewater quality using average values of reported wastewater quality. However, there are few cases of research assessing the efficiency and economic feasibility of this kind of energy positive process in treating young, medium, and old leachates with different compositions. Therefore, the current study aims to assess the leachate treatment system using UASB and PN/A from the energy and cost dimensions. The objectives of this study are to (1) evaluate the efficiency of secondary treatment (biological process) and tertiary treatment (physical-chemical process) for treating leachate at various landfill ages; (2) compare a system using innovative technologies with a conventional leachate treatment system in terms of unit energy consumption and production; (3) analyze and compare the unit cost of different leachate treatment systems. The ultimate goal of this study is to

quantify the cost-benefit of the innovative technologies for treating leachate at different ages and to offer an innovative design approach for future sustainable treatment of leachate.

3.3. Material and methods

In the current study, unit energy and cost were calculated based on different types of leachate quality. Leachate quality data was collected from published peer-reviewed papers, as shown in Table 3.1. The noticeable characteristics of young leachate samples were slightly high concentrations of suspended solids, BOD, COD, and BOD/COD ratio above 0.5 as shown in Table 3.1. The features of old leachate samples were considerably low BOD concentrations and biodegradability. An Excel-based model was developed in designing treatment systems of 1 MGD leachate using different innovative technologies [26-28]. To compare treatment performance and cost of the systems using UASB and PN/A technologies against a conventional leachate treatment system in treating leachate at different ages, the contaminant removal efficiency was modeled according to the influent leachate quality and effluent discharge requirements. Process flow diagrams of leachate treatment systems A and B are illustrated in Figure 3.1 to 3.2. To meet discharge requirements and compare the performance of system A and B in terms of unit energy and cost metrics, systems A and B were designed to achieve the same discharge standard $(COD \le 50 \text{mg/L}, BOD \le 20 \text{mg/L}, \text{and } NH_4^+$ N $\le 4.9 \text{mg/L}$ [61, 92, 93], so that systems A and B have similar COD and N removal efficiency. In both systems, a screen, grit chamber, rotating belt filter, and granular activated carbon system were used for preliminary treatment, primary treatment, and tertiary treatment for removing particulate matter and non-biodegradable soluble organic matter from leachate. The difference of the two systems is the secondary treatment processes. Specifically, system A uses the nitrificationdenitrification process as the main process for treating leachate to meet the discharge requirement by converting biodegradable COD and N to $CO₂$ and N₂. System B uses mainstream UASB and PN/A as the main systems for removing soluble BOD and N, which reduces aeration consumption through decreasing BOD and N loading to the nitrificationdenitrification system.

The unit energy consumption, production, and cost are estimated by the following equations [20, 26, 40]:

 $(CH_4$ production from UASB and anaerobic digester (kg/d)) Energy production(kWh/d) = (Energy recovery) (Enthalpy of combustion)

where

Energy recovery $= 38\%$

Enthalpy of combustion = 13.9 kWh/kg $CH₄$

Unit energy production(kWh/kg BOD_{removed}) = $\frac{\text{Energy production}(kWh/d)}{\text{BOD removal (kg/d)}}$

$$
(3.1)
$$

Energy consumption =
$$
\frac{\text{Aeration demand of aeration process (kgO}_2/d)}{\text{OT}_a}
$$

where

OT_a=Oxygen transfer efficiency (actual)=1.2 kg O₂/kWh

Unit energy consumption (kWh/ kg N_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Energy consumption (kWh/d)}}{N \text{ removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(3.2)

It was assumed that UASB combining heat and power technology could convert 38% of CH⁴ formed in the mainstream and the side stream anaerobic digestion to electricity with an energy density of approximately 13.9 kWh/kg CH4 [40]. The energy demand of a WWTP mainly includes power consumption of the wastewater lift pump, aeration equipment, and sludge treatment. The energy consumption of biological treatment accounts for 50–70% of the overall energy consumption [41]. Since UASB removes COD without consuming oxygen, the energy consumption of PN/A and nitrification– denitrification processes was the dominant energy demand. Biodegradable COD in wastewater were converted into CH₄ at 15 and 35 \degree C [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃. Therefore, energy consumption is estimated based on O_2 mass demand and oxygen transfer efficiency at 25 °C [26].

Capital cost(
$$
\frac{\sqrt{x}}{yr}
$$
) = $\frac{\text{Capital cost(\textcircled{s})}}{a_{i,n}}$

$$
a_{i,n} = \frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i(1+i)^n}
$$

where

ai, n=annualization factor

 $i =$ interest rate (annual)=6%

n=economic lifetime of the treatment plant in years=20 (yr)

Unit capital cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Capital cost($/yr)(365 d/yr)}}{\text{COD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

$$
(3.3)
$$

Unit O & M cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{O & M cost ($/yr)(365 d/yr)}{COD removal (kg/d)}
$$

(3.4)

Unit cost(\$/kg CODremoved)=Unit capital cost(\$/kg CODremoved)+Unit O&M cost(\$/kg

CODremoved)

(3.5)

For comparing the cost of treatment systems, the total capital costs (\$) were annualized over the expected lifetime of the WWTP. Economic lifetime and interest rates were assumed to be 20 years and 6% [26]. Capital costs (\$) were transformed into annualized capital costs (\$/yr) based on the interest rate and lifetime. The total unit cost was calculated as the combination of the unit capital costs and the unit operational costs. Except for preliminary and primary treatment, the cost of main treatment units and aeration equipment is related to reactor volume and aeration energy consumption. These are calculated based on characteristics of leachate and have a significant impact on the treatment system design.

Ages	TSS (mg/L)	BOD (mg/L)	\mathbf{COD} (mg/L)	TN (mg/L)	Reference
Young	1,894	4,979	9,310	1,172	[94]
	1,255	10,550	18,565	2,500	[95]
	2,400	10,800	24,400	1,766	$[96]$
	1,013	6,380	10,750	2,159	[97]
	1,540	9,660	18,420	2,517	[97]
	907	5,300	10,500	2,320	[98]
	724	4,680	9,890	2,225	[98]
Medium	154	2,307	8,938	2,550	[99]
	257	2,450	13,646	2,928	[99]
	143	2,684	5,348	2,192	[100]
	168	965	4,975	1,365	[101]
	393	1,957	6,638	2,072	[102]
	232	1,263	5,565	2,042	[103]
	595	5,550	12,554	2,102	[99]
Old	218	410	3,360	2,325	[104]
	30	372	3,105	1,937	[105]
	216	683	4,592	2,919	[106]
	542	420	3,580	1,889	[104]
	223	190	3,520	3,070	[98]
	430	1,375	5,200	3,147	$[107]$
	633	568	4,314	2,484	[104]

Table 3.1 Leachate quality at different ages of landfill sites

Figure 3.1 Schematic graphs of leachate treatment system A- direct line nitrification– denitrification process

Figure 3.2 Schematic graphs of leachate treatment system B- mainstream anaerobic treatment and anammox treatment

3.4. Results and discussions

3.4.1. Treatment efficiency of systems A and B

Since systems A and B were designed to achieve the same effluent concentration of contaminant and similar COD removal efficiency, the points that represent COD removal of systems A and B are superimposed over each other in Figure 3.3. Figures 3.4 and 3.5 shows that COD removal rises with increasing biodegradability (the BOD/COD mass concentration ratio). COD is reduced by anaerobic and aerobic biological processes; the BOD/COD ratio represents the ability of a substance to be removed by microorganisms [108]. Amin et al. [109] reported that conventional biological technologies could achieve COD removal of 63% and 80% or higher when the BOD/COD ratio was 0.2-0.3 and above 0.4, respectively. COD removal predicted by the Excel model is similar to the results reported by Amin et al [109]. The ratio of BOD/COD varies greatly depending on the

landfill age [45]. There are abundant biodegradable organic compounds in the young landfill leachate. With the increase of the landfill age, the biodegradable substrates were depleted, and non-biodegradable organic matters such as humic substances were dominant in leachate composition [110-112]. Figures 3.3 and 3.4 confirms that the leachate biodegradability decreased with the age of the landfill, and the COD removal by biological processes is negatively correlated to the age of the landfills. Figure 3.5 shows that COD removal of young, medium and old leachate by biological processes are 57.1-77.9, 25.5- 69.9, and 10.2-37.3%, respectively. After secondary treatment, humic substances, which are dominant in leachate composition, are adsorbed by the activated carbon system. Tertiary treatment needs to remove 13.5-32.6, 28.2-73.2, and 56.0-84.6 % of COD from the young, medium, and old leachate to achieve the same effluent COD concentration. Since the BOD/COD ratio decreases with rising age, COD removal of young leachate mainly depends on biological processes whereas old leachate mainly depends on physicalchemical methods. Therefore, UASB and PN/A are more suitable for treating young leachate than old leachate.

Figure 3.3 COD removal by biological processes in system A and B

Figure 3.4 Biodegradability of young, medium and old leachate

Figure 3.5 COD removal by secondary and tertiary treatment

3.4.2. Unit energy consumption and production

In energy benchmarking, unit energy metrics, which are key performance indicators of the wastewater treatment system, include the ratio between the daily energy consumption and treated wastewater flow ($kWh/m³$), COD mass removal (kWh/kg COD_{removed}), BOD mass removal (kWh/kg BOD_{removed}), or TN mass removal (kWh/kg N_{removed}) [33, 38]. Since leachate treatment systems were designed based on the same flow rate and different leachate quality, the unit energy consumption as a function of treated wastewater volume is not an appropriate performance metric. This is because the unit energy consumption and production as well as the unit operation cost will be significantly different if the sustainable metrics such as COD mass removal (kWh/kg COD_{removed}), BOD mass removal (kWh/kg BOD_{removed}), or TN mass removal (kWh/kg N_{removed}) in this study.

Aeration demand for the aerobic biological process is the dominant energy requirement for treating wastewater [113]. Since leachate found from published peer-reviewed papers contains a high concentration of N, most of the $O₂$ would be required to convert ammonia to nitrate, especially in system B. Mainstream UASB and side-stream anaerobic digesters convert soluble BOD in leachate and biodegradable particulate BOD sludge to CH⁴ for energy recovery. Therefore, the unit energy consumption per unit of N removal (kWh/kg Nremoved) and the unit energy production per unit of BOD removal (kWh/kg BODremoved) were used in this study.

Unit energy consumption of the two systems, as shown in Figure 3.6, rises with increasing N removal. The unit energy consumption of system B has a better correlation with the removed N load ($R^2 = 0.9516$) and requires less O₂ than system A. Activated sludge process with nitrification in system A consumes O_2 to remove BOD and N. However, most of the O_2 is used for removing N in the PN/A reactor due to soluble BOD removal by mainstream UASB in system B.

Figure 3.6 Unit energy consumption of the aeration process as a function of daily N removal

Figures 3.7 to 3.9 compare unit energy consumption (kWh/kg N_{removed}) and production (kWh/kg BODremoved) of the two systems. The statistical parameters of the unit energy consumption of systems A and B are presented in Figure 3.7. The average value, as well as the values at the 0th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 100th percentiles, are shown in the box plot. Since the average value is affected by extreme values, the median (50th percentile) is considered a more reliable indicator in assessing the performance of the leachate treatment system. Median unit energy consumption of systems A and B are 4.1 and 1.6 kWh/kg Nremoved, which are close to the specific energy demand for conventional nitrification/denitrification and de-ammonification [114]. Figure 3.7 demonstrates that the unit energy consumption of system A decreases as landfills' age increases, while system B

stays constant with age. Young leachate has a higher concentration of COD and BOD/COD ratio than intermediate and mature leachate, which increases the oxygen requirement of the nitrification reactor in system A. Mainstream UASB in system B reduces BOD to lower concentrations before the N removal process. Therefore, the O₂ demand of system B is not significantly affected by the biodegradability of the leachate. Compared with system A, unit energy saving of system B is 4.07, 2.68, and 2.24 kWh/kg Nremoved for young, medium, and old leachate, respectively. Therefore, system B could save energy by 56%-80% compared to system A.

Figure 3.7 Unit energy consumption of leachate at different age by system A and B

The unit energy production of two systems, which are shown in Figure 3.8, increases as BOD removal increases. BOD in leachate contributes mainly to CH4 production for generating electricity production except in the COD conversion to $CO₂$. Figure 3.9 compares the unit energy production of two treatment systems. Since UASB and the anaerobic digester in system B convert most of BOD to CH4, system B could produce more electricity than system A at the same amount of BOD removed when treating young and medium leachate. However, the unit energy production of system A is higher than that of system B for treating old leachate. Although old leachate contains a lower concentration of COD and BOD/COD ratio than the young and medium leachate, the external carbon source in the denitrification process increases electricity production for system A. Due to the high BOD removal in the nitrification reactor, the heterotrophic denitrification process needs exogenous organic carbon sources such as methanol for the conversion of nitrate or nitrite to nitrogen. Since PN/A reactor in system B could convert 90% of NH₄⁺-N to N₂ without adding organic carbon, system B needs less carbon sources than system A. On the other hand, old leachate has a higher concentration of NH₄⁺_N and soluble, biodegradable, organic nitrogen than young and medium leachate, so system A needs a greater amount of carbon source to achieve high N removal. For treating young and medium leachate, the differences of unit electricity production between system B and A are 0.99 and 0.55 kWh/kg BODremoved, respectively. This translates to unit energy productions of system B which are 112% and 36% higher than that of system A. Although system B produces less electricity than system A when treating old leachate, it needs a smaller amount of carbon source for the denitrification process.

Figure 3.8 Unit energy production as a function of daily BOD removal

Figure 3.9 Unit energy production of leachate at different age by system A and B

In system B, mainstream UASB is the key technology for producing energy in the form of CH4. Leachate quality at different ages has a significant effect on the performance of the UASB reactor. Figure 3.10 suggests that the CH_4 production/COD removal $(\%)$ rises with an increasing BOD/COD mass concentration ratio. Because of the higher biodegradability (BOD/COD>0.5), the COD of young leachate can be effectively converted to CH⁴ during the mainstream anaerobic digestion process. On the other hand, UASB is ineffective for treating leachate from old landfills with a low BOD/COD ratio and a high fraction of refractory soluble organic matter such as humic and fulvic acids [115]. Due to the low biogas production rate, COD removal of old leachate in the UASB reactor depends on the process of sedimentation. However, humic substances are soluble and discharged with the effluent of the UASB reactor. Therefore, UASB technology is applicable to young leachate treatment.

In tertiary treatment, adsorption is used for removing soluble substances by the accumulation of those substances on activated carbon. Based on the mass balance and Freundlich adsorption isotherm [27], adsorption performance and amount of activated carbon are mostly related to soluble COD concentration. For meeting the discharge requirements, secondary treatments in two systems are designed to achieve the same effluent BOD concentration. Humic substances are not easily removed by biological processes due to their solubility and nonbiodegradability [60]. Therefore, influent COD concentrations of tertiary treatment are similar in the two systems, and different biological methods have less effect on the treatment performance of the activated carbon system.

Figure 3.10 CH₄ production/COD removal by UASB reactor for treating leachate at different age in system B

3.4.3. Cost analysis

Young landfill leachate is characterized by high organic content, whereas old leachate is characterized by low biodegradability. COD removal by secondary treatment is positively related to the BOD/COD ratio. Therefore, the unit cost metric $(\frac{C}{K}Kg$ COD_{removed}) was selected as the indicator for this study. Cost was estimated by using the Excel-based model developed for this study to compare the unit cost of system B with that of system A as shown in Figure 3.11. It clearly shows that the unit cost of two systems increase with landfill age, while the COD concentration and BOD/COD ratio decrease. Young leachate has a higher biodegradability and lower concentration of NH_4^+ and soluble, biodegradable organic nitrogen than medium and old leachate. The young landfill leachate treatment system needs less carbon source and saves unit capital and O&M costs through smaller N removal reactors when compared to other systems. These aspects reduce the unit cost of the young landfill leachate treatment system. In contrast to system A, the unit cost savings of system B are 0.86, 1.08, and 2.09 $\frac{K}{2}$ COD_{removed} for young, medium, and old leachate, respectively. System B reduced the unit cost by 53%-72% compared to system A. The nitrification–denitrification process in system A consumes a great amount of $O₂$ and external carbon source for the conversion of BOD and ammonia nitrogen to $CO₂$ and N² resulting in large amounts of sludge production. UASB and the PN/A reactor in system B removed most of the soluble BOD and 90% of NH₄⁺-N before the activated sludge system, which decreased external carbon source requirement, aeration demand, sludge production, and size of the nitrification-denitrification system. Due to a high sludge concentration, sludge generation from UASB and PN/A is not required to be concentrated by a sludge thickener, which reduces the size of the thickener and anaerobic digester. Therefore, system B is more economical than system A.

Figure 3.11 Unit daily cost of leachate at different landfill age by system A and B 3.5. Conclusions

The current study collected leachate quality data at different landfill ages and developed an Excel-based model for comparing the performance of a leachate treatment system with different technologies, as shown in Figure A.18 and A.19. COD removal of leachate by the biological treatment process was affected by the BOD/COD ratio, which is negatively correlated with the age of the landfills. The energy and economic analysis of the system using mainstream UASB and PN/A and a conventional leachate treatment system showed that energy consumption, production, and cost are related to BOD, COD, and N removal of leachate. For young, medium, and old leachate, system B could save unit energy by 4.07, 2.68, and 2.24 kWh/kg N_{removed} than system A. System B improves unit energy production by 0.99 and 0.55 kWh/kg BOD_{removed} compared to system A for treating young and medium leachate, respectively. Furthermore, the unit cost saving of system B is 0.86, 1.08, and 2.09 $\frac{6}{2}$ (COD_{removed} for young, medium, and old leachate. COD removal from young leachate mainly depends on biological processes while old leachate mainly depends on physical-chemical methods. UASB is ineffective for converting COD of old leachate to biogas. These results suggest that the system using mainstream UASB and partial nitrification/Anammox is the best young leachate treatment system in unit energy and cost.

4. EFFECT OF MICRO-SIEVING ON THE UNIT ENERGY AND COST IN FOOD WASTEWATER TREATMENT SYSTEM

4.1. Abstract

According to the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering, micro-sieving is an effective way to prevent organic pollutants from entering the main biological treatment unit and has been identified as one of the major critical technologies in designing water resource recovery facilities. It has been successfully applied to improve treatment capacity and WWTP treatment performance. However, few researchers studied the effect of the micro-sieving on food processing wastewater treatment systems which use mainstream anaerobic digestion and the anammox process. The current study collected food processing wastewater quality data and targeted at different suspended solids removal. The hypothesis is that microsieving significantly reduce energy consumption and reduce unit operation cost. Excelbased models were developed to compare the performance of historical, common, and innovative nitrogen removal methods in terms of energy metrics with different primary suspended solids removal. Results showed that micro-sieving is more effective in reducing oxygen requirement and increasing biogas production and $CH₄/O₂$ energy ratio of historical and common systems. However, micro-sieving alone could not achieve energy positive because of high energy consumption in activated sludge process and nitrification. When micro-sieving was used together with UASB and PN/A , energy positive could be achieved.Results show that $CH₄/O₂$ energy ratio in an innovative system decreases at the average rate of 0.1 % per 5% TSS removal. The impact of micro-sieving on energy recovery of an innovative system is negative. On the other hand, micro-sieving also reduces the required size and cost of the UASB reactor through decreasing BOD mass load to UASB, systems with different primary treatments have significant impact of micro-sieving on innovative systems through reduction of unit operation cost. In addition, micro-sieving could increase the biodegradability of wastewater and total COD removal by 5-40% and 1-4%, respectively. Unit energy analysis showed that a primary clarifier and micro-sieving could save unit energy by 1-4% and 1-8%, respectively, compared with a treatment system without primary treatment Micro-sieving decreases total CH⁴ production through reducing BOD loading to UASB, which leads to low unit energy production. On the other hand, micro-sieving also reduces the size and cost of UASB and PN/A reactors. The economic benefit due to reduced size of mainstream reactors compensates for the disadvantage of low biogas production. In cost analysis, systems with microsieving could reduce unit cost compared to systems without primary treatment by 27% and those with primary clarifiers by 16%. This study quantifies the positive impact of micro sieving on energy-positive food processing wastewater treatment systems. The innovative treatment train is intended to provide a valuable reference for future sustainable food processing wastewater treatment designs.

4.2. Introduction

Food processing wastewater is an unavoidable by-product of industrial activity and increases with population and industrial growth [116]. Effluent from food processing contains large amounts of suspended organic matter, protein, and fat (i.e., bones, meat, and viscera). High concentration of COD, BOD, TN, and TSS is typical for food processing wastewater [117-119]. For example, the average COD, BOD, TN, and TSS concentration of food wastewater could be as high as 4,221 mg/L, 1,209 mg/L, 427 mg/L, and 1,164 mg/L, respectively [117]. Therefore, food processing wastewater could be a major pollution source if it is inadequately treated. River deoxygenation, algal blooms, and eutrophication are all potential environmental damages [120, 121].

Since food processing wastewater has a high concentration of COD, BOD, and TN, biological processes are the preferred treatment method due to its effectiveness and energy saving in treating high-strength wastewater. Biological processes include conventional treatment such as an activated sludge (AS) process with autotrophic nitrification/heterotrophic denitrification process and innovative treatment such as upflow anaerobic sludge blanket and partial nitrification/anammox (PN/A). UASB converts biodegradable COD to CH4 without using oxygen. PN/A saves approximately 60% of oxygen demand in nitrification, eliminates external organic carbon source requirement of denitrification, and reduces 80-90% of sludge when compared to the conventional nitrogen removal process [20, 21, 87, 89, 122]. For the first time, this study explores the possibility of applying UASB or PN/A as the main processes for reducing soluble BOD and N to achieveenergy positive food processing wastewater treatment.

Due to the high concentration of TSS in food processing wastewater, primary treatment could be used to reduce the particulate matter in the wastewater. The primary clarifier (PC), which uses gravity separation to remove total suspended solids and reduce chemical oxygen demand that passes through preliminary treatment, is the most widely used primary treatment in a traditional wastewater treatment plant. However, PCs have a large footprint and are costly to install [123]. Micro-sieving, such as a rotating belt filter, offers a more sustainable alternative with a smaller footprint, and lower capital costs when compared to large setting tanks [15, 16]. Since the land requirement of a RBF is typically 10% of that of a primary clarifier [17], the capital cost of primary treatment could be saved approximately 50% with RBFs compared with the conventional PC [18]. RBF could divert at least 50% of TSS and 20% of biochemical oxygen demand from the main treatment stream to mesophilic anaerobic

digester [15, 19]. As a result, micro-sieving decreases the amount of oxygen needed for aeration through reducing the organic loading rate to biological reactors and increases biogas production for energy recovery because of diverting COD in the form of primary sludge from mainstream to anaerobic digesters. Therefore, micro-sieving is considered as one of the most sustainable technologies to separate TSS in the early stage of the treatment train to prevent intensive energy required in traditional aeration of activated sludge system.

Micro-sieving has been identified as a major critical technology in designing water resource recovery facilities according to the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering [14]. Although some studies on suspended solids removal and micro-sieving were done over 40 years ago [124, 125], recent studies about the application of micro-sieving for treating municipal wastewater are relatively sparse. Noticeably, Rusten and Ødegaard [15] quantified the TSS removal efficiency of RBF in the primary treatment of municipal wastewater. Their results showed that most primary clarifiers were unable to meet the primary treatment requirements of the European Union (EU). Micro-sieving achieved the TSS removal of primary treatment as required by EU regulations. Sarathy et al. [126] compared the characteristics of primary solids separated from municipal wastewater by PC and RBF. RBF sludge contained higher organic content than PC sludge and increased methane production without increasing the size of the anaerobic digester. This research focused on comparing TSS removal efficiency and sludge production of PC and RBF in the wastewater treatment system. Currently, there are few cases of research studying the impact of micro-sieving on food wastewater treatment systems using mainstream anaerobic digestion and anammox treatment from energy and cost dimensions. Therefore, the objectives of this study are to (1) compare the performance of primary clarifier and micro-sieving according to the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering [14]; (2) evaluate the influence of micro-sieving on treatment performance of energy positive system; (3) compare the effect of microsieving and primary clarifier on food wastewater treatment system in terms of unit energy consumption and production; (4) carry out unit cost analysis to quantify the effect of micro sieving on the innovative food wastewater treatment trains. The ultimate goal of this paper is to quantify the positive impact of the micro-sieving on treatment systems with innovative technologies and to offer an innovative design approach for future sustainable wastewater treatment of food wastewater.

4.3. Materials and methods

4.3.1. Data and process flow

The current study collected data of food processing wastewater from peer-reviewed papers, as shown in Table 4.1. The databases of untreated wastewater quality included conventional wastewater quality such as the concentration of TSS, COD, BOD, TN, and NH₄⁺_N. The noticeable characteristics of food processing wastewater samples were slightly high concentrations of suspended solids, BOD, COD, and BOD/COD ratio of between 0.29-0.57 in Table 4.1. Unit energy and cost were calculated based on various kinds of food wastewater quality. An Excel-based model was developed in designing a one million gallon a day (MGD) food processing wastewater treatment system with different primary and secondary treatments, based on literature [26-28]. The treatment flow diagrams of food processing wastewater treatment systems A-C are illustrated in table 4.2 and Figures 4.1 to 4.3. The differences of system A, B and C were the secondary treatment technologies. System A represents the historical nitrogen removal approach. It consumes O_2 to convert BOD and NH_4^+ N to CO_2 , and NO_3 N first, followed by denitrification using an external organic carbon source as the electron donor for converting NO3_N to N2. System B represents the common nitrogen removal processes. It uses denitrification as the first stage followed by activated sludge process and nitrification. NO_3 N produced in the nitrification zone is recycled to the denitrification zone. Denitrifying bacteria uses influent BOD as a carbon source to reduce NO3_N. System C represents the innovative method using UASB and PN/A for removing pollutants without consuming $O₂$ or organic carbon sources. Schmidt and Dhulashia [127] reported TSS removal through a conventional primary clarifier and micro-sieving are 30-50% and 50-90%, respectively. Hence, the hypothesis is that micro-sieving could remove 60%, 65%, 70%, 75%, 80%, 85%, and 90% of TSS. TSS removal through primary clarifiers is assumed to be 30% and 50%. According to the hypothesis, we will study the effect of the removal of different primary suspended solids in terms of energy consumption and the production. In the innovative system C, micro-sieving could divert more particulate BOD to side stream high-rate anaerobic digester than primary clarifier. However, this process decreases CH⁴ production of mainstream anaerobic digesters through reducing the BOD load to UASB. Therefore, micro-sieving with higher TSS removal could reduce energy production. On the other hand, lower BOD mass load to a UASB also reduces the required size and cost of the UASB reactor. Since the impact of different primary treatments on the cost of an innovative system is unknown, for comparing the cost of systems with different primary treatments, system D, E and F are developed, as shown in table 4.2 and Figures 4.3 and 4.4. System D eliminates primary treatment to maximize the BOD load to UASB. System E and F use primary clarifiers and micro-sieving to divert particulate BOD to side stream anaerobic digester. Since micro-sieving could save 30-60 % of capital cost as compared to the primary clarifier with 50% TSS removal [17], 50% is assumedas TSS removal of clarifier in system E, according to the literature values. For example,

Behera et al. [30] reported TSS removal changes through micro sieving (360 micron screen size) for treating wastewater with different TSS concentrations. Then, they developed an empirical model for estimating TSS removal. For reflecting actual work conditions of micro-sieving, estimated values based on the empirical model are used for TSS removal of micro sieving in system F.

Table 4.1 Food Wastewater Quality

TSS (mg/L)	BOD (mg/L)	\mathbf{COD} (mg/L)	TN (mg/L)	Reference
950	1200	2100	220	[128]
1400	1070	2350	317	129
1164	1209	4221	427	1 1 7
662	891	1697	246	[130]
625	1320	3900	217	[131
3438	1602	5422	361	132

Table 4.2 Systems with different primary and secondary treatment

Figure 4.1 Scheme of food wastewater treatment system A- direct line nitrification/denitrification with primary clarifier or micro-sieving

Figure 4.2 Scheme of food wastewater treatment system B- recycle line nitrification/denitrification with primary clarifier or micro-sieving

Figure 4.3 Scheme of food wastewater treatment system C, E and F- mainstream anaerobic treatment and anammox treatment with primary clarifier or micro-sieving

- 4.3.2. Equations for estimating energy and cost
	- 4.3.2.1. Energy and cost of primary treatment

TSS removal, power consumption, and cost of primary treatment are calculated by

the following equations [17, 30, 35, 37, 133]:

TSS removal of primary clarifier $(\%) = -0.004006$ [Surface overflow rate (m/d)]

+0.73782

(4.1)
TSS removal of rotating belt filter(%) =16.45ln [Influent TSS concentration(mg/L)]-

29.1

(4.2)

Power Consumption of rotating belt filter=129.6 kWh/d

(4.3)

Power Consumption of primary clarifier=30 kWh/d

(4.4)

Capital cost of rotating belt filter($\hat{\theta}$) = 0.55Capital cost of priamry clarifier with 50%

TSS removal(\$)

 (4.5)

Capital cost of priamry clarifier=-0.00002(Q)²+19.29(Q)+220,389

Q=32.6/surface overflow rate (influent flow rate)

 (4.6)

Capital and O&M costs of primary treatment are related to the flow rate. This study examines the influence of different food processing wastewater quality on treatment systems, 1 MGD was used as the flow rate of different treatment systems. A rotating belt filter has a typical operating power consumption of 1.8-3.6 kW for a flow rate of 0.6 MGD [17]; two rotating belt filters with total energy consumption of 5.4 kW were used for treating wastewater. The TSS concentration of food wastewater varies from 625 to 3,438.22 mg/L, micro-sieving could achieve a high TSS removal. However, the power consumption of micro-sieving is higher than that of the primary clarifier, which is 1.25 kW for the treated flow of 1 MGD [133]. When the TSS removal was 50%, the capital cost of micro- sieving is 50%-60% of the conventional primary treatment. It is assumed that the capital cost of micro sieving is 55% of that of primary clarifier with 50% TSS removal. Micro-sieving only had a 10% footprint of the clarifier [17]. Therefore, low capital cost and high TSS removal compensate for the disadvantage of high-power consumption.

4.3.2.2. Energy production of anaerobic digestion

Wastewater quality, retention time, temperature affects COD removal and methane production of UASB. Cavalcanti et al. [42] reported detailed empiric equations that was used to predict the division of the influent COD over the effluent. These account for wastewater quality, sludge age, and temperature.

$$
m\text{Seu} = \text{fns} + \frac{0.27 \exp[-0.04 \cdot (\text{Rsu} - 4)]}{1.067^{T-25}}
$$

(4.7)

$$
mSxvu = fnp + fcv \cdot \text{Yan} \cdot (1 - fns - fnp) + \frac{0.25 \exp[-0.04 \cdot (\text{Rsu} - 4)]}{1.067^{T-25}}
$$

(4.8)

$$
mSdu = 1 - mSeu - mSxvu
$$
\n(4.9)

where:

mSeu = fraction of influent COD ending up as non-settleable COD in the UASB effluent (g COD/g COD)

 $mSxvu = influent COD fraction converted into anaerobic excess sludge (g COD/g)$

COD)

mSdu = fraction of influent COD digested in UASB (g COD/g COD)

T=temperature=25°C

fns = non-biodegradable, soluble influent COD fraction (g COD/g COD)

fnp = non-biodegradable particulate influent COD fraction (g COD/g COD)

Rsu = anaerobic sludge age in the UASB reactor

Yan = yield coefficient in an anaerobic environment (0.05 g $VSS/g COD$) as determined by Cavalcanti et al. [42]

Since the sludge age of UASB is greater than 20 days [26], sludge age is assumed to be 40 days. Since biodegradable COD in wastewater could be converted into CH⁴ at 15 and 35℃ [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃.

Energy production of UASB (kWh/d) =(mSdu) (Q_{UASB})(S_{UASB}) (0.25 g CH₄/g COD) $(10^{-3}$ kg/g) $(13.9$ kWh/kg CH₄) $(38%)$

(4.10)

Theoretical unit energy production of UASB (kWh/kg COD_{removed})
=
$$
\frac{\text{Energy production of UASB (kWh/d)}}{\text{COD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(4.11)

where:

mSdu = fraction of influent COD digested in UASB (g COD/g COD)

 S_{UASB} = Influent COD concentration to UASB (g/m³)

QUASB=Flow rate to UASB (m^3/d)

COD removal in UASB (kg/d) = COD digested in UASB+COD discharged as sludge

Qasim and Zhu [28] reported that 1 kg COD could be converted to 0.25 kg CH4 by UASB. It was assumed that UASB, which combines heat and power technologies, could convert 38% of CH⁴ formed in the anaerobic digestion to electricity with an energy density of approximately 13.9 kWh/kg CH⁴ [40].

$$
RT_{AD}\!\!=\!\!15d
$$

(4.12)

 $T_{AD} = 35$ °C

(4.13)

biodegradable COD destruction value =0.7

(4.14)

A side stream anaerobic digester is used to produce CH⁴ from sludge in the absence of air at a specific solid retention time and a specific temperature. Mean values of solids retention time and temperature shall be between 15 days at 35℃ to 55 ℃ and 60 days at 20℃ [134], respectively. Kabouris et al. [135] reported that the biodegradable volatile solids destruction value of anaerobic digester was 69% at a retention time of 12 days and 35℃. It was reported 70% of biodegradable COD could be converted to CH⁴ at 35℃ [40]. As a result, retention time, temperature and biodegradable COD destruction value were assumed to be 15 days, 35℃ and 70%, respectively.

4.3.2.3. Energy consumption of PN/A

The reaction of the PN/A process can be depicted as the following equation [28]: NH_4^+ +0.799 O₂ +1.109 HCO₃ \rightarrow 0.436 N₂ +0.111 NO₃⁻+1.034 CO₂ +2.496 H₂O+New biomass

(4.15)

The overall oxygen requirement for conversion of ammonia to nitrogen gas and nitrate is 1.83 g O_2/g NH₄-N converted.

> $=1.32$ kWh/ kg N_{removed} a 2^7 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ OT Theoretical unit energy consumption of $PN/A = \frac{1.83 \text{ kgO}_2/\text{kg NH}_4 - N}{2\pi}$

> > (4.16)

where

 $OT_a=Oxygen$ transfer efficiency (actual)=1.2 kg O_2/kWh [26]

Since biodegradable COD in wastewater could be converted into CH⁴ at 15 and 35℃ [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃. Therefore, energy consumption is estimated based on O_2 mass demand and oxygen transfer efficiency at 25 °C [26].

4.3.2.4. Energy and cost of WWTP

The following equations are used for estimating unit energy consumption, production, and cost of WWTPs [26, 39, 40].

Unit energy production(kWh/kg BODremoved)

$$
= \frac{(13.9 \text{ kWh/kg CH}_4)(38\%)(\text{CH}_4 \text{ production (kg/d)})}{\text{BOD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(4.17)

Unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3) Oxygen tra nsfer efficiency (actual)Q $=\frac{\text{Aeration demand of PN/A (kgO}_2/d)}{2.2 \times 10^{-25} \text{ J/m}^2}$

Unit energy consumption (kWh/ kg N_{removed})

Oxygen tra nsfer efficiency (actual)(N removal (kg/d)) Aeration demand of PN/A (kgO $_2$ /d) $=\frac{2 \times 100}{2} = \frac{2 \times 100}{2} = 2.00 \times 100 =$

where

Q=flow rate (m^3/d)

Oxygen transfer efficiency (actual)= $1.2 \text{ kg O}_2/\text{kWh}$

(4.18)

Electricity consumption of a WWTP is mainly comprised by power consumption of the wastewater lift pump, aeration equipment, and sludge treatment. The energy consumption of biological treatment accounts for 50–70% of the overall energy

consumption [41]. Since UASB removes COD without consuming oxygen, aeration energy of the PN/A process was the dominant energy demand.

Capital cost(
$$
\$/yr
$$
) = $\frac{\text{Capital cost}(\$)}{a_{i,n}}$

$$
a_{i,n} = \frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i(1+i)^n}
$$

where

ai, n=annualization factor

i =interest rate (annual)=6%

n=economic lifetime of the treatment plant in years=20 (yr)

Total cost(
$$
\$/d
$$
)=Capital cost($\$/d$)+O&M cost($\$/d$)

(4.19)

Unit capital cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Capital cost($/yr)(365 d/yr)}}{\text{COD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(4.20)

Unit O & M cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{O & M cost ($/yr)(365 d/yr)}{COD removal (kg/d)}
$$

(4.21)

Unit cost(\$/kg COD_{removed})=Unit capital cost(\$/kg COD_{removed})+Unit O&M cost(\$/kg

$$
\mathrm{COD}_{\mathrm{removed}})
$$

(4.22)

For comparing the cost of systems with different primary treatment, the total capital costs (\$) were annualized over the expected lifetime of the WWTP. Economic lifetime and interest rate were assumed to be 20 years and 6%[26]. Capital costs (\$) were transformed into annualized capital costs (\$/yr) based on the interest rate and lifetime. The total unit cost was calculated as the combination of the unit capital costs and the unit operational costs.

4.4. Results and discussion

4.4.1. Effect of different primary suspended solids removal for treating the

specific food wastewater quality

4.4.1.1. Pollutant mass load

The first row of data in table 4.1 was selected as the specific food wastewater quality for studying the impact of different primary suspended solids removal on the performance of systems A, B, and C. According to the coefficients of the wastewater obtained from GPS-X 7.0 in table 4.3, the total COD, BOD and N of the specific food processing wastewater were divided into fractions as shown in table 4.4. The analytical result shows that the influent particulate COD, BOD and N fractions are 48, 42 and 15%. BOD, COD and N removal rise with increasing TSS removal in Figure 4.5. Due to a lower particulate N fraction, the effect of micro-sieving on BOD and COD removal is greater than N removal.

Parameter	Value	Reference
Volatile Suspended Solids/Total Suspended Solids, VSS/TSS	0.75	[135]
Particulate COD/Volatile Suspended Solids, pCOD/VSS	1.42	[91]
Colloidal COD/slowly biodegradable COD, cCOD/sbCOD	0.15	[135]
BOD to COD ratio of soluble and colloidal biodegradable substrates, $fBOD/(bsCOD + cCOD)$	0.717	[135]
BOD to COD ratio of particulate biodegradable substrate, pBOD/pCOD	0.58	[135]
Biodegradable particulate organic nitrogen/biodegradable particulate COD, bpON/bpCOD	0.0268	[123]
Non-biodegradable particulate organic nitrogen/non-biodegradable particulate COD, nbpON/nbpCOD	0.068	[123]
Non-biodegradable soluble organic nitrogen/non-biodegradable soluble COD, nbsON/nbsCOD	0.05	[135]

Table 4.3 Coefficients of the wastewater obtained from GPS-X 7.0

Figure 4.5 Pollutant mass load removal by primary treatment

4.4.1.2. Oxygen demand

Primary treatment removes particulate BOD and N to reduce influent BOD and bON mass load to the secondary treatment. Oxygen demand decreases with increasing primary suspended solids removal in Figure 4.6. Compared to the conventional primary clarifier with 30-50% TSS removal, micro-sieving is more effective in reducing oxygen requirement of historical, common, and innovative systems because of higher solids capture. In an innovative system, O_2 is only used for the partial nitrification process due to BOD removal by micro sieving and UASB without consuming O_2 . System C with different suspend solids removal needs less O_2 than systems A and B. Oxygen requirement in systems A, B, and C decrease at the average rate of 1.7%, 2.3%, and 0.5% per 5% TSS removal. The change of oxygen demand reduction in system C is smaller than those in system A and B. Micro-sieving has very low efficiency in removing soluble biodegradable N and NH_4^+ N from wastewater. All soluble N enters into PN/A reactor. Due to low N removal, the impact of micro-sieving on oxygen demand of system C is smaller than those of system A and B.

Figure 4.6 Oxygen demand for different primary suspended solids removal 4.4.1.3. CH⁴ production

Primary treatment captures particulate BOD for direct anaerobic digestion prior to biological conversion to sludge. In the activated sludge process, BOD in wastewater is first converted to CO² and biomass. Energy of biomass is subsequently recovered through anaerobic digestion at low energy efficiency. In systems A and B, total CH⁴ production at standard temperature and pressure condition rise with increasing primary suspended solids removal, as shown in Figure 4.7. Compared to the conventional primary clarifier with 30-50% TSS removal, micro-sieving is more effective in increasing CH⁴ production of conventional systems because of higher particulate BOD division to side stream anaerobic digester. The external organic carbon source, which is added to system A for denitrification, is converted to biomass for indirect anaerobic digestion. Adding an external organic carbon source increases cost of chemicals but also increases CH_4 production. Therefore, system A could produce more CH_4 than system B, as shown in Figure 4.7. In an innovative system, UASB and anaerobic digestion directly converts most of BOD in wastewater to CH4. Hence, methane production of system C is 1.6-2.5 times that of system A and B. However, methane production in system C decreases at the average rate of 0.35% per 5% TSS removal. Primary treatment with higher TSS removal could separate more particulate BOD from wastewater to high-rate anaerobic digester. On the other hand, this process also decreases CH⁴ production of mainstream anaerobic digester by reducing the BOD mass load to UASB. Mainstream UASB with high sludge age of 40 d could convert BOD more efficiently to CH⁴ than the high-rate anaerobic digester. In general, the impact of micro-sieving on CH⁴ production of system C is negative.

Figure 4.7 CH₄ production for different primary suspended solids removal

4.4.1.4. $CH₄/O₂$ energy ratio

Figure 4.8 presents CH_4/O_2 energy ratio for all treatment systems. Since the energy ratio is above 1, system A with greater than 85% TSS removal and system B with greater than 65 % TSS removal could produce enough electricity to satisfy the energy demand for oxygen production. Due to higher BOD to division to an anaerobic digester, micro sieving is more effective in recovering energy of historical and common systems when compared to the conventional primary clarifier. The energy consumption of biological treatment accounts for 50–70% of the overall energy consumption [41]. Oxygen demand is assumed to be 60% of total energy consumption, in which case only system C could achieve electrical self-sufficiency because its energy ratio is above 8. Figure 4.8 shows that CH_4/O_2 energy ratio in system C decreases at the average rate of 0.1 % per 5% TSS removal. Micro-sieving with higher TSS removal reduces CH⁴ production of system C, which leads to a negative influence of micro- sieving on energy recovery. However, micro-sieving also reduces the required size and cost of UASB reactor by decreasing BOD mass load to UASB. Therefore, the impact of micro-sieving on the unit operational cost of the innovative systems is explored in the next section.

Figure 4.8 CH₄/O₂ energy ratio for different primary suspended solids removal

4.4.2. Assessment of the primary treatment

The performance of primary clarifier and micro-sieving could be compared based on the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering, as shown in Table 4.5 [14]. On the spatial scale, the land requirement of RBF is typically 10% of that of the primary clarifier [17]. Since primary clarifier is often construted open to the weather, treatment efficiency is impacted by temperature under weather change. Micro-sieving is a modular and flexible design that could be installed indoors or outdoor to serve WWTPs with any capacity requirement. In terms of materials, primary sedimentations are circular concrete tanks, and the major construction material of micro sieving is stainless steel, while concrete and steel are recyclable materials. However, the quality of recycled concrete is 15-25% lower than that of the original concrete. Steel could be recycled repeatedly without loss of strength [136]. In terms of separation, the solids content of micro-sieving sludge is 3-8%, which is significantly higher than that of primary clarifier sludge [17]. Gupta [123] compared the removal efficiency of cellulose by different primary treatments. The cellulose contents in micro-sieved sludge and primary clarifier sludge are 37 ± 1 % and 18 ± 0.2 % cellulose, respectively. Since cellulose represents a major component of the particulate matter in raw municipal wastewater, micro-sieving has the ability to separate more sludge with higher percent dry solids than clarifiers. From energy and cost perspectives, the typical operating power consumption of micro sieving is 1.8-3.6 kW for a flow rate of 0.6 million gallons per day (MGD), and the energy demand of primary is 1.25 kW for the treated flow of 1 MGD [17, 133]. The capital cost of primary treatment could be reduced by approximately 50% with RBFs as compared to the conventional PC [18]. On the other hand, micro-sieving consumes more electricity than a primary clarifier for treating the same volume of wastewater, which leads to its higher O&M cost. On the other hand, the separation process by micro sieving reduces BOD and COD mass to biological reactors to decrease oxygen demand, required size and cost of mainstream equipment. Micro-sieving could be proved to be an economical and efficient alternative to the conventional primary clarifier when the benefit due to cost-saving is higher than its increased cost.

	Primary clarifier	Micro sieving
Land requirement	Large	10% of the clarifier
Installation	Outdoor	Indoor or outdoor
Major construction material	Concrete	Stainless steel
TSS Removal Efficiency	$30 - 50$	50-90
Solids Content (%)	$1-6$	$3 - 8$
Capital cost	High	40%-70% of the clarifier
Operating power consumption $(kwh/m3)$	0.008	0.019-0.038

Table 4.5 Comparison between primary clarifier and micro sieving

4.4.3. Influence of primary treatment

4.4.3.1. Treatment performance of primary and secondary treatment

Figure 4.9 shows that the COD diversion to side stream anaerobic digester by micro-sieving is higher than that by the primary clarifier. The primary clarifier depends on the settling velocity of particles, flow rate, and surface overflow rate. In microsieving, particulate removal is achieved by filter-mesh under pressure. As wastewater flows through the filter-mesh, the suspended solids are retained on the mesh, and the filtered wastewater is transported by gravity to the outlet pipe [16]. Mesh pore size, the particle size distribution of influent wastewater, and flow rate dictate the performance of micro-sieving [137]. Since the retained suspended solids form an extra layer on the mesh, which contributes to retaining a greater number of particulates on the filter, TSS removal efficiency is positively related to TSS concentration to micro-sieving [30]. Most of the food wastewater has a high concentration of TSS, as shown in table 4.1, micro-sieving could retain more particulates on the filter and divert more COD to anaerobic digester than clarifier.

Figure 4.9 COD removal of primary and secondary treatment Note: 1: primary treatment in system D, 2: primary treatment in system E, 3: primary treatment in system F, 4: secondary treatment in system D, 5: secondary treatment in system E, 6: secondary treatment in system F, 7: primary and secondary treatment in system D, 8: primary and secondary treatment in system E, 9: primary and secondary treatment in system F

Since the PN/A process does not require organic carbon sources for denitrification, mainstream UASB in the secondary treatment removes most of the remaining COD after primary treatment, as shown in Figure 4.9. The COD removal by the UASB in system C is less than those of other systems due to high COD removal of micro sieving. However, total COD removal of systems A, B, and C are 53.7%-87.9%, 54.6%-89.4%, and 55.3%-90.3%, respectively. COD removal of food processing wastewater increased by 1-2% with primary clarifier and by 1-4% with micro-sieving. Therefore, the COD removal of wastewater treatment could be improved by micro-sieving.

4.4.3.2. Treatment performance of primary and secondary treatment

Biodegradability (BOD/COD ratio), which represents the ability of a substance to be removed by microorganisms, is commonly used as an indicator of wastewater biodegradability [108]. High biodegradability is a sufficient condition of biodegradation. Figure 4.10 shows the BOD/COD ratio of untreated wastewater and treated wastewater by primary clarifier and micro-sieving. Primary treatment reduces COD mass to secondary treatment, as shown in Figure 4.9. This process results in increased biodegradability of wastewater due to the reduction of particulate nonbiodegradable COD in wastewater. Figure 4.10 demonstrates that the BOD/COD ratio of food processing wastewater increased by 3-11% with the primary clarifier and by 5- 40% with micro-sieving. Gupta [123] reported the effect of different primary treatments on biodegradable (biodegradable COD/COD). The results showed that primary clarifier and micro-sieving increased the biodegradable fraction from 71% to 80% and from 71% to 74%, respectively. The differences between Gupta's study and the current study are TSS removal efficiency of primary treatment. In Gupta's investigation [123], primary clarifier could achieve 67%-73% of TSS removal, and micro sieving could remove 26%-28% of TSS from wastewater due to different wastewater quality and design of primary clarifier. In addition, biodegradability increases with increasing TSS removal. Due to high TSS concentration and particulate matter fraction, micro-sieving could improve the biodegradability of food processing wastewater more significantly as compared with the primary clarifier.

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.10 Biodegradability of food processing waster after different primary treatment.

Micro-sieving could change food processing wastewater quality. However, it has very little impact on biodegradable COD (bCOD) digestion rate, which represents the ratio between bCOD digested mass in UASB and influent bCOD mass to UASB. Biodegradable COD removal in UASB includes bCOD that is converted to CH⁴ and bCOD discharged as sludge. High biodegradability increases the fraction of COD digested and COD discharged as sludge according to equation (8-9), which leads to similar bCOD digestion rates of three systems in Figure 4.11. Therefore, micro-sieving could increase biodegradable COD fraction to UASB, but it could not significantly change the conversion rate of biodegradable COD to CH4.

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.11 biodegradable COD digestion rate in UASB

4.4.3.3. Effluent wastewater quality

Micro-sieving with high TSS removal could remove more particulate organic matter than clarifier, as shown in Figures 4.5 and 4.9. Therefore, the effluent COD, BOD and TN concentration in system F are the lowest among all treatment systems in Figure 4.12. As shown in table 4.4, the influent particulate N fractions of the specific food wastewater quality is only 15% and other food wastewater quality has similar characteristics. TN in food processing wastewater is mostly composed of NH₄⁺₋N and soluble ON. Hence, the influence of micro-sieving on COD or BOD removal is more significant than that on TN removal.

Figure 4.12 Wastewater quality in the effluent

Table 4.6 shows current discharge standards of organics and nutrients in food wastewater in different countries, including European [138], the USA [120], China [139], and India [140]. Figure 4.12 indicates that the effluent wastewater quality of system F is 53.88-153.45 mg/L BOD and 41.65-137.24 mg/L TN, respectively. This energy-positive system with micro-sieving could achieve COD removal of 55.3%- 90.3% and NH₄⁺_N removal of 90%. However, effluent wastewater quality of energy positive system might still do not meet the current discharge standards due to the high concentration of COD, BOD, and TN in food processing wastewater. Therefore, mainstream anaerobic treatment followed by mainstream anammox treatment was proposed as the best energy-positive system for treating municipal wastewater [91]. In addition, this energy-positive system should combine with aerobic treatment and physical-chemical treatment to increase pollutants removal efficiency to meet the discharge requirement of food processing wastewater.

Parameter	EU			USA	China		India	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
BOD (mg/L)	25		16	26	20	100	30	100
TN (mg/L)	10	15	4		15	20	10	50

Table 4.6 Discharge standards of food wastewater in different countries

4.4.4. Unit energy consumption and production

4.4.4.1. Theoretical and actual energy production of UASB

In this study, empiric equations (4.7-4.11) were used for estimating theoretical COD removal and unit energy consumption of UASB, as shown in table 4.7. Theoretical COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy production at 25 ℃ are 54%- 89%, 0.15-0.30 m³ CH₄/kg COD_{removed}, and 0.52-1.03 kWh/kg COD_{removed}.

Table 4.7 Theoretical COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy

production of UASB in system D without primary treatment

* The following reaction is used for converting COD digested in UASB to methane: $CH_4+2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2+2H_2 O$

1 kg COD digested could be converted to 0.25 kg CH₄ or 0.35m^3 CH₄ theoretically at 0° C and 1 atm [28]

In table 4.8, data about COD removal and methane production of UASB for removing untreated food processing wastewater was collected from published peerreviewed papers [141-143]. Actual COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy production at 25 °C are 43%-95%, 0.01-0.38 m^3 CH₄/kg COD_{removed}, and 0.03-1.30 kWh/kg CODremoved.

As shown in Table 4.7, 4.8, and Figure 4.13, theoretical energy productions are close to the actual values, which indicates the validity of empirical equations used in my study. Theoretical energy production in system F is higher than those in systems D and F. Micro-sieving could remove more particulate non-biodegradable COD, which leads to a higher BOD/COD ratio of wastewater to UASB in system F. Nonbiodegradable particulate COD, which could be not converted to biogas, increases COD removal of UASB in systems E and F. This results in lower unit energy production in systems E and F. The unit energy production per BOD removal shows an opposite trend in Figure 4.14. BOD removal does not include non-biodegradable particulate organic matter removal. This study considers the physical leakage of methane. 2.5 mg/L is assumed to be the dissolved CH⁴ concentration in the anaerobic effluent based on The Handbook of Biological Wastewater Treatment [6]. In system F, micro sieving reduces BOD mass load to UASB. However, dissolved CH⁴ concentration in the anaerobic effluent does not change in all systems. Thisleads to lower biogas production and unit energy production per BOD removal in system F.

Table 4.8 Actual COD removal and unit methane production and unit energy

production of UASB

* Unit CH⁴ production at the standard temperature and pressure is estimated based on the assuming methane/biogas ratio of 70%, [144], 0℃, and 1 atm.

Figure 4.13 Actual and Theoretical unit energy production of UASB Note: 1: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system D, 2: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system E, 3: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system F, 4: actual unit energy production of UASB.

Figure 4.14 Theoretical unit energy production of UASB per BOD removal Note: 1: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system D, 2: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system E, 3: theoretical unit energy production of UASB in system F

4.4.4.2. Theoretical and actual energy consumption of PN/A

In Table 4.9, the actual unit energy consumption of PN/A is 0.8-1.92 kWh/kg N_{removed}. Based on equations (4.15-4.16), 1.32kWh/kg N_{removed} was used as the theoretical unit energy consumption of PN/A, which is close to the actual value, as shown in Figure 4.15. This proves the validity of the theoretical unit energy consumption used in my study. According to the benchmarking method reported by Yang et al. [145], the mean actual unit energy consumptions of 1.4 kWh/kg Nremoved could be selected as the benchmark data for comparing with actual unit energy consumption to check the energy efficiency of PN/A reactor.

Plant	Reactor type	Unit energy demand (kWh/kg N _{removed})	Reference
Apeldoorn	SBR	1.1	
Balingen	SBR	0.92	
Heidelberg	SBR	1.67	
Ingolstadt	SBR	1.92	[146]
Nieuwegein	SBR	0.8	
Zurich	SBR	1.11	
Olburgen		1.86	
Malmö	MBBR	1.45-1.75	[88]

Table 4.9 Energy consumption of PN/A reactors

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.15 Actual and Theoretical unit energy consumption of PN/A

4.4.4.3. Energy consumption and production of WWTP

According to Sustainable Environmental Engineering [14], the unit energy indicator is critical when evaluating the energy performance of various WWTPs with different technologies. Unit energy metrics could be defined as the ratio between the daily energy consumption and treated COD mass removal (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) or TN mass removal (kWh/kg Nremoved) [33, 147]. Since aeration demand for the aerobic biological process is the dominant energy demand in treating wastewater [113], aeration energy consumption was considered as electrical energy consumption. Since UASB reduces BOD to low concentration without oxygen consumption, O_2 is used for reducing N in the PN/A reactor. Mainstream UASB and side stream anaerobic digesters convert biodegradable soluble COD in wastewater and biodegradable particulate COD in sludge to CH⁴ for energy recovery. Therefore, the unit energy consumption per unit of N removal (kWh/kg Nremoved) and unit of the unit energy production per unit of BOD removal (kWh/kg BODremoved) were used in this study.

In figure 4.16, the unit energy consumptions of three systems are 0.72-1.46, 0.69- 1.44, and 0.67-1.42 kWh/kg total N removal, respectively. Since oxygen is only consumed in the PN/A process, the unit energy consumption of the treatment system is close to the actual unit energy consumption of the PN/A reactor, as shown in table 4.9. Systems show low unit energy consumption because a part of NH_4^+ -N and bON contributes to biomass production in UASB without consuming oxygen. Figures 4.16 suggests that the unit energy consumption of system F is lower than those of systems D and E because micro-sieving could remove more particulate biodegradable organic nitrogen than clarifier. Since pbON from micro-sieving to mainstream UASB is lower than that from the clarifier to UASB, more NH₄⁺-N was consumed to form biomass during mainstream anaerobic digestion, and lower NH₄⁺-N was transferred to PN/A reactors in system F. In contrast to system D, unit energy saving of systems E and F are 0.01-0.04 and 0.01-0.07 kWh/kg N_{removed}, which illustrates that primary treatment could help system D save unit energy by 1-4% and 1-8%.

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.16 Unit energy consumption of system D, E, and F

Biodegradable COD contributes to CH4 production to generate electricity. Since micro-sieving could separate more particulate BOD from wastewater to high-rate anaerobic digester than primary clarifier, anaerobic digester of system F could produce more electricity than that system D and E. However, this process decreases CH⁴ production of mainstream anaerobic digester by reducing the BOD loading rate to UASB. In Figure 4.11, the bCOD digestion rate of UASB is 64-78 %, which is higher than the bCOD digestion rate of a high-rate anaerobic digester in equation (6.13). UASB with high sludge age of 40 d could convert BOD more efficiently to CH_4 than the high-rate anaerobic digester. As a result, system D could produce more electricity for removing the same amount of BOD than systems E and F, as shown in Figure 4.17. The mean value of unit energy production for systems D, E, and F are 2.04, 1.93, and 1.86, respectively. In contrast to system D and E, system F reduces unit energy production by 4-15% and 1-8% because micro-sieving decreases particulate COD to UASB.

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.17 Unit energy production by system D, E, and F

4.4.5. Cost analysis

Treatment systems used different primary treatments for separating particulate COD, which leads to the different effluent COD concentrations of three systems in Figure 4.12. To compare the cost of three systems, unit cost metric (\$/kg COD_{removed}) is selected as an economic indicator in this study. Cost analysis was performed according to the calculation of the Excel-based model to compare the unit cost of systems D, E and F as shown in Figure 4.18. The average unit cost of systems D, E and F are 0.60, 0.52, and 0.44 \$/kg CODremoved, respectively. Compared with systems D and E, the average unit cost saving of system F was 0.16 and 0.08 \$/kg COD_{removed}, respectively. System F could reduce unit cost by 27 % and 16 % than system D and E. As shown in figures 4.19 and 20, the percentage of capital cost or O&M cost for UASB

reactor for system F is lower than those for systems D and E. The cost of mainstream UASB is higher than the cost of other reactors in table 4.10, reducing the size of mainstream UASB could significantly decrease the total capital and O&M cost of a WWTP. Figure 4.21 shows that primary clarifier and micro sieving could reduce 32%- 47% and 50%-93% of the total cost for UASB reactor. Low cost of mainstream UASB make up for disadvantage of low energy recovery efficiency in system F. Therefore, system with micro- sieving is more economic than other systems.

Figure 4.18 Unit daily cost of system D, E, and F

Figure 4.19 Percent distribution of capital costs

Figure 4.20 Percent distribution of O&M costs

Capacity (P.E)	25000			50000			100000			200000		
Flow rate ^a (m^3/d)		3000		6000			12000			24000		
Capital cost (S/m^3) volume)	min	max	mea n	min	max	Mea $\mathbf n$	Min	Ma X	mea $\mathbf n$	min	max	mea n
UASB	600	100 Ω	800	500	700	600	350	500	425	250	400	325
Aeration tank	220	300	260	180	250	215	150	200	175	120	170	145
final settler	350	550	450	300	400	350	250	330	290	200	260	230
Anaerobic digester	600	100 Ω	800	450	700	575	300	400	350	250	350	300

Table 4.10 Costing parameters for different WWTP sizes

^aFlow rates were estimated based on capacity (P.E.) and wastewater production of 120 L/P.E./d (Schaum et al., 2015; Fatta and Anayiotou, 2007)

Food processing wastewater

Figure 4.21 Total costs of UASB in system D, E and F

4.5. Conclusions

The energy and cost of three different treatment designs were quantified according to the design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering. Food wastewater quality data was compiled from peer reviewed papers and Excel-based models were developed to compare the performance of food wastewater treatment system with different treatment technologies. 30%, 50%, 60%, 65%, 70%, 75%, 80%, 85%, and 90% were assumed as TSS removal of primary clarifier and micro sieving. Based on the assumptions, Excel-based models were developed to compare the performance of conventional and the innovative nitrogen removal method with different primary suspended solids removal in terms of energy metrics. Oxygen requirements in systems A, B and C decrease at the average rate of 1.7%, 2.3% and 0.5% per 5% TSS removal. Since UASB converts soluble BOD in wastewater to biogas, methane production of system C is 1.6-2.5 times that of system A and B. Innovative system C with any primary suspended solids removal could achieve electrical self-sufficiency due to its CH_4/O_2 energy ratio of higher than 8. However, methane production and $CH₄/O₂$ energy ratio of system C decrease at the average rate of 0.35% and 0.1 % per 5% TSS removal. The impact of micro-sieving on energy recovery of an innovative system is negative. On the other hand, micro sieving also reduces the required size and cost of UASB reactor through decreasing BOD mass load to UASB, systems with different primary treatment were explored to quantify the impact of micro-sieving on innovative systems from cost dimensions. Compared to the primary clarifier, micro-sieving has various advantages such as small footprint, modular and flexible design, recyclable materials, and high solid removal with high percent dry solids. For treating wastewater with high TSS concentration, micro-sieving could retain more particulates on the filter and divert more COD to anaerobic digester than clarifier. Compared to the system without primary

treatment, micro-sieving could increase the biodegradability of wastewater by 5-40% and increased COD removal of 1-4% in food processing wastewater treatment system. However, it could not significantly change biodegradable COD digestion rate because high biodegradability increases the fraction of COD digested, and COD discharged as sludge. Energy-positive systems with micro-sieving could remove 55.3%-90.3% COD and 90% NH₄⁺_N, respectively. Effluent wastewater quality of an energy positive system might still do not meet the discharge standards due to the high concentration of COD, BOD, and TN in food processing wastewater. This energy-positive system should combine with physical-chemical treatment to increase pollutants removal efficiency to meet the discharge requirement. Since primary treatment could reduce O_2 demand of PN/A reactor by separating particulate N and COD to side stream anaerobic digester, the energy analysis showed that primary clarifier and micro-sieving could help the treatment system without primary treatment save unit energy by 1-4% and 1-8%, respectively. Micro-sieving decreases CH⁴ production of mainstream anaerobic digester through reducing BOD loading rate to UASB, which leads to a low unit energy production of system F. Since micro-sieving also reduces the size and cost of UASB, the economic benefit due to the reduced size of mainstream reactor compensates for the disadvantage of low biogas production. In operation cost analysis, the mean unit cost saving of system F is 0.16 and 0.08 \$/kg COD_{removed}, respectively. System F could reduce unit cost by 27% and 16% than system D and E. These aspects demonstrate that micro-sieving could help energy-positive food wastewater treatment system save cost.

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5. TREATMENT PERFORMANCE, ENERGY, AND COST ANALYSIS OF ENERGY-POSITIVE WASTEWATER TREATMENT SYSTEMS FOR DIFFERENT INDUSTRIAL WASTEWATERS

5.1. Abstract

Different industrial wastewaters have vastly different wastewater qualities. When biodegradability is high, an energy-positive treatment train could be designed according to the twelve design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering. Two of the major indicators are unit energy and cost per chemical oxygen demand removed. In the past, the activated sludge process has been used as the conventional method in the treatment of industrial wastewaters. However, intensive energy requirements for aeration made it impossible for the WWTP to be energy positive. In addition, there is little research assessing the efficiency and economic feasibility of innovative technologies in treating different kinds of industrial wastewater. This study tries to assess the effect of different kinds of industrial wastewater on treatment efficiency, energy, and cost of micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A from the perspectives of unit energy and cost. An Excel model was developed for comparing the unit energy and cost of the treatment system for treating different kinds of industrial wastewater. Results showed that micro-sieving could remove 32.50-39.72% of COD for industrial wastewater with different TSS concentrations. Due to the relatively high TSS/COD ratio, primary treatment could achieve high COD removal efficiency of textile wastewater with low TSS concentration. A UASB reactor could remove 15.8%-53.5%, 14.0%-49.0%, and 22.9%-51.0% of COD for three kinds of wastewater. UASB converts more COD to CH⁴ in meat process wastewater with high BOD concentration because of high biodegradability. For meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater, mean unit energy production in innovative systems are 1.80,

1.77, and 1.73 kWh/kg BODremoved, respectively. The energy-positive system for treating meat processing wastewater could produce more energy with the same BOD removal than that for treating tannery wastewater and textile wastewater. The average unit cost for three kinds of wastewater is 0.54, 0.57, and 1.12 $\frac{1}{2}$ /kg COD_{removed}, respectively. The meat processing wastewater system consumes more oxygen for removing N in PN/A. However, this process increases the CH_4 production of AD through increasing biomass. These aspects reduce the unit cost of the meat processing wastewater treatment system. Therefore, it is more economical to treat meat processing wastewater with innovative technologies.

5.2. Introduction

Industrial wastewater has vastly different water quality. For example, the water quality of food processing, pulp and paper, textile, chemical, pharmaceutical, petroleum, tannery, and manufacturing industries vary significantly [116]. The major wastewater quality parameters include chemical oxygen demand, biochemical oxygen demand, suspended solids, ammonium nitrogen, heavy metals, pH, color, turbidity, and biological parameters. Compared with municipal wastewater, industrial wastewaters usually have a high organic matter concentration, extreme physicochemical nature (e.g., pH, temperature, salinity), and humic substances that may inhibit biological treatment processes. Municipal wastewater has a low strength concentration of COD (250–800 mg/L), whereas strong $(>1,000 \text{ mg } COD/L)$ to extremely strong wastewaters are often produced by industries [148]. Olive mills and beverage production industries can generate extremely strong industrial wastewaters (COD>200,000 mg/L) [149, 150]. Characteristics of industrial wastewaters strongly depend on the type of industrial wastewaters and industrial processes. Water used by meat processing industries accounts for 29% of agricultural freshwater worldwide [151, 152]. Food processing
wastewater is typically generated from slaughtering houses. Accordingly, there is a large quantity of suspended organic matter, protein, and fat (i.e., bones, meat, and viscera) in meat processing wastewater. A high concentration of COD, BOD, TN, and TSS is typical for food processing wastewater [118, 119, 153]. The average COD, BOD, TN and TSS concentration of food wastewater can reach 4,221 mg/L, 1,209 mg/L, 427 mg/L, and 1,164 mg/L, respectively [117]. Meat processing wastewater is considered one of the most detrimental food industrial wastewaters because its inadequate disposal can lead to river deoxygenation, algal blooms, and eutrophication [120, 121]. The tannery industry, which can be defined as the production process of leather by treating sheep and goat skins and bovine hides, is one of the oldest industries worldwide [154]. Over the centuries, leather was used for producing high durability clothes and footwear. Nowadays, leather is still one of the few available materials to produce clothing and footwear because of its unique properties [155]. The tannery industry consumes large amounts of water and chemicals. Wastewaters are mainly produced during the wet processes of the tannery industry. For producing 250 kg of leather, 15–80 m³ of tannery wastewater with 230–250 kg COD, 100 kg BOD, 150 kg TSS, 5–6 kg chrome, and 10 kg sulphide is produced [156, 157]. Tannery effluents are characterized by high pollution loads of conventional pollutants and suspended solids with low BOD/COD ratio, which cause deleterious effects on the natural water system [158-165]. The textile industry, representing one of the largest and most widespread production industries in the world, produces a large number of dyestuffs $(>\frac{7}{10^5}$ tons) per year worldwide [166]. The textile industry consumes not only a large amount of process water but also a variety of chemicals. Complex wastewater with dyestuff, surface-active materials, and textile additives is produced from the spent dye bath and rinsing waters [167-169]. Textile effluent is typically a complex mixture of organic and inorganic matters with relatively strong color, high COD, high salinity, high temperature, variable pH, and low BOD [170, 171]. The direct discharge of textile wastewater into rivers and streams can cause severe environmental problems [172]. Many dyes give the textile effluent color and are carcinogenic to humans and toxic to aquatic organisms [168, 173-175]. The discharge of untreated textile wastewater deteriorates water quality, adversely impacting aquatic life, crops, and humans [176- 178].

Biological and chemical processes are traditionally used in treating meat processing, tannery, and textile wastewater [179-199]. Physical and chemical methods are very expensive because they consume a large amount of energy and chemicals and produce a large amount of excessive sludge [200-202]. Compared with oxidation processes and chemical processes, biological treatment methods have many advantages: (1) low capital and operating costs; (2) oxidation of a wide variety of organic matters, versus mere phase separation, such as air stripping or carbon adsorption; (3) removal of reduced inorganic compounds, such as ammonia, and total nitrogen removal by nitrification and denitrification; and (4) operational flexibility to treat different kinds of wastewater with a wide range of flows. The unit energy consumption of meat processing plants using biological process is reported as 0.81 kWh/kg CODremoved [203]. Yang et al. [204] compared the performance and energy of textile wastewater treatment by conventional activated sludge, MBR, and moving bed biofilm reactor. Results showed that the unit energy consumption of CAS is 0.58 kW/kg CODremoved.

Activated sludge systems with autotrophic nitrification/heterotrophic denitrification process with primary clarifier are conventional processes for treating industrial and municipal wastewater. However, they show high energy consumption, a large footprint, and a large amount of sludge production as compared with innovative biological technologies such as micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A. Micro-sieving is one of the most sustainable technologies to separate TSS, with significant capital costs and footprint savings. Mainstream UASB can achieve energy recovery by converting COD to biogas without consuming O_2 at operating temperatures between 15 and 35 $^{\circ}$ C [20, 21]. PN/A, which is an innovative N removal technology discovered in the 1990s [24, 81, 82], can remove 90% of NH₄ Δ N through converting ammonia and nitrite N₂ in the anammox process [83-86]. As compared to the conventional nitrification/denitrification process, the PN/A process could save O_2 demand of nitrification by approximately 60%, eliminate the external organic carbon source requirement for denitrification, and decrease sludge by 80-90% [87, 89, 122]. Currently, there are few cases of research assessing the efficiency and economic feasibility of innovative technology in treating different kinds of industrial wastewater. Therefore, the effects of different kinds of industrial wastewater on the performance, energy, and cost of using micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A were quantified from energy and cost dimensions.

The objectives of this study are to (1) evaluate the influence of different industrial wastewater on the performance of primary treatment and secondary treatment; (2) compare the unit energy consumption and production of different industrial wastewater treatment; and (3) analyze unit cost of treatment systems based on different industrial wastewater quality. In addition, the economic advantages and limitations of innovative technologies for treating different industrial wastewater are addressed to offer insight for sustainable treatment design of different industrial wastewater.

5.3. Material and methods

In the current study, energy and cost were calculated based on different kinds of industrial wastewater quality. Wastewater quality data were collected from published peer-reviewed papers, as shown in Table 5.1. The database of untreated wastewater quality includes basic information such as the concentration of TSS, COD, BOD, and NH_4^+ ₋N. The concentrations of TSS, COD, BOD, and NH_4^+ ₋N of meat processing wastewater is higher than those of tannery wastewater and textile wastewater, which result in a higher amount of primary sludge production, oxygen demand, and CH⁴ production. An Excel-based model was developed. One million gallons per day (MGD) wastewater treatment systems with different primary and secondary treatment processes were designed [26, 33, 34, 39, 40, 147]. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 show the flow diagram of industrial wastewater treatment systems. In all systems, the screen and grit chamber were selected as the preliminary treatment in removing large particulate matter from wastewater. The difference between systems is the primary and secondary treatment processes. In Systems A and B, primary clarifier and micro-sieving removed particulate COD and N and produced a certain amount of primary sludge, which resulted in the difference of aerobic treatment, UASB, PN/A reactor, and side stream AD design. The nitrification-denitrification process was used as the main system of System A for treating wastewater to meet the discharge requirement by converting biodegradable COD and N to CO₂ and N₂. System B used mainstream UASB and PN/A as main systems for removing soluble BOD and N, which reduces aeration consumption through decreasing BOD and N loading to the nitrification-denitrification system. To meet discharge requirements and compare the performance of the wastewater treatment system for different industrial wastewater, System B used UASB, PN/A, and nitrification–denitrification to achieve the same effluent BOD and N concentration as System A. The following equations are used in calculating the unit energy consumption, production and capital cost, and operation and maintenance (O&M) cost [26, 40]:

Unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3)

$$
= \frac{\text{Aeration demand of PN/A and NDN (kgO}_2/d)}{\text{Oxygen tra nster efficiency (actual)Q}}
$$

(5.1)

Unit energy consumption (kWh/kg Nremoved)

$$
= \frac{\text{Aeration demand of PN/A and NDN (kgO}_2/d)}{\text{Oxygen tra nsfer efficiency (actual)(N removal (kg/d))}}
$$

where

Q=flow rate (m^3/d)

Oxygen transfer efficiency (actual)= $1.2 \text{ kg O}_2/\text{kWh}$

(5.2)

 (CH_4 production from UASB and anaerobic digester (kg/d)) Energy production(kWh/d) = (Energy recovery) (Enthalpy of combustion)

where

Enthalpy of combustion = 13.9 kWh/kg $CH₄$ Energy recovery $= 38\%$

(5.3)

Unit energy production (kWh/kg BOD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Energy production}(kWh/d)}{\text{BOD removal (kg/d)}}
$$

(5.4)

It was assumed that UASB combining the heat and power technologies could convert 38% of CH⁴ formed in the mainstream and the side stream anaerobic digestion to electricity with an energy density of approximately 13.9 kWh/kg CH4 [40]. The energy demand of a WWTP mainly includes power consumption of the wastewater lift pump, aeration equipment, and sludge treatment. The energy consumption of biological treatment accounts for 50–70% of the overall energy consumption [41]. UASB removes COD without consuming oxygen, the aeration energy of PN/A and the nitrification– denitrification process was the dominant energy demand. biodegradable COD in wastewater could be converted into CH⁴ at 15 and 35℃ [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃. Therefore, energy consumption is estimated based on O_2 mass demand and oxygen transfer efficiency at 25 °C [26].

Capital cost(
$$
\frac{\sqrt{x}}{yr}
$$
) = $\frac{\text{Capital cost(\textcircled{s})}}{a_{i,n}}$

$$
a_{i,n} = \frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i(1+i)^n}
$$

where

ai, n=annualization factor

i =interest rate (annual)=6%

n=economic lifetime of the treatment plant in years=20 (yr)

(5.5)

Unit capital cost
$$
(\frac{C}{m^3}) = \frac{\text{Capital cost}(\frac{C}{m})}{\text{(Q)}(365d/\text{yr})}
$$

(5.6)

Unit O & M cost
$$
(\frac{C}{m^3}) = \frac{O & M \cos(\frac{C}{m})}{(Q)(365d/\text{yr})}
$$

(5.7)

Unit cost(
$$
\$/m^3
$$
)=Unit capital cost($\$/m^3$)+Unit O&M cost($\$/m^3$)

Unit cost (\$/kg COD_{removed}) =
$$
\frac{\text{Capital cost($/yr)}}{(\text{COD removal (kg/d)})(365d/yr)} + \frac{O & M \cos((\frac{5}{yr}))}{(\text{COD removal (kg/d)})(365d/yr)}
$$

For comparing the cost of treatment systems, the total capital costs (\$) were annualized over the expected lifetime of the WWTP. Economic lifetime and interest rate were assumed to be 20 years and 6% [26]. Capital costs (\$) were transformed into annualized capital costs (\$/yr) based on the interest rate and lifetime. The total unit cost was calculated as the combination of the unit capital costs and the unit operational costs.

Type of wastewater	TSS	BOD	\bf{COD}	TN	Reference
	950.00	1200.00	2100.00	220.00	[128]
	1400.00	1070.00	2350.00	317.22	[129]
Meat	1164.00	1209.00	4221.00 427.00		[117]
processing wastewater	662.00	891.00	1697.00	246.00	$[130]$
	625.00	1320.00	3900.00	217.00	$[131]$
	3438.22	1602.00	5422.25	361.25	[132]
	890.00	665.83	2,290.00	282.00	$[205]$
	2,690.00	1,470.00	3,700.00	293.93	[154]
	915.00	1,024.89	2,155.00	228.00	[154]
Tannery wastewater	1,147.00	1,126.00	3,114.00	131.70	[154]
	2,229.00	1,760.00	5,094.00	358.00	$[206]$
	1,150.00	1,746.00	6,240.00	327.00	$[207]$
	1,550.00	463.25	3,280.00	260.00	$[205]$
	137.00	455.00	1411.00	49.20	$[208]$
	324.00	283.00	513.00	28.70	[209]
Textile wastewater	150.00	150.00	910.00 40.00		[210]
	460.00	198.00	714.00	18.70	$[211]$
	520.00	225.00	770.00	23.00	[211]
	438.00	220.00	798.00	24.70	$[211]$

Table 5.1 Industrial Wastewater quality

Figure 5.1 Schematic graphs of wastewater treatment system A- direct line nitrification–denitrification process

Figure 5.2 Scheme of wastewater treatment system B: mainstream anaerobic treatment and anammox treatment

5.4. Results and Discussions

- 5.4.1. Impact of different industrial wastewater quality
	- 5.4.1.1. Treatment performance of primary treatment

Pollutants concentration and flow rate determine the mass of the contaminants need to be removed, whereas performance of wastewater treatment equipment depends on characteristics of wastewater such as particulate matter fraction and biodegradability. TSS/COD ratio and BOD/COD ratio are widely used as indicators of these two kinds of wastewater characteristics. Figure 5.3 compares these indicators of different industrial wastewater. It shows that the TSS/COD ratio of textile wastewater is higher than those of other industrial wastewaters. Due to relatively high TSS concentration, micro-sieving shows TSS removal of greater than 50% and significantly higher COD removal than the primary clarifier as shown in Figure 5.4. For tannery wastewater, meat processing wastewater, and textile wastewater, the average COD removal by microsieving are 35.36%, 39.08%, and 32.50%, respectively, which are higher than that by primary clarifier. Textile wastewater has a relatively lower TSS concentration than other industrial wastewaters in Table 5.1. However, primary clarifier in textile wastewater treatment shows higher COD removal than tannery wastewater, due to the high TSS/COD ratio of textile wastewater as shown in Figure 5.4. To study the influence of wastewater quality on COD removal of primary clarifier and microsieving, Pearson correlation analysis was carried out to evaluate the correlation between COD removal and related parameters at a level of significance of $p < 0.01$.

Figure 5.3 TSS/COD ratio and BOD/COD ratio for different industrial wastewater

Figure 5.4 COD removal of primary treatment for different industrial wastewater

Table 5.2 shows the Pearson's correlations between COD removal of the two systems, concentration of TSS, and TSS/COD. Compared with TSS concentration, the ratio between TSS and COD showed stronger positive correlations with COD removal at the 0.01 level. Therefore, regression models of COD removal were developed based on TSS/COD ratio. The trend lines for predicting COD removal of primary treatment from TSS/COD is depicted in Figure 5.5. TSS concentration of textile wastewater is lower than those of other industrial wastewaters. However, textile wastewater has relatively low concentration of COD, as shown in Table 5.1. Particulate COD fraction of textile wastewater is higher than those of other industrial wastewaters. TSS/COD ratio is associated with particulate COD fraction, COD removal of the two systems rises with the increasing TSS/COD ratio of influent wastewater, as shown in Figure 5.5. Therefore, TSS/COD ratio is the key parameter for determining COD removal of primary treatment. Due to the high particulate matter fraction, primary treatment shows excellent separation performance for treating textile wastewater.

Table 5.2 Correlations between COD removal, TSS concentration and TSS/COD

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 5.5 Variation of COD removal in primary treatment with TSS/COD ratio

Biodegradability, expressed as the BOD/COD ratio, represents the ability of a substance to be removed by microorganisms. It is commonly used as an index of the extent of biodegradation of wastewater [108]. High biodegradability is a sufficient condition of biodegradation. the biodegradability of meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater are in Figure 5.3, which presents average BOD/COD ratios of 0.412, 0.327, and 0.314, respectively. Meat processing wastewater has higher biodegradability than other industrial wastewaters. Figure 5.6 shows the BOD/COD ratio of untreated wastewater and treated wastewater by primary clarifier and micro-sieving. Biodegradability rises with the increasing BOD/COD ratio of untreated wastewater. Figure 5.6 demonstrates that the slope of the linear fitting equation for System B is greater than that of System A, which illustrates that microsieving could improve the biodegradability of wastewater more significantly as compared with the primary clarifier. Primary treatment increases the biodegradability of wastewater by reducing the particulate non-biodegradable COD fraction of industrial wastewater. Compared to System A, the BOD/COD ratio of wastewater increased by 0.59%-7.50%, 0.60%-3.57%, and 0.01%-2.19% for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater, respectively. Due to the relatively low TSS concentration of textile wastewater, TSS removal by primary clarifier and by microsieving and the variation of the BOD/COD ratio is smaller. Because meat processing wastewater has higher biodegradability and TSS concentration, micro-sieving increases mean and maximum BOD/COD ratio to 0.48 and 0.63. Hence, the biodegradability of industrial wastewater with a high concentration of TSS is easier to be improved by micro-sieving.

Figure 5.6 Variation of biodegradability after primary treatment

5.4.1.2. Treatment performance of secondary treatment

Due to the high COD removal of micro-sieving and the UASB reactor in System B, COD removal of aerobic treatment in System B decreases by 40.7%-66.5%, 33.6- 60.0%, and 23.0%-60.0% for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater as compared to aerobic treatment in System A, as shown in Figure 5.7. Micro-sieving and UASB could help treatment systems save oxygen demand for all kinds of industrial wastewater. In secondary treatment, the UASB reactor removes 15.8%-53.5%, 14.0%-49.0%, and 22.9%-51.1% of COD for three kinds of industrial wastewater. Because of the higher BOD/COD ratio of treated meat processing wastewater by micro-sieving, UASB could convert more COD to CH₄ than other industrial wastewater, which resulted in less oxygen demand to remove the remaining COD.

Figure 5.7 COD removal of primary and secondary treatment (1: Primary clarifier, 2: Micro sieving, 3: Aerobic treatment in system A, 4: Aerobic treatment in system B, 5: UASB reactor.)

Mainstream UASB converts biodegradable COD in wastewater to CH₄ for energy recovery. Since the BOD/COD ratio of treated wastewater by primary treatment is positively related to the influent wastewater quality as shown in Figure 5.6, CH⁴ production/COD influent to secondary treatment (%) rises with increasing biodegradability in Figure 5.8. UASB removes COD through conversion of organic matter to biogas, COD removal by UASB reactor also shows strong positive correlations with the BOD/COD ratio of raw wastewater, as shown in Figure 5.8. This suggests that the biodegradability of wastewater could be used for predicting the methane conversion rate and COD removal of UASB reactor in industrial wastewater treatment systems with micro-sieving. Therefore, UASB shows excellent biogas production efficiency for treating industrial wastewater with high biodegradability.

Figure 5.8 CH₄ production/influent COD to UASB and COD removal of UASB reactor

5.4.2. Effluent wastewater quality

Since aerobic treatment in Systems A and B is designed based on low effluent BOD and COD concentration, the two treatment systems could achieve similar COD removal and concentration in the effluent, as shown in Figures 5.7 and 5.9. Table 5.3 shows current discharge standards of organics in industrial wastewater in different countries, including European [138], the USA [120], China [139, 212], and India [140, 213, 214].

Figure 5.9 Effluent COD concentration of 3 industrial wastewater in two treatment systems

Type of	Parameter	EU		USA		Canada		China		India	
wastewater Meat processing wastewater		Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Meat processing wastewater	BOD (mg/L)		25	16	26	5	30	20	100	30	100
	COD (mg/L)	125						100	300		250
Tannery wastewater	BOD (mg/L)										30

Table 5.3 Discharge standards of industrial wastewater in different countries

In Figure 5.9, effluent COD concentrations are 116.61-1683.80, 356.13-2952.27 and 14.19-680.48 mg/L, respectively. Most of the effluent wastewater quality in the two system does not meet the current discharge standards. This is due to a much higher concentration of COD, relatively low biodegradability, and the relatively high content of refractory soluble organic matter. Most of the remaining COD, which is soluble nonbiodegradable matter, is not easily removed by physical primary treatment and biological processes. Physical-chemical treatment such as adsorption might be required to remove soluble substances by the accumulation of those substances on activated carbon to increase COD removal efficiency and meet the discharge requirement. Figure 5.9 illustrates that the effluents of some meat processing wastewater and textile wastewater achieve the discharge requirement of several countries due to their low concentration of COD and relatively high BOD/COD ratio. Therefore, it is necessary to study the relationship between the total COD removal of primary treatment and biological processes and wastewater quality.

Table 5.4 shows the Pearson's correlations between COD removal, BOD/COD ratio, and TSS/COD ratio. The ratio between BOD/COD and the ratio between TSS and COD show strong positive correlations with COD removal at the 0.01 level. Since the BOD/COD ratio and TSS/COD ratio affect COD removal by UASB and primary treatment, regression models of COD removal were developed based on BOD/COD ratio and TSS/COD ratio.

Table 5.4 Correlations between COD removal, BOD/COD ratio and TSS/COD ratio

Pearson Correlation	COD removal $(\%)$				
BOD/ COD (%)	$712**$				
TSS/ COD (%)	$804**$				

of influent wastewater

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The equation for predicting COD removal by primary treatment and biological processes from BOD/COD and TSS/COD can be depicted as the following equation: COD removal $%$ =75.69(BOD/COD ratio) +57.53(TSS/COD ratio) $+23.15$ $R^2 = 0.929$ (5.9)

The squared correlation coefficient R^2 shows that the BOD/COD ratio and TSS/COD ratio of influent wastewater can explain 92.9% of COD removal. The BOD/COD ratio and TSS/COD ratio are positivly related to COD removal efficiency. Micro-sieving and UASB can achieve higher COD removal when treating industrial wastewater with higher particulate matter fraction and biodegradability. Effluent COD concentration can be calculated based on COD removal and influent COD concentration. Therefore, characteristics of wastewater can be used for predicting effluent COD concentration of industrial wastewater in systems with primary treatment and biological processes to determine if physical-chemical treatment is required.

5.4.3. Energy demand and production

5.4.3.1. Theoretical and actual energy production of UASB

In this study, empiric equations were used (7-11) for estimating theoretical COD removal and unit energy consumption of UASB, as shown in Table 5.5. Theoretical COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy production at 25 ℃ are 54%- 88%, 0.15 -0.30 m³ CH₄/kg COD_{removed}, and 0.52 -1.03 kWh/kg COD_{removed}.

Table 5.5 Theoretical COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy

BOD/COD ratio	0.57	0.46	0.29	0.53	0.34	0.30
COD concentration (mg/L)	2100.00	2350.00	4221.00	1697.00	3900.00	5422.25
COD removal (%)	88.08	85.45	53.85	82.66	54.56	79.01
Unit CH ₄ production $(m^3 \text{ CH}_4/\text{kg})$	0.27	0.22	0.17	0.26	0.21	0.14
COD _{removed} at 0°C and 1 atm) *						
Unit CH ₄ production (m^3 CH ₄ /kg	0.30	0.24	0.19	0.28	0.23	0.15
COD _{removed} at 25° C and 1 atm)						
Unit energy consumption (kWh/kg)	1.03	0.83	0.65	0.97	0.80	0.52
$\text{COD}_{\text{removed}}$						

production of UASB without primary treatment

* The following reaction is used for converting COD digested in UASB to methane: $CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$

One kg COD digested can be converted to 0.25 kg CH₄ or $0.35³$ CH₄ theoretically at 0°C and 1 atm [28]

In Table 5.6, data about COD removal and methane production of UASB for removing untreated food processing wastewater was collected from published peerreviewed papers [141-143]. Actual COD removal, unit methane production, and unit energy production at 25 °C are 43%-95%, 0.01-0.38 m^3 CH₄/kg COD_{removed}, and 0.03-1.30 kWh/kg CODremoved. As shown in Tables 5.5 and 5.6, and Figure 5.10, theoretical energy production is close to the actual values, which indicates the validity of empiric equations used in this study.

Table 5.6 Actual COD removal and unit methane production and unit energy

HRT(h)	22	22	22	18	18	
SRT(d)						
Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	35	35	35	35	35	35
COD (mg/L)	2800	3200	4200	3000	6500	3900

production of UASB

* Unit CH⁴ production at the standard temperature and pressure (STP) is estimated based on the assuming methane/biogas ratio of 70% [144], 0℃, and 1 atm.

Food processing wastewater

Figure 5.10 Actual and Theoretical unit energy production of UASB

5.4.3.2. Theoretical and actual energy consumption of PN/A

In Table 5.7, the actual unit energy consumption of PN/A is 0.8-1.92 kWh/kg N_{removed} . Based on equations (4.15-4.16), 1.32kWh/kg N_{removed} was used as the theoretical unit energy consumption of PN/A, which is close to the actual value, as shown in Figure 5.11. This proves the validity of the theoretical unit energy consumption used in my study. According to the benchmarking method reported by Yang et al. [145], the mean actual unit energy consumption of 1.4 kWh/kg N_{removed} can be selected as the benchmark data for comparing with actual unit energy consumption to check the energy efficiency of PN/A reactor.

Plant	Reactor type	Unit energy demand (kWh/kg Nremoved)	Reference
Apeldoorn	SBR		
Balingen	SBR	0.92	[146]
Heidelberg	SBR	l.67	

Table 5.7 Energy consumption of PN/A reactors

Food processing wastewater

Figure 5.11 Actual and Theoretical unit energy consumption of PN/A

5.4.4. Energy demand

Electricity consumption of a WWTP is mainly from the wastewater pump station, aeration equipment, and sludge treatment. Secondary biological treatment consumes 50–70% of the overall energy consumption of a WWTP [41]. Therefore, energy required by aeration was the dominant energy consumption. Figure 5.12 shows that electricity consumption rises as the influent concentration of NH_4^+ _N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen (sbON) increases. Therefore, energy required by aeration was the dominant energy consumption. Figure 5.12 shows that electricity consumption rises as the influent concentration of NH_4^+ N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen increases. The unit energy consumption $(kWh/kg N_{removed})$ is used for comparing energy efficiency of different industrial wastewater systems, as shown in Figure 5.13. The oxygen requirement of the PN/A process and the nitrification process are 1.83 and 4.57 g O_2/g NH₄_N converted. The PN/A process in System B effectively reduces aeration consumption for removing NH4_N. Therefore, System B shows lower unit energy consumption than System A. In Figure 5.13, mean unit energy consumption of System B for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater are 1.49, 1.37, and 1.39 kWh/kg N_{removed}, respectively. Since primary treatment and UASB removes COD without using oxygen, most of the $O₂$ is used for the PN/A process, especially in System B. Therefore, mean unit energy consumption of System B is close to than actual unit energy consumption of PN/A, as shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.12 Electricity consumption and influent NH₄⁺_N and sbON

Figure 5.13 Unit electricity consumption

5.4.5. Energy production

Except for BOD that is converted to $CO₂$ in aerobic treatment, most of the soluble BOD in industrial wastewater and biodegradable particulate BOD in primary and secondary sludge are converted to CH⁴ to produce electricity and heat by UASB and the side-stream anaerobic digester. Figure 5.14 illustrates energy production rises with increasing influent BOD concentration. The unit energy production (kWh/kg BODremoved) is used as an indicator in assessing the influence of different industrial wastewaters on two treatment systems, as shown in Figure 5.15. The average unit energy production of System B for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater are 1.80, 1.77, and 1.73 kWh/kg BODremoved, respectively. The unit energy production for food processing wastewater is higher than that of other industrial wastewaters. On the one hand, meat processing wastewater has higher BOD concentration and biodegradability (BOD/COD ratio), as shown in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.3. This increases biogas production efficiency and unit energy production of UASB reactors, as shown in Figure 5.16. In addition, sludge production from the PN/A process and denitrification process increase the CH⁴ production of the side-stream anaerobic digester. Therefore, the energy-positive system for treating meat processing wastewater can produce more energy with the same BOD removal than that for treating tannery wastewater and textile wastewater.

Figure 5.14 Electricity production and influent BOD

Figure 5.15 Unit electricity production

Figure 5.16 CH⁴ production/influent COD to UASB and COD removal of UASB reactor

5.4.6. Cost analysis

Innovative technologies such as UASB can convert COD to CH⁴ to increase electricity production. However, the unit capital cost (\sqrt{s} /reactor volume m³) of UASB is much higher than that of an aeration tank for small-sized WWTPs, as shown in Table 5.8. Innovative biological technologies could replace old processes when economic income due to energy saving and production is higher than the increased cost of innovative technologies. The unit cost analysis of treatment systems based on different industrial wastewater quality would provide operation cost of these systems. Since COD removal by primary treatment and secondary treatment are positively related to TSS/COD ratio and BOD/COD ratio, the unit cost metric (\$/kg CODremoved) is used as the indicator in this study. Figure 5.17 compares the unit cost ($\frac{K}{g}$ COD_{removed}) of two systems for treating different industrial wastewaters. In System B, the average unit cost for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater are 0.54, 0.57, and 1.12 \$/kg CODremoved, respectively. System B uses micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A to remove COD and N with lower energy consumption. However, the unit cost of System B is higher than that of System A for textile wastewater due to low BOD/COD ratio and BOD concentration. UASB is inefficient in converting the BOD of textile wastewater to biogas. Meat processing wastewater has higher biodegradability and COD removal and a relativly lower particulate COD ratio than other wastewaters, which increases the CH⁴ production of the mainstream anaerobic digester through increasing the COD loading rate to the UASB. Although the meat processing wastewater consumes more oxygen for removing N in PN/A and the aerobic process, this process increases the CH⁴ production of AD through increasing biomass. These factors decrease the unit cost of the meat processing wastewater treatment system. Therefore, it is easier to achieve energy-positive treatment with meat processing wastewater than with other wastewaters.

Unit capital cost (US\$ / reactor volume m^3)		UASB	Aeration tank		
Capacity (P.E.)		Max	Min	Max	
25,000	600	1000	220	300	
50,000	500	700	180	250	
100,000	350	500	150	200	
200,000	250	400	120	170	

Table 5.8 Unit capital cost for different treatment capacity of WWTPs

Figure 5.17 Unit cost of different industrial wastewater treatment

5.5. Conclusions

In the current study, an Excel-based model was developed to compare the unit energy and cost of energy-positive systems for treating different kinds of industrial wastewaters. Results showed that micro-sieving can remove 35.36%, 39.08%, and 32.50% of COD for tannery, meat processing, and textile wastewater, respectively. Due to the relatively high TSS/COD ratio, primary treatment can achieve higher COD removal efficiency of textile wastewater with lower TSS concentration as compared to tannery wastewater. A UASB reactor can remove 15.8%-53.5%, 14.0%-49.0%, and 22.9%-51.0% of COD for three kinds of wastewater, respectively. UASB converts more COD to CH⁴ in meat processing wastewater with high BOD concentration because of the high BOD/COD ratio. Pearson correlation analysis shows that the TSS/COD ratio and the BOD/COD ratio are the key parameters in determining the COD removal and methane conversion rates of primary treatment and secondary treatment. These regression equations can be used to predict COD removal by the primary and biological processes as follows:

COD removal $% = 78.126(BOD/ COD)$ ratio) +67.022(TSS/COD ratio) $R^2=0.975$ +18.349

As shown in the above equation, the TSS/COD ratio and BOD/COD ratio can be effectively used to predict the total COD removal and effluent COD concentration of industrial wastewater in the treatment system with primary treatment and biological processes. For meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater, the mean unit energy consumptions were 1.49, 1.37, and 1.39 kWh/kg N_{removed} , which are close to actual unit energy consumption of the PN/A process. Mean unit energy production for three kinds of wastewater in innovative systems are 1.80, 1.77, and 1.73 kWh/kg BODremoved, respectively. The energy-positive system for treating meat processing wastewater can produce more energy for removing the same amount of BOD than other industrial wastewater treatment systems. The average unit costs for meat processing wastewater, tannery wastewater, and textile wastewater are 0.54, 0.57, and 1.12 \$/kg CODremoved, respectively. Furthermore, meat processing wastewater has higher biodegradability, COD removal, and lower particulate COD ratio than other wastewaters, which increases electricity production through increasing COD loading rate to UASB and AD. A high CH⁴ production rate improves the unit cost of meat processing wastewater treatment systems. Therefore, it is more economical and easier to treat meat processing wastewater with micro-sieving, UASB, and PN/A technologies than other industrial wastewaters.

6. ENERGY CONSUMPTION OF WASTEWATER TREATMENT PLANTS WITH ANAEROBIC-OXIC PLUS ANAEROBIC-ANOXIC-OXIC, OXIDATION DITCH AND SEQUENCING BATCH REACTOR IN CHINA 6.1. Abstract

Unit energy consumption in wastewater treatment plants in China is proposed as one of the critical sustainable metrics in assessing the sustainability of environmental engineering design according to Sustainable Environmental Engineering. The national data of 1,215 WWTPs in China were collected to evaluate the unit energy efficiency of different main biological technologies. 80.3% of the WWTPs in China used anaerobicoxic plus anaerobic-anoxic-oxic, oxidation ditch, and sequencing batch reactor as main wastewater treatment technologies. The number of small and medium-sized plants accounted for 97% of the WWTPs. Pearson correlation analysis and comparison between theoretical and actual unit energy consumption show that the unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³)$ is not a suitable unit energy indicator. Therefore, the unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) was used to rank the three main technologies. The energy efficiency of WWTPs increases with increasing key parameters such as design flow rate, operation loading rates, COD removal efficiency, and influent COD concentration. The average unit energy consumption of SBR decreased from 2.76 kWh/kg to 0.83 kWh/kg when the design flow rate increased from less than 10,000 m³/d to 100,000-20,0000 m³/d. The mean unit energy consumption of SBR decreases from 1.71 kWh/kgCOD_{removed} to 1.32 kWh/kgCOD_{removed} and 2.27 kWh/kgCODremoved to 1.30 kWh/kgCODremoved as the operation loading rates and COD removal increase from 40% to 100% and from 70% to over 90%, respectively. SBR technology shows lower energy consumption than other technologies under different conditions of key parameters. Therefore, SBR is the best treatment technology for treating wastewater in small and medium-scale WWTPs in China. The equations between the benchmark data of unit energy consumption, the design flow rate, actual flow rate, and influent COD mass were developed in this study to provide the benchmark value for future sustainable treatment design.

6.2. Introduction

With population and economic growth, the number of municipal wastewater treatment plants in China and the corresponding capacity has reached 3,543 and 1.70×10^8 m³/d in 2015 [215]. WWTPs mainly used energy-intensive aerobic technologies for treating wastewater [1, 2]. The electricity used for water supply and wastewater treatment accounts for more than 2% of the world's energy consumption [216, 217]. In the United States, wastewater treatment consumes approximately 2%- 4% of electric energy [133, 218-220], whereas WWTPs in other countries use up to 5% of electricity consumption [11, 221]. According to statistics, WWTPs in China consumed 10^{10} kWh in 2011, which made up for 0.2 % of the total industrial electricity consumption [3]. From 2011-2017, the water supply and wastewater treatment account for approximately 0.67-0.75% of the total industrial energy consumption in China [4- 10]. The water production and supply industry are not the largest electricity consumers in China. However, their energy consumption has increased very rapidly at a rate of 5.7-10.7% per year. Electricity costs account for 25 to 60% of the operating costs in conventional WWTPs, while the aeration process typically makes up approximately 50–75% of energy demand [222-228]. With the increase in the number and capacity of WWTPs to meet fast urbanization, energy consumption, which results in increased greenhouse gas production and resource consumption, has become a critical issue in the operation of WWTPs [11-13]. Currently, there is no sustainbale metrics in assessing plant energy efficiency. Therefore, this study attempts to introduce new sustainable environmental engineering metrics to assess WWTPs.

According to Sustainable Environmental Engineering [14], the unit energy consumption indicator is critical when evaluating the energy performance of various WWTPs with different technologies. The energy gaps and energy-saving potential of WWTPs could be identified by comparing with benchmark data of unit energy consumption. Since the flow rate of wastewater is easy to measure, energy consumption per unit volume of wastewater was used as sustainable metrics for evaluating the operation energy efficiency in most plants in the past [229-233]. However, unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3) is significantly affected by the dilution of pollutant loads [38]. For example, WWTPs with combined sewer systems show higher energy efficiency than plants with separate sewer systems because the larger amount of water reduces the influent concentration of pollutants such as BOD or COD [231]. Some papers showed that treatment technology has a strong impact on the unit energy consumption ($kWh/m³$), while others showed an opposite trend [234-236]. Therefore, energy consumption expressed as $kWh/m³$ might not be a useful indicator in comparing the energy efficiency of WWTPs [225, 237].

The electricity power of WWTPs is mainly consumed by aeration equipment, pumping, and sludge treatment [238-242]. Typically, aeration is the largest electricity consumer of the plant. The energy consumption of pumping and sludge treatment is mainly determined by the actual flow rate and dewatered sludge mass. The oxygen demand of aeration equipment is determined not only by flow rate but also by the concentration of oxygen-consuming pollutants. The energy consumption of the aeration process is often evaluated according to either BOD or COD reduction (kWh/kg· BOD or kWh/kg· COD) [225, 242]. Unit energy metric such as kWh/kg COD_{removed}, reflects the differences in the influent concentration (or mass loading) of pollutants in the wastewater, could be used to define benchmark values for evaluating the energy-saving potential of WWTPs. Therefore, unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) is selected for assessing the energy efficiency of WWTPs in this study.

Several studies benchmarked energy consumption to provide useful information for optimizing the operation of the plants to achieve energy saving [34, 145, 243]. For example, Hanna et al. [244] and Vaccari et al. [38] benchmarked unit energy consumption of 266 small US and 241 Italian wastewater treatment facilities. They also explored the relationship between the unit energy consumption of all WWTPs and key parameters such as design flow rate, COD concentration, and operation loading rate. However, there were a few studies composing the energy efficiency of different treatment technologies under different conditions of design flow rate, operation loading rate, COD removal, and influent COD concentration. Therefore, this study tries to quantify the unit energy consumption of different treatment technologies in terms of unit energy metrics per kg $\text{COD}_{\text{removed}}$. The objectives of the current study are to (1) assess the suitability of unit energy metricsuch as $kWh/m³$ and $kWh/kg\ COD$ _{removed} for the energy audits of main wastewater treatment technologies at different sizes of WWTPs in China; (2) explore the difference between the actual and theoretical unit energy consumption of main treatment technologies in WWTPs; (3) compare the unit energy consumption of different technologies under different conditions of design flow rate, operation loading rate, COD removal and influent concentration of contaminants. The unit energy consumption of main biological technologies is to offer valuable references for future sustainable treatment design.

6.3. Materials and methods

6.3.1. Data and processing

In the current study, unit energy consumption was calculated based on national data obtained from the China Urban Drainage Statistical Yearbook 2016 [215]. The national database of 1,399 WWTPs contains necessary information of wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) such as design flow rate, treatment technology, operation loading rate, annual energy consumption, influent and effluent concentration of chemical oxygen demand (COD). However, the energy consumption of some WWTPs was not recorded in the Yearbook. Therefore, 1,215 WWTPs in China were selected after data screening. The main wastewater treatment technologies in China could be found based on the number of WWTPs with specific secondary processes. Pearson correlation analysis identified the feasibility and sustainability of unit energy indicators by using IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 software. Secondly, Excel-based models were developed for composing the theoretical and actual unit energy consumption of WWTPs with main treatment technologies based on literature [26-28]. Thirdly, the actual unit energy consumption (kWh/kg CODremoved) was used as an indicator for ranking the energy efficiency of treatment technology in different design flow rates, operation loading rates, COD removal, and influent concentration of contaminants. Finally, regression models of unit energy consumption of main technologies were developed based on the corresponding parameters.

6.3.2. Unit energy consumption

6.3.2.1. Actual unit energy consumption

Based on the actual flow rate, the actual unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³)$ was calculated by the following equation:

Actual unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3) =(actual energy consumption $(kWh/d)/Q$

122

where

Q=Actual flow rate(m³/d)=(Design flow rate (m³/d)(Operation loading rate(%))

The daily COD removal is calculated by COD concentration in wastewater and actual flow rate:

Daily COD removal (kgCOD/d)=(S₀-S)(Q)/(10³ g/kg)
$$
(6.2)
$$

where

 S_0 = Influent biodegradable COD (g/m³)

S=Effluent biodegradable COD (g/m^3)

Based on COD concentration in influent and effluent, the COD removal efficiency

(%) was estimated by the following equation:

$$
COD removal rate (\%)=(S_0-S)/S_0
$$

(6.3)

Actual unit energy consumption (kWh/ kg COD_{removed}) is calculated as the ratio between daily energy consumption and daily COD removal:

> Actual unit energy consumption $(kWh/(kg\, COD_{\rm removed}))$ =(actual energy consumption (kWh/d))/(COD removal (kgCOD/d))

> > (6.4)

6.3.2.2. Theoretical unit energy consumption

Theoretical aeration demand was estimated based on municipal wastewater quality from the China Urban Drainage Statistical Yearbook 2016 [215]. The Yearbook recorded the annual mean value of wastewater quality, data of some WWTPs is not suitable for estimating aeration consumption in the theoretical model. Therefore, the
wastewater quality of 881 WWTPs was selected after data screening. Theoretical oxygen consumption (g/d) is calculated by the following equation [27]:

$$
R = Q(S_0-S) - 1.42P + 4.57Q(NO_x) - 2.86Q(NO_x - NO_3 - N e)
$$

 (6.5)

where

 $R = oxygen$ demand (g/d)

P=sludge production (g/d)

NOx=Amount of NO₃_N production during nitrification ($g/m³$) = Influent NH₄_N concentration -Effluent NH4_N concentration -0.12P/Q

 $NO₃$ N e= Effluent $NO₃$ N concentration (g/m³)

$$
P = \frac{QY_{H} (S_{0} - S)}{1 + b_{H}(SRT)} + \frac{f_{d}QY_{H} (S_{0} - S)SRT}{1 + b_{H}(SRT)} + \frac{QY_{n} (NO_{x})}{1 + b_{n}(SRT)}
$$
(6.6)

where

b_H=0.088 g VSS/g VSS·d

bn=0.135 g VSS/g VSS∙d for AO+AAO and OD

bn=0.082 g VSS/g VSS∙d for SBR

 $Y_H=0.45$ g VSS /g biodegradable COD

 $f_d = 0.15$

Yn=0.15 g VSS/g NH4_N for AO+AAO and SBR

 $Y_n=0.2$ g VSS/g NH₄_N for OD

SRT= Solids retention time (d)

Based on design parameters from table 6.1, SRT of AAO, OD, and SBR are assumed to be 7.5, 27.5, and 22.5 d.

Technology	SRT (d)	HRT(h)		MLSS (mg/L)	
CAS	$5 - 15$	$4 - 8$		1000-3000	
		Anaerobic zone	$1 - 2$		
AO or AAO	$5-10$	Anoxic zone	$1-2$	2000-4000	
		Aerobic zone	$4-6$		
	$10-25$	Anoxic zone.	$1-2$		
MBR		Aerobic zone.	$2 - 4$	5000-15000	
OD	$15-40$	$15-30$		2000-5000	
SBR	$15 - 30$	$4-9$ Total cycle time		2000-5000	
Biolak	$30 - 70$	$15-40$		1500-4000	

Table 6.1 Design parameters of various technologies [28]

According to the Handbook of biological wastewater treatment [26], 1.2 kg O^2/kWh is assumed to be the actual oxygen transfer rate (AOTR).

Theoretical aeration demand (kWh/d) =
$$
\frac{R}{AOTR}
$$

 (6.7)

where

AOTR= 1.2 kg O²/kWh

Based on the actual flow rate, the theoretical unit aeration demand $(kWh/m³)$ was calculated by the following equation:

Theoretical unit aeration demand (kWh/m^3) =(theoretical aeration demand

$$
(kWh/d))/Q
$$

(6.8)

Theoretical unit aeration demand (kWh/ kg COD_{removed}) is calculated as the ratio between the theoretical aeration demand and the daily COD removal:

Theoretical unit aeration demand (kWh/(kg COD_{removed}))

=(theoretical aeration demand (kWh/d))/(COD removal (kgCOD/d))

(6.9)

Since secondary biological treatment consumes 50–70% of the overall energy consumption of a WWTP [41], 0.6 is assumed to be the ratio between energy consumption and aeration demand.

> 0.6 Theoretical unit aeration demand (kWh/m^3) = Theoretical unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3)

0.6 Theoretical unit aeration demand (kWh/kg COD) = Theoretical unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD)

(6.10)

6.4. Results and discussion

6.4.1. Main technologies of WWTPs in China

In the Yearbook of 2016, WWTPs in China used different kinds of wastewater treatment technologies, which include anaerobic- anoxic–oxic, anaerobic-oxic, oxidation ditch, sequencing batch reactor, membrane bioreactor, BIOLAK, biofilm, wetland, activated sludge, and a combination of these technologies. In this study, the selected WWTPs were classified as AO+AAO, OD, SBR, Biofilm, Biolak Technology, constructed wetland, activated sludge process, MBR, and others, as shown in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Distribution of treatment technologies in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs)

Since the main pollutant of wastewater is organic matter, WWTPs used biological methods as the main wastewater treatment technologies in China. Biological methods can be classed into activated sludge process and biofilm. However, biofilm only accounted for 3.07 % of WWTPs in China, as shown in Figure 6.1, due to its low treatment efficiency. The activated sludge process mainly included the conventional activated sludge process, $AO + AAO$, OD , and SBR. Figure 6.1 shows that $AO + AAO$, OD, and SBR were the most widely used technologies in China, accounting for 36.5%, 27.4%, and 17.4 % of WWTPs, respectively. Jin et al. [13] reported similar findings on mainstream treatment technologies of WWTPs.

6.4.2. Size distribution

According to the design flow rate, WWTPs could be classified into small $\left(\langle 50,000 \text{m}^3/\text{d} \rangle \right)$, medium (50,000-200,000 m³/d) and large ($>200,00 \text{m}^3/\text{d}$) sized plants. Figure 6.2 demonstrates that the number of small and middle-sized WWTPs accounted for 94% of all WWTPs. Small WWTPs are generally built-in small coastal cities and towns. Because of economic and population growth, the number of small-sized plants has exceeded that of medium and large-sized plants in 2015, as shown in Figure 6.2, which accounted for 66% of WWTPs. Figure 6.3 shows that the actual flow rate and energy demand of the small and medium-sized WWTPs accounted for 61 % and 62% of all plants, which led to considerable total energy consumption. Since more dispersed wastewater sources need longer sewers for collecting wastewater, large wastewater treatment is not appropriate for the development of cities and improving the energy efficiency of small-medium-sized WWTPs.

Figure 6.2 Size distribution of WWTPs in China

Figure 6.3 Distribution of number, actual flow rate, and energy consumption of WWTPs in different design capacities

6.4.3. Unit energy consumption of the treatment process

Different unit energy indicators lead to varying results of energy audits. Table 6.2 shows variations of wastewater characteristics and the operation loading rate of Gaobeidian WWTP. In 2015, the operation loading rate, influent COD, and BOD concentration of the WWTP increased to 93.26%, 409 mg/L, and 202 mg/L, which result in a 7% and 15% reduction in unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³$ and kWh/kg CODremoved). Two different energy audit methods could produce diametrically opposite results. In table 6.2, Mulan Town WWTP and Hutou Town WWTP have the same flow rate and operation loading rate in 2015. Mulan Town WWTP shows a lower unit energy consumption (0.070 kWh/m^3) than Hutou Town WWTP (0.075 kWh/m^3) . However, unit energy consumption per kg COD removal of Mulan Town WWTP is more than twice that of Hutou Town WWTP because Hutou Town WWTP received wastewater

with higher COD concentration. Unit energy consumption per $m³$ flow rate ignores the change in the concentration of pollutants in the wastewater and lead to incorrect results of energy audits. Unit energy metrics expressed as kWh/kg COD_{removed} could better reflect the energy efficiency of WWTPs.

Table 6.2 Characteristics and unit energy consumption of Gaobeidian WWTP, Mulan Town WWTP, and Hutou Town WWTP in China

Parameter	Gaobeidian WWTP [245, 246]	Gaobeidian WWTP [215]	Mulan Town WWTP [215]	Hutou Town WWTP [215]
Design flow rate $(10,000)$ m^3/d	100	100	2	$\overline{2}$
Operation loading rate (%)	66.64	93.26	39.9	39.9
Influent COD concentration (mg/L)	173	202	110	159
Influent BOD concentration (mg/L)	346	409	51	21.8
Unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3)	0.258	0.240	0.070	0.075
Unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD _{removed})	0.746	0.631	1.189	0.545

For assessing feasibility and sustainability of unit energy indicators, the correlations between energy consumption, COD reduction, and actual flow rate of WWTPs with the main biological process in China were carried out, and results are presented in Table 6.3. The Pearson correlation coefficients are close to 1, which shows significant positive correlations between different parameters. Table 6.3shows that the COD reduction has stronger correlations with the energy consumption of 1,215 plants as compared with the actual flow rate. For mainstream treatment technologies, all the correlations were significant at a level of significance of $p \leq 0.01$ with Pearson coefficients of 0.906-0.933. As a result, the unit energy consumption (kWh/kg CODremoved) is a suitable indicator to evaluate energy efficiency in WWTPs.

Table 6.3 Correlations between energy consumption, daily COD removal, and actual

flow rate of WWTPs using different technologies.

^a Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 6.4 presents the average unit energy consumption values of 1.811 kWh/kg $\text{COD}_{\text{removed}}$ and 0.318 kWh/m³ for 1215 plants in China. Due to the differences in wastewater quality, the standard deviation of unit energy consumption (kWh/kg $\text{COD}_{\text{removed}}$) is higher than that of unit energy consumption (kWh/m³). The mean unit energy consumptions of AO+AOO, OD, and SBR are 1.903, 1.877, and 1.705 kWh/kg CODremoved. SBR technology shows higher energy efficiency than other mean treatment technologies in China.

Figure 6.4 Unit energy consumption of WWTPs with main technologies

6.4.4. Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption

Figures 6.5, 6.6, and 6.7 show that average theoretical unit energy consumptions of AO+AAO, OD, and SBR are 0.71-0.86, 0.79-0.94, and 0.89-0.94 kWh/kg CODremoved, which is close to the energy indicators (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) reported in the literature [2, 247, 248]. AO+AAO, OD, and SBR are aerobic treatment methods that consume oxygen to convert COD and NH₄_N to $CO₂$ and N₂. Theoretical oxygen demand is related to wastewater quality and sludge production, as shown in equation (6.5). As shown in figures 6.5, 6.6, and 6.7, the difference between actual and theoretical unit energy consumption decreased with the increased design flow rate, while the theoretical unit energy consumption is not affected by design capacities. In practice, the smaller wastewater treatment systems have higher energy demand due to the lower operation loading rates. Larger WWTPs used more efficient pumps and compressors for treating wastewater [228]. Many cases of research and books do not consider the effect of design flow rate, operation loading rates, and equipment efficiency on theoretical unit energy consumption [26, 27, 40, 232], which leads to similar theoretical unit energy consumption in different design capacities. Figure 6.8 presents the ratio between theoretical and actual unit energy consumption. Average values of the ratio in table 6.4 could be used for making up the difference between actual and theoretical unit energy consumption.

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Figure 6.5 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per kg COD removal of WWTPs with AO+AAO technology

Figure 6.6 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per kg COD removal of WWTPs with OD technology

Figure 6.7 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per kg COD removal of WWTPs with SBR technology

Figure 6.8 Ratio between theoretical and actual unit energy consumption per kg CODremoved

Design flow rate $(10,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})$	$AO+AAO$	OD	SBR
$0 - 1$	0.333	0.453	0.446
$1 - 5$	0.532	0.635	0.854
$5-10$	0.669	0.881	0.938
$10-20$	0.821	0.852	1.169

Table 6.4 Average ratio between theoretical and actual unit energy consumption

Figure A.10, A.11, and A.12 compared actual and theoretical unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³)$ in different design capacities. Actual unit energy consumption per unit volume of wastewater decreased as the design flow rate increased. However, theoretical unit energy consumption shows an opposite trend. In Figure 6.9, COD influent concentration is positively related to the design flow rate, which results in the abnormal change of theoretical unit energy consumption per $m³$ flow rate. Figure 6.9 illustrates that larger WWTPs received wastewater with a higher concentration of COD. Due to the change of the COD concentration in different design capacities, the effect of the COD concentration should not be ignored when evaluating the energy efficiency of WWTP. The unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³)$ is not a suitable unit energy indicator.

Figure 6.9 Variation of COD influent concentration with the design flow rate

6.4.5. Effect of flow rate, operation loading rate, COD removal efficiency,

and COD concentration on unit energy consumption

6.4.5.1. Flow rate

Figure 6.10 indicates that Biolak has the lowest unit mean energy consumption with values of 0.896 and 1.751 kWh/kg COD_{removed} among treatment technologies in small and medium-size plants due to its highly efficient submerged aeration methods and long sludge retention times (SRT). This indicates that it is high energy performance treatment system. Biolak, which is an activated sludge process in an earthen basin with high-density polyethylene (HDPE) basin sealing, was developed in Germany and introduced to China in 1999. Biolak systems use the floating aeration chain system to supply fine air bubbles for microbial growth with long SRT ranging from 30 to 70 d, which leads to a relatively stable process with very efficient oxygen transfer, lesser energy consumption, and lesser sludge production than an oxidation ditch. Crites et al. [249] have reported that Biolak systems have achieved discharge standards in Colorado. The 2-year mean effluent TSS, BOD, and total nitrogen concentrations of Nevada, Ohio, Biolak system (100,000 gpd) are less than 10 mg/L, 10mg/L, and 8 mg/L, respectively [249]. The Biolak system is simpler to operate and requires less knowledgeable staff than the SBR system. The advantages of Biolak system include low capital cost, simple operation, and energy efficiency. Therefore, the Biolak process has great potential to be the most energy-efficient and economically activated sludge process. However, Biolak could cause problems in the settleability of the effluent particle because of its long sludge age, over oxidation, and the formation of pin-point floc, which results in a lower quality effluent. Mean and monthly performance data of 13 Biolak systems were summarized by the US Environmental Protection Agency report [250]. In Arkansas, the average effluent concentration of NH3_N in Blytheville South WWTP and BOD and TSS in Piggot WWTP, are 30.9, 20.8, and 34.8 mg/L, which do not satisfy the effluent discharge requirements. Mirbagheri et al. [251] assessed BOD and COD removal efficiency of MBR, SBR, Biolak, and CAS at Ekbatan wastewater treatment plant, in the west of Tehran. The results show that effluent wastewater quality is not higher than MBR and SBR. The other disadvantage is its carbon footprint is larger than SBR and OD due to its considerably long retention time. The second energy-saving technology is the activated sludge process with unit energy consumption of 1.028 and 1.849 kWh/kg CODremoved. The low energy consumption of the activated sludge process is due to its primary clarifier, and poor treatment performance of N and P.

The old wastewater treatment plants in China were built based on conventional activated sludge technologies. In the past few decades, many existing CAS systems have been upgraded to efficient systems to remove more N, and P. Biofilm is the third lowest energy consumption technology with a unit energy demand of 1.115 kWh/COD kg in small plants due to its oxygen supply methods. The Biofilm reactor uses natural draft as the primary mean of providing airflow, which results in low oxygen supply and reduced removal rate of contaminants in the wastewater. Biofilm submerged reactor, which has been applied for treating industrial wastewater since the 1970s and is applied to treat municipal wastewater in China. However, only 9 WWTPs used biofilm submerged reactors in China in 2002 [252]. The reason is mainly related to the biofilm carriers and packing media. The ideal carriers and packing media could provide a specific large surface area, low cost, excellent mechanical strength, low density, stability, high bio-affinity, resistance to biofilm, which results in good system performance and low-maintenance requirements [253-256]. Biofilm system generally used inorganic materials-based carriers, this can result in several problems in mass transfer caused by low porosity and easy blockage [256]. Organic materials have large surface areas [257, 258], but have low bio-affinity due to the smooth surface [254]. MBR overcomes the disadvantages of the CAS, including large space requirements for secondary clarifiers, excess sludge generation, and a high removal rate of contaminants [259]. Upgrading the existing treatment plant to an MBR system can increase the treatment capacity by up to threefold without adding space [26]. In reports, MBR could reach a high COD removal of 97.1% [251]. However, MBR technology has disadvantages such as high energy costs, membrane fouling problems, and high costs of periodic membrane replacement, which results in high maintenance and operating costs [27]. The capital costs of MBRs are approximately 50% higher than those of CAS for treating low strength wastewater [26]. The unit energy consumption is the highest, as shown in Figure 6.10. Due to low treatment performance, large footprint, and high energy consumption, biolak, biofilm, activated sludge process, and MBR accounted for 2.50%, 3.07%, 1.14%, and 1.00% of WWTPs in China, as shown in Figure 6.1. Because of high pollutant removal performance and small place requirement, AO + AAO, OD, and SBR were the main treatment technologies in China, accounted for 80.3 % of WWTPs.

Figure 6.10 Unit energy consumption of small and medium-sized WWTPs with different technologies

Qasim and Zhu [28] summarized retention time and sludge concentration for different kinds of suspended growth biological treatment processes in table 6.1. Solids retention times of SBR and OD are higher than those of CAS and AAO, which reduce sludge production due to high SRT. AAO, OD and SBR have similar mixed liquor suspended solids values, which indicates they could produce sludge with similar concentrations. Hydraulic retention time represents the average time that wastewater stays in a reactor, which determines the reactor volume based on the flow rate. Table 6.1 shows that SBR has a relatively lower HRT than AAO and OD. Therefore, building an SBR reactor requires smaller land and should be the preferred secondary treatment process due to relatively low sludge production with a high concentration of solids and a small footprint.

Since large-sized $(>200,000 \text{ m}^3/d)$ plants often used AO+AAO technology as mainstream treatment, there are few large WWTPs with OD and SBR technology, as shown in Figure 6.3. Figure 6.11 presents the unit energy consumption of three main technologies in small and medium-sized WWTPs in China. Variations of energy demand in small plants are higher than those in medium plants, which is affected by several factors such as wastewater quality and climate. For AO+AAO, OD, and SBR technology, the unit energy demand of WWTPs decrease with increasing design flow rate. Gu et al. [260] and Trapote et al. [243] have also reported similar energy trends. Large WWTPs are more energy efficient than small ones due to economies of scale [261-263]. Sludge treatment technologies of large and small facilities are different. Aerobic digestion was used for stabilizing the sludge of small or older plants [264]. Anaerobic digestion was applied for producing CH⁴ in plants with an influent flow rate of greater than 5 million gallons per day [265]. In China, large plants such as Gaobeidian WWTP and Hangzhou sibao WWTP have used anaerobic digestion for treating sludge [266]. For example, Gaobeidian WWTP could achieve 31% of energy recovery [245]. Large size plants used energy-efficient equipment and anaerobic digestion to reduce electricity consumption.

Figure 6.11 Unit energy consumption of small and medium-sized WWTPs

Since the number, actual flow rate, and energy consumption of plants with main technologies were the largest in design flow rate range between 1×10^4 m³/d and 5 \times 10^4 m³/d in Figure 6.3, the mean unit energy consumption of mainstream technologies is close to the national average value of 1.811 kWh/kg COD_{removed}. At a design flow rate of less than 1×10^4 m³/d, the unit energy consumption of three technologies is much higher than the national average value, which indicated that there is room for improving the energy efficiency of small-sized WWTPs using AO+AOO, OD, and SBR. In the design flow rate range between 1×10^4 m³/d and 20×10^4 m³/d, the unit energy consumption of SBR is lower than the national average value. Since SBR eliminates the need for secondary sedimentation tanks and return sludge flow, it consumes lower energy and requires a smaller footprint than AO, AAO, and OD systems. For aeration methods, SBR processes generally use blast aeration, while OD typically uses mechanical aeration. For the same oxygen demand, blast aeration could save more electricity than mechanical aeration. As shown in Figure 6.11, the average unit energy consumption of SBR decreased from 2.76 kWh/kg to 0.83 kWh/kg when the design flow rate increased from less than $10,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$ to $100,000\text{-}20,0000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$, which shows that SBR is more energy-efficient than other activated sludge process processes in small and medium WWTPs in China. Similar results could be found in Figure 6.12. Therefore, SBR technology is more appropriate for small and mediumsized plants than other biological methods.

Figure 6.12 Variation of unit energy consumption with the actual flow rate

6.4.5.2. Operation loading rate

The operation loading rate of a WWTP represents the ratio between the actual flow rate and the design flow rate. Since the flow rate varies widely throughout the day, the design treatment flow rate of WWTPs is based on the peak flow rate. The operation loading rate is lower than 100% under normal conditions. However, the flow rate to different wastewater treatment units may be higher than their design flow rate under certain conditions and weather. Figure A.13 ranks unit energy consumption of treatment technology at different operation loading rates. Biolak, biofilm, and activated sludge have the lowest energy consumption with an operation loading rate of 20%-40%, 40%-60%, 80-100%, and >=100%. Since Biolak and biofilm use moving aeration chains and natural draft as the primary aeration methods, respectively, they show high energy efficiency at a relatively low operation loading rate. The activated sludge process could save more energy than other technology at an operation loading rate of greater than 80%. This is because it is mainly applied for removing BOD and uses primary clarifiers for separate particulate COD without consuming oxygen. Due to the disadvantages, such as low treatment performance and large space requirements, they are not the main treatment technology in China. The unit energy consumption deteriorates as the operation loading rate increases, as shown in Table A.34. The low operational rate affects the flow rate and concentration of organic matter, which results in worse energy performance. The influence of the operation loading rate on MBR is relatively lower than the effect on other biological treatment technologies. Park et al. [267] investigated the impact of influent wastewater flowrate on the COD removal efficiency of MBR, SBR, and AAO through changing the influent flowrate from 100% to 70%, 40%, and 10% of the design treatment flow rate. At 10% of the design flow rate, A2O and SBR could only remove 74% and 70% of soluble chemical oxygen demand, whereas the MBR process has the ability to remove 89% of soluble sCOD from wastewater. Due to the high MLSS concentration of 5000-15000 mg/L, as shown in Table 6.1, the MBR reactor has higher BOD and COD removal than the conventional activated sludge process and good adaptability to various changes of flow rate and wastewater quality [268]. However, suspended solids and active microorganisms in MLSS, colloids, solutes, and sludge flocs accumulate on the membrane surface and clog the pore, which causes membrane fouling [269, 270]. The aerobic granulation membrane bioreactor combines aerobic granulation biotechnology and membrane separation to control membrane fouling. This leads to better treatment performance due to excellent settling properties, smaller land requirements, higher biomass concentration, lower sludge generation, and strong resistance to shock loading rates [271-276]. High levels of MLSS in MBRs leads to high total suspended solids content and viscosity values [277]. The high viscosity in MBRs can limit aeration rates, which increases the energy consumption and results in a higher cost for aeration [278, 279]. The unit energy consumption value of 1.043-2.698 kWh/kg COD_{removed} is higher than the other treatment technologies, as shown in Table A.34.

Figure 6.13 illustrates that the unit energy consumption of the WWTPs decreased as the operation loading rate increased. The unit energy consumption is significantly higher when the actual flow rate is lower than the design flow rate. However, energy consumption decreased when the annual flow rate approached the design value. Long term operation of WWTPs at a low operation loading rate leads to increased energy consumption. At an operation loading rate of less than 20%, the unit energy consumption of OD is significantly higher than those at other operation loading rates, as shown in Figure 6.13. The energy demand of OD systems is higher at a low operation loading rate due to longer hydraulic retention time. Therefore, the operation loading rate strongly affects the unit energy consumption of OD plants. The mean values for AO+AAO and OD are higher than the national average value at the operation loading rate of 0-80%. In contrast, at an operation loading rate of 40%-100%, the mean energy consumption of SBR is lower than the national average value and decreased gradually from 1.71 kWh/kgCODremoved to 1.32 kWh/kgCODremoved, which confirms that effect of operation loading rate on energy demand of SBR system is relatively small as reported by a previous study [145]. The unit energy consumption of AO+AAO and OD systems decreased at an operation loading rate of greater than 100%. However, hydraulic and organic overloadings lead to reduced aeration time and insufficient nutrient availability, which reduces the pollutants removal performance of treatment plants [280]. Therefore, an operation loading rate of 80–100% is recommended for mainstream technology in China.

Figure 6.13 Variation of unit energy consumption with the WWTP operation loading rate in China

6.4.5.3. Chemical oxygen demand (COD) removal

Typically, pollutant removal efficiency is closely related to energy consumption [281]. However, such a correlation has not been quantitatively reported. The COD removal efficiency of a WWTP represents the treatment performance of removing organic matter. Figure A.14 ranks unit energy consumption of treatment technology in different COD removal scale. Wetland and activated sludge have the lowest energy consumption with operation loading rates of 70%-80% and 90%-100%. The number of WWTPs with COD removal of 80%-100% is much larger than that with COD removal of 60%-80%. Figure A.14 and Table A.35 show that all the treatment technologies have the ability to achieve COD removal of greater than 80%. COD removal efficiency is impacted by influent and effluent wastewater quality. Biological treatment technologies could achieve high COD removal. However, effluent wastewater quality may not meet discharge requirements due to the high concentration of influent COD. Based on the discharge standard, 97.45% of 1215 WWTPS in this study with effluent concentration COD of less than 50 mg/L meets the effluent standard of grade I-A. This demonstrates that most WWTPs in China could achieve COD removal of greater than 80% and achieve the effluent COD requirement.

In Yearbook 2016, 91.3% of WWTPs could treat 96.8 % of wastewater with COD removal efficiency of 80%-100%, and power consumption accounted for 97.4 % of the total energy demand, which indicates that the COD removal efficiency of WWTPs in China was satisfactory. According to COD removal, the WWTPs with different mainstream technologies were classified into four categories as follows: 60%-70%, 70%-80%, 80%-90%, and 90%-100%, as shown in Figure 6.14. The unit energy consumption of the WWTPs is negatively related to COD removal. OD system with COD removal of 60%-70% shows significantly low energy efficiency than other technologies, which may be attributed to low operation loading rates of the OD plants. Moreover, the mean unit energy consumption of WWTPs with COD removal of 80%- 100% was lower than the national average value because of the high operation loading rate. Due to the small influence of the operation loading rate on the SBR system, the mean energy consumption of SBR decreased from 2.27 kWh/kgCOD_{removed} to 1.30 kWh/kgCODremoved as COD removal increase from 70% to over 90%, which confirms that the change of unit energy consumption in SBR plants is lower than those of other technologies in Figure 6.14. Since effective treatment and operation of plants could improve energy performance, high COD removal led to more efficient energy consumption.

Figure 6.14 Variation of energy consumption per unit mass of COD removal with COD removal in selected WWTPs in China.

6.4.5.4. Influent chemical oxygen demand (COD) concentration

The influent COD of a WWTP is an important parameter that affects COD removal efficiency and energy consumption. Figure A.15 ranks unit energy consumption of treatment technology in different influent concentrations of COD. Wetland, AS and SBR have the lowest mean unit energy consumption with COD concentration of 0 mg/L-150 mg/L, 150 mg/L-250 mg/L, 250 mg/L-450 mg/L and 450 mg/L-1000 mg/L. In figure A.15 and table A.36, all treatment technologies have the ability to treat low and medium strength wastewater with COD concentration of 150 mg/L-450 mg/L. Wetland and AS show relative higher energy efficiency for treating low and medium strength wastewater than other treatment technologies. However, they are not applied for treating wastewater with a COD concentration of greater than 450 mg/L due to the limited treatment performance of high strength wastewater. WWTPs have higher unit energy consumption (kWh/m^3) when treating wastewater with a higher concentration of COD [282]. In addition, unit energy consumption($kWh/m³$) is positively related to influent COD concentration. However, this might mislead our understanding of the impact of influent COD concentration on energy consumption [38, 225, 237, 283]. Silva and Rosa [233], Vaccari et al. [38], and Niu et al. [282] confirmed that unit energy consumption (kWh/kg CODremoved) of WWTPs decreases as influent concentrations of COD increases. As shown in Table A.36, the average unit energy consumption of biolak, SBR, and MBR decreases up to approximately 50% when the COD concentration is higher than 450 mg/L. In most areas of China, rainwater and groundwater often dilute the wastewater, which results in a low COD influent concentration [284]. WWTPs waste energy when receiving large amounts of stormwater runoff [38, 231]. This explains why the energy consumption of WWTPS

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with combined pipelines is lower than that of plants with separate systems for wastewater and stormwater.

Based on COD concentration, untreated wastewater could be classified into ultralow strength (0-150 mg/L), low strength (150-250 mg/L), medium strength (250-450 mg/L), and high strength (450-1000 mg/L). The unit energy consumption decreases with increasing COD concentration in Figure 6.15. WWTPs, which receive diluted wastewater with a lower concentration of COD, have higher unit energy consumption. Because WWTPs use fixed energy for removing lower strength wastewater and consume more energy in pumping the same flow rate of water. The average unit energy consumption of SBR decreased from 3.89 kWh/kgCOD to 0.63 kWh/kgCOD when treating wastewater with low, medium, and high concentrations of COD, which show lower unit energy consumption than other technology. Thus, SBR is energy-saving technology for treating all types of wastewater.

Figure 6.15 Variation of unit energy consumption with influent COD concentration in China.

6.4.6. Energy benchmarking based on the regression model

Table 6.5 shows the Pearson's correlations between the energy consumption of different technologies, design flow rate, operation loading rate, influent COD concentration, and influent COD mass. All the correlations were significant at the 0.01 level. Compared with operation loading rate and influent COD concentration, the design flow rate, actual flow rate, and influent COD mass showed stronger positive correlations with energy consumption. According to the benchmarking method reported by Yang et al. [145], the mean unit energy consumptions of three main technologies were selected as the benchmark data of unit energy consumption under different conditions of design flow rate, actual flow rate, and influent COD mass. The equations for predicting benchmark data of unit energy consumption from the design flow rate, actual flow rate, and influent COD mass are listed in Table 6.6.

Table 6.5 Correlations between the energy consumption of three main technologies, design flow rate, operation loading rate, influent COD concentration, and influent

Pearson Correlation	Design flow rate (10,000 m^3/d)	Operation loading rate (%)	Influent COD concentration (mg/L)	Actual flow rate (10,000 m^3/d	Influent COD mass (kg/d)
Energy consumption of $AO+AAO$ (kwh/d)	.889**	$.233**$	$.247**$	$.901**$	$.915**$
Energy consumption of OD (kwh/d)	$.902**$	$.181**$	$.407**$	$.916**$	$.910**$
Energy consumption of SBR (kwh/d)	$.894**$	$.329**$	$.368**$	$.905**$	$.935**$

COD mass.

** At the 0.01 level (2-tailed), correlation is significant.

Table 6.6 Statistical results of mean unit energy consumption

Treatment technology	Regression equation	Label	R Square
$AO+AAO$	UEC=3.0089(Q_{design}) -0.276	6.11	0.9672
0D	UEC=2.4924(Q_{design}) -0.320	6.12	0.9608
SBR	UEC=2.3607(Q_{design}) -0.339	6.13	0.9408
$AO+AAO$	UEC=2.4867(Q _{actual}) -0.237	6.14	0.6684
0D	UEC = $2.3971(Q_{actual})$ -0.319	6.15	0.9953
SBR	UEC = $2.0744(Q_{actual})$ -0.354	6.16	0.9994
$AO+AAO$	UEC = 18.541 (W _{COD}) -0.254	6.17	0.8471
0D	UEC = 13.529 (W _{COD}) -0.23	6.18	0.8697
SBR	UEC = 12.758(Wcop) -0.254	6.19	0.8226

Note: UEC=Unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD_{removed}); Q_{design}= Design flow rate (10,000 m³/d), Q_{actual}= Actaul flow rate (10,000 m³/d) and W_{COD}=Influent COD mass (kg/d)

The \mathbb{R}^2 value in equation (6.14) is relatively lower because the mean unit energy consumption is affected by extreme values, as shown in Figure 6.12. Due to the high $R²$ value in most equations, regression equations are suitable for estimating benchmark data of unit energy consumption. Equations (6.11, 6.12, 6.13), which are based on the design flow rate, are applied for energy consumption predictions during the WWTPs design stage. When plants are put into operation, wastewater quality and operation loading rate and could be measured. Then unit energy could be calculated based on an equation (6.14, 6.15, 6.16, 6.17, 6.18, 6.19). The estimated benchmark value could be compared with actual unit energy consumption to check the energy efficiency of WWTPs.

6.5. Conclusions

The current study used the China national data of WWTPs and compared the performance of wastewater treatment systems with different main biological technologies. In China, the WWTPs used $AO + AAO$, OD , and SBR as main wastewater treatment technologies accounted for 80.3% of WWTPs. The number of small and medium-sized plants accounted for 97% of WWTPs. Larger WWTPs received wastewater with a higher concentration of COD. The effect of the COD concentration should not be ignored when evaluating the energy efficiency of WWTP. The unit energy consumption $(kWh/m³)$ leads to incorrect results of energy audits. Pearson correlation analysis shows that COD removal is strongly related to energy consumption for all plants with main treatment technologies. The unit energy consumption (kWh/kg COD_{removed}) was used for evaluating the energy efficiency of mainstream technologies. Statistical and classification analyses were carried out to study the effect of design flow rate, operation loading rate, COD removal, and influent concentration of contaminants on the energy consumption of different treatment processes. Larger centralized WWTPs have high energy performance due to their high operation loading rates and high COD removal. However, centralized wastewater treatment might not be appropriate for the development of cities because more dispersed wastewater sources need longer sewers for collecting wastewater. Since SBR eliminates the need for secondary sedimentation tanks and return sludge, and uses blast aeration, SBR technology shows higher energy efficiency for treating all kinds of wastewater in small and medium-sized plants than other biological methods. Power regression equations between the benchmark value, design flow rate, and influent COD were developed in this study, which will provide a valuable reference for predicting the benchmark data of unit energy consumption for the future sustainable environmental design of WWTPs.

7. COMPARISON OF UNIT ENERGY AND COST OF SYSTEMS WITH INNOVATIVE TECHNOLOGIES IN TREATING LEACHATE AND INDUSTRIAL WASTEWATER

To compare the unit energy and cost of leachate and industrial wastewater treatment systems with innovative technologies, Excel models were developed in designing treatment systems of 1 MGD leachate using different innovative technologies based on leachate and industrial wastewater in table 3.1 and 5.1. Process flow diagrams of the treatment system are illustrated in Figure 3.2. To meet discharge requirements and assess the influence of different kinds of wastewater on treatment systems in terms of unit energy and cost metrics, systems were designed to achieve the same discharge standard (COD≤50mg/L, BOD≤20mg/L, and N≤5mg/L) so that systems have similar COD and N removal efficiency. In the systems, screen, grit chamber, micro sieving, UASB, PN/A, nitrification-denitrification process, and granular activated carbon system were used as a preliminary treatment, primary treatment, secondary treatment, and tertiary treatment for removing particulate matter, biodegradable COD and N and non-biodegradable soluble organic matter from wastewater, respectively. Due to low biodegradability of old leachate, sludge age is assumed to be 60 days for keeping stable performance of leachate and industrial wastewater treatment systems.

Since secondary biological treatment consumes 50–70% of the overall energy consumption of a WWTP [41], energy required by aeration was used as the dominant energy consumption in this study. Figure 7.1 shows that the electricity consumption rises as influent concentration of NH₄⁺_N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen increases. Because most of the O_2 is used for PN/A process and nitrification process. Most of the sbON was converted to NH_4^+ -N by ammonification prior to or during the aeration process. Since primary treatment and UASB removes COD without using

oxygen, main energy consumption is strong positive related to NH_4^+ N plus soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen. Except for BOD that is converted to $CO₂$ in aerobic treatment, most of soluble BOD and biodegradable particulate BOD in sludge are converted to CH⁴ to produce electricity and heat by UASB and the side stream anaerobic digester. Figure 7.2 illustrates energy production rises with increasing influent BOD concentration. Since main energy consumption and energy production are related to influent concentration of NH_4^+ ₋N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen (sbON) and BOD, unit energy consumption (kwh/kg N_{removed}) and unit energy consumption (kWh/kg BODremoved) are used as indicators in assessing the influence of different wastewater on energy and consumption of treatment systems as shown in Figure 7.3 and 7.4.

Figure 7.1 Electricity consumption and influent NH₄⁺_N and sbON concentration

Figure 7.2 Electricity production and influent BOD concentration

Figure 7.3 Unit energy consumption

Figure 7.4 Unit energy production

In figure 7.3, average unit energy consumptions are 0.99, 1.00, 1.24, 1.53, 1.58 and 1.65 kWh/kg Nremoved for textile, tannery, food processing wastewater, young, medium, and old leachate, respectively. The unit aeration energy consumption for textile wastewater is lower than that of the other industrial wastewaters and leachate. TN removal depends on the separation of particulate N by primary treatment, oxidation of NH_4^+ _N to nitrite-nitrogen or nitrate-nitrogen (NO₃_N), and conversion of NO₂_N or $NO₃N$ to $N₂$ by secondary treatment and adsorption of soluble nonbiodegradable N by tertiary treatment. N removal of textile wastewater depends more on sedimentation and adsorption than other wastewaters. As shown in Figure 7.5, the average ratio between N removal by secondary, tertiary treatment and total N removal are 45.42%, 34.18%, 31.45%, 11.40%, 10.74%, and 6.25%, respectively. Since particulate and soluble nonbiodegradable N removal do not consume oxygen (O_2) in the treatment system, textile wastewater needs a smaller amount of $O₂$ to remove N as compared to other wastewaters.

Figure 7.5 N removal by primary and tertiary treatment $(\%)$

Figure 7.4 compares the unit energy production of treatment systems for different wastewater. Average unit energy productions are 1.84, 1.87, 1.87, 1.88, 2.09, and 3.90 kWh/kg BODremoved for textile, tannery, food processing wastewater, young, medium and old leachate, respectively. The unit energy production for old leachate is higher than that of the other wastewaters. Although old leachate contains has a low concentration of COD and BOD/COD ratio, external carbon source in PN/A, nitrification and the denitrification process increase electricity production through increasing sludge side stream AD. The reaction of nitrification, denitrification and PN/A process can be depicted as the following equations:

$$
NH_4{}^+ + 1.86 O_2 + 1.98 HCO_3 \rightarrow 0.021 C_5 H_7 NO_2 + 0.98 NO_3 + 1.88 CO_2 + 2.92 H_2 O
$$

(7.1)

$$
NO_3^-
$$
+ 1.08CH₃OH + 0.24CO₂ \rightarrow 0.47N₂ + 0.065 C₅H₇NO₂ + 1.43 H₂O + HCO₃⁻
(7.3)

(7.2)

The nitrification and PN/A process used inorganic matters as a source for carbon. Due to the high BOD removal of UASB, the heterotrophic denitrification process needs exogenous organic carbon source such as methanol for the conversion of nitrate to nitrogen, or nitrite to nitrogen. Nitrification, denitrification and the PN/A process converted these carbon sources to organic matter in sludge as shown in equation (7.1, 7.2 and 7.3). Since these carbon sources are not from wastewater, BOD removal from wastewater does not include an external carbon source. Since external carbon sources could be converted to biomass to increase CH⁴ production of AD, external carbon sources could be considered as external BOD. Total BOD is the combination of total BOD removal from wastewater and external BOD as shown in equation (7.4):

Total BOD=BOD removal from wastewater + external BOD

(7.4)

The ratio between external BOD and total BOD represents the dependency of electricity production on the external carbon source. In figure 7.6, the mean external BOD/total BOD ratio are as follows: 6.42%, 7.77%, 9.83%, 16.21%, 38.48%, and 75.73% for textile, tannery, food processing wastewater, young, medium, and old leachate, respectively. Old leachate has a high concentration of NH_4^+ N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen, the system needs a great amount of carbon source to achieve high N removal. Energy production of old leachate treatment systems depends more on the external carbon source as compared to other wastewater treatment systems.

Figure 7.6 Ratio between external BOD and total BOD

Since preliminary treatment, primary treatment, secondary treatment, and tertiary treatment are used for removing particulate COD, biodegradable COD, and nonbiodegradable soluble COD from wastewater, respectively, unit cost metric (\$/kg CODremoved) is selected as the indicator for this study. As shown in equation (2.17), the total unit cost is the combination of the unit capital costs and the unit operational costs. Figure 7.7 compares the unit cost of treatment systems for different wastewater. Average unit costs are 0.41, 0.61, 0.64, 0.74, 1.32, and 1.51 for young leachate, tannery wastewater, food processing wastewater, medium leachate, textile wastewater, old leachate, respectively. The unit cost for young leachate is lower than that for the other wastewaters. As compared to other wastewater, young leachate has a higher biodegradability and concentration of BOD as shown in figure A.16 and A.17, which could produce a large amount of CH⁴ for energy recovery to reduce the unit cost of a treatment system. On the other hand, COD removal strongly affects unit costs of the unit process as shown in figures 7.8 and 7.9. The unit cost of micro sieving and UASB systems decrease with increasing COD removal. TSS/COD and BOD/COD ratio determine performance and COD removal efficiency (%) of micro sieving and UASB as shown in figures 5.5 and 5.8. COD concentration, flow rate, and COD removal efficiency determine the mass removal of COD. Young leachate has relatively higher COD and BOD concentration than other wastewaters as shown in table 3.1 and figure A.17, this leads to lower unit costs of the unit process. Therefore, systems with innovative technologies is more suitable for treating young leachate than other wastewaters.

Figure 7.7 Unit cost

Figure 7.8 Unit cost of micro sieving

Figure 7.9 Unit cost of UASB

8. CONCLUSION

The current study collected different leachate and industrial wastewater quality data and developed Excel-based models for comparing the performance of treatment systems with innovative and conventional technologies for different wastewater quality. Systems with innovative technologies could remove most of COD and NH_4^+ ₋N of industrial wastewater and leachate. However, effluent wastewater quality of energy positive system might still do not meet the discharge standards due to the high concentration of COD, BOD, and TN in industrial wastewater and leachate. This system should combine with physical-chemical treatment to increase pollutants removal efficiency to meet the discharge requirement. The energy and economic analysis showed that energy consumption, production, and cost are related to BOD, N, and COD removal, especially for system innovative technologies. The results show that systems using innovative technologies is the best treatment system for treating wastewater with high COD concentration and BOD/COD ratio in unit energy and cost.

Micro-sieving consumes more electricity than primary clarifiers for treating the same volume of wastewater. However, micro sieving shows a lot of advantages such as small footprint, modular and flexible design, recyclable materials, and high solid removal with high percent dry solids according to the design principles of Sustainable Environmental Engineering. In treating wastewater with high TSS concentration, micro-sieving could retain more particulates on the filter and divert more COD and N in sludge with higher percent dry solids to anaerobic digester than clarifier, which decreases CH⁴ production of mainstream UASB, O² demand of PN/A reactor, size and cost of UASB and PN/A reactor. These aspects demonstrate that micro-sieving could help energy-positive wastewater treatment systems save costs.

Pearson correlation analysis in a study about industrial wastewater shows that TSS/COD and BOD/COD ratio are the key parameters in determining COD removal and methane conversion rate of primary treatment and secondary treatment. UASB is ineffective for converting COD of wastewater with a low BOD/COD ratio to biogas. The TSS/COD ratio and BOD/COD ratio could be effectively used to predict the total COD removal and effluent COD concentration of wastewater in the treatment system with primary treatment and biological processes.

In the Excel model, wastewater quality affects treatment performance, energy, and costs of the innovative treatment systems. In practice, aeration method, design capacity, operation loading rate, COD removal, and influent concentration of contaminants have a significant influence on the energy consumption of WWTPs with different conventional biological technologies which include anaerobic- anoxic–oxic, anaerobic-oxic, oxidation ditch, sequencing batch reactor, membrane bioreactor, BIOLAK, biofilm, activated sludge, and combination of these technologies. Biolak and Biofilm use the floating aeration chain system and natural draft as an aeration method, which reduces oxygen demand and improves energy efficiency. The activated sludge process shows low energy consumption because it is mainly applied for removing BOD and uses primary clarifiers for separate particulate COD without consuming oxygen. However, due to disadvantages such as low treatment performance and a large carbon footprint, they are not the main treatment technology in China. MBR overcomes the disadvantages such as large space requirement for secondary clarifiers, excess sludge generation, and high removal rate of contaminants. However, MBR technology has disadvantages such as high energy costs, membrane fouling problems, and high costs of periodic membrane replacement. All of these result in high maintenance and operating costs. Due to these advantages, Biolak and Biofilm, activated sludge process

and, MBR accounted for 2.50%, 3.07%, 1.14% and 1.00% of WWTPs in China. The WWTPs in China used AO + AAO, OD, and SBR as main wastewater treatment technologies which accounted for 80.3% of WWTPs. The number of small and medium-sized plants accounted for 97% of WWTPs. The unit energy consumption (kWh/kg CODremoved) was used to rank the three main technologies. The energy efficiency of WWTPs increases with increasing design capacity, operation loading rates, COD removal efficiency, and influent COD concentration. The average unit energy consumption of SBR decreased from 2.76 kWh/kg to 0.83 kWh/kg when design capacity increased from less than $10,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$ to $100,000-20,0000 \text{ m}^3$ SBR technology is more energy efficient in treating wastewater than other biological methods in small and medium scale WWTPs in China. The unit energy consumption of SBR decreases from 1.71 kWh/kg CODremoved to 1.32 kWh/kg CODremoved and 2.27 kWh/kg CODremoved to 1.30 kWh/kg CODremoved as the operation loading rates increase from 40% to 100% and COD removal from 70% to over 90%, respectively. Therefore, the energy demand of the SBR system is the most significant by design capacity while operation loading rate and COD removal contributes to the decrease to a less degree.

The last section compared unit energy and cost of systems with innovative technologies for treating leachate and industrial wastewater. Average unit energy consumptions are 0.99, 1.00, 1.24, 1.53, 1.58 and 1.65 kWh/kg N_{removed} for textile, tannery, food processing wastewater, young, medium and old leachate, respectively. Since N removal of textile wastewater depends more on sedimentation and adsorption than other wastewater, textile wastewater needs a smaller amount of O_2 to remove N as compared to other wastewaters. Average unit energy productions are 1.84, 1.87, 1.87, 1.88, 2.09, and 3.90 kWh/kgBOD_{removed} for textile, tannery, food processing wastewater, young, medium and old leachate, respectively. Although old leachate contains has a high concentration of NH_4^+ N and soluble biodegradable organic nitrogen and a low concentration of COD and BOD/COD ratio, a great amount of external carbon source in PN/A, nitrification and denitrification process increases electricity production through increasing sludge side stream AD. Energy production of old leachate treatment system depends more on the external carbon source rather than BOD in wastewater as compared to other wastewater treatment systems. Average unit costs are 0.41, 0.61, 0.64, 0.74, 1.32, and 1.51 for young leachate, tannery wastewater, food processing wastewater, medium leachate, textile wastewater, old leachate, respectively. Compared to other wastewater, young leachate has a higher biodegradability and concentration of BOD, which could produce a large amount of CH⁴ for energy recovery to reduce the unit cost of treatment system. On the other hand, unit costs of the mainstream unit process decrease with increasing COD removal. Young leachate has relatively higher COD and BOD concentration than other wastewaters, this leads to lower unit costs of the unit process. Therefore, systems with innovative technologies are more suitable for treating wastewater with a high concentration of COD and BOD/COD ratio.

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APPENDIX

Leachate characteristics

The current study collected the data of leachate from peer-reviewed papers, as shown in Table 3.1. The databases of untreated leachate quality included basic information such as the concentration of TSS, COD, BOD and TN. The first row of data in table A.1 was selected as the specific young leachate quality for presenting the specific processes for estimating energy and cost of innovative treatment system. According to coefficients of the wastewater obtained from GPS-X 7.0 in table A.2, we could divide TSS, COD, BOD and TN of the specific young leachate into fractions, as shown in table A.3 and figures A.1-A.4.

Table A.1 Leachate characteristics

TSS (mg/L)	BOD (mg/L)	COD (mg/L)	TN (mg/L)	Reference
1894.11	4979.41	9309.80	1171.83	[94]

Table A.2 Coefficients of the wastewater obtained from GPS-X 7.0 and

corresponding equations

Figure A.1 Fractionation of SS

Figure A.2 Fractionation of COD

Figure A.4 Fractionation of N

Determine the SS parameters

VSS=(0.75)TSS=(0.75)(1894.11)=1420.58mg/L

ISS=TSS-VSS=1894.11-1420.58=473.53 mg/L

Determine the COD parameters

Since fBOD/(bsCOD+cCOD)= 0.717

pBOD/bpCOD=0.58

BOD=fBOD+pBOD

bCOD=bsCOD+cCOD+bpCOD

0.58<BOD/bCOD<0.717

1.39
bCOD/BOD<1.72

Hence, assume bCOD/BOD=1.5

bCOD=(1.4)BOD=(1.5)(4979.41)=7469.12 mg/L

pCOD=(1.42)VSS=(1.42)(1420.58)=2017.23 mg/L

fCOD=cCOD+sCOD=COD-pCOD=9309.8-2017.23=7292.57 mg/L

nbCOD=COD- bCOD=9309.8-7469.12=1840.69 mg/L

Since bpCOD<pCOD=2017.23 mg/L

Hence, assume bpCOD=1500 mg/L

bVSS=bpCOD/1.42=1500/1.42=1056.34 mg/L

bpCOD=sbCOD-cCOD=sbCOD-0.15sbCOD=0.85sbCOD

sbCOD=bpCOD/0.85

cCOD=0.15sbCOD=0.15bpCOD/0.85=264.71 mg/L

sCOD=fCOD-cCOD=7292.57-264.71=7027.87 mg/L

nbpCOD=pCOD-bpCOD=2017.23-1500=517.23 mg/L

nbVSS=nbpCOD/1.42=517.23/1.42=364.24 mg/L bsCOD=((bCOD)(sCOD))/COD=((7469.12)(7027.87))/9309.8=5638.35 mg/L nbsCOD=sCOD-bsCOD=7027.87-5638.35=1389.51 mg/L pBOD=(0.58)(bpCOD)=(0.58)(1500)=870 mg/L fBOD=(0.717)(bsCOD+cCOD)=(0.717)(5638.35+264.71)=4232.49 mg/L BOD= pBOD+ fBOD=5102.49 mg/L bCOD= bpCOD+ bsCOD+cCOD=7403.06 mg/L bCOD/BOD=7403.06/5102.49=1.45

The calculated BOD and bCOD/BOD are close to the given value and the assumed ratio. We change the assumptions of bCOD/BOD ratio and bpCOD concentration until the calculated BOD value and bCOD/BOD ratio are equal to the given BOD concentration and assumed bCOD/BOD ratio. The final result of SS and COD parameters is shown in table A.3.

Determine the BOD parameters

pBOD=(0.58)(bpCOD)=(0.58)(1507.85)= 874.55 mg/L

fBOD=(0.717)(bsCOD+cCOD)=(0.717)(5458.96+266.09)= 4104.86 mg/L

Determine the N parameters

nbpON= (0.068) nbpCOD = $(0.068)(509.38)$ =34.64 mg/L bpON= (0.0268) bpCOD = $(0.0268)(1507.85)$ =40.41 mg/L nbsON=(0.05) nbsCOD =(0.05)(1567.53)=78.38 mg/L bON+NH₄⁺_N=TN-NO₃⁺_N-NO₂⁺_N-nbpON-nbsON=1171.83-0-0-34.64-78.38=1058.82 mg/L

Innovative treatment system for SS, COD, BOD and N removal.

Process flow diagrams of innovative treatment system is illustrated in Figure A.5.

Figure A.5 Schematic graphs of innovative treatment system - mainstream anaerobic treatment and anammox treatment

Preliminary treatment

Preliminary treatment could remove screening and grit form wastewater. It was reported that volumes of screening and grit production are $4\n-100 \text{ L}/1,000 \text{ m}^3$ and $4\n-37$ $L/1,000$ m³ for wastewater without stormwater inputs [27]. Due to the relatively small volumes of screening and grit production, the changes of flow rate through preliminary treatment could be ignored in this study. In BioWin software, ISS portion of the TSS was removed by preliminary treatment. 60% was assumed as ISS removal efficiency of preliminary treatment [285].

Calculate the mass loadings to the primary treatment (Stream 1).

 $Q_1 = Q_i = 1 \text{MGD} = 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$

Mass of TSS, $W_{TSS, 1} = (C_{VSS, 1} + C_{ISS, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{VSS, i} + (1 - 60\%) C_{ISS, i} Q_i$ $=(1,420.58 \text{ g/m}^3+(40\%) (473.53 \text{ g/m}^3)) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 6,094.47 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of ISS, $W_{ISS, 1} = (C_{ISS, 1}) Q_1 = ((1 - 60\%) C_{ISS, 1}) Q_i$ $= ((40\%) (473.53 \text{ g/m}^3)) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 717.00 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of COD, $W_{\text{COD}, 1} = (C_{\text{COD}, 1})Q_1 = (C_{\text{COD}, i})Q_i$ $= 9,309.80 \text{ g/m}^3 \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 35,241.32 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of pCOD, $W_{pCOD, 1} = (C_{pCOD, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{pCOD, i}) Q_i = (C_{nbpCOD, i} + C_{bpCOD, i}) Q_i$ $=$ (509.38 g/ m³+1,507.85 g/ m³) \times 3,785.4 m³/d \times 10⁻³ kg/g = 7,636.01 kg/d Mass of pCOD, $W_{bpCOD, 1} = (C_{bpCOD, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{bpCOD, i}) Q_i$ $= (1,507.85 \text{ g/m}^3) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 5,707.80 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of nbpCOD, $W_{nbpCOD, 1} = (C_{nbpCOD, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{nbpCOD, i}) Q_i$ $= (509.38 \text{ g/m}^3) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 1,928.21 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of nbsCOD, $W_{nbs\text{COD}, 1} = (C_{nbs\text{COD}, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{nbs\text{COD}, i}) Q_i$ $= (1,567.53 \text{ g/m}^3) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 5,933.71 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of BOD, $W_{BOD, 1} = (C_{BOD, 1}) Q_1 = (C_{BOD, i}) Q_i$ $= 4,979.41$ g/m³ \times 3,785.4 m³/d \times 10⁻³ kg/g = 18,849.06 kg/d Mass of pBOD, $W_{pBOD, 1} = (C_{pBOD, 1})Q_1 = (C_{pBOD, i})Q_i$ = 874.55 g/ m³ × 3,785.4 m³/d × 10⁻³ kg/g = 3,310.52 kg/d Mass of N, $W_{N,1} = (C_{N,1})Q_1 = (C_{N,1})Q_1$ $= 1,171.83$ g/m³ \times 3,785.4 m³/d \times 10⁻³ kg/g = 4,435.85 kg/d Mass of pON, $W_{pON,1} = C_{pON,1} Q_1 = C_{pON, i} Q_i = (C_{nbpON, i} + C_{bpON, i})Q_i$ $= (34.64 \text{ g/m}^3 + 40.41 \text{ g/m}^3) \times 3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/g} = 284.09 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of nbsON, $W_{nbsON,1} = (C_{nbsON,1})Q_1 = (C_{nbsON,1})Q_1$ = (78.38 g/ m³) × 3,785.4 m³/d × 10⁻³ kg/g = 296.69 kg/d

Primary treatment

Micro-sieving, or a rotating belt filter (RBF), offers a more sustainable alternative than a traditional primary clarifier with a smaller footprint and lower capital costs [15, 16]. In the current study, we use micro sieving as primary treatment. Behera et al. [30] reported actual TSS removal of a rotating belt filter with the screen size of 350 microns for treating wastewater with different TSS concentration. The result showed that micro sieving could achieve TSS removal of greater than 90% when TSS influent concentration is higher than 1200 mg/L. Behera et al. [30] also developed the following empirical model for estimating TSS removal.

TSS removal of rotating belt filter =
$$
\frac{16.45 \ln[C_{\text{TSS,1}}] - 29.1}{100}
$$

 $= 1,609.99 \,\mathrm{g/m^3} = 1,609.99 \,\mathrm{mg/L}$ $(3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})(10^{-3} \text{ kg/g})$ 6,094.47 kg/d = Q W Concentration of TSS, $C_{TSS,1} = \frac{S_{TSS,1}}{Q_{TSS,1}} = \frac{S_{TSS,1}}{(2.785 \text{ A m}^3/\text{d})(10^{-3} \text{ A})}$ 1 TSS,1 TSS,1

92.37% 100 TSS removal of rotating belt filter $= \frac{16.45 \ln(1,609.99 \text{ mg/L}) - 29.1}{100 \text{ g/m}^2}$

For reflecting actual work conditions of micro sieving, estimated values based on the empirical model is used as TSS removal of micro sieving.

Calculate the primary sludge characteristics (Stream 7).

Mass of TSS, W $_{\text{TSS}}$, $_{7}$ =(92.37%)W_{TSS, 1}=92.37%×6,094.47 kg/d= 5629.25 kg/d

Mass of ISS, W $_{ISS, 7}$ = (92.37%) W $_{ISS, 1}$ = 92.37% × 717.00 kg/d = 662.26 kg/d

Mass of VSS, $W_{VSS, 7} = W_{TSS, 7} - W_{ISS, 7}$

=5629.25 kg/d- 662.26 kg/d= 4,966.99 kg/d

Mass of COD, W cop, $7=W_{pCOD, 7}=(92.37\%)W_{pCOD, 1}$

 $= 92.37\% \times 7,636.01 \text{ kg/d} = 7,053.12 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of bpCOD, W bpCOD, $7=(92.37\%)$ W bpCOD, 1

 $= 92.37\% \times 5,707.80 \text{ kg/d} = 5,272.10 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of nbpCOD, W $_{\text{nbpCOD, 7}}$ = (92.37%)W $_{\text{nbpCOD, 1}}$

 $= 92.37\% \times 1,928.21 \text{ kg/d} = 1,781.02 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of BOD, $W_{BOD, 7} = W_{pBOD, 7} = (92.37\%)W_{pBOD, 1}$

 $= 92.37\% \times 3,310.52 \text{ kg/d} = 3,057.82 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of N, $W_{N,7} = W_{pON,7} = (92.37\%)W_{pON,1} = 92.37\% \times 284.09 \text{ kg/d} = 262.40 \text{ kg/d}$

As shown in table A.4, the specific gravity of the bulk sludge for primary sludge are 1.001-1.02. The solids content of micro-sieving sludge is 3-8% [17]. 0.055 and 1.008 are assumed to be the corresponding solid content and the specific gravity of the microsieving sludge. Therefore, the wet bulk sludge concentration of micro-sieving sludge is equal to 55.44 kg/m³.

Source of Sludge	Primary clarifier		Micro sieving		Anaerobic digestion		PN/A		Activated sludge		Reference
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	
Solids Content $(\%)$		6	3	8	3	6			0.2	0.6	
The specific gravity of the bulk sludge	1.001	1.02	1.001	1.02	1.01	1.03				1.003	[17, 28]
Wet bulk sludge concentration (kg/m ³)	10.01	61.2	30.03	81.6	30.3	61.8	50	75	\overline{c}	6.018	

Table A.4 Physical characteristics properties of sludge

$$
Q_7 = \frac{W_{TSS,7}}{C_{TSS,7}} = \frac{5629.25 \,\text{kg/d}}{55.44 \,\text{kg/m}^3} = 101.54 \,\text{m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Calculate the mass loadings to the secondary treatment (Stream 2).

Mass of TSS, $W_{TSS, 2} = W_{TSS, 1} - W_{TSS, 7}$ $= 6,094.47 \text{ kg/d}-5629.25 \text{ kg/d}= 465.22 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of ISS, $W_{ISS, 2} = W_{ISS, 1} - W_{ISS, 7}$ $= 717.00$ kg/d- 662.26 kg/d= 54.73 kg/d Mass of COD, W cod, 2=W cod, 1-Wcod, 7 $= 35,241.32$ kg/d-7,053.12 kg/d= 28,188.20 kg/d Mass of nbpCOD, W $nbpCOD, 2=W$ $nbpCOD, 1-W$ $nbpCOD, 7$ = 1,928.21 kg/d-1,781.02 kg/d= 147.19 kg/d Mass of nbsCOD, W $_{\text{nbsCOD}, 2}$ =W $_{\text{nbsCOD}, 1}$ =5,933.71 kg/d Mass of BOD, W BOD, $2=$ W BOD, $1-W$ BOD, 7 $= 18,849.06 \text{ kg/d}-3,057.82 \text{ kg/d} = 15,791.24 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of N, W_{N, 2}=W_{N, 1}-W_{N, 7}
= 4,435.85 kg/d-262.40 kg/d=4,173.44 kg/d

$$
Q_2=Q_1-Q_7=3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$
- 101.54 m³/d= 3,683.86 m³/d

In the first iteration, the combined sidestream is ignored.

 Q combined sidestream= $0 \text{ m}^3/d$

 $\rm Q$ 3 $=$ $\rm Q$ 2+ $\rm Q$ combined sidestream =(3,683.86+0) m³/d=3,683.86 m³/d

Mass of TSS, W_{TSS, 3}=W_{TSS, 2}+W_{TSS, combined sidestream}= $(465.22+0)kg/d=465.22kg/d$

Mass of ISS, $W_{ISS, 3} = W_{ISS, 2} + W_{ISS, combined sidestream} = (54.73+0) kg/d = 54.73 kg/d$

Mass of COD, $W_{\text{COD}, 3} = W_{\text{COD}, 2} + W_{\text{COD}, \text{combined sidestream}}$

 $= (28,188.20+0) \text{ kg/d} = 28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of nbpCOD, $W_{nbpCOD, 3} = W_{nbpCOD, 2} + W_{nbpCOD,}$ combined sidestream

 $=(147.19+0)$ kg/d=147.19 kg/d

Mass of nbsCOD, $W_{nbsCOD, 3} = W_{nbsCOD, 2} + W_{nbsCOD, combined sidestream}$

 $=(5,933.71+0)$ kg/d=5,933.71 kg/d

Mass of N, $W_{N, 3} = W_{N, 2} + W_{N,}$ combined sidestream

 $=(4,173.44+0)$ kg/d=4,173.44 kg/d

UASB

The COD fraction

Mass of COD, W
$$
\text{cop}
$$
, $\text{3} = 28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}$

 $= 0.01$ $\text{nbpCOD fraction}, f_{\text{nbpCOD},3} = \frac{147.19 \text{ kg/d}}{28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}}$

nbsCOD fraction,
$$
f_{\text{nbsCOD,3}} = \frac{5,933.71 \text{ kg/d}}{28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}} = 0.21
$$

Cavalcanti et al. [42] studied the performance of UASB reactors for treating raw wastewater. The results show that UASB could produce stable sludge at an anaerobic sludge age of 40 to 50 days at 25 °C. In the municipal wastewater treatment system, $40-$ 60% of the influent COD could be converted into CH⁴ by UASB reactors at an anaerobic sludge age of 30 to 60 days at 15 to 30 ℃. In practice, the sludge age of UASB is greater than 20 to 40 days [26]. Since old leachate has bad biodegradability (BOD/COD less than 0.1), sludge age, R_{su} is assumed to be 60 d for keeping stable performance of leachate treatment systems. Since biodegradable COD in wastewater could be converted into CH⁴ at 15 and 35℃ [20], the operating temperature of the treatment system was assumed to be 25 ℃.

$R_{su}=60d$ $T_{UASB}=25°C$

fraction of influent COD ending up as non - settleable COD in the UASB effluent, $f_{\text{COD,3}}$

$$
= f_{\text{nbsCOD,3}} + \frac{0.27 \exp[-0.04(R_{\text{su}} - 4)]}{1.067^{\text{T}_{\text{UASB}} - 25}}
$$

$$
= 0.21 + + \frac{0.27 \exp[-0.04(60 - 4)]}{1.067^{25 - 25}} = 0.24
$$

 $= 0.09$ 1.067 $= 0.01 + (1.42)(0.05)(1 - 0.01 - 0.21) + \frac{0.25 \exp[-0.04(60 - 4)]}{1.067^{25-25}}$ 1.067 $0.25 \exp[-0.04(R_{\rm sn} - 4)]$ $=$ f_{nbpCOD,3} + f_c, Y_{an} (1 - f_{nbpCOD,2} - f_{nbsCOD,2}) + $\frac{0.25 \text{ exp}(-0.0 \text{ m/s})}{1.067 \text{ T}_{\text{I48B}} - 25}$ influent COD fraction converted into anaerobic excess sludge, $f_{\text{COD,8}}$ su nbpCOD,3 ⁻⁻¹ cv ⁻¹ an $(1 - 1$ nbpCOD,2 -1 nbsCOD,2 $/$ ⁻⁻ -1 067^TUASB

where

 Y_{an} = yield coefficient in an anaerobic environment =0.05 mg VSS / mg COD [42] fcv=ratio between mass of COD and bacterial mass $=1.42$ mg COD / mg VSS [91] fraction of influent COD digested in UASB, $f_{\rm{COD,CH}_4}$

$$
= 1 - f_{\text{COD},3} - f_{\text{COD},8}
$$

$$
= 1 - 0.24 - 0.09
$$

$$
= 0.67
$$

Calculate the UASB sludge characteristics (Stream 8).

Mass of COD, W cop, $s = f$ cop, s W cop, $s = (0.09)(28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}) = 2,467.03 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of nbpCOD, W $_{\text{nbpCOD, 8}} = W_{\text{nbpCOD, 2}} = 147.19 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of bpCOD, W bpCOD, $8=W$ COD, $8-W$ nbpCOD, 3 $= 2,467.03 \text{ kg/d} - 147.19 \text{ kg/d} = 2,319.84 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of ISS, W $_{ISS, 8}$ =W $_{ISS, 3}$ = 54.73 kg/d Mass of VSS, W vss, $g=$ W cop, g/f_{cv} =(2,467.03 kg/d)/1.42= 1,737.34 kg/d Mass of bVSS, W bVSS, $8=W$ bCOD, $8/f_{cv} = W$ bpCOD, $8/f_{cv}$ $=(2,319.84 \text{ kg/d})/1.42= 1,633.69 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of TSS, W $_{\text{TSS}}$, $_{8}$ =W $_{\text{VSS}}$, $_{8}$ +W $_{\text{ISS}}$, $_{8}$ = 1,737.34 kg/d+54.73 kg/d= 1,792.07 kg/d

Since ratio between mass of nbpON and mass of nbpCOD is equal to 0.068 [123]

Mass of nbpON, W nbpON, $8=0.068W$ nbpCOD, $8=(0.068)(147.19 \text{ kg/d})= 10.01 \text{ kg/d}$ Since Biomass, which can be represented by the formula $(C_5H_7NO_2)$, contains 0.12 g N/g biomass, Nitrogen content of biomass is equal to 0.12 gN/gVSS [27].

Mass of bpON, W bpON, 8=0.12W bVSS, 8=(0.12)(1,633.69 kg/d)= 196.04 kg/d

Mass of N, W_{N, 8}=W _{nbpON, 8}+W _{bpON, 8}=10.01 kg/d+196.04 kg/d= 206.05 kg/d

As shown in table A.4, the specific gravity of the bulk sludge and solids content for anaerobic digestion sludge are 1.01-1.03 and 3-6%. 0.045 and 1.02 are assumed to be the corresponding solid content and the specific gravity of the UASB sludge. Therefore, the wet bulk sludge concentration of UASB sludge is equal to 45.90 kg/m^3 .

$$
Q_{8}=\frac{W_{TSS,8}}{C_{TSS,8}}=\frac{1{,}792.07\,kg/d}{45.90\,kg/m^{3}}=39.04\,m^{3}/d
$$

V
$$
UASB=R_{su} Q_8 = (39.04 \text{ m}^3/d)(60d) = 2,342.58 \text{ m}^3
$$

Calculate the mass loadings to the PN/A process (Stream 3).

Mass of COD, $W_{\text{COD, 4}} = f_{\text{COD, 3}} W_{\text{COD, 3}}$

 $=(0.24)(28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}) = 6,743.95 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of nbsCOD, $W_{nbsCOD, 4} = W_{nbsCOD, 3} = 5,933.71 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of bsCOD, $W_{bsCOD, 4} = W_{COD, 4} - W_{nbsCOD, 4}$

= 6,743.95 kg/d-5,933.71 kg/d= 810.24 kg/d

Mass of N, W_{N, 4}= W_{N, 3} - W_{N, 8} = 4,173.44 kg/d-206.05 kg/d= 3,967.39 kg/d

Mass of nbsN, $W_{nbsON, 4} = W_{nbsON, 3} = W_{nbsON, 2} = W_{nbsON, 1} = 296.69 \text{ kg/d}$

= 3,967.39kg/d - 296.69 kg/d = 3,670.71kg/d Mass of bON and NH _N, W = WN, 4 - WnbsON, 4 bON+NH _N, ⁴ + 4 4 +

$$
Q_4 = Q_3 - Q_8 = 3,683.86 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} - 39.04 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 3,644.82 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Mass of COD, $W_{\text{COD, CH}_4} = f_{\text{COD, CH}_4}$ $W_{\text{COD, 2}} = (0.67)(28,188.20 \text{ kg/d}) = 18,977.22 \text{ kg/d}$

$$
CH_4+2O_2\rightarrow CO_2+2H_2O
$$

1 kg COD digested could be converted to 0.25 kg CH4 or 0.35m³ CH⁴ theoretically at 0℃ and 1 atm [28]

Mass of CH₄, W_{CH₄,UASB} =
$$
0.25W_{\text{COD, CH}_4} = (0.25)(18,977.22 \text{ kg/d}) = 4,744.31 \text{ kg/d}
$$

Not all of the methane produced can be collected, a part of the methane will remain dissolved in the anaerobic effluent. Most of the dissolved methane in the anaerobic effluent is lost to the atmosphere at some point in the effluent collection system. Thus, it was assumed that the methane concentration eventually lost to the atmosphere is equal to the dissolved CH⁴ concentration in the anaerobic effluent. 2.5 mg/L is assumed to be the dissolved CH⁴ concentration in the anaerobic effluent based on Handbook of Biological Wastewater Treatment [26].

Physical leakage of methane (kg/d) =
$$
\frac{(2.5g/m^3) \times Q_4 (m^3/d)}{1000g/kg}
$$

$$
\frac{(2.5g/m^3) \times 3,644.82 m^3/d}{1000g/kg} = 9.11 kg/d
$$

Mass of CH₄, $W_{CH_4, UASB} = 0.25 W_{COD, CH_4} = 4,744.31 \text{ kg/d}$ - $9.11 \text{ kg/d} = 4,735.19 \text{ kg/d}$ PN/A

Nitrification could convert nitrogen (N) in the form of ammonia $(NH₃)$ or ammonium (NH₄⁺) or organic N to oxidized N in the form of nitrite (NO₂⁻) or nitrate (NO₃⁻) [286]. Biodegradable organic nitrogen was converted to NH₄⁺-N by ammonification prior to or during aeration process. PN/A, which is an innovative N removal technology discovered in the 1990s $[24, 81, 82]$, could remove 90% of NH₄ \perp N through converting ammonia and nitrite to N_2 in the anammox process [83-86]. In this study, it was assumed that Biodegradable organic nitrogen was converted to NH_4^+ -N by ammonification prior to PN/A process and NH₄⁺-N removal of PN/A process is 90%

= (0.1)(3,670.71kg/d) 367.07 kg/d Mass of NH _N, WbON+NH _N, ⁵ = (1- 0.9)WbON+NH _N, ⁴ + 4 4 4 = + +

An overall reaction of PN/A process is given by the following equation:

$$
NH_4{}^+ + 0.799\ O_2 + 1.109\ HCO_3 \rightarrow 0.436\ N_2 + 0.111\ NO_3^- + 1.034\ CO_2 + 2.496\ H_2O + New
$$

cell biomass

Based on the reaction, it could be found that PN/A process does not consume organic matter. For greater ease in calculation, COD consumption during PN/A process is ignored.

Mass of COD, WCOD, 5=WCOD, 4=6,743.95 kg/d

Mass of nbsCOD, $W_{nbs\text{COD}, 5} = W_{nbs\text{COD}, 4} = 5,933.71 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of bsCOD, $W_{bsCOD, 5} = W_{bsCOD, 4} = 810.24 \text{ kg/d}$

Based on the reaction, it could be found that the oxygen requirement is 1.83 g O_2/g

 NH_4 ₋N converted, NO_3 ₋N produced is 0.111 g NO_3 - N/g NH_4 ₋N converted and the new

cell mass synthesis is 0.12 g VSS/g NH4_N converted.

 $=(1.83)(0.9)(3,670.71 \text{ kg/d}) = 6033.38 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of O₂ requirement, $W_{O_2,PN/A} = (1.83)(0.9)W_{bON+NH_4^+,N,4}$

Table A.5 Design parameter values of the PN/A SBR

Parameter	Unit	Value	Reference	
Ratio between carbonaceous oxygen demand and nitrogenous oxygen demand	unitless	0.06		
Number of cycles	Cycles/d			
Reaction time	h react/cycle		$[27]$	
Intermittent aeration during react period	h aerobic/h react	0.66		
Design oxygen uptake rate (OUR)	g/m^3 ·h	150		

Maximum nitrogenous oxygen demand $=\rm{W_{O_2,PN/A}}$ 6033.38kg/d

Maximum carbonaceous oxygen demand=0.06(Maximum nitrogenous oxygen demand)

$$
=0.06(6033.38\text{kg/d})=362.00\text{kg/d}
$$

Total maximum oxygen demand=6033.38kg/d+362.00kg/d=6395.39kg/d

Total aerobic time=(3 cycles/d) (6h react/cycle) (0.66h aerobic/h react)=12h aerobic/d

 $= 3552.99 \text{m}^3$ 3 2 3 $(12h \operatorname{aerobic/d})(150O, g/m^3 \cdot h)$ Reactor volume at minimum liquid level = $\frac{(6395.39 \text{kg/d})(10^3 \text{ g/1 kg})}{(6395.39 \text{kg/d})(10^3 \text{ g/1 kg})}$.

 $^{3}/d$ - 1214.04 m³ $\frac{4}{12}$ = $\frac{3,044.02 \text{ m/s}}{2}$ = 1214.94 m 3 cycles/d $=\frac{3,644.82 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}}{2}$ Number of cycles Maximum hydraulic load/cycle = $\frac{Q}{Q}$ $V_{PN/A}$ =3552.99m³+1214.94 m³=4767.93 m³ $= (0.111)(0.9)(3.670.71 \text{ kg/d}) = 366.70 \text{ kg/d}$ Mass of NO₃ _N, $W_{NO_3,N,4} = (0.111)(0.9)W_{NO_3/N,3}$ Mass of VSS, $W_{VSS,9} = (0.12)(0.9)W_{bON+NH_4^+,N,4} = (0.12)(0.9)(3,670.71 \text{kg/d})$

 $= 401.86 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of TSS, W_{TSS, 9}=W_{VSS, 9}= 401.86 kg/d

It was reported that sludge concentration is equal to 50-75 kg/m³ in anammox reactor [26]. Therefore, 50 kg/m³ is assumed to be concentration of PN/A sludge.

$$
Q_9 = \frac{W_{TSS,9}}{C_{TSS,9}} = \frac{401.86 \text{ kg/d}}{50 \text{ kg/m}^3} = 8.04 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

$$
Q_5 = Q_4 - Q_9 = 3,644.82 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} - 8.04 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 3,636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Activated sludge process, nitrification, and denitrification.

Activated sludge process design for BOD removal with nitrification

Table A.6 Activated sludge design kinetic coefficients for nitrification at 20℃

Coefficient	Unit	COD oxidation	NH ₄ oxidation	Reference		
$\mu_{\text{max},20\degree C}, \mu_{\text{max},\text{AOB},20\degree C}$	gVSS/gVSS·d	6	0.9			
$K_{\rm s}$, $K_{\rm NH_{4}-N}$	mg/L	8	0.5	$[27]$		
Y_{H} , $Y_{NH_{4-N}}$	g VSS/g substrate oxidized	0.45	0.15			

Since the nitrifying organisms grow more slowly than the heterotrophic organisms that remove organic matter, the nitrification rate will determine solids retention time (SRT) of activated sludge process with nitrification.

Determine the nitrification rate μ_{AOB}

$$
\frac{b_{H,20^{\circ}C}, b_{AOB,20^{\circ}C}}{f_d} = \frac{\text{gVSS/gVSSd}}{\text{unitless}} = \frac{0.15}{0.15} = \frac{0.17}{0.5}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{K_{o,AOB}}{\Theta_{V_{\text{flux}}}, \theta_{\mu_{\text{max,AOB}}}} = \frac{0.15}{\theta_{V_{\text{other}}}, \theta_{\mu_{\text{max,AOB}}}} = \frac{0.15}{0.07} = \frac{0.17}{0.07}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{6 \text{Value}}{\theta_{\mu_{\text{air}}}, \theta_{\mu_{\text{max,AOB}}}} = \frac{0.17}{0.07} = \frac{0.17}{0
$$

The minimum dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration of 2.0 mg/L is recommended for nitrification [27].

$$
C_{DO}=2~g/m^3
$$

0.50 g/m³ is selected as effluent NH₄_N concentration

$$
C_{NH_{4}_N,6} = 0.5g/m^3
$$

$$
\mu_{AOB} = \mu_{max, AOB} \left[\frac{C_{NH_{4_N,6}}}{C_{NH_{4_N,6}} + K_{NH_{4_N}}}\right] \left[\frac{C_{DO}}{C_{DO} + K_{o, AOB}} \right] - b_{AOB}
$$
\n
$$
= (1.27gVSS/gVSS \cdot d) \left[\frac{0.5g/m^3}{0.5g/m^3 + 0.5g/m^3}\right] \left[\frac{2g/m^3}{2g/m^3 + 0.5g/m^3} \right] - 0.20gVSS/gVSS \cdot d
$$
\n
$$
= 0.31gVSS/gVSS \cdot d
$$

Theoretical SRT =
$$
\frac{1}{\mu_{AOB}} = \frac{1}{0.31gVSS/gVSS \cdot d} = 3.19d
$$

= 0.31gVSS/gVSS \cdot d

Safety factors is in the range of 1.3 to 2.0 [27].

Safety factors (SF) is assumed to be 1.5.

Design SRT=(SF)(Theoretical SRT)=(1.5)(3.19d)=4.78d

$$
\mu_{\text{max}} = \mu_{\text{max, 20°C}} \ \theta_{\mu_{\text{max}}}^{\text{T}_{\text{initification}} \text{-}20} = (6g/g \cdot d)(1.07)^{(25-20)} = 8.42gVSS/gVSS \cdot d
$$
\n
$$
b_{\text{H}} = b_{\text{H}, 20°C} \ \theta_{b_{\text{H}}}^{\text{T}_{\text{initification}} \text{-}20} = (0.12g/g \cdot d)(1.04)^{(25-20)} = 0.15gVSS/gVSS \cdot d
$$

Effluent bCOD concentration,
$$
C_{bCOD,6} = \frac{K_s [1 + b_H \text{ (Design SRT)}]}{\text{Design SRT}(\mu_{max} - b_H) - 1}
$$

= $\frac{(8g/m^3)[1 + (0.15gVSS/gVSS \cdot d) (4.78d)]}{(4.78d)(8.42gVSS/gVS S \cdot d - 0.15gVSS/gVSS \cdot d) - 1} = 0.35g/m^3$

$$
C_{b\text{COD},5} = \frac{W_{bs\text{COD},5}}{Q_5} = \frac{810.24 \text{ kg/d}}{3,636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}} = 222.79 \text{ g/m}^3
$$

 $\rm{Mass~of~VSS,~W_{VSS,~activated~sludge~process~with~nitrification,10}}$

$$
=\frac{Q_{5} Y_{H} (C_{bCOD,5} - C_{bCOD,6})}{1 + b_{H} (Design SRT)} + \frac{f_{d} b_{H} Q_{5} Y_{H} (C_{bCOD,5} - C_{bCOD,6}) (Design SRT)}{1 + b_{H} (Design SRT)} + \frac{Q_{5} Y_{NH_{4-N}} (NO_{x})}{1 + b_{AOB} (Design SRT)}
$$

$$
C_{\text{NH}_4_N,5} = \frac{W_{\text{NH}_4_N,5}}{Q_5} = \frac{367.07 \text{ kg/d}}{3,636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}} = 100.93 \text{ g/m}^3
$$

For obtaining W vss, activated sludge process with nitrification, 10, we assume that the NO_x concentration is equal to 80% of the influent NH4_N.

Assumed NOx=0.8(100.93g/m³)=80.75g/m³

Mass of VSS, $W_{VSS, activated hudge process with nitrification,10} = 259.51 \text{kg/d}$

$$
NO_x = C_{NH_{4-}N,5} - C_{NH_{4-}N,6} - 0.12 \frac{W_{VSS, activated sludge process with nitrification, 10}}{Q_4}
$$

= 100.93g/m³ = 100.93g/m³ - 0.5g/m³ - (0.12) $\frac{259,507.30g/d}{3,636.78 m^3/d}$ = 91.87 g/m³

The computed value is not equal to the 80.75 g/m³ assumed. We change the assumptions of NO_x concentration until the calculated NO_x concentration is equal to the assumed NO_x concentration.

When assumed NO_x concentration is equal to 91.77 $g/m³$, the calculated value is equal to the assumed value.

Mass of VSS, W vss, activated sludge process with nitrification, $10 = 262.61 \text{ kg/d}$

As shown in table A.4, the specific gravity of the bulk sludge and solids content for activated sludge are 1.000-1.003 and 0.2-0.6%. 0.004 and 1.0015 are assumed to be the corresponding solid content and the specific gravity of activated sludge with nitrification and denitrification. Therefore, the wet bulk sludge concentration of activated sludge is equal to 4.006 kg/m³.

$$
C_{TSS, 10} = 4.006 \text{ kg/m}^3
$$

$$
V_{\text{activated sludge process with nitrification}} = \frac{(W_{\text{VSS, activated sludge process with nitrification, 10}}) (Design SRT)}{C_{TSS, 10}} = \frac{(262.61 \text{kg/d})(4.78 \text{d})}{4.006 \text{kg/m}^3} = 313.62 \text{m}^3
$$

Mass of O₂ requirement, W<sub>O₂, activated sludge process with nitrification
\n= Q₅ (C_{bCOD,5} - C_{bCOD,6}) -1.42
$$
\frac{Q_5 Y_H (C_{bCOD,5} - C_{bCOD,6})}{1 + b_H (Design SRT)}
$$

\n+ $\frac{f_d b_H Q_5 Y_H (C_{bCOD,5} - C_{bCOD,6}) (Design SRT)}{1 + b_H (Design SRT)} + 4.57Q_5 NO_x$
\n= 1,997.91 kg/d</sub>

Denitrification

Table A.7 Coefficients for denitrification [28]

The denitrification rate is sensitive to DO level in the anoxic zone. Denitrification is inhibited at a DO concentration above 0.1 mg/L [28]. DO level of 0.05 mg/L in the anoxic zone is assumed for design of denitrification process.

$$
\mu_{\rm H} = \mu_{\rm max, \, H}\, [\frac{C_{_{\rm NO_{34}_N,6}}}{C_{_{\rm NO_{3}_N,6}}+K_{_{\rm NO, \, H}}}] [\frac{K_{_{\rm DO, \, H}}}{C_{_{\rm DO, \, denitrification}}+K_{_{\rm DO, \, H}}}]
$$

$$
T_{\rm denitrification} = T_{\rm nitrification} = 25^{\circ}C
$$

$$
\mu_{\max, H} = \mu_{\max, H, 20^{\circ}C} \; \theta_{\mu_{\max, H}}^{\mathrm{T}_{\text{denitrification}} \text{-} 20} = (1.2 g / g \cdot d)(1.1)^{(25 \text{-} 20)} = 1.93 g V S S / g V S S \cdot d
$$

$$
k_{_{d,H}}=k_{_{d,H,\,20}\overset{}{\circlearrowright}}{e}\theta_{_{k_{_{d,H}}}}^{^{T_{\text{denitrifation}}\circ20}}=(0.05g/g\cdot d)(1.04)^{(25\cdot20)}=0.06gVSS/gVSS\cdot d
$$

 $C_{DO, denitrification} = 0.05$ $g/m³$

2 g/m^3 is selected as effluent NO₃_N concentration

$$
C_{NO_{3-}N,6} = 2 g/m^3
$$

$$
\mu_{\max,~H,~F} = \mu_{\max,~H}~[\frac{C_{_{NO_{34}_N,6}}}{C_{_{NO_{3}_N,6}}+K_{_{NO,H}}}] [\frac{K_{_{DO,H}}}{C_{_{DO, denitrification}}+K_{_{DO,H}}}] = 1.47 gVSS/gVSS \cdot d
$$

It was reported that the theoretical oxygen consumption ratio for NO_3^- (OE_{NO_3-N}) is 2.86

$$
mg O2/mg NO3 N [28].
$$

 $4.98gO_2/gNO_3$ _N $1 - 1.42Y_1$ OE The net oxygen consumption ratio for NO_3 _{NO₃N, $CR_{NO_2,N} = \frac{SL_{NO_3,N}}{1 + 1.42N} = 4.98gO_2/gNO_3$} H,denitrification $NO₃$ N
 \cdot $_{3}$ _N, CR_{NO_{3_N}} 3 $S_{3,N} = \frac{S_{N, N}S_{3,N}}{1 + 1.42 V} =$ − =

NO₃–N reduction rate by heterotrophs,
$$
r_{NO_3-NF} = \frac{\mu_{max, H,F}}{CR_{NO_3-N}}
$$

It was reported that fraction of heterotrophic bacteria active for denitrification fAX, varies from 0.2 to 1 [28]. f_{AX} is assumed to be 0.9.

 $k_{\text{LH}} = k_{\text{dR,20°C}} \theta_{k_{\text{c}}s}^{k_{\text{dR,20}}}} = (0.05 \text{g/g} \cdot d)(1.04)^{0.050} = 0.06 \text{gVSS/g/VSS} \cdot d$

C_{DO, desirification} = 0.05 g/m³

s selected as effluent NO₂ N concentration

C_{SO, No}s = 2 g/m³

ex. n,r_F = μ_{m,} $= 0.17$ g NO_3 _{N/g}VSS · d f $CR_{NO_2, N}Y_{H\ denitrification}(K_{sH} + C_{bCOD, 6})$ $\mathcal{C}_{0}^{(n)}$ Specific denitrification rate, SDNR = $\frac{P_{\text{max, H,F}}}{C\text{B}} \frac{V_{\text{max, H,F}}}{V_{\text{max, H,F}}}\frac{1}{V_{\text{max}}}}$ $NO₃N$ H,denitrification V^{\bullet} _S,H \rightarrow bCOD,6 $max, H, F \cup b COD, 6$ $\sum_{A \subseteq N} Y_{H, denitrification} (K_{s,H} +$ μ

 $NO_x=91.77 g/m³$

$$
C_{NO_3,N,5} = \frac{W_{NO_3,N,5}}{Q_5} = \frac{366.77 \text{ kg/d}}{3,636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}} = 100.83 \text{ g/m}^3
$$

$$
C_{NO_3,N,6} = 2 \text{ g/m}^3
$$

$$
W_{NO_3_N, denitrification} = (C_{NO_3_N,5} + NO_x - C_{NO_3_N,6})Q_5 = 693.17 \text{ kg/d}
$$

$$
V_{\text{denitrification}} = \frac{W_{\text{NO}_3_N, \text{denitrification}}}{(C_{\text{TSS},10})(SDNR)} = 1,026.01 \text{ m}^3
$$

 $\rm V$ activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification= $313.62 \text{ m}^3 \text{+} 1,026.01 \text{ m}^3 \text{=} 1,339.63 \text{ m}^3$

 $= 3,453.77$ kgCOD / d The amount of organic consumption due to denitrification, $\Delta S_{r,NO_3,N} = CR_{NO_3,N}W_{NO_3,N,denitrification}$

$$
C_{r,NO_3_N} = \frac{\Delta S_{r,NO_3_N}}{Q_5} = 949.68 \, gO_2 / m^3
$$

It was reported that return sludge ratio, R varies from 0.5 to 1 [28]. R is assumed to be 0.6.

The concentration of organic consumption due to deoxygenation, $C_{r, \text{DO}}$

$$
=C_{\text{DO}}(1+R)=(2gO^2/m^3)(1+0.6)=3.2 g O^2/m^3
$$

The concentration of organic consumption due to denitrification and deoxygenation,

 $C_{r,AX}$ =949.68 g O²/m³+3.2 g O²/m³=952.88 g O²/m³ $CH₃OH + 1.5O₂ \rightarrow CO₂+2H₂ O$

Based on the above equation, the equivalent oxygen for methanol,

 $\text{O}_{2,\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}\;$ is equal to 1.5 mg $\text{O}_2/\text{mg CH}_3$ OH

The concentration of methanol required by the denitrification, C_{CH_3OH}

$$
=\frac{C_{\rm r, NO_3_N}}{O_{\rm 2, CH_3~OH}}=635.25\,g\,/\,\rm m
$$

Methanol requirement $W_{CH_3OH} = C_{CH_3OH}Q_5 = (635.25 \text{ gO}_2/\text{m}^3)(3,636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})$

$$
= 2,310.27
$$
 kg/d

 $NO₃⁻+ 1.08CH₃OH + 0.24CO₂ \rightarrow 0.47N₂ + 0.065 C₅H₇NO₂ + 1.43 H₂O + HCO₃$

Based on the above equation, 1kg CH₃ OH could porduce 0.21 kg VSS

Mass of VSS, Wvss, denitrification, 10=(0.21kgVSS/kgCH3 OH) $\rm\,W_{CH_3OH}$ = 491.00 kg/d

Mass of TSS, W $_{\text{TSS, 10}} = W$ vss, 10

 $=$ W VSS, activated sludge process with nitrification, 10⁺W VSS, denitrification, 10

 $= 262.61 \text{ kg/d} + 491.00 \text{ kg/d} = 753.61 \text{ kg/d}$

$$
Q_{10} = \frac{W_{TSS,10}}{C_{TSS,10}} = \frac{753.61 \,\text{kg/d}}{4.006 \,\text{kg/m}^3} = 188.12 \,\text{m}^3/\text{d}
$$

 $Q_6 = Q_5 - Q_{10} = 3{,}636.78 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} - 188.12 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 3{,}448.66 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$

Mass of nbsCOD, W $_{\text{nbsCOD}, 6}$ =W $_{\text{nbsCOD}, 5}$ =5,933.71 kg/d

$$
C_{\text{nbsCOD,6}} = \frac{W_{\text{nbsCOD}}}{Q_6} = \frac{5,933.71 \text{ kg/d}}{3,448.66 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}} = 1,720.58 \text{ g/m}^3
$$

 $C_{b\text{COD}, 6} = 0.35 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{m}^3}$

 $C_{\text{COD, 6}} = C_{\text{nbsCOD, 6}} + C_{\text{bCOD, 6}} = 1,720.96 \text{ mg/L}$

Final clarifier

Parameter	Unit	Value	Reference		
Vesilind parameter, k	/σ	0.35			
Vesilind parameter, v ₀	m/h				
Settler height H_d	m		$[26]$		
Settler safety factor Sfd	unitless				

Table A.8 Design parameter values of the final clarifier

V final clarifier=S fd $(H_d/v₀)exp(kC$ TSS, 10)Q i

 $=(2)(4m/(9m/h))exp((0.35L/g)(4.006 g/L))$ (3,785.4 m³/d)/(24h/d)=569.73 m³

Activated Carbon Adsorption system

Table A.9 Design parameter values of the activated carbon adsorption system

$$
C_{\text{TOC,6}} = \frac{C_{\text{COD,6}}}{1.75} = 983.40 \,\text{mg/L}
$$

Since system was designed to achieve the discharge standard (COD≤50 mg/L, BOD≤20 mg/L, and N≤4.9 mg/L) [92, 93].

40 mg/L is assumed to be effluent COD concentration.

$$
C_{\rm COD,\; e} \text{=} 40\; mg\text{L} \text{=} 40\; g/m^3
$$

$$
C_{\text{TOC,e}} = \frac{C_{\text{COD,e}}}{1.75} = 22.86 \,\text{mg/L}
$$

 $= 1.34$ g/L $= 1.34$ kg/m³ 1/ n $f\leftarrow$ TOC,e $_{\rm TOC,6}$ – $_{\rm COC, e}$ $K_{\epsilon}C$ $C_{\text{TOC 6}}$ - C Activated Carbon dose concentration =

Activated Carbon dose requirement=(Activated Carbon dose concentration) Q⁶

 $=(1.34 \text{ kg/m}^3)(3,448.66 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})(2.205 \text{lb/kg}) = 10,185.33 \text{ lb/d}$

Sludge thickener

Parameter	Unit	Value	Reference	
Vesilind parameter, k	L/g	0.35		
Vesilind parameter, v ₀	m/h			
Settler height H _{th}	m		[26]	
Settler safety factor sth	unitless	1.5		
Thickened sludge concentration, C _{TSS,}	kg/m ³	25		
thickener sludge				
Solids recovery	unitless			

Table A.10 Design parameter values of the thickener

l limiting sludge concentration C

$$
= \left(\frac{C_{\text{TSS, thicker s} \text{ bulge}}}{2}\right)[1 + (1 - \frac{4}{kC_{\text{TSS, thicker s} \text{ bulge}}})^{0.5}]
$$

$$
= \left(\frac{25}{2}\right)[1 + (1 - \frac{4}{(0.35)(25)})^{0.5}]
$$

$$
= 21.71 \text{kg/m}^3
$$

limiting solids flux F_l=C_{TSS, thickener sludge v_0 (k⋅C₁-1)exp(-k⋅C₁)}

 $=0.74$ kg/m²·h=17.86kg/ m²·d

 $V_{sludge\text{ thicker}}=H_{th}\text{ Sth}\text{ W}_{TSS,\ 10}/F_1 = (3)(1.5)(753.61)/17.86=189.88\text{m}^3$

Mass of TSS, W_{TSS, thickener sludge}=W_{VSS, thickener sludge}=0.9W_{TSS, 10}

=0.9(753.61) kg/d=678.25 kg/d

Mass of VSS, WVSS, thickener overflow=WVSS, 10- WVSS, thickener sludge

=753.61kg/d-678.25kg/d=75.36 kg/d

Mass of COD, WCOD, thickener overflow= $(1.42)W$ VSS, thickener overflow

 $= (1.42)(75.36 \text{ kg/d}) = 107.01 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of N, $W_{N,thickener overflow} = (0.12) W_{VSS,thickener overflow}$

 $=(0.12)(75.36 \text{ kg/d}) = 9.04 \text{ kg/d}$

 $= 27.13 \,\mathrm{m}^3/\mathrm{d}$ 25 kg/m $=\frac{678.25 \text{ kg/d}}{254 \text{ kg/s}^3}$ C W Thickener sludge flow $Q_{thickenerlude} = \frac{W_{thickenerlude}}{2} = \frac{0.00423 \text{ kg/u}}{254 \text{ kg/h}} = 27.13 \text{ m}^3$ 3 thickenersludge thickenersludge thickenersludge

Thickener overflow Qthickener overflow=Q10-Qthickener sludge

$$
=188.12 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}-27.13 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}=160.99 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Anaerobic digestion

Side stream anaerobic digester converted sludge to $CH₄$ in the absence of air at a specific solids retention time and a specific temperature. Mean values of solids retention time and temperature shall be between 15 days at 35℃ to 55 ℃ and 60 days at 20℃ [134].

Kabouris et al. reported that the biodegradable volatile solids destruction value of anaerobic digester was 69% at a retention time of 12 days and 35℃ [287]. It was reported 70% of biodegradable COD could be converted to CH_4 at 35 °C [40]. As a result, retention time, temperature and biodegradable COD destruction value are assumed to be 15d, 35℃ and 70%.

$RT_{AD}=15d$

$T_{AD} = 35$ °C

 $Qt_{\text{otal sludge to AD}} = Q_7 + Q_8 + Q_9 + Q_{\text{ thicker}}$ thickener sludge

 $= 101.54 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} + 39.04 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} + 8.04 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} + 27.13 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 175.75 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$

 $V_{AD}=Q$ total sludge to AD \times $RT_{AD} = 175.75$ m³/d \times 15d= 2,636.22 m³/d

Mass of VSS, W VSS, total sludge to $AD=W$ VSS, $7+W$ VSS, $8+W$ VSS, $9+W$ VSS, thickener sludge

= 4,966.99 kg/d+1,737.34 kg/d+401.86 kg/d+678.25 kg/d= 7,784.44 kg/d

Mass of ISS, W ISS, total sludge to AD=W ISS, $1=717.00 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of TSS, W TSS, total sludge to $AD=W$ ISS, total sludge to $AD+W$ VSS, total sludge to AD $=717.00 \text{ kg/d} + 7,859.80 \text{ kg/d} = 8,501.44 \text{ kg/d}$

Mass of pCOD, W pCOD, total sludge to $AD=(1.42 \text{ kg COD} / \text{kg VSS})$ Wyss, total sludge to AD

 $=(1.42 \text{ kg COD/kg VSS})$ (7,784.44 kg/d)= 11,053.90 kg/d

Mass of nbpCOD, W nbpCOD, total sludge to $AD=W$ nbpCOD, $1=1,928.21$ kg/d

Mass of bpCOD, W bpCOD, total sludge to $AD=W$ pCOD, total sludge to $AD-W$ nbpCOD, total sludge to AD

 $= 11,053.90$ kg/d-1,928.21 kg/d= 9,125.69 kg/d

Mass of bVSS, W bVSS, total sludge to AD=W bpCOD, total sludge to AD/1.42=6,426.54 kg/d

 $CH_4+2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2+2H_2O$

1 kg COD digested could be converted to 0.25 kg CH4 or 0.35m³ CH⁴ theoretically at 0℃ and 1 atm [28]

 $\rm{Mass~of~CH_4,~W_{CH_4,~AD}\text{=}(0.25)(0.7)W}$ bpCOD, total sludge to AD

 $= (0.25)(0.7)$ (9,125.69 kg/d) = 1,597.00 kg/d

Mass of VSS destroyed, W vss, $_{DG}=(0.7)W$ bvss, total sludge to AD= 4,498.58 kg/d

Mass of TSS remaining, W TSS, REM=W TSS, total sludge to AD-W VSS, DG $= 8,501.44$ kg/d- 4,498.58 kg/d= 4,002.86 kg/d

As shown in table A.4, the specific gravity of the bulk sludge and solids content for anaerobic digestion sludge are 1.01-1.03 and 3-6%. 0.045 and 1.02 are assumed to be the corresponding solid content and the specific gravity of the anaerobic sludge. Therefore, the wet bulk sludge concentration of anaerobic sludge is equal to 45.90 kg/m^3 . It was reported that the solid concentration in supernatant is 2000-15000 mg/L [28]. 5000 mg/L is assumed as the solid concentration in supernatant in this study.

> 3 TSS,Supernatant 3 TSS, REM ^{T V} TSS, Supernatant total sludge to AD $-$ 45.9 kg/m³ 5 kg/m W + 45.9 kg/m $\rm W_{TSS~REM}$ - $\rm W_{2}$ $Q_{total\,shdoe\,to\,AD} =$ 3 TSS,Supernatant 3 $3/4 = 7.002.00$ Kg/ μ - VV TSS, Supernatant 5 kg/m W + 45.9 kg/m 4,002.86kg/d - W $175.75 \,\mathrm{m}^3/\mathrm{d} =$ WVSS, Supernatant= 496.82 kg/d WCOD, Supernatant=(1.42)496.82 kg/d= 705.48 kg/d WN, Supernatant=(0.12) 496.82 kg/d= 59.62kg/d $Q_{Supernatural} = (496.82 \text{ kg/d})/(5 \text{ kg/m}^3) = 99.36 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$ $\rm Q_{sludge}$ to dewatering= $\rm 175.75~$ $\rm m^3/d$ -99.36 $\rm m^3/d$ = $\rm 76.38~m^3/d$

WTSS, sludge to dewatering= 4,002.86 kg/d-496.82 kg/d=3,506.04 kg/d

Sludge dewatering

WTSS, sludge cake=(0.93) 3,506.04 kg/d=(0.93) 3,506.04 kg/d= 3,260.61kg/d

$$
Q_{\text{sludge cake}} = \frac{3,260.61 \text{kg/d}}{1.06(0.22)(1000 \text{kg/m}^3)} = 13.98 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Qcentrate=Qsludge to dewatering-Qsludge cake=76.38 m³/d-13.98 m³/d = 62.40 m³/d

WVSS, centrate=WTSS, sludge to dewatering-WTSS, sludge cake

=3,506.04 kg/d-3,260.61kg/d= 245.42 kg/d

WCOD,centrate=(1.42) 245.42 kg/d= 348.50 kg/d

WN,centrate=(0.12) 245.42 kg/d= 29.45 kg/d

 $Q_{\text{combined sidestream}} = Q_{\text{thickener overflow}} + Q_{\text{Supernatural}} + Q_{\text{centrate}}$

 $=160.99 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}+99.36 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}+62.40 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}=322.76 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$

 $W_{VSS, combined\ sidestream}=W_{VSS,thickener\ overflow}+W_{VSS,Supernatant}+W_{VSS,centrate}=817.60\kg/d$

W_{COD,} combined sidestream=W_{COD},thickener overflow+W_{COD},Supernatant+W_{COD},centrate= 1,160.99kg/d

$$
W_{N,~{\rm combined~sidestream}} = W_{N, {\rm thicker}} + W_{N, {\rm Supernatural}} + W_{N, {\rm centrate}} = 98.11 \rm kg/d
$$

Since the combined sidestream is returned to the UASB, the calculations in the first iteration will remain the same for preliminary and primary treatment. Other calculations need to be revised. The above computational procedure was repeated two more iterations by a spreadsheet program. After the fourth iteration, stable flow and mass loadings were obtained. The final results are summarized in Table A.12. We could determine energy and cost based on final iteration.

Iteration	1.00	2.00	final
Oxygen requirement (kg/d)	8,031.30	8,230.30	8,234.00
Mass of CH_4 (kg/d)	6,332.19	6,612.02	6,617.19
Excess sludge production (kg/d)	3,260.61	3,280.58	3,280.94
V_{UASB} (m^3)	2,342.58	2,446.91	2,448.84
$V_{PN/A}(m^3)$	4,767.93	4,960.63	4,964.66
$V_{\text{activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification}(m^3)$	1,339.63	1,375.17	1,375.77
Methanol requirement $W_{CH_2OH}(kg/d)$	2,310.27	2,362.95	2,363.94
Q_6 (m ³ /d)	3,448.66	3,764.10	3,771.33
Activated carbon dose requirement (lb/d)	10,185.33	10,163.36	10,162.86
$V_{sludge\text{ thicker}}\text{ (m}^3)$	189.88	195.31	195.40
V_{AD} (m ³)	2,636.22	2,676.85	2,677.57
Q sludge to dewatering (m^3/d)	76.38	76.85	76.86

Table A.12 Final parameter values for estimating energy and cost

Energy

Energy consumption

 $= 8,234.00 \,\mathrm{kg} \,\mathrm{O}_2/\mathrm{d}$ Oxygen requirement = aeration demand = $W_{O_2,PN/A} + W_{O_2,activated$ sludge process with nitrification

> $= 6,861.67$ kWh/d $= 2,504,509.32$ kWh/yr 1.2 kg O₂/kWh $=\frac{8234.00 \text{ kgO}_2/\text{d}}{4.00 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{m}^2}$ OT $=\frac{\text{Aeration demand} (\text{kgO}_2/\text{d})}{\sqrt{2}}$ Energy consumption of areation process 2 2 a 2

Energy production

Mass of CH₄=CH₄ production from UASB and anaerobic digester= $6,617.19$ kg/d

=12,757,470.91 kWh/yr $= (38\%)$ (13.9kWh/kg)(6, 617.19 kg/d) = 34,951.98 kWh/d $(CH_4$ production from UASB and anaerobic digester (kg/d)) Energy production(kWh/d) = (Energy recovery) (Enthalpy of combustion)

Electricity consumption Ratio between electricity prodcution and electricity consumption $=\frac{\text{Electricity production}}{\text{m}}$

$$
= \frac{12,757,470.91 \text{ kWh/yr}}{2,504,509.32 \text{ kWh/yr}} = 5.09
$$

Cost

Preliminary treatment.

 $Q_i = 3785.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 1 \text{ MGD}$

Capital cost of preliminary treatment(\$)= EXP [3.25972 +0.61915 ln(1)]1000=26042.24\$ Costs are based on 1986 cost data. The cost of preliminary treatment is updated to November, 2020 by using Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

1986 ENR CCI=4295.00

 $= 70208.07$ \$ 4295.00 $=(26042.24\text{ s}) \frac{11579.02}{1205.08}$ 1986ENR CCI Capital cost of preliminary treatment(\$) = (26042.24\$) $\frac{\text{November 2010ENR CCI}}{\text{Mean 2015}}$

OHRS = EXP $[6.39872 + 0.23096 \ln(1) + 0.16496 \ln(1)^{2} - 0.0146 \ln(1)^{3}] = 601.08$

hr/yr

 $XMHRS = EXP [5.8461+ 0.20651 ln(1) + 0.06884 ln(1)² + 0.02382 ln(1)³ - 0.00441]$ $ln(1)^4$] = 345.88 hr/yr

TMSU = EXP [7.23566 + 0.39994 ln(1) - 0.22498 ln(1)² + 0.1101 ln(1)³ - 0.01103

 $ln(1)^4$]= 1388.06 \$/yr

EERG = EXP [6.30864 + 0.23453 ln(1) - 0.35844 ln(1)² + 0.00871ln(1)³]= 549.30

kWh/yr

EERMS = EXP [7.1497 + 0.28856 ln(1) - 0.07886 ln(1)² + 0.014662 ln(1)³]= 1273.72

kWh/yr

The updated November, 2020 unit price of electricity, and labor are 0.1045 \$/kWh and 59.31\$/hr, respectively [288, 289].

O & M cost of preliminary treatment

$$
= (601.08 \text{ hr/yr} + 345.88 \text{ hr/yr})(59.31\text{ m}) + (1388.06\text{ m/s/yr}) \frac{11579.02}{4295.00}
$$

$$
+ (549.30 \text{ kWh/yr} + 1273.72 \text{ kWh/yr})(0.1045\text{ m/s/kWh})
$$

$$
= 60,096.69\text{ m/s}
$$

Primary treatment

Capital cost of rotating belt filter $(\$)= 0.55$ Capital cost of priamry clarifier with 50%

TSS removal(\$)

TSS removal of primary clarifier = -0.004006[Surface overflow rate (m/d)] +0.73782

 $= 59.37$ m/d 0.004006 $=\frac{0.73782 - 0.5}{0.001005}$ 0.004006 Surface overflow rate $=$ $\frac{0.73782 - TSS$ removal of primary clarifier

$$
Q = \frac{(32.6)(\text{influent flow rate})}{\text{surface overflow rate}} = \frac{(32.6)(Q_i)}{\text{surface overflow rate}}
$$

$$
= \frac{(32.6)3785.4}{59.37} = 2,078.70 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}
$$

Capital cost of primary clarifier= $-0.00002(Q)^{2}+19.29(Q)+220,389$

$$
=0.00002(2,078.70)^{2}+19.29(2,078.70)+220,389=260,400.72
$$

Costs are based on 1996 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

1996 ENR CCI=5620.00

= 536,509.80\$ 5620.00 $=(260,400.72 \text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{7580.02}$ 1996ENR CCI Capital cost of primary clarifier(\$) = (260,400.72 \$) November 2010 ENR CCI

Capital cost of rotating belt filter $= 0.55$ Capital cost of primary clarifier with 50% TSS

removal(\$)= $0.55 \times 536,509.80$ \$= 295,080.39\$

Operating Power Consumption =129.6 kWh/d

Labor hour $=216$ hour/yr

Maintenance Materials cost $(\frac{f}{y} - 2\% \text{ of capital costs} = (0.02)(295,080.39\text{ s}) = 5,901.61$

\$/yr

The updated November, 2020 unit price of electricity, and labor are 0.1045 \$/kWh and 59.31\$/hr, respectively [288, 289].

O&M cost of rotating belt filter =(216 hour/yr)(59.31\$/hr)+(5,901.61 \$/yr)+(129.6

 kWh/d)(365d/yr)(0.1045 $\frac{1}{2}$ /kWh) = 23,655.84 $\frac{1}{2}$ /yr

UASB

van Haandel and van der Lubbe [26] summarized the unit capital cost and cost factors in Table A.17. Flow rates were estimated based on capacity (P.E.) and wastewater production of 120 L/P.E./d [290, 291].

Based on the average values in table A.17, regression models of capital cost and cost factors are developed as shown in Figure A.6, A.7, and A.8.

Capacity (P.E)	25000			50000			100000			200000		
Flow rate (m^3/d)	3000			6000			12000			24000		
Unit capital $\cos t$ (\$/m ³) volume)	min	max	mean	min	max	mean	min	max	mean	min	max	mean
UASB	600	1000	800	500	700	600	350	500	425	250	400	325
Activated sludge tank	220	300	260	180	250	215	150	200	175	120	170	145
Final clarifier	350	550	450	300	400	350	250	330	290	200	260	230
Sludge thickener	700	1000	850	500	800	650	300	500	400	250	400	325
Anaerobic digester	600	1000	800	450	700	575	300	400	350	250	350	300
Capital cost (US\$/kW):	min	max	mean	min	max	Mean	Min	Max	mean	min	max	mean
Aeration equipment	4500	7000	5750	4000	5200	4600	3200	4000	3600	2800	3500	3150
Cost factors	min	max	mean	min	max	mean	min	max	mean	min	max	mean
f_{ac}	1.4	1.5	1.45	1.35	1.45	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.35	1.25	1.35	1.3
f_i	1.6	1.9	1.75	1.5	1.8	1.65	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.5

Table A.17 Costing parameters for different WWTP sizes

Figure A.6 Capital cost of UASB, aeration tank, final clarifier, sludge thickener and anaerobic digester

Figure A.7 Capital cost of aeration equipment

Figure A.8 Cost factors

The following equations could be used for predicting capital cost and cost factors:

Unit capital cost of UASB $(\frac{5}{m^3}$ volume) = 27070(Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.44}$ R $R^2 = 0.9979$

(A.1)

Unit capital cost of activated sludge tank $(\frac{C}{m^3}$ volume) = 2497.8(Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.282}$ $R^2 = 0.9997$

(A.2)

Unit capital cost of final clarifier $(\frac{5}{m^3}$ volume) = 5664.5 (Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.318}$ $R^2 = 0.9973$

(A.3)

Unit capital cost of sludge thickener $(\frac{C}{m^3}$ volume) =42072(Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.486}$ $R^2 = 0.9773$

(A.4)

Unit capital cost of anaerobic digester $(\frac{C}{m^3}$ volume) = 41699 (Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.496}$ $R^2 = 0.9662$

$$
(A.5)
$$

Unit capital cost of aeration equipment $(\frac{f}{k}W) = 60459$ (Flow rate (m^3/d))⁻ 0.296 $R^2 = 0.9864$

$$
(A.6)
$$

Cost factors, fac =2.2092(Flow rate (m³ /d))-0.053 R ²=0.9997

$$
(A.7)
$$

Cost factors, fi=3.0884(Flow rate (m³ /d))-0.071 R ²=0.9839

(A.8)

Flow rate $=Q_i=1\,\text{MGD}=3,785.4\,\text{m}^3/\text{d}$

Unit capital cost of UASB = 27070(Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.44}$ = 27070(3,785.4 m³/d)

$$
^{0.44}
$$
=721.31 $\frac{\text{m}}{\text{m}^3}$ volume

Unit capital cost of activated sludge tank = 2497.8(Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.282}$ = 2497.8(3,785.4)

 m^3/d)^{-0.282}=244.64 \$/m³ volume

Unit capital cost of final clarifier $(\frac{m^3}{\text{volume}}) = 5664.5$ (Flow rate (m^3/d))⁻

$$
^{0.318}
$$
=5664.5(3,785.4 m³/d)^{-0.318}=412.40 \$/m³ volume

Unit capital cost of sludge thickener $(\frac{2}{m^3}$ volume) = 42072(Flow rate (m^3/d))

$$
^{0.486}
$$
=42072(3,785.4 m³/d)^{-0.486}=767.42 $\$/m^3$ volume

Unit capital cost of anaerobic digester $(\frac{2}{m^3}$ volume) =41699(Flow rate (m^3/d))

 $^{0.496}$ =41699(3,785.4 m³/d)^{-0.496}=700.46 \$/m³ volume

Unit capital cost of aeration equipment $(\frac{f}{k}W) = 60459$ (Flow rate (m^3/d))⁻

$$
^{0.296}
$$
=60459(3,785.4 m³/d) $^{0.296}$ =5276.43 kW

Cost factors, $f_{ac} = 2.2092$ (Flow rate $(m^3/d))^{-0.053} = 2.2092(3,785.4 \text{ m}^3/d)^{-0.053} = 1.43$

Cost factors, f_i=3.0884(Flow rate $(m^3/d))$ ^{-0.071}=3.0884(3,785.4 m³/d)^{-0.071}=1.72

Unit cost metrics	Related equations	Reference
Mainstream UASB	Capital cost of UASB(\$)=(costing factors)(Volume of UASB $(m3)$)) (unit capital cost of $UASB(\frac{6}{m^3})$) Volume of UASB (m^3) $=(\text{s} \cdot \text{ulage} \text{ production from } \text{UASB}(m^3/d))(\text{s} \cdot \text{ulage} \text{ age}(d))$ O&M cost (US\$/year)= $(p+0+n+0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7m_{\text{me&i}})$ Capital cost where $p =$ personnel cost=0.035, $o = operation cost = 0.01$, $n =$ insurance cost=0.003. m_{civ} =maintenance costs for civil works=0.075 $m_{me\&i}$ =maintenance costs for mechanical, electrical and instrumentation equipment (E&I)=0.00175	[26]

Table A.18 Equations for calculating cost of UASB.

The capital cost of UASB $(\$) = (cost factors)(Volume of UASB(m^3))$

(unit capital cost of $UASB(\$/m^3))=f_{ac}f_i V_{UASB}$ (Unit capital cost of UASB

 $=$ (1.43)(1.72)(2,448.84 m³)(721.31\$/ m³ volume) = 4,338,325.70 \$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

 $= 6,482,280.11$ \$ 7749.37 $=(4,338,325.70 \text{ }*)\frac{11579.02}{7548.02}$ 2006ENR CCI Capital cost of UASB(\$) = (4,338,325.70 \$) November 2010 ENR CCI

O&M cost of UASB=(p+o+n+ 0.3mciv+0.7 mme&i)Capital cost of UASB

$$
=(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(6,482,280.11)
$$

 $= 405,142.51$ \$/yr

PN/A

Based on the data in table A.19, regression models of equipment cost and are developed as shown in Figure A.9.

Figure A.9 Equipment cost of SBR

The following equation could be used for predicting equipment cost of SBR:

Equipment Cost of SBR $(\$) = (Volume of SBR(MG))166438+155108$ $R^2 = 0.9839$

(A.9)

$V_{PN/A} = 4,964.66$ m³/d=1.31 MG

Equipment Cost of PN/A $SBR(\$) = (Volume of PN/A(MG))166438+155108$

 $=(1.31)166438+155108=373,219.15$ \$

Capital cost of $PN/A(\$)$ = Equipment Cost of $PN/A(\$)$ (Capital cost/Equipment Cost)

 $=(2.405)(373,219.15\text{})= 898,017.68\text{ }$

Costs are based on 1998 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

1998 ENR CCI=5920

 $=1,756,446.73$ \$ 5920 $=(898,017.68\text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{200}$ 1998ENR CCI Capital cost of PN/A(\$) = (898,017.68 \$) November 2010 ENR CCI

O&M cost of $PN/A=(p+o+n+0.3m)$ civ+0.7 m_{me&i})Capital cost of PN/A

 $=(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(1,756,446.73) = 109,777.92$ \$/yr

Activated sludge system with nitrification, and denitrification

Table A.21 Equations for calculating cost of activated sludge system with nitrification,

and denitrification

 $V_{\text{activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification}= 1,375.77 \text{ m}^3$

Capital cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification(\$)

=(costing factors)(Volume of activated sludge process with nitrification and

denitrification (m^3))(unit capital cost of activated sludge tank $(\frac{m^3}{})$)

=fac fⁱ Vactivated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification (Unit capital cost of activated sludge

 \tanh = (1.43)(1.72)(1,375.77 m³)(244.64 \\$ m³ volume) = 826,645.82 \\$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

Capital cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification (\$)

=
$$
(826,645.82 \text{ $})
$$

 November 2010ENR CCI
= $(826,645.82 \text{ $})$
 $\frac{11579.02}{7749.37} = 1,235,165.39 \text{ $})$

O&M cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification

 $=(p+o+n+0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7m_{\text{me\&i}})$ Capital cost of activated sludge process with nitrification

and denitrification=(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(1,235,165.39)

 $= 77,197.84$ \$/yr

= 327,015.17\$/yr = (379\$/1000kg)(2,363.94 kg/d)(365d/yr) (Methanol requirement W) (kg/d))(365d/yr) O & M cost of CH OH(US\$/yr) = (Price of CH OH(\$/1000kg)) CH OH 3 3 3

Final clarifier

V_{final clarifier}=569.73m³

Capital cost of final clarifier(\$)=(costing factors)(Volume of final clarifier

 $(m³)($ unit capital cost of final clarifier $(\frac{C}{m³)})$ =f_{ac}f_i V final clarifier (Unit capital cost of final

clarifier)=(1.43)(1.72)(569.73 m³)(412.40\$/ m³ volume)= 577,082.28 \$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

 $= 862,270.21$ \$ 7749.37 $=(577,082.28\text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{77.025}$ 2006ENR CCI $=(577,082.28\ \text{S})$ November 2010 ENR CCI Capital cost of final clarifier (\$)

O&M cost of final clarifier=(p+o+n+ $0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7 m_{\text{me\&i}}$)Capital cost of final

clarifier= $(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(862,270.21) = 53,891.89$ \$/yr

Activated Carbon Adsorption system

Table A.23 Equations for calculating cost of activated carbon adsorption system

Activated Carbon dose requirement=regeneration capacity= 10,162.86 lb/d

$$
Q_6 = 3771.33 \text{ m}^3/\text{d} = 691.86 \text{gpm}
$$

Since the maximum limit of plant flow to activated carbon system is 350 gpm, number of package granular activated carbon columns is 2.

$$
x = \frac{691.86 \text{gpm}}{2} = 345.93 \text{ gpm}
$$

Capital cost of package Granular Activated Carbon Columns(\$)=(number of package

Granular Activated Carbon Columns)(1+(Miscellaneous costs)/(construction

cost)(0.0084
$$
x^3
$$
 - 5.2233 x^2 + 1318.4 x +27144)

 $=(2)(1+0.28)(0.0084 (345.93)^3 - 5.2233 (345.93)^2 + 1318.4 (345.93) +27144)$

$$
= 527,081.60
$$

Capital cost of Granular Carbon Regeneration (\$)=(1+(Miscellaneous

costs)/(construction cost)(2E-8
$$
x^3
$$
 - 0.0018 x^2 + 93.965 x +2000000)

 $=(1+0.28)(2E-8(10,162.86)^3 - 0.0018(10,162.86)^2 + 93.965(10,162.86) + 2000000)$

$= 3,571,245.24$ \$

Costs are based on 2009 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2009 ENR CCI=8585.71

Capital cost of package Granular Activated Carbon Columns(\$)

 $= 710,842.60$ \$ 8585.71 $=(527,081.60\text{ s})\frac{11579.02}{2525.74}$ 2009ENR CCI $=(527,081.60\text{ s})$ November 2010 ENR CCI

 $= 4,816,319.22$ \$ 8585.71 $=(3,571,245.24\text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{2585.74}$ 2009ENR CCI $=(3,571,245.24\text{ s})$ November 2010 ENR CCI Capital cost of Granular Carbon Regenerati on (\$)

Capital cost of activated carbon system (\$)=710,842.60 \$+4,816,319.22 \$=5,527,161.82\$ O&M cost of Package Granular Activated Carbon Columns(\$/yr)=(number of package Granular Activated Carbon Columns)(0.0005 $x^3 - 0.3763 x^2 + 140.13 x + 4959$) $=(2)(0.0005 (345.93)^3 - 0.3763 (345.93)^2 + 140.13 (345.93) + 4959) = 58,203.34$ \$/yr O&M cost of Granular Carbon Regeneration $(\frac{f}{yr})=15.503 x + 128481$

$$
=15.503(10,162.86) + 128481 = 286,035.76 \text{ s/yr}
$$

The 2009 unit price of electricity, natural gas and labor are 0.0981 \$/kWh, 0.00898 and 45.82 \$/hr, respectively. The updated November, 2020 unit price of electricity, natural gas and labor are 0.1045 \$/kWh ,0.00766 \$/scf and 59.31\$/hr, respectively [288, 289]. Component percent of electricity, labor and maintenance materials are 23%, 49% and 28% for Package Granular Activated Carbon Columns. Costs are based on 2009 cost

data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

O & M cost of Package Granular Actual Carloon Columbus(\$/yr)\n
$$
= (58,203.34\text{S/yr})(0.23) \frac{0.1045}{0.0981} + (58,203.34\text{S/yr})(0.49) \frac{59.13}{45.82} + (58,203.34\text{S/yr})(0.28) \frac{11579.02}{8585.71} = 73,154.98\text{S/yr}
$$

Component percent of electricity, natural gas, labor and maintenance materials are 9%, 42%, 36% and 13% for Granular Carbon Regeneration.

$$
O & M \cot 6 \text{ Granular Carbon Regeneration($/yr)}
$$
\n
$$
= (286,035.76\sqrt[6]{y}) \cdot (0.09) \cdot \frac{0.1045}{0.0981} + (286,035.76\sqrt[6]{y}) \cdot (0.42) \cdot \frac{0.0766}{0.0898}
$$
\n
$$
+ (286,035.76\sqrt[6]{y}) \cdot (0.36) \cdot \frac{59.13}{45.82} + (286,035.76\sqrt[6]{y}) \cdot (0.13) \cdot \frac{11579.02}{8585.71}
$$

$$
O&M\ cost\ of\ virgin\ Carbon\ (\$/yr)=(Activated\ carbon\ loss)(365d/y)(Cost\ of\ virgin
$$

carbon) x= $(0.06)(365d/y)(1.2\$/lb)$ (10,162.86 lb/d)= 267,079.86 \simuy/yr

 $= 313,336.74$ \$/yr

O&M cost of activated carbon system (\$⁄yr)

 $=73,056.35\sqrt{(yr+313,345.28 \sqrt{(yr+267,093.08 \sqrt{(yr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(yr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(yr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(yr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(yr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58 \sqrt{(fr-653,571.58$

Sludge thickener

V sludge thickener $=195.40$ m³

Capital cost of sludge thickener (\$)=(costing factors)(Volume of sludge

thickener(m³)) (unit capital cost of sludge thickener $(\frac{2}{m^3})$)

 $=f_{ac}$ f_i V sludge thickener (Unit capital cost of sludge thickener)=(1.43)(1.72)(195.40

 m^3)(767.42\$/ m^3 volume)= 368,304.04 \$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

 $= 550,315.98$ \$ 7749.37 $=(368,304.04\text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{77.025}$ 2009ENR CCI $= (368,304.04 \text{ s})$ November 2010 ENR CCI Capital cost of sludge thickener (\$)

O&M cost of sludge thickener=($p+o+n+0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7m_{\text{me&i}}$)Capital cost of sludge

thickener= $(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(550,065.07)$ = 34,394.75 \$/yr Anaerobic digestion

Unit cost metrics Related equations Reference Anaerobic digestion Capital cost of anaerobic digestion(\$)=(costing factors)(volune of anaerobic digestion($m³$)) (unit capital cost of anaerobic digestion(\$/m³)) O&M cost (US\$/year)=(p+o+n+ 0.3mciv+0.7 m_{me&i})Capital cost where p=personnel cost=0.035, o=operation cost=0.01, n=insurance cost=0.003, m_{civ}=maintenance costs for civil works=0.075 mme&i=maintenance costs for mechanical, electrical and instrumentation equipment (E&I)=0.00175 [26]

$$
V_{AD} = 2,677.57 \text{m}^3
$$

Capital cost of anaerobic digestion (\$)=(costing factors)(Volume of anaerobic

digestion(m³)) (unit capital cost of anaerobic digestion $(\frac{C}{m^3})=f_{ac}f_i V_{AD}$ (Unit capital

cost of anaerobic digestion)= $(1.43)(1.72)(2.677.57 \text{ m}^3)(700.46\frac{1}{3} \text{ volume})$

 $= 4,606,458.17$ \$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

Capital cost of anaerobic digestion (\$)

 $= 6,882,920.79$ \$ 7749.37 $=(4,606,458.17\text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{7540.05}$ 2009ENR CCI $=(4,606,458.17\text{ s})$ November 2010 ENR CCI

O&M cost of anaerobic digestion= $(p+o+n+ 0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7 m_{\text{me\&i}})$ Capital cost ofanaerobic

digestion= $(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))$ $(6,882,920.79)$

 $= 430,182.55$ \$/yr

Sludge dewatering

 Q sludge to dewatering=76.86 m³/d=14.10gpm

Capital cost of sludge dewatering $(\$)=(1+(Miscellaneous costs)/(construction cost))$.

0.0727 $x^3+48.326 \t x^2 +13071 \t x +389081)=(1+0.28)(-0.0727)(14.10)^3+48.326(14.10)^2 +$

13071(14.10) +389081)=745,971.85 \$

Costs are based on 2009 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using

Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2009 ENR CCI=8585.71

 $=1,006,046.43$ \$ 8585.71 $=(745,971.85\text{ s})\frac{11579.02}{2525.71}$ 2009ENR CCI $= (745,971.85 \text{ s}) \frac{\text{November}}{2000 \text{ FNR}}$ CCI Capital cost of sludge dewatering (\$)

O&M cost of sludge dewatering($\sqrt{(y/r)}$ =0.5981 x²+ 1598.4 x+48127

 $=0.5981(14.10)^2+1598.4(14.10)+48127=70.783.85$ \$/yr

The 2009 unit price of electricity, natural gas and labor are 0.0981 \$/kWh, 0.00898 and 45.82 \$/hr, respectively. The updated November, 2020 unit price of electricity, natural gas and labor are 0.1045 \$/kWh ,0.00766 \$/scf and 59.31\$/hr, respectively [288, 289]. Component percent of electricity, labor and maintenance materials are 30%, 62% and 8% for

sludge dewatering. Costs are based on 2009 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

$$
O & M \cot \theta \text{ sludge} \text{d}}(\$/yr)
$$
\n
$$
= (70,783.85 \sqrt[6]{y})(0.30) \frac{0.1045}{0.0981} + (70,783.85 \sqrt[6]{y})(0.62) \frac{59.13}{45.82} + (70,783.85 \sqrt[6]{y})(0.08) \frac{11579.02}{8585.71} = 87,064.07 \sqrt[6]{y}
$$

Sludge disposal

Excess sludge production= 3,280.94 kg/d= 1,197.54 ton/yr

O&M costs of sludge disposal (\$/year)=(Excess sludge production

(ton TSS⁄yr))(sludge disposal cost(\$/ton TSS))

=(1,197.54 ton/yr)(280\$/ton)= 335,312.36 \$/yr

Aeration equipment

Energy consumption of areation process=6,861.67 kWh/d

Installed capacity of aeration equipment=1.5(Energy consumption of areation process)/24

$$
=1.5(6,861.67)/24=428.85
$$
 kW

Capital cost of aeration equipment(\$)=(costing factors)(Installed capacityof aeration

equipment (kW))(unit capital cost of aeration equipment(\$/kW))

 $=f_{ac}$ f_i (Installed capacity of aeration equipment (kW))(unit capital cost of aeration equipment(\$/kW))=(1.43)(1.72)(428.85 kW)(5,276.43 \$/kW)=5,557,674.11 \$

Costs are based on 2006 cost data. The cost is updated to November, 2020 by using Engineering News Record (ENR) Cost Index [288].

November 2010 ENR CCI=11579.02

2006 ENR CCI=7749.37

 $= 8,304,217.54$ \$ 7749.37 $=(5,557,674.11 \text{ \textdegree}) \frac{11579.02}{77.025}$ 2006ENR CCI $= (5,557,674.11\$ $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{N \cdot 2010 \cdot \text{ENR} \cdot \text{CCI}}{201 \cdot 201 \cdot$ Capital cost of aeration equipment (\$)

O&M cost of aeration equipment= $(p+o+n+ 0.3m_{\text{civ}}+0.7 m_{\text{me\&i}})$ Capital cost of aeration

equipment=(0.035+0.01+0.003+(0.3)(0.075)+(0.7)(0.0175))(8,304,217.54)

 $= 519,013.60$ \$/yr

Electrical energy

Table A.29 Equations for calculating cost of electrical energy

Energy consumption of areation process= 2,504,509.32 kWh/yr

Energy production= 12,757,470.91 kWh/yr

The updated November, 2020 unit price of electricity is 0.1045 \$/kWh [289].

O&M costs of electrictrical energy(US\$⁄year)=(electricity consumption-

electricity prodcution)(electricity cost(\$/kWh)=(2,504,509.32 kWh/yr- 12,757,470.91

kWh/yr)(0.1045\$/kWh)= - 1,071,434.49 \$/yr

No.	Treatment technology	Design capacity $(10,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})$	Operation loading ra te $(\%)$	Influent BOD concentration (mg/L)	Influent COD concentration (mg/L)	Influent NH₄ concentration (mg/L)
$\mathbf{1}$	MBR	10	84.26	364	663	42.7
\overline{c}	$AO+AAO$	$\overline{4}$	110.55	264	553	53.4
\mathfrak{Z}	CAS	100	93.26	202	409	39.2
$\overline{4}$	$AO+AAO$	60	104.99	224	468	52.1
$\sqrt{5}$	$AO+AAO$	40	102.89	227	485	48.3
6	MBR	15	113.55	352	646	35.2
τ	SBR	$8\,$	95.27	188	395	50
8	OD	20	100.74	214	444	48.3
9	$AO+AAO$	55	90.7	157	387	40.3
10	$AO+AAO$	45	82.39	183	487	48.6
11	$AO+AAO$	40	94.01	317	639	47.3
12	$AO+AAO$	10	91.75	259	616	34.9
13	AO+AAO	20	97.79	198	358	40.6
14	OD	$\overline{4}$	75.7	66.7	305	18.6
15	$AO+AAO$	3	93.6	131	373	22
16	$AO+AAO$	3	94	98.9	385	39.8
17	OD	$\sqrt{6}$	93.9	79.7	262	24.7
18	OD	5	87.8	58	224	23.8
19	AO+AAO	\mathfrak{Z}	82.8	94	331	37.2
20	$AO+AAO$	τ	87.3	131	310	36.1
21	AO+AAO	3.7	89.6	92	231	20.9
22	SBR	$\mathbf{1}$	66.6	64	172	13.9
23	Others	3	96.2	114	193	22
24	OD	3	99	101	187	42.2
25	$AO+AAO$	$\sqrt{2}$	68.4	68.4	187	32.2
26	AO+AAO	$\mathbf{1}$	79.9	32.8	107	12
27	AO+AAO	3	90	51.7	120	20.6
28	AO+AAO	$\mathbf{1}$	110	54.4	219	23.7
29	CAS	$\,1$	101	105	333	36.6
30	Biolak	\mathfrak{Z}	74.3	35.3	125	17.5
31	SBR	10	95.4	147	371	13.9
32	AO+AAO	5	58	131	401	16.9
33	SBR	$\mathbf{1}$	59.8	43.6	141	7.04
34	AO+AAO	0.5	68	108	173	15.21
35	$AO+AAO$	$\mathbf{1}$	49.5	52.1	364	23.8

Table A.30 Wastewater quality for 1215 WWTPs in China

Table A.31 Mean, maximum and minimum value of wastewater quality for 1215

WWTPs in China

	Medium leachate	595	5,550	13,646	2,928
	Old leachate	633	1,375	5,200	3,147
	Meat processing wastewater	3,438	1,602	5,422	427
	Tannery wastewater	2,690	1,760	6,240	358
	Textile wastewater	520	455	1,411	49
	Young leachate	724	4,680	9,310	1,172
	Medium leachate	143	965	4,975	1,365
Minimum value	Old leachate	30	190	3,105	1,889
	Meat processing wastewater	625	891	1,697	217
	Tannery wastewater	890	463	2,155	132
	Textile wastewater	137	150	513	19

Table A.33 Treatment systems for different papers

Operation loading rate $(\%)$	$0 - 20$	$20 - 40$	$40 - 60$	60-80	80-100	$>=100$
SBR	6.189	2.631	1.771	1.638	1.225	1.464
OD	9.349	3.596	2.332	1.713	1.625	1.625
$AO+AAO$	5.119	3.653	2.170	1.697	1.531	1.575
Biolak		2.820	1.447	1.755	1.556	0.933
AS			3.095	1.383	1.011	0.792
Biofilm		1.745	1.590	2.524	1.418	1.294
Wetland			2.496	1.988	1.388	
Others	2.257	1.945	2.417	1.208	1.485	1.717
MBR	2.698			2.210	2.483	1.043

Table A.34 Unit energy consumption with different operation loading rate

Figure A.10 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per m³ flow rate of WWTPs

with AO+AAO technology

Figure A.11 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per $m³$ flow rate of WWTPs

with OD technology

Figure A.12 Actual and theoretical unit energy consumption per $m³$ flow rate of WWTPs

with SBR technology

Figure A.13 Unit energy consumption with different operation loading rate

Figure A.14 Unit energy consumption with different COD removal efficiency

Figure A.15 Unit energy consumption with different influent COD concentration

Figure A.16 BOD/COD ratio of leachate and industrial wastewater

Figure A.17 BOD concentration of leachate and industrial wastewater

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	\mathbf{A}	C	D	Ε.	F	G	H	л.	J.	K	L	M	N	\circ	P	\circ	\mathbb{R}	s	T
	Parameter				Preliminary treatment			Micro sieving			UASB			PN/A				Nitrification-denitrification	
	Flow rate	3,785.40 m3/d			3,785.40 Flow rate	3,785.40		Flow rate	4,013.97		Flow rate	3,973.16		Flow rate	3,964.92		Flow rate	3,771.33	
	iTSS VSS	473.53 kg/d 1,420.58 kg/d		1,792.49 iTSS 5,377.47 VSS		717.00 5,377.47		i TSS VSS	54.73 410.49		iTSS VSS	\sim \sim		iTSS VSS	\sim in a		iTSS VSS	n. \sim	
	nbpCOD	509.38 kg/d		1,928.21	nbpCOD	1,928.21		nbpCOD	147.19		nbpCOD	\sim		nbpCOD	\sim		nbpCOD	\sim	
	bpCOD	1,507.85	kg/d	5,707.80	bpCOD	5,707.80		bpCOD	435.70		bpCOD	\sim		bpCOD	\sim		bpCOD	\sim	
	cCD	266.09	kg/d	1,007.26	cCOD	1,007.26		cCOD	1,007.26		cCOD	.		cCD	\sim		cCOD	Section	
	bsCOD	5,458.96	kg/d	20,664.33	bsCOD	20,664.33		bsCOD	21,846.81		bsCOD	844.22		bsCOD	844.22		bsCOD	1.40	
	nbsCOD	1,567.53 kg/d		5,933.71	nbsCOD	5,933.71		nbsCOD	5,933.71		nbsCOD	5,933.71		nbsCOD	5,933.71		nbsCOD	5,933.71	
	10 nbpON	34.64	kg/d	131.12	nbpON	131.12		nbpON	10.01		nbpON	\sim		nbpON	\sim		nbpON	\sim	
	11 bpON	40,41	kg/d	152.97	bpON	152.97		bpON	11.68		bpON	. .		bpON	- 40		bpON	\sim	
	12 bsON	634.71	kg/d	2,402.61 bsON		2,402.61		bsON	2,402.61		bsON	\sim		bsON	\sim		bsON	\sim	
	13 nbsON	78.38 kg/d		296.69	nbsON	296.69		nbsON	296.69		nbsON	296.69		nbsON	296.69		nbsON	296.69	
	14 NH4+-N	383.70	kg/d		1.452.46 NH4+-N	1,452.46		$NH4+. N$	1.552.39		$NH4+.$ N	3,760.88		$NH4+.N$	376.09		$NH4+. N$	1.98	
	15 NO3-N	\sim	kg/d	in 1919.	$NO3-N$	\sim		$NO3-N$	÷.		$NO3-N$	\sim		$NO3-N$	375.71		NO3-N	7.93	
	16 NO2-N	\sim	kg/d	.	NO2-N	\sim		$NO2-N$	\sim		$NO2-N$.		NO2-N	\sim		NO2-N	\sim	
17																			
18																			
19	TSS	1,894.11 kg/d		7.169.96 TSS		6,094.47		TSS	465.22		TSS	\sim		TSS	.		TSS	\sim	
20 ₁	COD	9.309.80 kg/d		35.241.32 COD		35,241.32		COD	29,370.67		COD	6,777.94		COD	6,777.94		COD	5.935.11	
	21 ON	788.13	kg/d	2.983.39 ON		2.983.39		ON	2,720.99		ON	296.69		ON	296.69		ON	296.69	
	22 TKN	1,171.83 kg/d		4,435.85	TKN	4,435.85		TKN	4,273,37		TKN	4.057.57		TKN	672.77		TKN	298.67	
	23 TN	1,171.83 kg/d		4,435.85	TN	4,435.85		TN	4,273.37		TN	4.057.57		TN	1.048.49		TN	306.60	
	24 bCOD	7,232.89 kg/d		27,379.39 bCOD		27,379.39		bCOD	23,289.77		bCOD	844.22		bCOD	844.22		bCOD	1.40	
	25 bCOD/COD	0.78			0.78 bCOD/COD	0.78		bCOD/COD	0.79		bCOD/COI	0.12		PCOD/COD	0.12		bCOD/COD	0.00	
	26 Temperature	25.00																	
	27 effluent NH4-N concentration 28 effluent NO3-N	mgNH4-N/L mgNO3-N/L			TSS, mg/L iTSS removal efficiency %	1.609.99 60.00		TSS removal et	92.37										
29								Sludge flow rat	101.54		Sludge flow	40.81		Sludge flow	8.23		Sludge flow	193.59	
30								iTSS	662.26		iTSS	54.73		iTSS	\sim		iTSS	\sim	
31								VSS	4,966.99		VSS	1,818.63		VSS	411.74		VSS	775.52	
32								nbpCOD	1,781.02		nbpCOD	147.19		nbpCOD	×		nbpCOD	÷.	
33								bpCOD	5,272.10		bpCOD	2,435.26		bpCOD	584.66		bpCOD	1,101.23	
$\overline{34}$								cCOD	\sim		cCOD	\sim		cCD	\sim		cCD	\sim	
35								bsCOD	\sim		bsCOD	\sim		bsCOD	a.		bsCOD	\sim	
36								nbsCOD	×		nbsCOD	\sim		nbsCOD	\sim		nbsCOD	\sim	

Figure A.18 Excel model of leachate treatment system for treating young leachate

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$\mathbf{1}$		Young leachate 1	Young leachate 2	Young leachate 3	Young leachate 4	Young leachate 5	Young leachate 6	Young leachate 7					
$\frac{2}{3}$	TSS (mgL)	1.894.11	1.255.27	2,400.00	1.013.00	1.540.00	907.00	724.00					
	BOD (mg/L)	4.979.41	10.550.00	10.800.00	6.380.00	9.660.00	5,300.00	4,680.00					
$\begin{array}{c}\n4 \\ 5 \\ 6\n\end{array}$	COD (mg/L)	9.309.80	18.565.00	24,400.00	10.750.00	18,420.00	10.500.00	9,890.00					
	Electricirty consumption (kWh/d)	6.861.67	15.230.11	8.537.43	12,817.36	13.903.10	14.337.84	13,646.31					
	Heat consumption (kwh/d)	2,083.15	2,739.41	3.353.43	2,097.70	2,990.10	1,937.75	1,741.83					
$\frac{7}{8}$	Electricirty production (kWh/d)	34.951.98	73,887.37	73,517.87	46.225.89	68,287.37	38.639.01	34,267.74					
	Heat production (kwh/d)	36,791.55	77,776.18	77.387.23	48.658.83	71,881.44	40.672.64	36.071.30					
9	Capital cost of preliminary treatment	70,208.07	70,208.07	70,208.07	70.208.07	70,208.07	70,208.07	70.208.07					
10	Capital cost of micro-sieving	295.080.39	295.080.39	295.080.39	295.080.39	295.080.39	295.080.39	295.080.39					
H.	Capital cost of UASB	6.482.280.11	14.510.098.24	15.419.061.69	8,773,040.60	13.612.028.23	7.919.252.90	7.337.675.48					
12	Capital cost of PN/A	1,756,446.73	2,688,187.25	1,891,986.53	2.444.559.11	2.543.255.30	2.616.385.23	2.537.999.40					
13	Capital cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification	1.235.165.39	2.770.993.38	1.830.819.78	2.864.124.86	3.394.239.43	2.451.010.69	2.332.530.10					
4	Capital cost of final clarifier	862,270.21	862,270.21	862,270.21	862.270.21	862,270.21	862,270.21	862.270.21					
$\overline{15}$	Capital cost of sludge thickener	550.315.98	1.237.600.98	917.888.19	1.196.152.94	1,466,799.62	1.039.628.59	989.567.89					
16	Capital cost of anaerobic digestion	6,882,920.79	9,051,266.69	11,080,029.84	6.930.990.44	9,879,567.75	6,402,491.21	5.755.166.43					
17	Capital cost of aeration equipment	8,304,217.54	18,431,976.80	10.332.281.36	15.511.984.54	16,825,984.55	17.352.125.06	16,515,208.92					
18	Capital cost of activated carbon system	5.527.161.82	6.599,177.55	17,321,556.45	5,470,657.96	11,129,843.07	6,206,146.49	6,371,808.69					
19	Capital cost of sludge dewatering	1,006,046.43	963,159.02	1,243,237.43	878.793.86	1,025,751.54	888,102.82	862,044.12					
20 ₂	Total capital cost	32,972,113.47	57,480,018.58	61,264,419.94	45.297,862.98	61,105,028.16	46,102,701.66	43,929,559.70					
$\overline{21}$	O&M cost of preliminary treatment	60.096.69	60.096.69	60,096.69	60.096.69	60.096.69	60,096.69	60.096.69					
22	O&M cost of micro-sieving	23.655.84	23.655.84	23.655.84	23.655.84	23.655.84	23.655.84	23.655.84					
$\overline{23}$	O&M cost of UASB	405.142.51	906.881.14	963.691.36	548.315.04	850.751.76	494.953.31	458.604.72					
$\overline{24}$	O&M cost of PN/A	109,777.92	168.011.70	118,249.16	152,784.94	158.953.46	163.524.08	158.624.96					
25 ₂	O&M cost of activated sludge process with nitrification and denitrification	77,197.84	173.187.09	114.426.24	179,007.80	212.139.96	153.188.17	145.783.13					
26	O&M cost of final clarifier	53.891.89	53.891.89	53.891.89	53.891.89	53.891.89	53.891.89	53.891.89					
27^{1}	O&M cost of sludge thickener	34.394.75	77,350.06	57,368.01	74,759.56	91 674 98	64,976.79	61.847.99					
28 [°]	O&M cost of anaerobic digestion	430.182.55	565.704.17	692.501.87	433.186.90	617.472.98	400.155.70	359,697.90					
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Figure A.19 Summary of capital and O&M cost of unit process in treatment system

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Influent N (kg/d) $\mathbf{1}$		Effluent N A (kg/d) Effluent N B (kg/d)		N removal of System A (kg/d)	Electricirty consumption A (kWhd)	N removal of System B (kg/d)	Electricirty consumption B (kWh/d)									
4435.845282	23.56179945	17.45496427		4412.283483	25579.84691	4418.390318	6861.669364									
9463.5	32.08658629			9431.413414	58108.40508	9445.432817		60000								
$\begin{array}{c}\n2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6\n\end{array}$		18.06718261					15230.10806									
6685.0164	29.82849905	17.73654592		6655.187901	42496.15181	6667.279854	8537.432707				$y = 3.3157x + 10382$					
8172.6786	27,45978437	18.04632213		8145,218816	43267.91534	8154.632278	12817.35558	$\begin{array}{l} \oplus\\ \oplus\\ \oplus\\ \oplus\\ 40000 \end{array}$				$R^z = 0.4831$				
9527.8518	31.00439139	18.25739596		9496.847409	52869.32857	9509.594404	13903.09708									
8782.128	26.6975844	17.90693086		8755.430416	44246.80277	8764.221069	14337.8403									
$\overline{\mathbf{8}}$ 8422.515	25.94261564	17.86778308		8396.572384	41391.97605	8404.647217	13646.30713									
$\overline{9}$ 9652.77	24.19918109	17.96065769		9628.570819	39635.29063	9634.809342	15165.88574							System B		
10 ₁₀ 11083.6512	24.71921824	18.08797591		11058.93198	42285.00814	11065.56322	16291.62673	30000								
11 8297.5968	24.20601205	17.84811751		8273.390788	38179.24016	8279.748682	14046.54511							System A		
$\overline{12}$ 5167.579244	20.6070959	17.51759776		5146.972148	20173.46236	5150.061646	7938.316823	20000						Linear (System B)		
$\frac{13}{14}$ 7843.3488	23.08225047	17.77656477		7820.26655	32924.10368	7825.572235	12536.29128	È						Linear (System A)		
7729.7868	22.32172976	17.75715862		7707.46507	30978.13685	7712.029641	12379.36381			100.00 00.00						
15 ⁷ 7955.0181	26.52198052	17.85010818		7928.496119	40672.88285	7937.167992	12390.24656	出 10000				$v = 1.7023x - 922.18$				
16 8799.773339	22.19483958	17.83852282		8777.5785	34103.56017	8781.934816	14579.94687					$R^2 = 0.9516$				
17 [°] 7331.024969	21.24121378	17.71430108		7309.783756	28277.48963	7313.310668	12078.36327									
18 11049.5826	23.61842637	18.05250611		11025.96417	43096.8414	11031.53009	18270.97663		6000 4000	8000	10000	12000	14000			
$\frac{19}{20}$ 7149.24898	21.3483491	17.66294347		7127.900631	27308.30944	7131.586036	11582.06246									
11621.178	23.51543468	18.09311548		11597.66257	44564.67268	11603.08488	19394.8039				N removal (kgN/d)					
21 11910.7611	24.82249254	18.13501182		11885.93861	48315.20848	11892.62609	19868.9794									
9404.604191	22.6905298	17.86846536		9381.913661	36257.01397	9386.735725	15373.61319									
$\frac{22}{23}$																
24 System A																
Electricirty consumption 25 (kWh/d)	25579.85	58108.41	42496.15	43267.92	52869.33	44246.80	41391.98	39635.29	42285.01	38179.24	20173.46	32924.10	30978.14	40672.88	34103.56	
26 System B																
Electricirty consumption	6861.67	15230.11	8537.43	12817.36	13903.10	14337.84	13646.31	15165.89	16291.63	14046.55	7938.32	12536.29	12379.36	12390.25	14579.95	
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Figure A.20 Energy consumption as a function of daily N removal

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N removal of System A (kx/d) $\overline{1}$		Electricirty consumption A (kWh(d)	N removal of System B (kg/d)	Electricirty consumption B (KWh/d)		Unit energy consumption in system consumption in system A (kwh/kg N removal) B (kwh/kg N removal)	Unit energy												
$\overline{2}$ 4412.283483 $\frac{1}{4}$ 9431.413414 6655.187901 $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$ 8145.218816		25579.84691 58108.40508 42496.15181 43267.91534	4418.390318 9445.432817 6667.279854 8154.632278	6861.669364 15230.10806 8537.432707 12817.35558	Young leachate Young leachate Young leachate Young leachate	5.797416919 6.161155549 6.385417277 5.31206298	1.55297945 1.612430934 1.280497128 1.571788297		\exp consumption (kwh/kg $\mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{removal}$) -6 \leq					Unit energy consumption in system A (kwh/kg N					
$6\overline{6}$ 9496.847409 $\overline{7}$ 8755 430416 $\overline{\mathbf{8}}$ 8396.572384		52869.32857 44246.80277 41391.97605	9509.594404 8764.221069 8404.647217	13903.09708 14337.8403 13646.30713	Young leachate Young leachate Young leachate	5.567039912 5.053641075 4.929627729	1.462007368 1.635951465 1.623662098		\mathcal{L}					removal) Unit energy consumption in system B (kwh/kg N					
$\overline{9}$ 9628.570819 10 ¹⁰ 11058.93198 11 8273.390788 12 5146.972148		39635.29063 42285.00814 38179.24016 20173.46236	9634.809342 11065.56322 8279.748682 5150.061646	15165.88574 16291.62673 14046.54511 7938.316823	Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate	4.116425104 3.823606855 4.614702863 3.919481548	1.574072221 1.472281745 1.696494138 1.541402292		Unit	٠		÷	×	removal)					
13 7820.26655 14 7707.46507 15 7928.496119		32924.10368 30978.13685 40672.88285	7825.572235 7712.029641 7937.167992	12536.29128 12379.36381 12390.24656	Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate	4.210099933 4.019238046 5.12996188	1.601964802 1.605201793 1.56104124					Young leachate Medium leachate Old leachate							
16 8777,5785 17 7309.783756 18 11025.96417		34103.56017 28277.48963 43096.8414	8781.934816 7313.310668 11031.53009	14579.94687 12078.36327 18270.97663	Old leachate Old leachate Old leachate	3.885303923 3.868444071 3.908668731	1.660220347 1.651558893 1.656250446												
19 7127.900631 20 11597.66257 21 11885.93861 9381.913661		27308.30944 44564.67268 48315.20848 36257.01397	7131.586036 11603.08488 11892.62609 9386.735725	11582.06246 19394.8039 19868.9794 15373.61319	Old leachate Old leachate Old leachate Old leachate	3.831185485 3.842556414 4.064904764 3.864564872	1.624051425 1.671521332 1.670697392 1.637801856												
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Figure A.21 Unit energy consumption of leachate treatment system

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$\overline{1}$ $\begin{array}{c}\n2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8\n\end{array}$ 18849.05649 39935.97 40882.3201 24150.852 36566.964 20062.62 17715.6721 $\frac{9}{10}$ 8732.917799 9274.228754 $\frac{11}{12}$ 10160.0132 3652.910966 $\frac{13}{14}$ $\frac{14}{15}$ $\frac{16}{17}$ 7408.027861 4780.9602 21008.97038 1552.014007 1408.168801 $\frac{18}{19}$ 2585.428218 1589.867729 $\overline{20}$ 719.2260023 $\begin{array}{r} 21 \\ 22 \\ 23 \\ 24 \end{array}$ 5205.379336 2150.10698	17158.25524 31505.79946 29350.03059 22169.33281 29970.64583 20257.55546 18261.4638 13485.60356 14376.67938 13628.09462 6610.725669 11399.53565 9889.285103 18672.17812 9540.878218 7909.34199 12270.76211 7890.981896 11972.90135 14777.99746 10499.85123	18849.05649 39935.97 40882.3201 24150.852 36566.964 20062.62 17715.6721 8732.917799 9274.228754 10160.0132 3652.910966 7408.027861 4780.9602 21008.97038 1552.014007 1408.168801 2585.428218 1589.867729 719.2260023 5205.379336 2150.10698	BOD removal (kg/d) A Electricirty production (kWh/d) A BOD removal (kg/d) B Electricirty production (kWh/d) B 34951.9751 73887.36834 73517.87201 46225.88885 68287.36869 38639.01 34267.73738 18247.73646 18907.40852 21039.94652 7855.431017 15594.40563 10893.3633 39551.60024 5830.82691 4936.725481 8409.812594 5297.534897 5431.336291 13542.66794 7141.425172	80000 σ 70000 $\frac{3}{5}$ 60000 50000 40000 ≥ 30000 百 20000 $\bar{\boxplus}$ 10000 0 Ω	$y = 1.7584x + 2997.2$ $R^2 = 0.9987$ \bullet $-0.5461x + 8551.2$ $R^s = 0.943$ a. 10000 20000 30000 BOD removal (kgBOD/d)	· System A • System B 40000 50000	Linear (System A) Linear (System B)					
System A Electricirty production 25 26 (kWh/d) System B	17158.25524	31505,79946	29350.03059	22169.33281	29970.64583	20257.55546	18261.4638	13485,60356			14376.679 13628.095 6610.7257 11399.51	
Electricirty production (kWh/d)	34951.9751	73887.36834	73517.87201	46225.88885	68287.36869	38639.01	34267.73738	18247,73646			18907.409 21039.947 7855.431 15594.40	
27 28 29 30 31 32 32 $\frac{34}{25}$ Sheet1 $\left \cdot \right $ Ready	\bigoplus Sheet1 (2)					\pm 30		囲	间 凹			\overline{r} $+ 100%$

Figure A.22 Energy production as a function of daily BOD removal

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$\overline{1}$	BOD removal (kg/d) A				Electricirty production (kWh/d) A BOD removal (kg/d) B Electricirty production (kWh/d) B Unit energy production (kwh/kgBOD)	System A	System B								
	18849.06	17158.26	18849.06	34951.98	Young leachate	0.910297831 1.854309001									
	39935.97	31505.80	39935.97	73887.37	Young leachate		0.788907831 1.850145829								
	40882.32	29350.03	40882.32	73517.87	Young leachate		0.717914994 1.798280328	18							
	24150.85	22169.33	24150.85	46225.89	Young leachate		0.91795241 1.914047954	16				٠			
	36566.96	29970.65	36566.96	68287.37	Young leachate		0.819609903 1.867460713								
	20062.62	20257.56	20062.62	38639.01	Young leachate		1.009716351 1.925920443	14							
$\begin{array}{c}\n2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8\n\end{array}$	17715.67	18261.46	17715.67	34267.74	Young leachate		1.030808411 1.934317659	(kwh/kgBOD) 11							
$\overline{9}$	8732.92	13485.60	8732.92	18247.74	Medium leachate		1.544226554 2.089534893								
10	9274.23	14376.68	9274.23	18907.41	Medium leachate		1.550175196 2.038704136	10							
$\overline{11}$	10160.01	13628.09	10160.01	21039.95	Medium leachate		1.341346152 2.070858187	production						System A	
12	3652.91	6610.73	3652.91	7855.43	Medium leachate		1.809714425 2.150457838					٠		System B	
13	7408.03	11399.54	7408.03	15594.41	Medium leachate		1.53880842 2.105068438								
14	4780.96	9889.29	4780.96	10893.36	Medium leachate		2.068472585 2.278488597	energy:							
15	21008.97	18672.18	21008.97	39551.60	Medium leachate	0.888771691 1.88260536									
16	1552.01	9540.88	1552.01	5830.83	Old leachate		6.147417599 3.756942196	ă							
17	1408.17	7909.34	1408.17	4936.73	Old leachate		5.616757015 3.505776778								
18	2585.43	12270.76	2585.43	8409.81	Old leachate		4.746123687 3.252773578								
19	1589.87	7890.98	1589.87	5297.53	Old leachate		4.963294589 3.332060146		Young leachate		Medium leachate	Old leachate			
20	719.23	11972.90	719.23	5431.34	Old leachate		16.64692504 7.551640616								
	5205.38	14778.00	5205.38	13542.67	Old leachate		2.838985694 2.601667825								
$\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ 22 \\ 23 \end{array}$	2150.11	10499.85	2150.11	7141.43	Old leachate		4.883408748 3.321427835								
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Figure A.23 Unit energy production of leachate treatment system

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\mathbf{A}	B	C^-	\mathbf{D}	E	$-$ F $-$	G	H	Contractor	\mathbf{J}	K	\mathbf{L}	M	N	\circ	P.	α	$\mathsf R$
									Influent COD (mgL) Influent flow rate (m3/d) Influent COD (kg/d) Effluent COD A(kg/d) Effluent COD B(kg/d) COD removal (kg/d) A Total cost (\$/d) A COD removal (kg/d) B Total cost (\$/d) B Unit cost (\$/d) B Unit cost (\$/d) B	System A	System B						
9309.80	3785.40	35241.31692	150.77	150.85	35090.54	39171.73256	35090.46	13478.19551	Young leachate	1.116304551	0.38409853						
18565.00	3785.40	70275.951	150.74	150.92	70125.21	\$1966.6728	70125.03	22538.97539	Young leachate	1.168861628	0.321411283						
24400.00	3785.40	92363.76	150.34	150.48	92213.42	68716.33572	92213.28	23211.14998	Young leachate	0.745188017	0.251711583				\sim		
10750.00	3785.40	40693.05	150.93	151.06	40542.12	61582.98913	40541.99	19017.4929	Young leachate	1.518987973	0.4690814	q^{45}					
18420.00	3785.40	69727.068	150.66	150.82	69576.41	78323.56787	69576.25	24558.21442	Young leachate	1.12572014	0.352968372						
10500.00	3785.40	39746.7	150.93	151.05	39595.77	62600.87673	39595.65	20699.51078	Young leachate	1.580999021	0.522772287	3.5					
9890.00	3785.40	37437.606	150.98	151.09	37286.62	59042.24056	37286.52	20232.51428	Young leachate	1.58346976	0.542622801	8 $\overline{3}$					
8938.00	3785.40	33833.9052	151.18	151.25	33682.73	58146.72781	33682.65	23892.51056	Medium leachate	1.726306885	0.709341731	2.5					System A
13646.00	3785.40	51655.5684	151.12	151.19	51504.45	65307.21424	51504.38	29553.79743	Medium leachate	1.267991705	0.573811348	ë. $\overline{2}$					System B
5348.00	3785.40	20244.3192	151.20	151.29	20093.12	52480.98423	20093.03	18195.4925	Medium leachate	2.611888157	0.905562413						
4975.00	3785.40	18832.365	151.26	151.29	18681.11	31687.61544	18681.07	14872.88974	Medium leachate	1.696238777	0.79614757	815					
6638.00	3785.40	25127.4852	151.14	151.20	24976.35	48768.45259	24976.28	20230.64842	Medium leachate	1.952585253	0.809994302	$\mathbf{1}$					
5565.00	3785.40	21065.751	151.19	151.25	20914.56	45449.50835	20914.50	19312.66947	Medium leachate	2.173103917	0.923410452	0.5					
12554.00	3785.40	47521.9116	151.00	151.11	47370.91	59969.31844	47370.80	20945.75564	Medium leachate	1.265952402	0.442165942	α					
3360,00	3785.40	12718.944	151.19	151.25	12567.75	48245.9417	12567.70	20319.87385	Old leachate	3.838867715	1.616833771		Young leachate	Medium leachate	Old leachate		
3105.00	3785.40	11753.667	151.30	151.35	11602.37	40436.67956	11602.32	17321.08165	Old leachate	3.485208174	1.492897927						
4592.00	3785.40	17382.5568	151.16	151.23	17231.40	60270.9533	17231.32	24678.14483	Old leachate	3.49773992	1.432167674						
3580,00	3785.40	13551.732	151.07	151.11	13400.67	40425.81799	13400.62	18222.4718	Old leachate	3.016702219	1.35982267						
3520.00	3785.40	13324.608	151.14	151.22	13173.46	61696.29692	13173.39	25393.92003	Old leachate	4.683377125	1.927668042						
5200.00	3785.40	19684.08	151.06	151.15	19533.02	66812.28464	19532.93	26013.73496	Old leachate	3.420478428	1.331788575						
4314.00	3785.40	16330.2156	150.99	151.05	16179.22	52181.90552	16179.16	22439.50815	Old leachate	3.225241982	1.386938779						
System A	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Medium leachate	Medium leachate					Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate	Old leachate	Old leachate	Old leachate
Total cost (\$1d)	39,171.73	81,966.67	68,716.34	61,582.99	78,323.57	62,600.88	59,042.24	58,146.73	65,307.21	52,480.98	31,687.62	48,768.45	45,449.51	59,969.32	48,245.94	40,436.68	60,270.95
System B	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Young leachate	Medium leachate	Medium leachate					Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate Medium leachate	Old leacahte	Old leacahte	Old leacahte
Total cost (\$(d)	13,478.20	22.538.98	23.211.15	19,017.49	24.558.21	20,699.51	20.232.51	23,892.51	29,553.80	18,195.49	14,872.89	20.230.65	19.312.67	20,945.76	20,319.87	17,321.08	24,678.14
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Figure A.24 Unit cost of leachate treatment system

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◢	A	B	c	D	E	F	G	H.			ĸ
	No.	Treatment Technology	Design flow rate $(10000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})$	Loading rate (%) concentration	Influent COD (mg/L)	EffluentCOD concentration (mg/L)	Annual electricity consumption (kWh/yr)	Actual flow rate $(10000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d})$	COD removal (%)	Unit energy consumption (kwh/kgCOD)	
\overline{c}	$\mathbf{1}$	MBR	10	84.26	663	20	26114636	8.426	96.98340875	1.320561661	
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	$\overline{2}$	$AO+AAO$	$\overline{4}$	110.55	553	26.7	4534639	4.422	95.17179024	0.533823571	
$\overline{4}$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	AS	100	93.26	409	28.8	81725630	93.26	92.95843521	0.631477512	
5	$\overline{4}$	AO+AAO	60	104.99	468	24	57560177	62.994	94.87179487	0.563828598	
$\overline{6}$ $\overline{7}$	$\overline{\mathbf{S}}$ 6	$AO+AAO$ MBR	40 15	102.89	485 646	16 14	87162029	41.156 17.0325	96.70103093	1.237167395	
8	7	SBR	8	113.55 95.27	395	17.5	40987849 15747044	7.6216	97.83281734 95.56962025	1.0431981 1.499488255	
$\overline{9}$	$\boldsymbol{8}$	OD	20	100.74	444	17	39147245	20.148	96.17117117	1.246661427	
10	$\overline{9}$	$AO+AAO$	55	90.7	387	30	58192260	49.885	92.24806202	0.895229051	
11	10	AO+AAO	45	82.39	487	36	34637979	37.0755	92.60780287	0.567539537	
12	11	$AO+AAO$	40	94.01	639	26	31735202	37.604	95.93114241	0.37718454	
13	12	AO+AAO	10	91.75	616	36	11308815	9.175	94.15584416	0.582224087	
14	13	AO+AAO	20	97.79	358	27.4	23382619	19.558	92.34636872	0.990770342	
15	14	OD	$\overline{4}$	75.7	305	25.7	3798520	3.028	91.57377049	1.230537198	
16	15	$AO+AAO$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	93.6	373	31.7	3377940	2.808	91.50134048	0.965663186	
17	16	$AO+AAO$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	94	385	30	3254910	2.82	92.20779221	0.89077631	
18	17	OD	6	93.9	262	29.2	5280210	5.634	88.85496183	1.102956824	
19	18	OD	5	87.8	224	37	4708960	4.39	83.48214286	1.571542065	
20	19	$AO+AAO$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	82.8	331	28	3055060	2.484	91.5407855	1.112071369	
21	20	AO+AAO	τ	87.3	310	29	5861310	6.111	90.64516129	0.935154189	
22	21	$AO+AAO$	3.7	89.6	231	35	5579421	3.3152	84.84848485	2.352504502	
23	22	SBR	$\mathbf{1}$	66.6	172	26	677067	0.666	84.88372093	1.907707107	
24	23	Others	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	96.2	193	26	2299200	2.886	86.52849741	1.30698646	
25	24	OD	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	99	187	30.1	2803550	2.97	83.90374332	1.648299203	
26 27	25 26	AO+AAO AO+AAO	$\overline{2}$	68.4 79.9	187 107	36.5 14.9	1242852 853273	1.368 0.799	80.48128342	1.653879841	
28	27	AO+AAO	1 $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	90	120	22.7	2225960	2.7	86.07476636 81.08333333	3.176791628 2.321388812	
29	28	AO+AAO	$\mathbf{1}$	110	219	16.4	1323375	1.1	92.51141553	1.626889048	
30	29	AS	$\mathbf{1}$	101	333	32.7	700276	1.01	90.18018018	0.632557009	
31	30	Biolak	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	74.3	125	26.1	3434051	2.229	79.12	4.267833973	
32	31	SBR	10	95.4	371	25.1	6395100	9.54	93.23450135	0.530952339	
33	32	AO+AAO	5	58	401	37.9	3676800	2.9	90.54862843	0.956649603	
34	33	SBR	$\mathbf{1}$	59.8	141	12.1	605600	0.598	91.41843972	2.152478889	
35	34	$AO+AAO$	0.5	68	173	22.9	665800	0.34	86.76300578	3.5743026	
36	35	$A0+AA0$	$\mathbf{1}$	49.5	364	45.5	1308252	0.495	87.5	2.273442148	
	\rightarrow	Sheet1	$\left(\widehat{+}\right)$							\mathbb{R}	

Figure A.25 Unit energy consumption of WWTPs in China

VITA

JINZE LI

EDUCATION, FIELDS OF RESEARCH AND ACTIVITIES

Florida International University, Miami, USA

-Capital cost and O & M cost of technologies such as CEPT, UASB, PN-anammox and CHP for different wastewater quality was analyzed.

2020 Unit energy and cost analysis of wastewater treatment systems with different technologies

-Effect of different leachate and industrial wastewater quality on unit energy consumption and cost in plants with micro sieving, Up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB), partial nitrification-anammox technologies was quantified.

-Micro sieving effects on unit energy consumption and production in energy positive wastewater treatment plant design were quantified.

-Life cycle cost and benefit analysis of industrial wastewater treatment plants were carried out.

-Data of municipal wastewater plants in China, which included the treatment process, design flow rate, average operation loading rate, energy consumption, influent and effluent COD, BOD5, and NH4⁺ -N concentrations were collected.

-A novel index of total oxygen demand was developed for evaluating the performance of municipal wastewater plants.