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Coagulation of phosphorous and organic matter from marine, land-based recirculating aquaculture system effluents

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7 Abstract

8 Saline effluents from marine land-based aquaculture production can neither be disposed in common municipal 9 wastewater treatment plants, nor disposed as landfill. Furthermore, stricter environmental regulations require 10 the reduction of phosphorous and organic matter levels from marine environment discharges to minimize 11 eutrophication. Chemical coagulation with FeCl₃ and AlSO₄ is commonly used for removing phosphorous and 12 suspended solids in wastewater treatment. The capacity of these coagulants for creating particle aggregations 13 depends on the characteristics and chemistry of the treated wastewater, such as the ionic strength or mixing 14 conditions. Marine water has a higher ionic strength than fresh or brackish water, which may be beneficial 15 when using chemical coagulants to treat the effluents from farms operated at high salinities. The following 16 study compared the application of FeCl₃ and AlSO₄, to treat the two effluents discharged from a marine land-17 based recirculating aquaculture system (RAS) producing salmon (Salmo salar). The aim of the study was to determine; 1) in what effluent (sludge flow vs. exchange water overflow) at the end-of-pipe treatment the 18 coagulant application is more efficient for the removal of PO₄³⁻-P, total suspended solids (TSS), total 19 20 phosphorous (TP) and total chemical oxygen demand (TCOD); and 2) the optimal coagulant dose to apply and its associated chemical sludge production. The results show that more than 89% removal of TCOD, TSS and 21 TP is achieved when treating the sludge flow, arguably because the sludge flow contained the largest fraction 22 of the target masses (P and organic matter) discharged from the system. Up to 80% of TSS removal was 23 24 achieved by simple sedimentation, and with the highest coagulant dose tested, up to 95% of TSS could be removed from the effluent. To remove 90% of PO₄³⁻-P, FeCl₃ and AlSO₄ need to be dosed at a molar ratio of 25 2.6:1 Fe:PO₄³⁻-P and 5.7:1 Al: PO₄³⁻-P, respectively. Dosing above 90% removal efficiency did not 26

27	significantly affect removal of PO43-P and TSS, but substantially increased the volume of chemical sludge
28	produced. Finally, FeCl ₃ is proposed as a better overall alternative for P removal at the end-of-pipe treatment
29	in marine land-based RAS.
30	Keywords
31	Aluminum sulfate, Iron Chloride, Marine land-based RAS, Organic matter, Phosphorous
32	
33	Highlights
34	• Coagulant utilization on the sludge flow improves P and Organic matter removal significantly
35	• A 90% of PO_4^{3-} -P removal requires a molar ratio of 2.6:1 Fe: PO_4^{3-} -P and 5.7:1 Al: PO_4^{3-} -P with FeCl ₃
36	and AlSO ₄ , respectively
37	• 80% TSS removal was achieved by sedimentation and without coagulant
38	• Increasing coagulant dose increased the volume of chemical sludge produced
39	• FeCl ₃ is the better alternative of the two coagulants tested for P removal in marine land-based RAS
40	1. Introduction
41	Phosphorous and nitrogen are the primary inorganic nutrients responsible for the eutrophication of marine

and fresh waters (Valsami-Jones, 2015). Eutrophication leads to an increased growth of primary production
and algae biomass, creating unbalanced ecosystems, degrading water quality and the ecosystem capacity,
depleting oxygen in the sea bottom and, finally, affecting the fisheries and tourism industry, (Henze et al.,
1997; WFD, 2000).

Recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS) are recognized as environmentally friendly as they allow the reutilization of water using a series of treatments (mechanical, chemical and biological) to remove fish contaminants from the rearing water (Martins et al., 2010). In the last few years, large-scale, marine, landbased RAS, producing Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) and yellowtail kingfish (*Seriola lalandi*), have been constructed worldwide (Dalsgaard, 2017). As the industry develops and more sites appear worldwide, stricter environmental regulations will increase the pressure on treating the effluents from these farms. An 52 approximation of the production cycle states that, to produce 1000 ton of fish per year, approximately 3.0 ton 53 of feed per day is required. At a feed conversion ratio (FCR) of 1.1 and 1% feed waste, the system would 54 discharge daily ca. 35 kg of total phosphorus (TP) and 877 kg of total chemical oxygen demand (TCOD) (Dalsgaard and Pedersen, 2016). Most farms will have two types of effluents with different characteristics: a 55 high solids-containing effluent (drum filter and biofilter backwash) and a low solids-containing effluent 56 57 (overflow from water exchange), each requiring different treatments before being released to the environment. 58 Coagulation processes with metal salt agents such as aluminum or ferric chloride are standard techniques in the wastewater industry for chemically removing phosphorous and suspended solids from effluents 59 (Cheremisinoff, 2002; Crittenden et al., 2012; Tchobanoglous et al., 2002). Two different action mechanisms 60 61 are involved in the removal process. In phosphorous removal, the addition of metal salts results in the 62 transformation of dissolved orthophosphates into particulate forms by producing chemical precipitates of low solubility. The resulting precipitates and particulate phosphates are posteriorly removed throughout solids 63 64 separation processes, such as sedimentation, flotation and filtration (Tchobanoglous et al., 2002; Valsami-65 Jones, 2015). The removal of suspended solids consists in the reduction or neutralization of the ζ -potential 66 (electrical double layer), promoting the interaction between particles to form larger aggregates defined as flocs 67 (Letterman et al., 1999). The ζ -potential, a property inherent to the particle electrical double layer, is a cloud 68 of ions surrounding the particle that satisfy electro neutrality, and is the main reason why these particles remain 69 in aqueous suspension for long periods of time without aggregating (Weiner and Matthews, 2003). From the 70 many factors that affect double-layer thickness, ionic strength is perhaps the most important (Letterman et al., 1999). As the ionic strength of a solution increases, the extent of the double layer decreases, which in turn 71 72 reduces the zeta potential. For example, in seawater, the ζ-potential is 0.70 M, and in river water 0.0017 M 73 (Nazaroff & Cohen, 2001).

The compression of the double layer approximates particles to each other, enough for van der Waals-type interaction and attachment through the aid of Brownian motion (Crittenden et al., 2012; Henze et al., 1997). Coagulation applied on desalinization processes have proven that in salt water the higher ionic strength (cations and anions) facilitates the general coagulation process, making it more efficient as compared to coagulation in freshwater (Duan et al., 2002). In aquaculture, removal of phosphorus and TSS by chemical coagulation has been studied in freshwater (0 ppt) (Ebeling et al., 2006, 2003) and in brackish water (17 ppt) (Zhang et al., 2014). Information on how these coagulants perform on the removal of phosphorus, total suspended solids and production of chemical sludge in saltwater (>30 ppt) is still lacking. This knowledge gap is concerning, especially when the construction of marine, land-based RAS is increasing.

The following study is aimed at determining 1) in which effluent from a marine, land-based RAS the chemical agents should be applied 2) the effect of each chemical coagulant on the removal of P, organic matter, TSS, and on the production of chemical sludge. To answer the above questions, different doses of AlSO₄ and FeCl₃ were systematically evaluated using a modified jar test with samples from the two effluent streams produced from a marine land-based RAS facility.

89

90 2 Materials and methods

91

2.1 Characterization of the waste masses discharged from the marine land-based RAS

92 effluents.

The two effluent streams from a salmon (*Salmo salar*), marine, land-based RAS (30 ppt salinity), operated at 1.4 kg feed/m³ of make-up water, were characterized in this trial: 1) the "sludge flow", the effluent stream containing the backwash of the drum filters and biofilters, and 2) the "overflow", a clearer water coming from the water exchange of the system. Pooled hourly samples were collected in 24-h periods every third day over two months (n = 30) from both waste streams. All samples were obtained with automatic portable samplers (Glacier ISCO, Teledyne, USA) and refrigerated at 4°C before transfer to the laboratory.

99 2.2 Coagulant and modified jar test description

Two common coagulants used in wastewater treatment were tested: FeCl₃ 14% (S.Sørensen, Thisted,
Denmark) and AlSO₄•14-hydrate (VWR chemicals, Belgium) for evaluating the coagulation process towards
the removal of PO₄³-P, TSS, TP, TCOD and the production of chemical sludge, measured as settle sludge
volume final (SSV_f). The evaluation was done using a modified jar test procedure (Vandamme et al., 2010),
conducted in 1 L graduated tubes (Duran@, Germany) and magnetic stirrers (Big Squid, IKA, Germany).

Different dosing levels of coagulant (1, 2, 4 and 8 mol of coagulant:mol of PO_4^3 -P) plus a positive control (no coagulant, only stirring) and a negative control "C" (no stirring) were evaluated in replicates (n=3). The jar test protocol consists of three phases: 1) a flash mix, where coagulant and the solution are mixed at high rotation (5 min at 500 rpm); 2) followed by a slow mix at lower speed (25 min at 250 rpm); 3) and finally a quiescent settling, where the samples are transferred to 1 L graduated cylinders and allowed to settle (30 min). Homogeneous mixed samples were collected before the addition of coagulant and at the 80% upper height of the jar test tube at the end of the quiescent settling period (1 h after coagulant addition).

112 The theoretical molar doses were calculated based on average of the measurements done over the 2-month 113 period, as described above. The option to use TP over PO_4^{3-} -P to achieve the molar ratios in the sludge flow 114 was considered, but not utilized, in order to achieve similar absolute dosing concentrations of FeCl₃ and

115 AlSO₄ in both waste streams.

116 2.3 Analytical methods

Samples for reactive phosphorous, expressed as PO4³⁻-P, were filtered through 0.2-µm syringe filters 117 (Filtropour S, SARSTEDT, Germany) and analyzed using Ion Chromatography (930 Compact IC Flex 1 with 118 a Metrosep A Supp 7 -250/4.0 column, combined with a 887 Professional UV/VIS detector; Metrohm, 119 Sweden) using 0.1 M H₂SO₄ as suppressor and 3.6 mM Na₂CO₃ as eluent. Raw samples for TCOD and TP 120 121 were preserved by adding 1% v/v sulfuric acid (4 M H₂SO₄, Merck Millipore, Germany), and maintained at 4°C until further analysis. Determination of TCOD was performed using digestion vials (LCK 514, Hach 122 Lange, Germany) and TP was determined according to ISO, 6491 (DS, 1998). Total suspended solids (TSS) 123 were determined according to 2440D (Eaton et al., 1995) and final settled sludge volume (SSV_f) according to 124 125 2710D (Eaton et al., 1995).

126

The calculation of the discharged masses from the RAS and the removal efficiency (η) of the tested parameters
from the Jar test was determined following equations 1 and 2, respectively.

130

^{127 2.4} Data treatment

131 Mass produced per day (g/d) = Concentration of parameter (g/m^3) * Flow (m^3/d) (Eq. 1)

132

133
$$\eta(\%) = \frac{C_i - C_f}{C_i} * 100$$
 (Eq. 2)

- 134 Where:
- 135 C_{i:} concentration of the parameter tested in raw samples

136 C_f: concentration of the parameter after the jar test procedure.

137 When η is positive it means removal of substance while a negative values means accumulation.

138

The supersaturation ratio (S) (Valsami-Jones, 2015), or the fraction of reactive phosphorus in solution, wascalculated accordingly:

141

142

$$S = \frac{PO_4^{3-}-P}{TP}$$
(Eq. 3)

143 Where:

144 $PO_4^{3-}P_1 \text{ mass of } PO_4^{3-}P \text{ (mg P/L)}$

- 145 TP: mass of Total phosphorous (mg P/L)
- 146
- 147 2.5 Statistical analysis

Differences in the removal efficiencies for $PO_4^{3-}P$, TSS, TCOD, TP and settled sludge volume final (SSVf) between different coagulant dosing and control were examined by one-way ANOVA analysis, followed by Tukey–Kramer multiple comparison of means test, with a 95% family-wise confidence level. Differences were considered significant when P< 0.05, and values are stated as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). The statistical analyses were carried out using the R software (R CoreTeam, 2016).

153

154 **3 Results**

155 3.1 Masses discharged from the RAS effluents

The RAS facility discharges of the end-of-pipe treatment phase a total flow of 2400 m³/d, divided into two streams: the sludge flow (480 m³/d) and the overflow (1920 m³/d) (Table 1). The overflow, 80% of the total discharged flow, contained the majority of the dissolved phosphorous (66% total mass discharged) with a supersaturation ratio (S) of 0.79 (Table 1). On the other hand, the sludge flow, 20% of the total discharged flow, contained the majority of the daily masses discharged from the RAS: 82% TCOD, 99% TSS and 90% TP (Table 1).

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Table 1. RAS overflow and sludge flow daily discharged masses. Each parameter is presented as concentration in the water, daily masses (mass estimated according to Eq. 1), and the fraction of the parameter from the total discharged mass fraction ($n=30 \pm S.D.$).

166

3.2 Effect of chemical coagulant dosing on the removal of P, TSS, TCOD, and SSV_f
 production in the sludge flow.

The coagulant dosing level significantly affected $PO_4^{3-}P$ removal, while settling or stirring of the solution (negative control and control, respectively) had only a minimal effect on these parameters (5%-16%) (Fig. 1). According to the equations obtained from the response dose towards $PO_4^{3-}P$ removal, 90% removal can be achieved when applying FeCl₃ at molar ratio of 2.6:1 Fe: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P=0.003) or AlSO₄ at molar ratio of 5.7:1 Al: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001).

For TSS, settling without coagulant addition "C" (negative control) already removed 79-81 % of TSS. Stirring (positive control) improved further the overall TSS removal efficiency (81-86%), but not significantly (P=0.171). The TSS removal was further improved, when the coagulants were applied at molar ratios above 1.3 Fe: PO_4^{3} -P (P=0.001) or 7.8 Al: PO_4^{3} -P (P <0.001) (Fig 1).

178 The amount of settled sludge, expressed as SSV_f, did not change significantly between the positive or negative

179 controls. However, SSV_f increased significantly as the coagulant dose increased, reaching a 94% increment

180 with FeCl₃ at a molar ratio of 10.40 Fe: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001), and a 50% increase for AlSO₄ at a molar ratio of

181 7.8:1 Al: PO_4^{3-} -P (P<0.001).

The removal of organic matter, measured as TCOD, was between 57-67% for the positive and the negative control (stirring and settling, respectively). Increasing the coagulant dose improved significantly the TCOD removal efficiency: 84% for FeCl₃ at a molar ratio of 10.40 Fe: PO_4^{3-} -P (P<0.001) and 72% for AlSO₄ at a molar ratio of 7.8:1 Al: PO_4^{3-} -P (P=0.001) (Fig 1).

TP removal was similar to that of TCOD: between 76-84% with settling or only stirring (negative and positive control, respectively). Increasing the coagulant dose increased the removal efficiency up to 95% for FeCl₃ at a molar ratio of 10.40 Fe: PO_4^{3-} -P (P<0.001) and above 92% for AlSO₄ at a molar ratio higher than 7.8:1 Al: PO_4^{3-} -P (P<0.001) (Fig 1).

190

Figure 1: Effect of different molar doses of FeCl₃ (right-side figures) and AlSO₄ (left-side figures) on the removal of PO_4^{3-} -P, TP, TSS and production of sludge, expressed as SSV_f, in the sludge flow stream using a modified Jar test method (mean \pm SD, n=3). The residual concentration of the observed parameter is presented on the Y-left axis, the observed parameter on the Y-right axis, and different applied coagulant doses on the Xaxis. C stands for the negative control (settling, no coagulant addition) and 0 correspond to positive control (stirring). Removal efficiencies expressed in % are calculated in respect to initial concentrations (t=0), as described in Eq. 1.

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199

- 3.3 Effect of chemical coagulant dosing on the removal of P, TSS, TCOD, and SSV_f
- 200 production in the overflow stream.

For the overflow stream, the coagulant dose significantly affected removal on $PO_4^{3-}P$, while the action of settling (negative control) and stirring (control) had a minimal effect on $PO_4^{3-}P$ removal (1%-2%) (Figure 2). A 90% removal of $PO_4^{3-}P$ was achieved at 5.4 Fe: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001) and 8.9 Al: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001) and TP removal improved significantly when coagulant dose was increased, reaching 39% removal with FeCl₃ at a molar ratio of 10.40:1 Fe: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001), and 16% with AlSO₄ at a molar ratio of 9.69 Al: $PO_4^{3-}P$ (P<0.001). The positive (stirred) and negative control (settled), showed a removal efficiency between 0 - 2% (Fig 2). A 25% removal of organic matter (TCOD) was achieved with FeCl₃ at 10.4:1 Fe: PO₄³⁻-P (P<0.014), while AlSO₄ had no effect on TCOD removal (P=0.645). Increasing the coagulant dose, significantly increased the production of TSS, with a 2.2 fold production with FeCl₃ at a molar ratio of 10.40:1 Fe: PO₄³⁻-P (P<0.001) and a 13.4 fold production of TSS with AlSO₄ at a molar ratio of 9.69:1 Al: PO₄³⁻-P (P<0.001) (Figure 2). Due to the low amount of solids contained in the overflow stream, it was not possible to record SSV_f.

Figure 2: Effect different doses of FeCl₃ (right-side figures) and AlSO₄ (left-side figures) on the removal of PO₄³⁻-P, TP and TSS in the overflow stream using a modified Jar test method (mean \pm SD, n=3). The residual concentration of the observed parameter is presented on the Y-left axis, the observed parameter on the Y-right axis, and the applied coagulant molar doses on the X-axis. C stands for the negative control (settling) and 0 correspond to positive control (stirring). Removal efficiencies expressed in % are calculated in respect to initial concentrations (t=0), according to Eq. 1.

219

220 **4 Discussion**

Previous waste characterizations from RAS systems (Dalsgaard and Pedersen, 2011), stated that more than 85% of P discharged from fish farms is solid-bound. In this study, 90%, 99% and 82% of TP, TSS and TCOD masses, respectively. were observed in the sludge flow, while the majority (66%) of PO_4^{3-} -P mass was observed in the overflow. Because of the greater initial mass content, the highest removal efficiency for TP, TSS and TCOD were achieved when targeting the treatment on the sludge flow.

When applying FeCl₃ and AlSO₄ in the sludge flow and considering 90% of PO₄³⁻-P removal as a comparative 226 baseline, it was found that FeCl₃ requires a lower molar ratio dose than AlSO₄ (2.6 vs 5.7 mol flocculant: mol 227 PO₄³⁻-P). According to the stoichiometry of the applied coagulants on P removal (Tchobanoglous et al., 2002), 228 to remove one gram of P, approximately 2.9 g of FeCl₃ or 3.7 g of AlSO₄ is needed. However, in reality, 229 230 colloidal suspensions and specific cations and anions in water will influence the stoichiometric interaction 231 between FeCl₃ and AlSO₄ with P, potentially requiring different dosing levels (Duan et al., 2002; Henze et al., 1997). In aquaculture, 80-90 mg/L of FeCl₃ has been found to remove up to 90% of $PO_4^{3-}P$ in freshwater 232 systems (~10:1 Fe: PO₄³⁻-P and 5.65 Al: PO₄³⁻-P molar ratio) (Ebeling et al., 2003). Similarly, in brackish 233

water (17 ppt) 27.6 mg of Fe/L (FeCl₃) and 12.6 mg Al/L of polymeric aluminum were needed to achieve 90% PO₄³⁻-P removal (2.6 Fe: PO₄³-P and 5.63 of Al: PO₄³⁻-P molar ratio) (Zhang et al., 2014). It seems that there is an interaction effect of higher water ionic strengths on removal of P, but that this effect stabilizes beyond 17 ppt. It also seems that salinity greatly improves the interaction between Fe³⁺ and P, but not the removal of P by Al²⁺. Comparatively, the sludge samples in this trial had a potentially higher organic carbon content than in Zhang paper. This could help explain why high salinity in our samples only partially improved the removal of P by chemical flocculation (Fettig and Ratnaweera, 1993).

To standardize the application of coagulant to a relatable number, and based on the model by Dalsgaard & Pedersen (2011) and on the fractions of phosphorus observed in this study, the amount of coagulant required to remove 90% of PO_4^{3-} -P discharged from the RAS sludge flow is around 11.2 kg Fe(III)/ton feed, and 11.9 kg Al/ton feed.

When applying a dose of FeCl₃ and AlSO₄ (2.6 vs 5.7 mol flocculant: mol PO₄³-P, respectively), we achieved high removal of TSS (90-91%) and TP (91%). However, approximately 40% excess sludge with either coagulant was produced, suggesting that coagulant overdosing clearly increases the amount of chemical sludge, and only marginally improves the removal efficiencies of TSS and PO₄³⁻-P.

A high removal of TSS (between 80-86%) in this study was achieved by either settling or solely stirring the 249 250 solution (negative and positive control). In other studies, practically no removal of TSS was found without 251 coagulant addition (Ebeling et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2014). We suggest that settling should always be the 252 primary step in fresh or seawater flocculation processes, but salinity also has a direct effect on TSS removal. A higher salinity exhibits a higher ionic strength, reducing the double-layer thickness of particles, resulting in 253 a lower electrical repulsive force which, in this way, improves the coagulation settling, and overall TSS 254 removal process (Crittenden et al., 2012; Henze et al., 1997). Furthermore, we found that increasing the doses 255 256 of AlSO₄ and FeCl₃ did not significantly improve TSS removal. On the contrary, the volume of chemical 257 sludge (SSV_f) was increased 50 and 93%, for FeCl₃ and AlSO₄, respectively. This is an important finding, as the effect that these coagulants have on the removal of TSS at the test salinity is marginal when overdosing, 258 259 compared to the side effects of increased chemical sludge volume that will need to be disposed.

260 Considering the sludge flow organic fraction showed a high settleability (80-84%) and 90% of TP is discharged through the sludge flow, we propose to take advantage of this situation and apply a pre-settling treatment 261 before any coagulant addition. Being the overall TP removal approximately 72-75% (10.3 - 10.8 Kg/d) of the 262 total P produced from the farm (14.4 Kg/d), settling the sludge would decrease the amount of coagulant 263 required, since the less dense effluent could marginally improve removal efficiencies through coagulation with 264 265 chemical agents. It would further reduce the amount of chemical sludge produced and the impact that metal 266 ions have on posterior thickening and dewatering of the sludge (Turovskiy and Mathai, 2006), thus, improving 267 the overall cost-effectiveness of the treatment.

In general, both coagulants improved PO₄³⁻-P removal while having a minor effect on TSS removal. FeCl₃ 268 achieved better removal efficiencies at a lower molar dose, but produced more chemical sludge, indicating 269 270 that when choosing a flocculant, other collateral effects must also be considered. Aluminium is known as a 271 powerful neurotoxicant to humans and other animals (Flaten, 2001; Igbokwe et al., 2020), and deteriorates the environment (Jaishankar et al., 2014). Additionally, higher content of sulfate in seawater, might promote 272 H₂S production in sludge basins, and, while FeCl₃ has been shown to suppress H₂S production (Zhang et al., 273 2008), AlSO₄ could be a the precursor of H₂S due to addition of the SO₄²⁻ ion (Letelier-Gordo et al., 2020) 274 Therefore, FeCl₃ should be to consider as coagulant more appropriate to be used in marine water end-of-pipe 275 276 treatment.

277 **5** Conclusions

278 In the removal of P as end-of-pipe treatment in a marine land-based RAS, major efforts must be focused on treating the effluent stream from the backwash of the drum filters and biofilters backwash (sludge flow), as 279 basically 90% of TP, 99% of TSS and 82% of TCOD are discharged through this effluent. To remove 90% of 280 PO₄³⁻-P, FeCl₃ requires a molar ratio dose of 2.6 mol Fe:PO₄³⁻ while AlSO₄ requires a molar ratio of 5.7 mol 281 Al:PO43-P. Both coagulants showed a low response for TSS removal, whereas the controls (settling and 282 stirring) showed already an 80-86% removal. Overdosing of coagulant beyond the recommended dose will 283 have minimal effects on PO₄³⁻-P and TSS removal, while highly affecting the volume of chemical sludge 284 285 produced which requires further treatment. Finally, FeCl₃ is suggested as a better overall alternative to be used

286	at the end-of-pipe treatment in marine land-based RAS, due to the higher efficiency at lower molar doses, and
287	the potential harmfulness of $AISO_4$ to receiving water ecosystems due to addition of both AI^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} and
288	their potential toxic reactions.
289	
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293	
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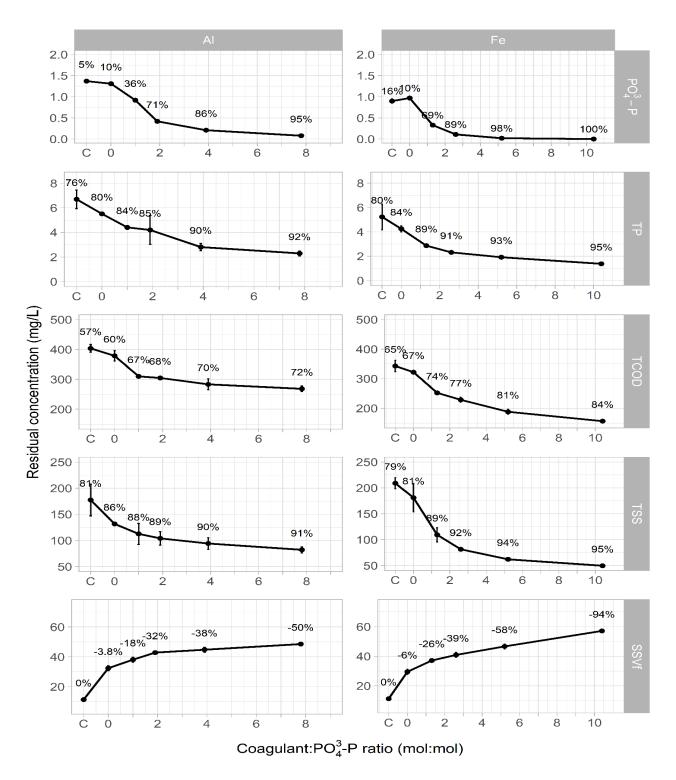


Figure 1: Effect of different molar doses of $FeCl_3$ (right-side figures) and $AlSO_4$ (left-side figures) on the removal of PO_4^{3-} -P, TP, TSS and production of sludge, expressed as SSV_f , in the sludge flow stream using

a modified Jar test method (mean \pm SD, n=3). The residual concentration of the observed parameter is presented on the Y-left axis, the observed parameter on the Y-right axis, and different applied coagulant doses on the X-axis. C stands for the negative control (settling, no coagulant addition) and 0 correspond to positive control (stirring). Removal efficiencies expressed in % are calculated in respect to initial concentrations (t=0), as described in Eq. 1.

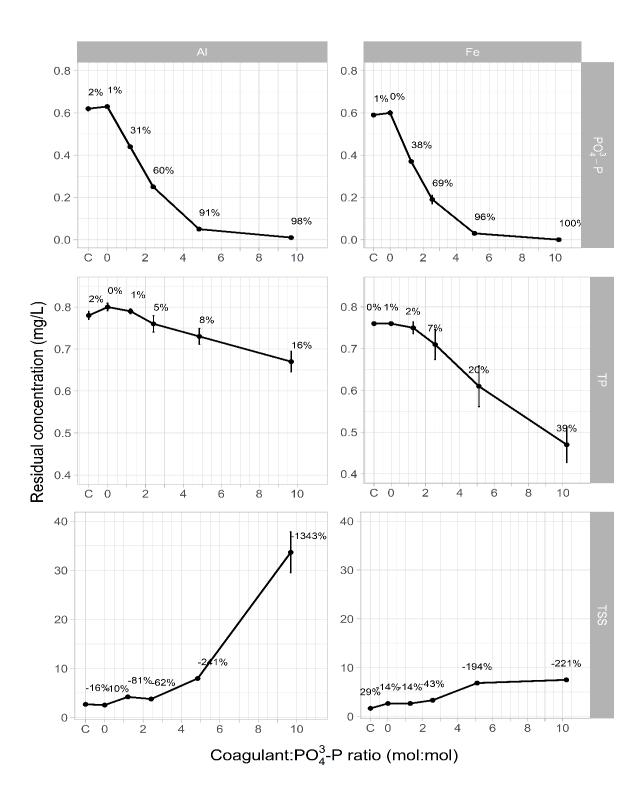


Figure 2: Effect different doses of FeCl₃ (right-side figures) and AlSO₄ (left-side figures) on the removal of PO₄³⁻-P, TP and TSS in the overflow stream using a modified Jar test method (mean \pm SD, n=3). The residual concentration of the observed parameter is presented on the Y-left axis, the observed parameter on the Y-right axis, and the applied coagulant molar doses on the X-axis. C stands for the negative control (settling) and 0 correspond to positive control (stirring). Removal efficiencies expressed in % are calculated in respect to initial concentrations (t=0), according to Eq. 1.

Table 1. RAS overflow and sludge flow daily discharged masses. Each parameter is presented as concentration in the water, daily masses (mass estimated according to Eq. 1), and the fraction of the parameter from the total discharged mass fraction ($n=30 \pm S.D.$).

Location	RAS overflow			Sludge flow			
Parameter	Conc. ^a	Mass ^b	Fraction ^c	Conc. ^a	Mass ^b	Fraction ^c	
Daily flow (m ³ /d)	1920		80%	480		20%	
рН	7.51-7.68			7.02-7.29			
TCOD	72.5±13.4	139±26	18%	1345±176	646±85	82%	
TSS	2.28±0.14	4.38±0.27	1%	962±39	462±19	99%	
TP	0.78±0.02	1.50±0.04	10%	26.9±1.47	12.9±0.7	90%	
PO4 ³⁻ -P	0.62±0.02	1.19±0.04	66%	1.27±0.20	0.61±0.10	34%	
S (PO ₄ ³⁻ -P/TP)	0.79±0.03			0.05±0.01			

a – concentrations as mg/L for TCOD, TSS, TP and PO₄³⁻-P.

 $^{\rm b}-{\rm masses}$ as kg/d for TCOD, TSS, TP and PO4 $^{\rm 3^{\rm 2}\text{-}P}.$

^c – fraction of total daily waste (by mass) contained in the RAS overflow, or sludge flow.