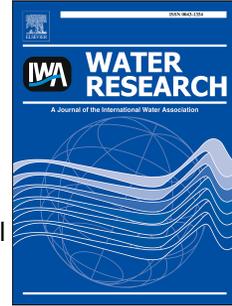


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Biological carbon dioxide utilisation in food waste anaerobic digesters

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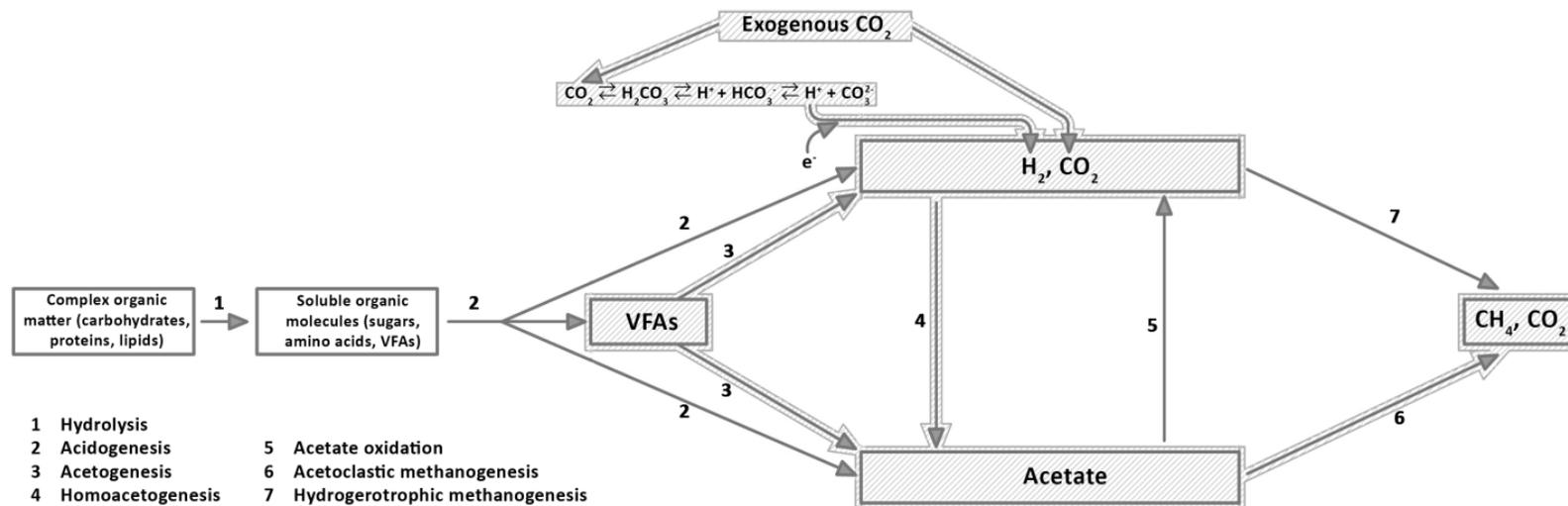
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* Marked path is a hypothesis for conversion of exogenous CO₂

1 BIOLOGICAL CARBON DIOXIDE UTILISATION IN FOOD WASTE 2 ANAEROBIC DIGESTERS

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13 ABSTRACT

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16 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) enrichment of anaerobic digesters (AD) was previously identified as a
17 potential on-site carbon revalorisation strategy. This study addresses the lack of studies investigating this
18 concept in up-scaled units and the need to understand the mechanisms of exogenous CO₂ utilisation. Two
19 pilot-scale ADs treating food waste were monitored for 225 days, with the test unit being periodically
20 injected with CO₂ using a bubble column. The test AD maintained a CH₄ production rate of 0.56±0.13 m³
21 CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ and a CH₄ concentration in biogas of 68% even when dissolved CO₂ levels were
22 increased by a 3 fold over the control unit. An additional uptake of 0.55 kg of exogenous CO₂ was
23 achieved in the test AD during the trial period. A 2.5 fold increase in hydrogen (H₂) concentration was
24 observed and attributed to CO₂ dissolution and to an alteration of the acidogenesis and acetogenesis
25 pathways. A hypothesis for conversion of exogenous CO₂ has been proposed, which requires validation by
26 microbial community analysis.

26 KEY WORDS

27 Carbon dioxide utilisation, anaerobic digestion, food waste, hydrogen, bubble column

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36 1.1. INTRODUCTION

37 Anaerobic digestion (AD) stabilises organic wastes while producing biogas with a 50-75%
38 methane (CH₄) and 50-25% carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration. The calorific value of the biogas can then
39 be used by combustion in combined heat and power (CHP) engines or by selectively separating the CH₄ for
40 its use as biomethane. The remaining CO₂ present in the biogas, however, is emitted to the atmosphere
41 with exhaust gas streams. Biogenic emissions of CO₂ from ADs just in the UK have been estimated at 0.27
42 MtCO₂ per annum for the water sector (Byrns et al., 2013) and at 0.31 MtCO₂ per annum for ADs treating
43 agricultural and community waste (industrial sites not accounted) (Bajón Fernández et al., *n.a.*). Emissions
44 of CO₂ with biogenic origin are not considered within carbon accounting inventories, however, its
45 reduction is considered as a negative carbon release. Therefore, implementation of revalorisation strategies
46 for biogas CO₂ could be an option to counteract the increasing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions of the
47 water sector (Byrns et al., 2013) and to further reduce the carbon footprint of AD in the organic waste
48 sector.

49 Implementation of carbon capture and storage (CCS) is feasible in the energy sector (DECC,
50 2012). However, its implementation for handling biogas CO₂ is limited by the requirement to transport CO₂
51 from AD sites in scattered location. New biogenic carbon sequestration methods such as the enrichment of
52 anaerobic processes with CO₂ (for its bioconversion into CH₄) are therefore being investigated as a method
53 to utilise on-site CO₂ concentrated gas streams. The capacity of upflow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB)
54 reactors (Alimahmoodi and Mulligan, 2008), single stage anaerobic digesters (ADs) (Bajón Fernández et
55 al., 2014; Sato and Ochi, 1994) and two phase ADs (Salomoni et al., 2011) has previously been examined
56 to utilise additional CO₂. However, these previous studies have focussed on proving the concept of carbon
57 uptake or assessing associated benefits in CH₄ formation at laboratory scale. In the case of ADs treating
58 food waste, CO₂ enrichment has so far only been studied in batch one litre units (Bajón Fernández et al.,
59 2014). Therefore, there is limited information available for scaled-up units. As a consequence, the means
60 by which CO₂ enrichment could be retrofitted into scaled-up units have not yet been addressed. There is a
61 need to investigate suitable technologies for completing CO₂ enrichment of ADs without incurring any
62 dilution of the headspace CH₄ content. The anticipated simplicity for implementation (Byrns et al., 2013)

63 and the possibility of transferring gas to liquid technologies already used in other industrial sectors (e.g.
64 bubble columns) have been suggested but not investigated. Furthermore, the mechanisms by which CO₂
65 can be bioconverted to CH₄ have not been fully elucidated. Several studies have hypothesised mechanisms
66 of CO₂ utilisation (Alimahmoodi and Mulligan, 2008; Bajón Fernández et al., 2014; Francioso et al.,
67 2010). However, only one has reported microbial community data in ADs enriched with CO₂ where
68 conditions specifically favouring development of hydrogenotrophic methanogens were not applied (Bajón
69 Fernández et al., *n.a.*). In this case, an increase in acetoclastic methanogenic activity (*Methanosaetaceae*) as
70 a result of periodic CO₂ injections was reported. Nevertheless, the question of whether this increase is due
71 to a direct impact of CO₂ in *Archaea* communities or to an indirect benefit through an alteration of previous
72 stages of the digestion process (i.e. acidogenesis and acetogenesis) remains unclear.

73 This study investigated both the practicalities of an up-scaled implementation of CO₂ enrichment
74 into ADs and the fate of exogenous CO₂. For the first time, a pilot-scale AD rig (106 L) treating food waste
75 and adapted for CO₂ enrichment through an external bubble column was operated and compared to a
76 standard unit. Results are discussed in terms of digestate quality, biogas production and CO₂ uptake when
77 comparing ADs with and without CO₂ enrichment. A comprehensive discussion on the mechanisms of CO₂
78 utilisation is included based on monitoring hydrogen (H₂) levels and volatile fatty acid (VFA) speciation
79 dynamics.

80 1.2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

81 1.2.1. Description and operation of the AD rig retrofitted with CO₂ enrichment

82 Two pilot-scale semi-continuous ADs treating food waste were operated for 225 days. Each unit
83 consisted of a cylindrical section and a cone base with a total volume of 193 L, of which 106 L were liquid
84 working volume (Fig. 1). Each AD was continuously stirred with an external peristaltic pump (series 600,
85 Watson Marlow, Cornwall, UK) operated to achieve a recirculation rate of 30 minutes. The ADs were
86 maintained at mesophilic conditions (38.5°C) with a heating jacket over the cylindrical section (LMK
87 Thermosafe, Haverhill, UK).

88 Both ADs were inoculated with digestate collected from a full-scale UK AD site treating 48,000
89 tonnes of organic waste per year. The units were fed on a daily basis (Monday to Friday) with a mixture of
90 organic waste collected from local supermarkets and catering facilities. This waste was manually
91 segregated to remove any inorganic content and macerated on-site with a series 'A' Muncher macerator
92 (Mono Pumps Ltd., Manchester, UK) connected to a progressing cavity pump (W range, Mono Pumps
93 Ltd., Manchester, UK). A loop in the system allowed the material to be recirculated into the macerator
94 until a homogenous mixture with a maximum particle size of 6 mm was achieved. The substrate solids
95 content was varied by adding water. On day 122 of operation a change of substrate source was required.
96 Feed material was then collected weekly from the full-scale UK AD site where the inoculum was
97 previously sourced from. Substrate was stored for a maximum of seven days at 4°C until the day of its use,
98 when it was warmed to 22-30°C before feeding to the ADs. Consistent quality of the substrate was then
99 ensured by sieving it through a 6.3 mm aperture size sieve (Endecotts Ltd., London, UK) and
100 homogenizing it with a T 25 DS 2 digital ultra-turrax disperser (IKA, Staufen, Germany). The material's
101 pH was raised to *ca.* 5.7 by addition of sodium hydroxide or calcium carbonate (Fisher Scientific,
102 Loughborough, UK). Micronutrients were added daily into both ADs at a dosing rate of 50 ml of TEA 310
103 solution per tonne of volatile solids (VS) fed (Omex Environmental Ltd., King's Lynn, UK). An organic
104 loading rate (OLR) of $2.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ kg VS} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ was applied with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of *ca.* 29
105 days.

106 Both ADs were operated in an identical manner until day 148, when enrichment with CO₂
107 commenced on the test AD. Enrichment with CO₂ was performed by installing a 1 m tall and 10 cm
108 diameter bubble column in the recirculation loop of the test AD (Fig. 1). The column was operated with a 7
109 L working volume and CO₂ and digestate contact was in a co-current mode (Fig. 1). Injection of CO₂ (g)
110 was performed at the bottom of the column through a perforated plate connected to a manifold that divided
111 the incoming gas stream into seven inlets. A metallic mesh with 0.5 mm hole size was placed on top of the
112 perforated plate, which allowed generation of smaller gas bubbles in order to enhance gas to liquid mass
113 transfer and hence CO₂ dissolution into the digesting material. The CO₂ flowrate into the column was
114 controlled by means of a mass flow controller (MFC) (Premier Control Technologies, Norfolk, UK), fixed

115 at 1.5 L·min⁻¹ and supplied from gas cylinders (BOC, Manchester, UK). The external bubble column was
116 retrofitted as a side process and connected for each CO₂ injection, whereas the test AD operated similarly
117 to the control AD during the rest of the time. Injection of CO₂ was done three times per week, because up
118 to 48 h may be required for the AD to recover from any acidification associated with CO₂ injection (Bajón
119 Fernández et al., 2014). During each injection the speed of the pump in the AD's recirculation loop was
120 reduced in order to increase the gas to liquid contact time in the column. The whole AD content was
121 contacted with the incoming CO₂ within an hour. Concentrations of CO₂ and CH₄ in the column exhaust
122 (Fig. 1) were monitored with online sensors (BCP sensors, Bluesens, Herten, Germany), which were
123 connected to a logging computer using BacVis software (Bluesens, Herten, Germany) for data recording.

124 **1.2.2. Analytical methods**

125 The volume of biogas produced by the ADs was measured continuously with a TG05/5 gas meter
126 equipped with a totalizer (Ritter, Bochum, Germany) connected to each of the units (Fig. 1). Data of biogas
127 produced were logged daily. The biogas composition was analysed on a daily basis by means of a LMSXi
128 multifunction gas analyser (Gas Data, Coventry, England), which had individual measurement cells for
129 CH₄, CO₂ and H₂ concentration. The H₂ measurement cell was suitable for ranges of 0 to 1000 ppm. The
130 digestate of each unit was analysed daily for pH and up to twice per week for total solids (TS), VS,
131 ammonia, VFAs and alkalinity. Statistically significant differences were identified by performing *F*-test
132 and *t*-test in order to confirm the rejection of the null hypothesis. Analysis of TS and VS were completed
133 according to the American Public Health Association (2005).

134 Ammonia and VFAs were analysed in the solid free fraction of the samples. To obtain this
135 fraction, samples were centrifuged in a Falcon 6/300 centrifuge (MSE UK Ltd., London, UK) for 20
136 minutes at 4700 *g* and 19°C. The supernatant was centrifuged again under the same conditions for 40
137 minutes and vacuum filtered through 1.2 µm pore size microfiber filters GF/C (Whatman™, Kent, UK).
138 The solid free fraction was then obtained with a last filtration stage through 0.45 µm pore size syringe-
139 drive filters (Millipore™, Billerica, United States). High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
140 (Shimadzu VP Series unit, Milton Keynes, UK) was utilised to quantify the concentration of acetic acid,
141 propionic acid, n-butyric acid, iso-butyric acid, n-valeric acid and iso-valeric acid, whose sum was reported

142 as total VFA (TVFA) concentration ($TVFA = \sum$ individual acids). An equivalent methodology to that
143 reported by Soares et al. (2010) was used with the exception of the HPLC run time, which was set at 60
144 minutes.

145 Ammonia was quantified with Spectroquant test kits. Alkalinity was measured in the supernatant
146 resulting from a double centrifugation process in which digestate samples were centrifuged at 4700 g for
147 20 minutes and the supernatant centrifuged again for 40 minutes under similar conditions. Partial
148 alkalinity (PA) and intermediate alkalinity (IA) were monitored by titrating to a pH of 5.75 and of 4.30,
149 respectively. Ripley ratio ($RR = IA/PA$) was used as an indicator of digestion stability, with a value lower
150 than 0.3 considered indicative of stable operation (Ripley et al., 1986). When higher values were measured,
151 the OLR was temporary reduced or the feed's pH further increased and normal feeding resumed after few
152 days. The feed substrate was also characterised for pH, TS, VS, ammonia and VFA on a regular basis.
153 Dissolved levels of CO_2 were monitored in the control AD, the test AD and the exit of the CO_2 injection
154 column by utilising an InPro5000(i) dissolved CO_2 sensor (Mettler Toledo Ltd., Leicester, UK) connected
155 to a multi-parameter transmitter M400 (Mettler Toledo Ltd., Leicester, UK).

156 **1.3. RESULTS**

157 **1.3.1. Substrate characterisation**

158 The pre-conditioned feed substrate (after maceration, homogenization and solids adjustment) was
159 characterised by an ammonia concentration of $361 \pm 20 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{ NH}_4\text{-N}$, a TVFA content of 21114 ± 1723
160 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, of which acetic acid was $81 \pm 5\%$; and a pH of 3.6 ± 0.5 (Table 1). The pH was raised to 5.7 ± 0.6
161 units by addition of sodium hydroxide or calcium carbonate and, when required, water was added to adjust
162 the material's solids concentration. The final substrate contained $9.7 \pm 1.4\%$ TS, of which the VS were
163 $83.1 \pm 9.8\%$.

164 **1.3.2. Assessment of digestion performance (digestate quality and renewable energy 165 enhancement) and process resilience**

166 A stable digestion process was observed in both control and test ADs, with digestate characterised
167 by a pH of 7.9 ± 0.2 and 7.8 ± 0.2 for control and test ADs, respectively, and a total ammonia concentration

168 of 1.8-1.9 g·L⁻¹ NH₄-N in both cases. Prior to CO₂ injection a TVFA concentration of 10707±313 mg·L⁻¹
169 with 67±3% acetic acid and of 9470±739 mg·L⁻¹ with 57±6% acetic acid were recorded in the control and
170 test ADs, respectively (day 134 of operation). The high VFA levels did not hinder process performance, as
171 previously reported by other authors (Banks et al., 2011) and verified by the CH₄ output of this study. A
172 specific CH₄ production rate of 0.53±0.16 m³ CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ and a CH₄ concentration of 68.3±5.7% for
173 the control AD and of 0.45±0.05 m³ CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ and a CH₄ content of 68.8±3.4% for the test unit
174 were recorded. The variation between units was attributed to the biological nature of the process but was
175 not statistically significant (*p*-value of 0.280).

176 Control and test ADs were operated in a similar manner until day 148, when CO₂ injection into the
177 test unit commenced. After CO₂ enrichment of the test AD commenced, CH₄ production was 0.56±0.13 m³
178 CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ with a CH₄ content of 68.5±3.4% (Table 1). The average VS reduction of the substrate
179 in the control AD was of 74% and of 76% in the test AD from the time of commencement of CO₂
180 enrichment until completion of the trials. Concentration of H₂ in the headspace was quantified at 84±5 ppm
181 and 75±15 ppm for control and test ADs, respectively, as average up to day 148. However, after four
182 enrichments with CO₂ (12 days of operation after commencement of CO₂ enrichment), an increase in the
183 H₂ content on the test AD was observed, with a value of 173 ppm recorded on day 160 of operation. An
184 increasing trend in H₂ content of biogas was observed with subsequent CO₂ injections (Fig. 2), with an
185 average value of the daily recordings of 320±153 ppm between days 149 and 225 of operation (Table 1).
186 This implied a statistically significant 2.5 fold increase (*p*-value < 0.001) when compared to the average H₂
187 content of the control AD over the entire trial period (129±44 ppm) (Table 1). A stable operation of the test
188 AD, assessed with RR and CH₄ production measurements, was observed in spite of the H₂ concentration
189 reaching values of over 600 ppm on several occasions (Fig. 2).

190 Interestingly, two failures of the heating system occurred during the experimental period, which
191 enabled investigation of process resilience to disturbances. A failure in the heating jacket of the control AD
192 on day 136 of operation for ≤ 23 hours led to a temperature drop of 11°C. An immediate alteration in
193 biogas production was observed, with the CH₄ production rate dropping by over an order of magnitude and
194 oscillating between 2.8·10⁻² and 6.1·10⁻² m³ CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ over the six days following the disturbance.

195 When mesophilic conditions resumed a sudden increase of H_2 was experienced, which ranged from 262
196 ppm on the day of temperature correction to 464 ppm 7 days afterwards. A RR of 11.5 was measured on
197 day 139 of operation, in spite of substrate addition being suspended immediately after the temperature
198 drop. Analysis of VFA on day 139 evidenced an accumulation of acids, with TVFA reaching values of
199 $17235 \pm 147 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ as opposed to the $10707 \pm 313 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ recorded on day 134 and the $9435 \pm 686 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$
200 obtained in the test AD (Fig. 3). Individual VFA increases when comparing day 139 over day 134 of
201 operation of 1.4, 1.4, 3.8 and 4.3 fold were recorded for acetic, propionic, iso-butyric and n-butyric acids,
202 respectively (Fig. 3). Calcium carbonate was dosed in order to increase the pH, which had dropped to *ca.* 6
203 units. However, the high CO_2 content of the headspace (up to 65%), the inhibited CH_4 production rate, the
204 RR considerably over the desired value of 0.3 and the rise in H_2 content indicated that methanogenesis
205 activity was severely inhibited. Acetogenesis and methanogenesis were hence considered to be completely
206 decoupled and a partial re-seed (80%) of the control AD was required on day 142 of operation. Signs of
207 recovery were observed from day 146, when a H_2 content in biogas of 81 ppm and a pH in digestate of 7.8
208 were recorded. A performance comparable to that previous to the temperature disturbance was achieved
209 within 11 days from the partial re-seed (day 154 of operation), when a CH_4 production rate of 0.46 m^3
210 $CH_4 \cdot (\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}} \cdot \text{d})^{-1}$ was obtained. Alkalinity tests confirmed the recovery of digester stability since a RR of
211 0.82 on day 153 and of 0.30 on day 161 were recorded. Concentration of TVFA was $6969 \pm 591 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ on
212 day 161.

213 The heating system of the test AD failed for ≤ 23 hours on day 178 (31 days after CO_2 enrichment
214 was started), leading to a temperature drop of 12.5°C . Similar to the experience in the control AD, an
215 immediate reduction in CH_4 production rate and a drop in the pH of the digesting media were recorded.
216 Nevertheless, alterations were significantly lower than those previously recorded for the control AD, with a
217 CH_4 production rate decrease from 0.67 to $0.46 \text{ m}^3 \text{ CH}_4 \cdot (\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}} \cdot \text{d})^{-1}$ and a pH drop of 0.24 units. An
218 increase of TVFA concentration from $2473 \pm 153 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ to $4764 \pm 145 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ between days 175 and 178 was
219 recorded, which was within the normal variability observed during the entire digestion period (Fig. 3). No
220 specific sign of VFA accumulation associated with methanogenic activity inhibition was obtained. The
221 immediate re-start of the heating jacket and the suspension of substrate addition during two days sufficed

222 to recover the initial digestion performance, without any re-seeding required. A CH₄ production rate of
223 0.71 and 0.75 m³ CH₄·(kg VS_{fed}·d)⁻¹ was recorded on days 182 and 183 of operation, respectively. The
224 different behaviour of the control and test ADs to a situation of stress for methanogenic communities could
225 be associated with a higher resistance of these *Archaea* in ADs retrofitted with CO₂ injection. This
226 potential benefit of CO₂ injection in process resilience could prove beneficial in food waste ADs, which are
227 commonly associated with operational problems (Banks et al., 2011), and should be further investigated.
228 Concentration of H₂ in the test AD on recovery from the temperature drop stabilised again to a baseline
229 higher than that of the control unit, with values oscillating between 380 and 550 ppm of H₂ during the
230 week following recovery (Fig. 2).

231 **1.3.3. Impact of CO₂ enrichment on dissolved CO₂ and digestate's ammonia concentration**

232 The dissolved CO₂ and ammonia levels recorded in the digestate of both control and test ADs are
233 presented in Fig. 4. An average dissolved CO₂ concentration of 2.0E-3±5.3E-4 kmol·m⁻³ was recorded in
234 the liquid phase of the control AD during the digestion trial. A similar value of 2.0E-3±5.9E-4 kmol·m⁻³
235 was obtained for the test AD when measuring dissolved CO₂ inside of the unit or in the inlet to the bubble
236 column used for mass transfer. Each enrichment with CO₂ led to dissolved CO₂ levels of 6.1E-3±1.4E-3
237 kmol·m⁻³ in the material exiting the bubble column (Fig. 4). Hence, all the content of the test AD was
238 enriched with an additional 4.0E-3 kmol CO₂·m⁻³, implying an input of *ca.* 4.0E-4 kmol of exogenous CO₂
239 (18455 mg CO₂) per enrichment when considering the working volume of the unit (106 L). When a
240 frequency of injection of three times per week is considered, it is calculated that 0.55 kg of exogenous CO₂
241 were assimilated by the test AD during the trial period. Monitoring the dissolved CO₂ concentration
242 confirmed the rapid utilisation of additional CO₂, since levels dropped from 6.1E-3±1.4E-3 kmol·m⁻³
243 obtained after enrichment to 2.0E-3±5.9E-4 kmol·m⁻³ within 24 hours. This utilisation rate of CO₂
244 matched the overcome of the slight acidification due to CO₂ enrichment in the 24 hours following a CO₂
245 injection. During each CO₂ injection a pH drop of 0.4 to 0.6 units was experienced between the inlet and
246 outlet of the bubble column. This pH reduction was consistently overcome within 24 hours, with an
247 average pH of 7.9±0.2 and 7.8±0.2 maintained in control and test ADs, respectively. This implied no
248 alteration of the pH with respect to the period when CO₂ injection was not applied.

249 The suitability of utilising a co-currently operated bubble column for gas to liquid mass transfer
250 was assessed by examining the concentration of CO₂ in the AD's headspace and the amount of CH₄
251 stripped from the digesting material during the mass transfer process. The CO₂ content in the produced
252 biogas, which was recorded daily, did not increase; with non-dissolved CO₂ being released with the exhaust
253 of the bubble column only. The extent to which CH₄ was degassed during the mass transfer process was
254 quantified by measuring on-line the CH₄ content of the gas exhaust of the bubble column (Fig. 4).
255 Concentrations between 0.8 and 2.1% of CH₄ were measured, which implied a release of 0.72-1.89 L CH₄
256 per CO₂ enrichment (every 48 hours) when considering the incoming CO₂ flowrate of 1.5 L·min⁻¹. When
257 compared to the average of 235±49 L CH₄ produced per day by the test AD, the loss of CH₄ in the mass
258 transfer system accounted for ≤0.4 % and was hence considered to be negligible.

259 Periodic injections of CO₂ in the test AD did not vary the concentration of ammonia in the
260 digesting material to a significant extent (Table 1). Average total ammonia concentration was 1798±124
261 mg·L⁻¹ NH₄-N before CO₂ enrichment and 1807±166 mg·L⁻¹ NH₄-N during the rest of the digestion trials.
262 This seems to indicate that injection of CO₂ did not have a significant positive benefit in controlling
263 ammonia inhibition, which agrees with previous literature stating that increased pH and temperatures are
264 required for an efficient free ammonia removal in ADs by stripping it with biogas (Serna-Maza et al.,
265 2014; Walker et al., 2011).

266 1.4. DISCUSSION

267 1.4.1. Suitability of injecting CO₂ into ADs with an external bubble column

268 The majority of previous studies investigating CO₂ injection into ADs have been completed at
269 laboratory scale only, without the suitability of injecting CO₂ through existing gas mixing systems or by
270 means of external mass transfer units having been investigated for scaled-up systems. This study provides
271 an insight into the effectiveness of using an external bubble column to inject CO₂ in ADs through
272 examining biogas quality, amount of CH₄ lost and mass transfer efficiency. Non-dilution of AD headspace
273 and the low amount of CH₄ degassed during the enrichment (≤0.4 %), indicated the suitability of
274 employing an external bubble column for performing the required gas to liquid mass transfer. As far as
275 efficiency of the system is concerned, operation of the bubble column increased the dissolved CO₂ levels

276 by a 3 fold (from $2.0\text{E-}3\pm 5.9\text{E-}4 \text{ kmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ to $6.1\text{E-}3\pm 1.4\text{E-}3 \text{ kmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$). However, the solubility of CO_2 at
277 38.5°C in aqueous solutions with a CO_2 partial pressure (p_{CO_2}) of 1atm is $2.4\text{E-}2 \text{ kmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ ($1071 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)
278 (Green and Perry, 2008). Therefore, the operated bubble column achieved only *ca.* 25% of the CO_2 that
279 could have been dissolved at p_{CO_2} of 1atm. This indicates the important role that CO_2 gas to liquid mass
280 transfer plays in the amount of CO_2 which can be dissolved in an anaerobic process when implementing
281 CO_2 enrichment. In turn the amount of CO_2 dissolved determines the contribution towards reduction of
282 carbon footprint that can be achieved (negative carbon release if dissolving CO_2 with biogenic origin) and
283 the potential increase in renewable energy production. The complex rheology of anaerobically digested
284 material (Baudez et al., 2011; Eshtiaghi et al., 2012) and the strong impact of viscosity on mass transfer
285 retardation (Ozbek and Gayik, 2001) requires a better understanding in order for mass transfer systems
286 involving these fluids to be designed and operated in an efficient manner. The use of bubble columns for
287 dissolving exogenous CO_2 into anaerobic digesting media is considered suitable because of a lower risk of
288 clogging than other technologies. Besides, efficiency of mass transfer could be increased by a greater gas
289 to liquid contact time, a reduced bubble size or a higher incoming gas flowrate (Kantarci et al., 2005),
290 which would increase dissolved CO_2 levels and hence potential for carbon assimilation.

291 **1.4.2. Impact of CO_2 injection in AD performance and mechanisms of utilisation based on** 292 **VFA and H_2 dynamics**

293 The test AD achieved an average CH_4 production rate of $0.45\pm 0.05 \text{ m}^3 \text{ CH}_4\cdot(\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}}\cdot\text{d})^{-1}$ before
294 any CO_2 was applied, which is within the order of magnitude reported in the literature for domestic food
295 waste (Banks et al., 2011). When this value is considered as a baseline, the CH_4 production rate observed
296 during the time when CO_2 enrichment was applied ($0.56\pm 0.13 \text{ m}^3 \text{ CH}_4\cdot(\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}}\cdot\text{d})^{-1}$) implied a *ca.* 20%
297 improvement (*p*-value of 0.058), which is in agreement with performances previously reported in the
298 literature (Salomoni et al., 2011; Sato and Ochi, 1994). However, no significant benefit (*p*-value of 0.261)
299 was recorded when comparing the performance of the test AD with CO_2 enrichment ($0.56\pm 0.13 \text{ m}^3$
300 $\text{CH}_4\cdot(\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}}\cdot\text{d})^{-1}$) with that of the control unit ($0.53\pm 0.16 \text{ m}^3 \text{ CH}_4\cdot(\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}}\cdot\text{d})^{-1}$). This suggests that any
301 improvement was not appreciable due to the natural variability of the performance of the biological process
302 (i.e. high standard deviation).

303 Of note was the impact observed in relation to the H₂ content of the biogas produced, which
304 reached a baseline 2.5 fold higher in the test AD than in the control unit (p -value < 0.001) during the period
305 when CO₂ was periodically injected. The observed increased H₂ production can be used to further
306 understand the mechanisms of CO₂ utilisation because of the role of H₂ as an electron carrier and
307 intermediate product in several reactions of the digestion process (Cord-Ruwisch et al., 1997). Sudden
308 increases in H₂ concentration have been reported in response to process disturbances, such as changes in
309 the feed quality or loading rate (Kidby and Nedwell, 1991; Mosey and Fernandes, 1989) and when feeding
310 a digestion process with unfermented material of a labile nature (Kidby and Nedwell, 1991). The sudden
311 increase in readily available substrate in turn leads to an active hydrolysis, acidogenesis and acetogenesis
312 with an associated release of H₂ (Guwy et al., 1997). The fast response to system destabilizations and the
313 recovery of initial H₂ levels shortly after the disturbance is overcome, has led several authors to study the
314 possibility of using it as a control parameter in ADs (Rodríguez et al., 2006). Fluctuations in H₂ with return
315 to initial concentrations are hence considered indicative of specific events or transition phenomena, rather
316 than of long-term alterations (Mosey and Fernandes, 1989).

317 During the pilot plant trials of this study two types of disturbances in biogas H₂ levels were
318 observed. An increase from 84±5 ppm to 464 ppm was recorded in the control AD when the temperature
319 dropped by 11°C (Fig. 2) over a ≤ 23 hour period, with H₂ rapidly returning to initial levels once the
320 disturbance was overcome. On the contrary, an increase in H₂ concentration was observed in the test AD
321 following four CO₂ injections, which lead to a new H₂ baseline (320±153 ppm) to be maintained during the
322 rest of the trial period and to sporadic peaks of up to 645 ppm (Fig. 2). The rapid variation in H₂ level in
323 the control AD was an indicator of process disturbance. This was overcome when normal operation
324 conditions were re-established and agrees with the previously mentioned literature findings. The increased
325 H₂ production of the test AD, however, was maintained over 65 days of operation (until the experimental
326 trials were concluded), and was assumed to be associated with CO₂ injection affecting the microbial
327 process in a more permanent manner. The different nature of both H₂ alternations was further evident when
328 attending to the dynamics of VFA speciation within the AD. The increase in H₂ concentration of the
329 control AD was simultaneous to a sudden increase in TVFA concentration (Fig. 3), which reached

330 17235±147 mg·L⁻¹ on day 139. Accumulation of VFA indicated that hydrolysis, acidogenesis and
331 acetogenesis were taking place in spite of the temperature drop, while the acid assimilatory capacity of
332 methanogenic communities was inhibited. Progression of fermentation without an efficient assimilation of
333 acetic acid and H₂ would have resulted in unfavourable conditions for acetogenesis itself, leading to
334 accumulation of VFAs of higher number of carbons (Fig. 3). Propionic and butyric acid degradation
335 reactions have been reported to be thermodynamically unfavoured at H₂ partial pressure (p_{H2}) over 10⁻⁴ atm
336 and 10⁻³ atm, respectively (Cord-Ruwisch et al., 1997; Harper and Pohland, 1986; Kidby and Nedwell,
337 1991; Labatut et al., 2014). The p_{H2} in the control unit reached these unfavourable conditions, with a value
338 of 4.6·10⁻⁴ atm (atmospheric pressure considered inside the AD). This in turn led to a hindered degradation
339 of propionic and butyric acids, which accumulated on the system reducing the digester's pH (Fig. 2).
340 Eventually process failure occurred (sour AD) and a partial re-seed for stability recovery was required.

341 On the contrary, the increase in H₂ concentration in the test AD was not related to a rising trend in
342 TVFA or individual VFA concentrations (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). In fact, TVFA and acetic acid were quantified
343 at 3662±44 mg·L⁻¹ and 369±18 mg·L⁻¹, respectively, on day 153, which was lower than average values
344 maintained during the entire digestion trials (Fig. 3). The increase in H₂ was considered resulting from
345 injection of CO₂ (only variable modified) and was attributed to a boost of H₂ producing mechanisms rather
346 than to a reduced H₂ assimilatory capacity. Two mechanisms could have led to the increased H₂ production
347 observed. On the one hand, dissolution of CO₂ in the aqueous media could have contributed to an increased
348 H₂ concentration as a result of CO₂ forming carbonic acid that releases protons when dissociated into
349 carbonate and bicarbonate species. At the low oxidation reduction potential found in ADs (< -200 mV
350 (Gupta et al., 1994)) the protons could react to form H₂. On the other hand, the H₂ increase could have
351 resulted from its production by acetogenesis (Fig. 5). In this case, an increase in acetic acid would have
352 been expected, similar to that recorded in the control unit, unless the acetic acid assimilatory capacity of
353 the system was enhanced. The activity of *Methanosaetaceae* (obligate acetoclastic methanogen) has been
354 reported to increase after periodic CO₂ injections in ADs (Bajón Fernández et al., *n.a.*), hence being likely
355 to have had the capacity to assimilate additional acetate. Further investigation needs to be undertaken to
356 determine the contribution of both pathways to the formation of additional H₂. By either mechanism the

357 additional H₂ would have been formed in the liquid phase. The limited mass transfer of H₂ between the
358 liquid and gas phases (Guwy et al., 1997) explained that four injections of CO₂ were required before an
359 impact in the headspace's H₂ content was evident and that pH was recovered between injections while H₂
360 levels did not drop to the baseline of the control AD.

361 It is of note that the H₂ concentration oscillated around 320±153 ppm, with peaks over 600 ppm
362 but without a continuously increasing trend in spite of CO₂ being injected periodically. The fact that H₂
363 concentration did not increase further, suggests that additional H₂ produced was consumed in the AD.
364 Assimilation of H₂ could occur by the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of CO₂ fixation. This metabolic pathway
365 can be stimulated by the availability of exogenous CO₂ (Misoph and Drake, 1996) and requires eight
366 electrons and eight protons for each two molecules of CO₂ assimilated, which can be supplied by
367 consumption of H₂ (Ragsdale and Pierce, 2008). This pathway leads to the generation of acetate, which in
368 turn would have been assimilated by the enhanced acetoclastic methanogenesis previously observed.

369 It is then proposed that CO₂ leads to a boost of H₂ production, derived from the protons formed
370 when dissolving CO₂ in the aqueous media, from a boost of obligate acetogenesis or from a combination of
371 both (Fig. 5). Part of the additional H₂ formed is then assimilated in the AD, leading to a steady operation
372 as opposed to a continuously increasing H₂ level. Assimilation of additional H₂ is likely to occur through
373 the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway, which has a preference for exogenous CO₂. The additional acetic acid
374 formed by this pathway would then be assimilated by acetoclastic methanogenesis, which has been
375 reported to have an increased activity when subjected to periodic CO₂ injections. The proposed mechanism
376 of CO₂ assimilation is summarised in Fig. 5, including previous findings that support the suggested
377 hypothesis. Further work will be required to support or reject the proposed mechanism. In particular,
378 microbial community analyses to understand the potential impact of CO₂ injection in acetogenesis are of
379 great interest.

380 1.5. CONCLUSION

381 The capacity of ADs treating food waste to utilise exogenous CO₂ was tested and the practicalities
382 of an up-scaled implementation and mechanisms of CO₂ utilisation were investigated. Injection of CO₂
383 through an external bubble column was suitable, as the headspace was not diluted and CH₄ loss during

384 injection was negligible ($\leq 0.4\%$). A CH_4 production rate of $0.56 \pm 0.13 \text{ m}^3 \text{ CH}_4 \cdot (\text{kg VS}_{\text{fed}} \cdot \text{d})^{-1}$ was recorded
385 for an AD periodically enriched with CO_2 . An additional uptake of 0.55 kg of exogenous CO_2 in the test
386 AD during the trial period was calculated, which could be augmented if the bubble column mass transfer
387 efficiency was increased, hence augmenting the potential benefits in CO_2 mitigation. A 2.5 fold increase in
388 H_2 concentration was observed after four CO_2 injections, likely due to CO_2 dissolution or an alternation of
389 acidogenesis/acetogenesis. Additional H_2 was believed uptaken by Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and the
390 acetate generated by this in turn assimilated by an increased activity of obligate acetoclastic *Archaea*. This
391 proposed hypothesis of exogenous CO_2 conversion requires verification with microbial community
392 analysis.

393

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- 472

Table 1. Characterisation of digester feed, digestate and headspace of the control and tests ADs.

	Feed	Control AD	Test AD	
			Before CO ₂ enrichment	With CO ₂ enrichment
<i>Parameter monitoring</i>				
pH	5.7±0.6	7.9±0.2	7.8±0.2	7.8±0.2
TS (%)	9.7±1.4	4.5±0.9	3.1±0.4	4.5±0.8
VS (% of TS)	83.1±9.8	51.0±8.9	65.8±7.3	44.6±5.3
VS (% of wet matter)	8.0±1.2	2.3±0.4	2.0±0.1	2.0±0.5
Ammonia (mg·L ⁻¹ NH ₄ -N)	361±20	1855±205	1798±124	1807±166
VFA concentration (mg·L ⁻¹)	21114±1723	10707±313 ^(a)	9470±739 ^(a)	3662±44 ^(b)
<i>Headspace monitoring</i>				
CH ₄ production rate (m ³ CH ₄ ·(kg VS _{fed} ·d ⁻¹))	-	0.53±0.16	0.45±0.05	0.56±0.13
CH ₄ concentration (%)	-	68.3±5.7	68.8±3.4	68.5±3.4
H ₂ concentration (ppm)	-	129±44	75±15	320±153

Data corresponding to days of temperature drop have not been considered for average values.

^(a) Value on day 134. For VFA dynamics refer to Fig. 3.

^(b) Value on day 153. For VFA dynamics refer to Fig. 3.

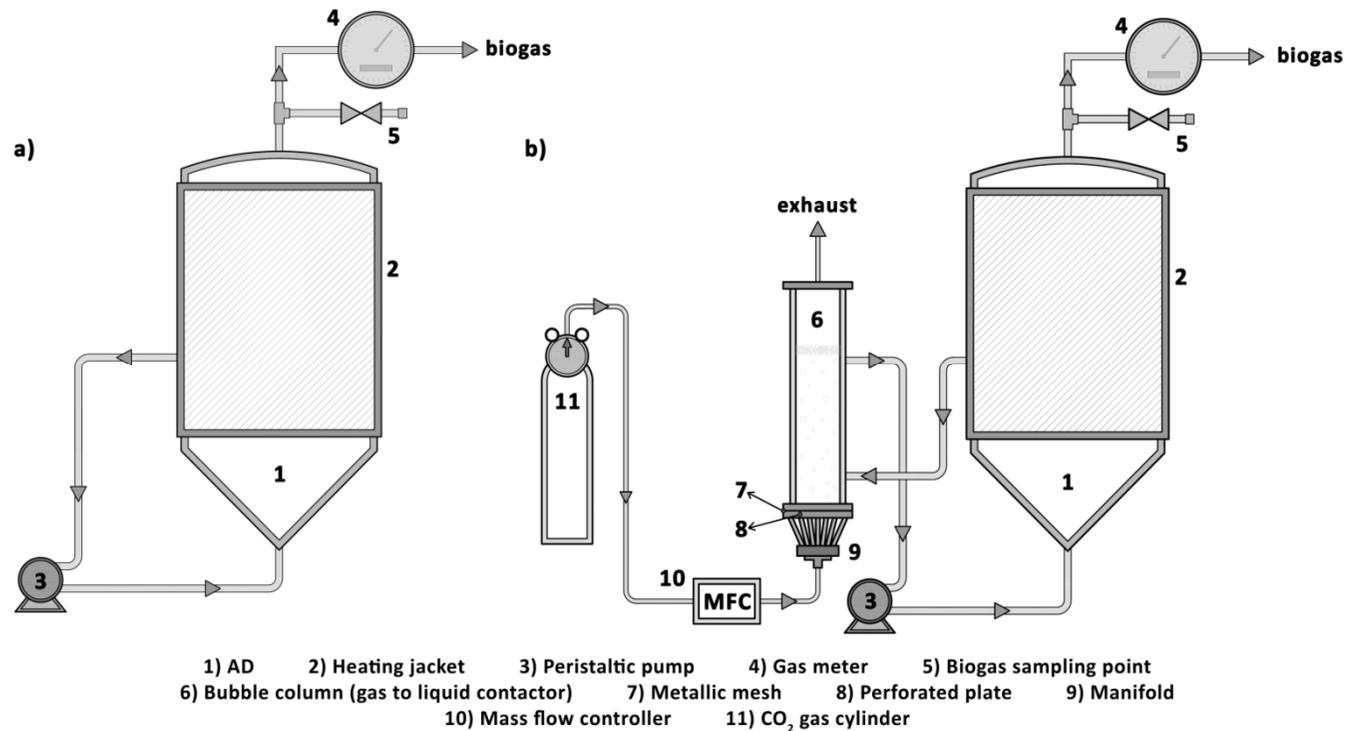


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the pilot-scale experimental rig. (a) Conventionally operated AD and (b) AD retrofitted with an external bubble column for CO₂ injection. MFC: mass flow controller.

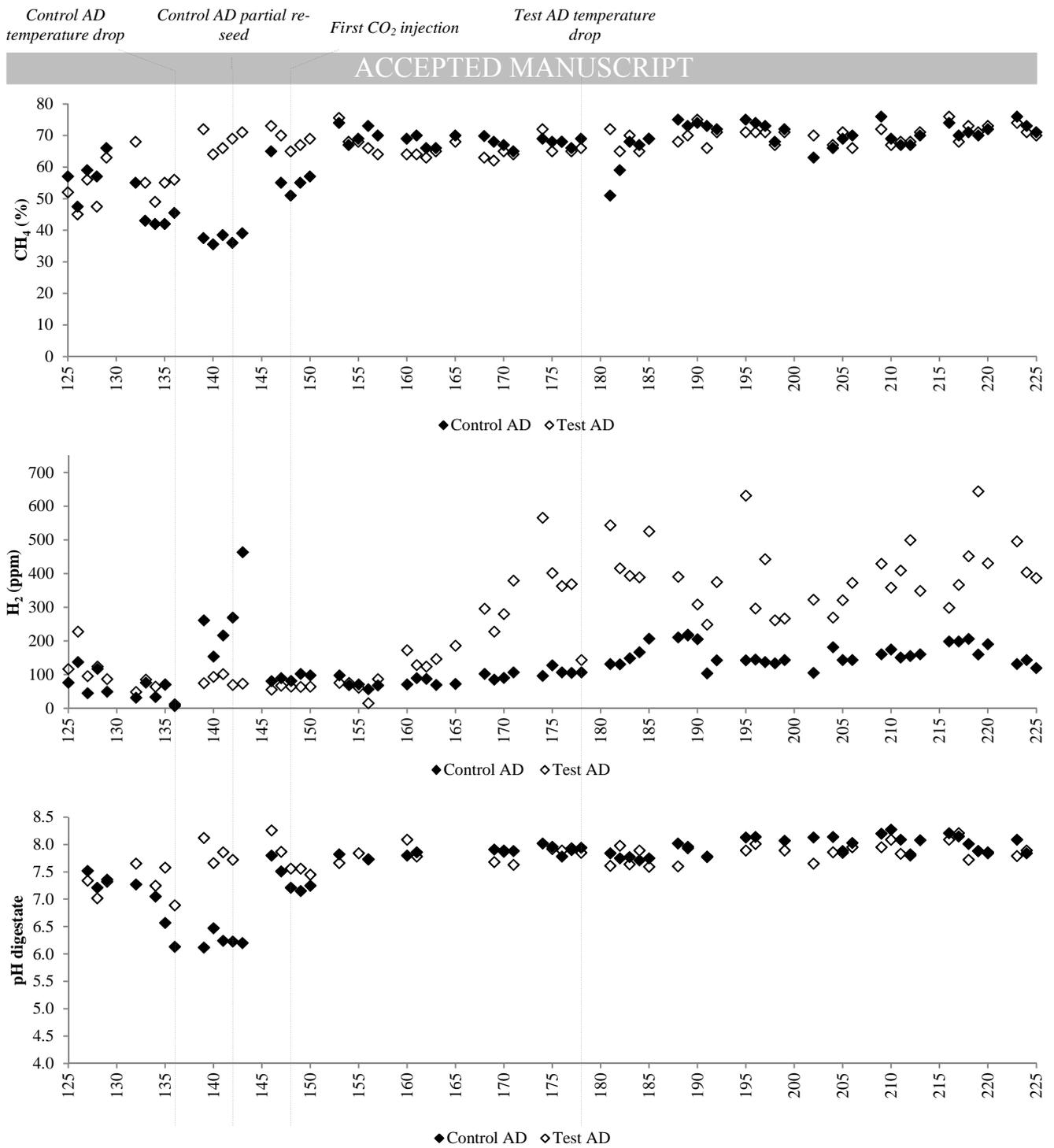


Fig. 2. Evolution of CH₄ and H₂ biogas concentration and digester pH in the control and test ADs during the pilot scale digestion trials.

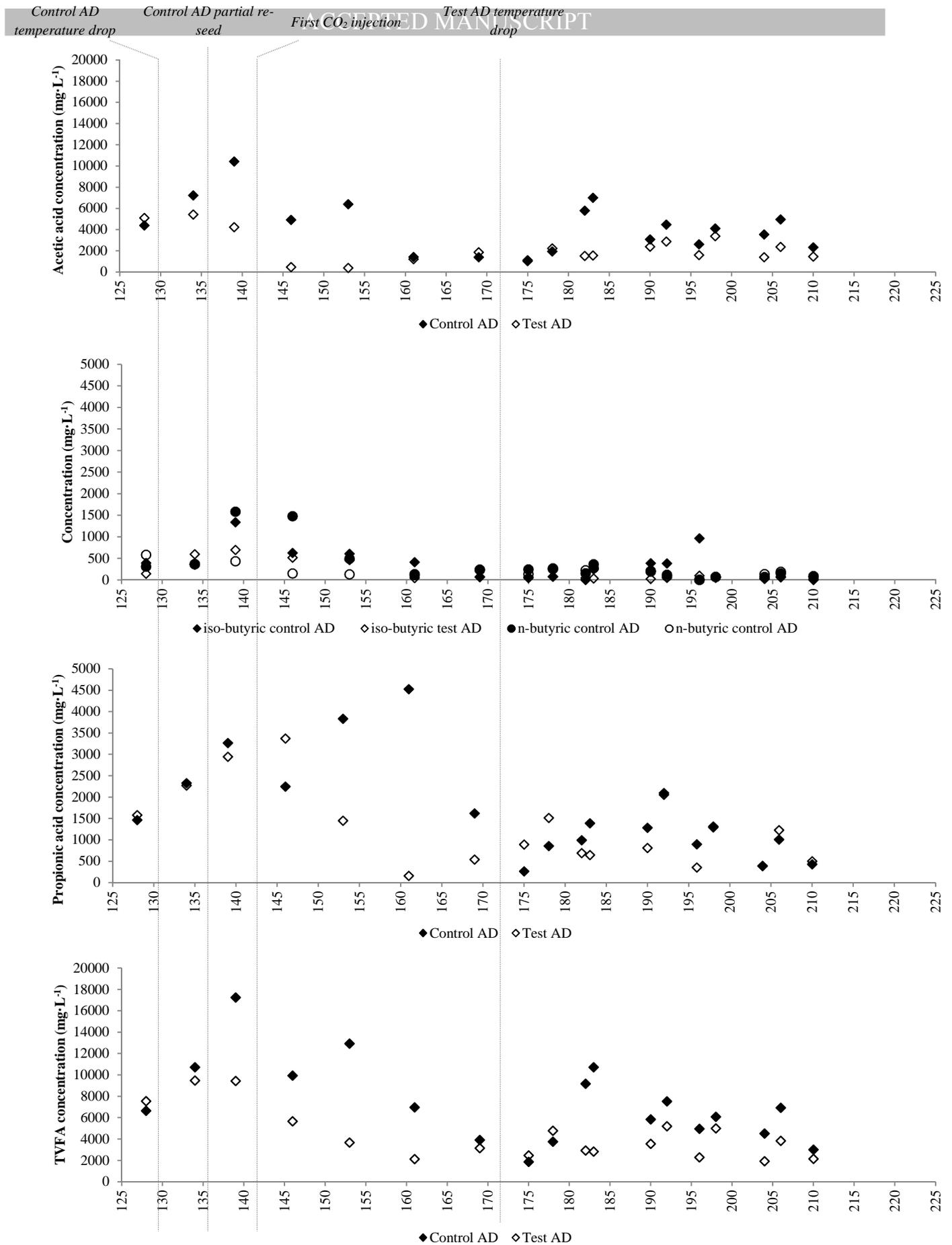


Fig. 3. Dynamics of total and individual VFA digestate concentrations for control and test ADs during the pilot scale digestion trials.

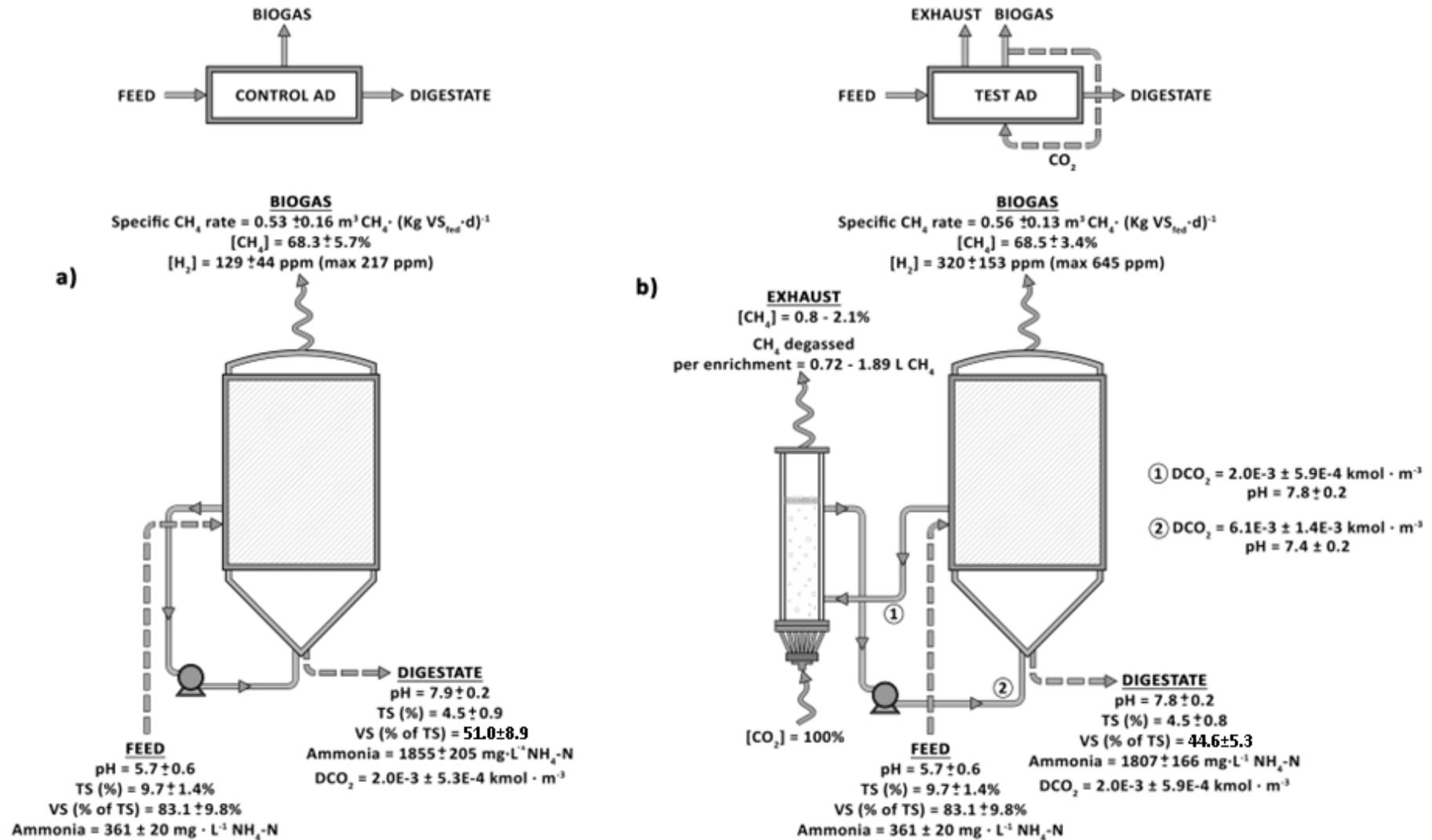


Fig. 4. Schematic summary of performance of (a) control and (b) test ADs in terms of digestate quality and biogas production. Recorded dissolved CO_2 concentrations are also included.

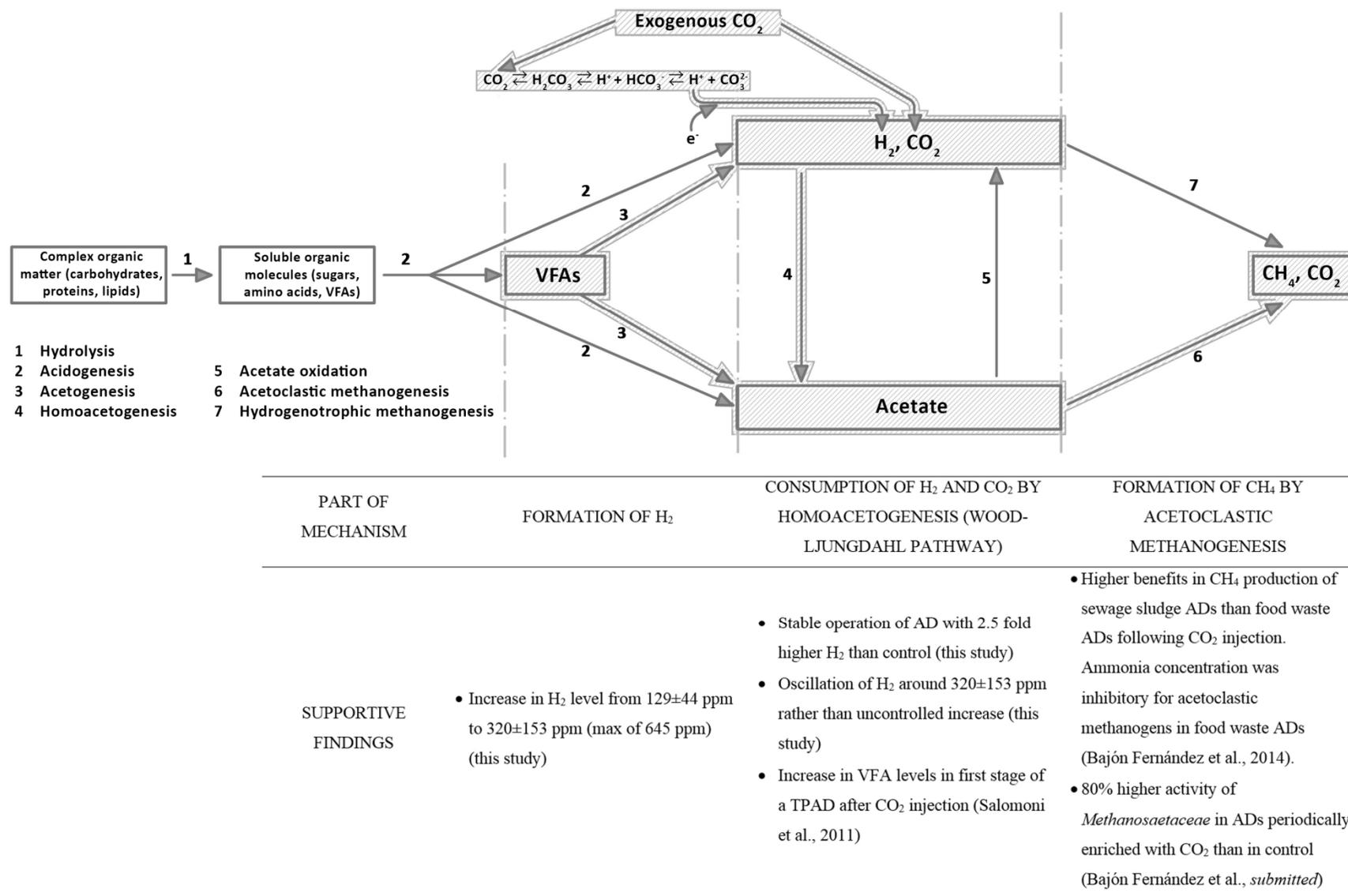


Fig. 5. Hypothesised mechanism of exogenous CO₂ utilisation in ADs, with findings supporting each of the proposed stages.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Utilisation of exogenous CO₂ in ADs was investigated
- A pilot-scale AD with CO₂ injection treating food waste operated for the first time
- Injection of CO₂ with a bubble column achieved without diluting the AD's headspace
- Concentration of H₂ increased by 2.5 fold after four CO₂ injections
- A mechanism of CO₂ utilisation has been proposed