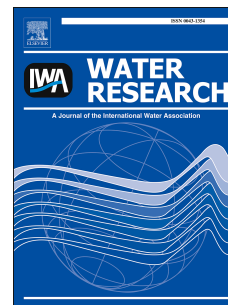


Accepted Manuscript

Effect of ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and alkali pre-treatments on waste activated sludge rheology, hygienization and methane potential

M. Ruiz-Hernando , J. Martín-Díaz , J. Labanda , J. Mata-Alvarez , J. Llorens , F. Lucena , S. Astals



PII: S0043-1354(14)00357-1

DOI: [10.1016/j.watres.2014.05.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2014.05.012)

Reference: WR 10666

To appear in: *Water Research*

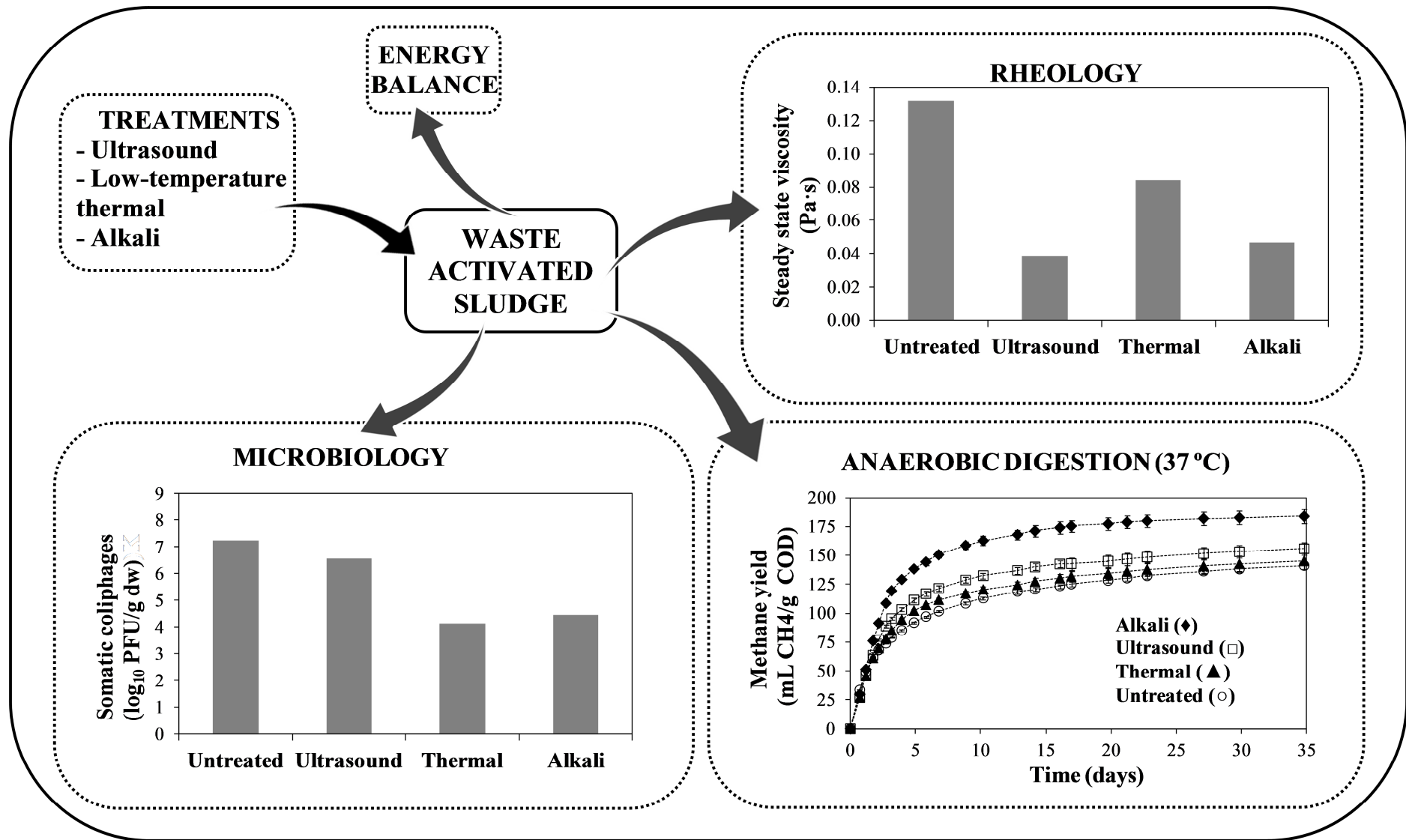
Received Date: 26 February 2014

Revised Date: 8 May 2014

Accepted Date: 11 May 2014

Please cite this article as: Ruiz-Hernando, M., Martín-Díaz, J., Labanda, J., Mata-Alvarez, J., Llorens, J., Lucena, F., Astals, S., Effect of ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and alkali pre-treatments on waste activated sludge rheology, hygienization and methane potential, *Water Research* (2014), doi: 10.1016/j.watres.2014.05.012.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.



1 **Effect of ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and alkali pre-**
2 **treatments on waste activated sludge rheology, hygienization**
3 **and methane potential**

4

5

6

7 **M. Ruiz-Hernando^a, J. Martín-Díaz^{b,c}, J. Labanda^{a,c}, J. Mata-Alvarez^{a,c}, J. Llorens^{a,c},**
8 **F. Lucena^{b,c}, S. Astals^{a,d}**

9

10 ^a Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Barcelona, C/ Martí i Franquès 1, 6th floor, 08028
11 Barcelona, Spain.

12

13 ^b Department of Microbiology, University of Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 645, 08028 Barcelona, Spain.

14

15 ^c The Water Research Institute, University of Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 684, 08034 Barcelona, Spain

16

17 ^d Advanced Water Management Centre, The University of Queensland, St Lucia, QLD 4072, Australia.

18

19

20

21 ABSTRACT

22 Waste activated sludge is slower to biodegrade under anaerobic conditions than is primary
23 sludge due to the glycan strands present in microbial cell walls. The use of pre-treatments
24 may help to disrupt cell membranes and improve waste activated sludge biodegradability.
25 In the present study, the effect of ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and alkali pre-
26 treatments on the rheology, hygienization and biodegradability of waste activated sludge
27 was evaluated. The optimum condition of each pre-treatment was selected based on
28 rheological criteria (reduction of steady state viscosity) and hygienization levels (reduction
29 of *Escherichia coli*, somatic coliphages and spores of sulfite-reducing clostridia). The three
30 pre-treatments were able to reduce the viscosity of the sludge, and this reduction was
31 greater with increasing treatment intensity. However, only the alkali and thermal
32 conditioning allowed the hygienization of the sludge, whereas the ultrasonication did not
33 exhibit any notorious effect on microbial indicators populations. The selected optimum
34 conditions were as follows: 27,000 kJ/kg TS for the ultrasound, 80 °C during 15 min for the
35 thermal and 157 g NaOH/kg TS for the alkali. Afterward, the specific methane production
36 was evaluated through biomethane potential tests at the specified optimum conditions. The
37 alkali pre-treatment exhibited the greatest methane production increase (34%) followed by
38 the ultrasonication (13%), whereas the thermal pre-treatment presented a methane potential
39 similar to the untreated sludge. Finally, an assessment of the different treatment scenarios
40 was conducted considering the results together with an energy balance, which revealed that
41 the ultrasound and alkali treatments entailed higher costs.

42

43 Keywords

44 Waste activated sludge; Anaerobic digestion; Pre-treatment, Rheology; Hygienization;
45 Post-treatment

46 **1. Introduction**

47

48 Mesophilic anaerobic digestion (AD) of sewage sludge, which is a mixture of primary and
49 waste activated sludge (WAS), is a commercial reality, due to the high biodegradability of
50 primary sludge. However, WAS, which is primarily formed by microorganisms, is more
51 difficult to degrade through AD due to the glycan strands present in the microbial cell walls
52 (Appels et al., 2008). Accordingly, numerous disintegration methods (e.g., ultrasound,
53 thermal or alkali) have been employed for pre-treatment under the assumption that these
54 methods are capable of disrupting cell walls and therefore to release the intracellular
55 organic material into the liquid phase (Appels et al., 2008; Farno et al., 2014). The
56 hydrolysis produced by ultrasound conditioning is due to the generation of cavitation gas-
57 bubbles (Tiehm et al., 2001), which grow to a critical size and violently collapse, producing
58 significant hydro-shear strength, intense local heating and high pressures in the mass of the
59 liquid surrounding the bubbles (Bougrier et al., 2006). Additionally, cavitation generates
60 free radicals that contribute to cell wall disruption (Foladori et al., 2007). Thermal pre-
61 treatment has also been used to facilitate the digestion of WAS to methane because it
62 results in the breakdown of the gel structure of the sludge and the subsequent release of the
63 intracellular organic matter (Neyens and Baeyens, 2003). Alkali pre-treatment is also
64 considered an appropriate method for enhancing the biodegradation of complex organic
65 matter (Lopez-Torres and Espinosa-Lloréns, 2008). The basis of this pre-treatment is that
66 the alkali added to the sludge reacts with the cell walls in several ways, including a
67 saponification of the lipids in the cell walls, which causes the disruption of the microbial
68 cells (Neyens et al., 2003).

69 These pre-treatments may also have effects on sludge hygienization and therefore could
70 be used as both pre-treatment and post-treatment, depending on the requirements of the
71 wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). It is well-known that temperature (Mocé-Llivina et
72 al., 2003; Ziembra and Peccia, 2011; Astals et al., 2012a) and alkali compounds (Allievi et
73 al., 1994; Bujockzek et al., 2002) are capable in reducing the pathogen load of the sludge.
74 In contrast, the effect of the ultrasonication is difficult to predict due to the complexity and
75 several factors involving this treatment (Pilli et al., 2011). However, it has been reported
76 that conventional bacterial indicators may not provide a precise indication of the fate of
77 viruses and protozoa during sludge treatments because such pathogens survive the
78 environmental stresses more successfully than the conventional indicators (Lucena et al.,
79 1988; Payment and Franco, 1993). Therefore, the availability of new microorganisms able
80 to overcome the limitations of conventional indicators is of major importance. Spores of
81 sulfite-reducing clostridia (SSRC) have been proposed as alternative indicators of
82 protozoan oocysts in water treatment (Payment and Franco, 1993) while bacteriophages of
83 enteric bacteria (as somatic coliphages; SOMCPH) have been proposed as surrogates of
84 waterborne viruses in water quality control processes (IAWPRC, 1991).

85 The aforementioned pre-treatments may also play an important role on WAS viscosity
86 and filterability (Bougrier et al., 2006; Pham et al., 2010; Ruiz-Hernando et al., 2013).
87 Accordingly, a proper understanding of the rheology, which is the discipline that addresses
88 the deformation of fluids, is essential to control sludge treatment processes. WAS is
89 considered a non-Newtonian fluid behaving as a pseudo-plastic fluid (Seysiecq et al.,
90 2007), which means that the viscosity decreases with the applied shear rate. The Ostwald-
91 de Waele model is commonly used to represent the non-Newtonian behavior of sludge,
92 most likely due to its simplicity and good fitting (Bougrier et al., 2006; Ratkovich et al.,

93 2013). Other models, such as the Herschel-Bulkley model, the Bingham model or the
94 Casson model are also valid (Estiaghi et al., 2013; Ratkovich et al., 2013). In
95 contradistinction to the Ostwald–de Waele equation, these models are characterized by the
96 presence of yield stress, below which the sample to analyze is not flowing. However, one
97 fundamental problem with the concept of yield stress is the difficulty in determining the
98 true yield stress (Labanda et al., 2007) because its determination is not univocal and can
99 vary over a wide range depending on the equation used.

100 The aim of the present study is to compare the effect of ultrasound, low-temperature
101 thermal and alkali pre-treatments on WAS rheology, hygienization and methane potential,
102 in order to provide an overall view of feasible scenarios for WAS management. First,
103 preliminary assays were conducted to obtain the optimum condition of each pre-treatment
104 based on rheology (i.e., the reduction of steady state viscosity) and hygienization (i.e., the
105 reduction of *E. coli*, SOMCPH and SSRC). Next, biomethane potential tests and the
106 hygienization of the digested sludge were analyzed under the optimum conditions. The
107 untreated digested sludge, obtained after 35 days of anaerobic digestion, was post-treated at
108 the same optimum conditions applied to the pre-treatments. Finally, the economic
109 feasibility of each treatment was conducted, and the various scenarios for sludge
110 management were discussed.

111

112 2. Materials and Methods

113

114 2.1. Waste activated sludge and inoculum origin

115

116 The WAS and inoculum (i.e., digested sludge) samples used in this study were collected
117 from a municipal WWTP in the Barcelona metropolitan area (Spain). At the WWTP, the

118 WAS was thickened by centrifugation after leaving the secondary tank. The WAS samples
119 were collected weekly to guarantee the reliability of the microbiological tests. Samples
120 were stored below 4 °C until their utilization.

121

122 **2.2. Pre-treatments conditions**

123

124 The pre-treatments studied in this research were ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and
125 alkali. The ultrasonic apparatus used was an HD2070 Sonopuls Ultrasonic Homogenizer
126 equipped with a MS 73 titanium microtip probe (Bandelin, Berlin, Germany; 20 kHz). The
127 beaker containing the samples was submerged in an ice bath to prevent increases of sludge
128 temperature due to the thermal effect of the cavitation phenomenon. The ultrasonic waves
129 were applied at constant power and different application times to provide different specific
130 energies (E_s): 5,000, 11,000 and 27,000 kJ/kg total solids (TS). The thermal pre-treatment
131 was performed in a heating bath (Huber Polystat CC2) at two fixed temperatures, 70 and 80
132 °C. The exposure times were 10, 20 and 30 min at 70 °C, and 10, 15 and 30 min at 80 °C.
133 The time required to reach both temperatures were 10 min and was included in the
134 exposure time, i.e., the exposure time of 15 min corresponds to 10 min heating ramp up + 5
135 min heating at 80 °C. The reagent used for alkali conditioning was NaOH because it is
136 cheaper and more efficient for sludge disintegration than KOH or $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ (Li et al., 2008;
137 Uma-Rani et al., 2012). The alkali pre-treatment was conducted at room temperature
138 (approximately 25 °C) by adding different doses of NaOH and a contact time of 24 h.
139 Samples were subsequently neutralized with $\text{HCl}_{35\%}$ to reach a pH range of 6.5 to 7.5. The
140 concentrations studied were 35.3, 70.6 and 157 g NaOH/kg TS. The effect of dilution due
141 to the reagents was corrected by adding deionized water to the alkali-treated sludge samples

142 in order to maintain a constant volume. The increase in salinity due to the alkali addition
143 was not corrected.

144 The effect of the optimum condition of each pre-treatment on WAS solubilization
145 was determined by: (i) the soluble chemical oxygen demand (sCOD) to total chemical
146 oxygen demand (tCOD) percentage ratio ($sCOD/tCOD \times 100$) and (ii) the COD
147 solubilization degree (SD) (Eq. 1; Table 1).

$$SD (\%) = \frac{sCOD_f - sCOD_0}{tCOD_0 - sCOD_0} \cdot 100 \quad (1)$$

148

149 where $sCOD_f$ is the soluble COD after the pre-treatment, $sCOD_0$ is the soluble COD before
150 the pre-treatment and $tCOD_0$ is the total COD before the pre-treatment.

151

152 **2.3. Microbiological tests**

153

154 The occurrence and levels of two bacterial indicators (*E. coli* and SSRC) and one viral
155 indicator (SOMCPH) were controlled in this research, by evaluating their indigenous
156 populations in the sludge during the different treatment processes.

157

158 **2.3.1. Bacterial enumeration**

159

160 5 to 10 g of sludge were mixed in a 1:10 (W/V) ratio with phosphate buffered saline (PBS)
161 solution at pH 7.2, homogenized with a wrist action shaker at 900 osc/min for 30 min at
162 room temperature and centrifuged at 300 g for 3 min at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant was
163 utilized for analyzing both the *E. coli* and the SSRC present in the sample. For this purpose,
164 serial dilutions were made. *E. coli* was tested by the pour plate procedure on Chromocult
165 agar (Merck, Germany) supplemented with *E. coli*/coliforms-Selective Supplement (Merck,

166 Germany). Plates were incubated at 44 °C overnight (O/N), and dark-blue/purple *E. coli*
167 colonies were counted. For the SSRC present in the sample, the supernatant and dilutions
168 were subjected to a thermal shock of 80 °C for 10 min. Then, the samples were
169 anaerobically cultured by mass inoculation in *Clostridium perfringens* selective agar
170 (Scharlab, Spain) and finally incubated at 44° C O/N. The typical black spherical colonies
171 with black halos were counted as SSRC. The analyses were performed in duplicate.

172

173 **2.3.2. Bacteriophages enumeration**

174

175 SOMCPH were extracted from sludge as described by Guzmán et al. (2007). Briefly, 5 to
176 10 g of the sludge sample was mixed in a 1:10 (W/V) ratio with a solution (pH 7.2)
177 containing 10% beef extract powder (Becton Dickinson, France) and homogenized with a
178 wrist action shaker at 900 osc/min for 30 min at room temperature. Next, the sample was
179 centrifuged at 4,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 µm
180 pore size polyethersulfone non-protein binding membrane filter (Millipore, USA). The
181 permeate was analyzed for the presence of SOMCPH as indicated in the ISO 10705-2
182 standard (Anonymous, 2000). The analyses were performed in duplicate.

183

184 **2.4. Rheological study**

185

186 The rheometer used was a Haake RS300 control stress rheometer equipped with HAAKE
187 Rheowin Software. The geometry used was a 4° cone and a flat stationary 35 mm-diameter
188 plate. Measurements were conducted at 22.0 ± 0.1 °C. The rheological behavior of the
189 sludge under flow conditions was analyzed by shear rate step test, which consisted of
190 shearing the sludge at a fixed shear rate for 15 minutes, time enough to reach the steady-

191 state value (equilibrium value). The applied shear rates were: 5, 30, 125 and 300 s⁻¹.
192 Steady-state shear stress, τ_e (Pa), was determined following a first-order kinetic equation
193 with the shear rate step test (Ruiz-Hernando et al., 2010). The experimental shear stresses
194 were fitted to the Ostwald–de Waele equation:

$$195 \quad \tau_e = K\dot{\gamma}^n \quad (2)$$

196 where $\dot{\gamma}$ is the shear rate (s⁻¹), K is the consistency index (Pa·sⁿ) and n is the power law
197 index (-).

198 Finally, the steady state viscosity was determined following Newton's equation ($\eta_e = \frac{\tau_e}{\dot{\gamma}}$).

199

200 **2.5. Chemical analytical methods**

201

202 Analyses of the total fraction were performed directly on the samples or dilutions. For
203 analyses of the soluble fraction, the samples were centrifuged at 1,252 g for 10 minutes and
204 the supernatant was filtered through a regenerated cellulose 0.45 μm filter (CHM[®]
205 SRC045025Q). TS, volatile solids (VS), tCOD and sCOD were determined following the
206 guidelines given by the standard methods 2540G and 5220D (APHA, 2005). The losses of
207 volatile fatty acids (VFA) compounds during the solids determination were taken into
208 account and combined to give the final TS and VS values (Astals et al., 2012a). The pH
209 was measured with a Crison 5014T pH probe. Individual VFA (acetate, propionate,
210 butyrate and valerate) were analyzed by an HP 5890-Series II chromatograph equipped
211 with a capillary column (Nukol[™]) and a flame ionization detector (Astals et al., 2012b).
212 The ionic profiles were determined in an 863 Advanced Compact IC Metrohm ionic
213 chromatographer using Metrosep columns.

214

2.6. Biomethane potential tests

215
216
217 Biomethane potential (BMP) tests were carried out at mesophilic temperature conditions
218 following the stages defined by Angelidaki et al. (2009). The BMP tests were performed in
219 115 mL serum bottles, closed with a PTFE/butyl septum, which was fixed by an aluminum
220 crimp cap. The bottles were filled in with 60 mL of inoculum and 13 mL of WAS sample
221 (untreated or treated), which met an inoculum to substrate ratio of 2 in VS-basis
222 considering the untreated WAS VS value. A control blank with only inoculum was
223 measured to determine the background effect of the inoculum. Before sealing the bottles,
224 all digesters were flushed with nitrogen for one minute (3 L/min). Finally, digesters were
225 placed in a water bath at 37 ± 1 °C. The bottles were manually mixed by swirling twice
226 daily. All samples were tested in triplicate.

227 The biogas production during the running test was measured by using a vacuumeter
228 (Ebro – VAM 320) after discarding the overpressure generated during the first hour. The
229 methane content of the biogas accumulated in the bottle headspace was analyzed at each
230 sampling event by a Shimadzu GC-2010+ gas chromatograph equipped with a capillary
231 column (Carboxen[®]-1010 PLOT) and a thermal conductivity detector. Finally, methane
232 production over time was obtained by multiplying the biogas production, subtracting the
233 vapor pressure and converted to standard temperature and pressure conditions (i.e.,
234 converted to 0 °C and 1 atm) by the percentage of methane in the biogas.

2.7. Model implementation and data analysis

235
236
237
238 Mathematical analysis of the BMPs was based on the IWA Anaerobic Digestion Model No.
239 1 (ADM1; Batstone et al., 2002). WAS degradation was modeled using first-order kinetics

240 because the hydrolysis step is considered the rate-limiting step during WAS degradation
241 (Appels et al., 2008) (Eq. 3).

$$r_{\text{was}} = f_{\text{was}} \cdot k_{\text{hyd, was}} \cdot X_{\text{was}} \quad (3)$$

242

243 where r_{was} is the process rate (mL CH₄/L·day), f_{was} is the substrate biodegradability (-), $k_{\text{hyd, was}}$,
244 was is the first order hydrolysis rate constant of the WAS (day⁻¹), and X_{was} is the WAS
245 concentration (g COD/L).

246 The model was implemented in Aquasim 2.1d. Parameter estimation and uncertainty
247 analysis were simultaneously estimated, with a 95% confidence limit, as was the case for
248 Batstone et al. (2003 and 2009). Uncertainty parameters (f_{was} and $k_{\text{hyd, was}}$) were estimated
249 based on a one-tailed t-test with standard error around the optimum, and non-linear
250 confidence regions were also tested to confirm that the linear estimate was representative of
251 true confidence (Jensen et al., 2011). The objective function was the sum of squared errors
252 (χ^2) of averaged data from triplicate experiments.

253

254 3. Results and Discussion

255

256 3.1. Effect of the pre-treatments on the hygienization and rheological profile of the 257 WAS

258

259 An initial set of assays was carried out to determine appropriate conditions of each
260 treatment for further biomethanization studies. This selection was performed based on the
261 hygienization and rheological characterization of sludge. Different microbiological results
262 were obtained with the three pre-treatments conducted (Fig. 1). For the ultrasound, small

263 changes in the levels of microbial indicators were found, even at the highest E_s applied
264 (27,000 kJ/kg TS). Thus, the ultrasonication conditions tested in this research were not
265 effective enough to achieve hygienization. Because the effect of temperature was nullified
266 by the ice bath, the disinfection mechanism was exclusively related to cell wall disruption
267 due to cavitation, a phenomenon that is influenced by several factors (Pilli et al., 2011).
268 According to Foladori et al. (2007) and Cui et al. (2011), ultrasonication appeared to have
269 two effects: a first step, in which the sludge flocs were dissipated, and the microbial cells
270 attached to the solids were released; and a second step, in which the walls of the exposed
271 cells were disrupted. Thus, it is conceivable that the specific energies applied were effective
272 enough to dissipate sludge flocs but not for killing bacteria and spores or for inactivating
273 bacteriophages. However, to confirm this, more research is required. For thermal
274 treatments, better results were obtained at 80 °C compared with 70 °C (data not shown for
275 70 °C). At 80 °C, the three microbial indicators behaved differently: there was a slight
276 reduction for SSRC (0.84 \log_{10} of reduction), approximately 5 \log_{10} of reduction for
277 SOMCPH and a very high grade of hygienization for *E. coli* ($> 4.01 \log_{10}$ of reduction). In
278 fact, after 15 min, the *E. coli* population significantly dropped below the detection limit of
279 the technique (2.02 \log_{10} CFU/g dw or 4.00 CFU/g ww), satisfying normal levels accepted
280 by the EPA (US Environmental Protection Agency, 2003) and the 3rd official draft from the
281 EU (Environment DG, EU, 2000) for land application of the biosolids. These behaviors are
282 similar to those described by Mocé-Llivina et al. (2003), showing a great sensitivity of *E.*
283 *coli*, a moderate sensitivity of SOMCPH and a good resistance of SSRC toward thermal
284 treatment. In this context, the use of the three microbial indicators may offer a complete
285 interpretation of the effect of thermal treatments on the microbial population of the WAS.
286 For alkali pre-treatment, the disinfecting effect of high pH was previously confirmed

287 (Allievi et al. 1994; Bujoczek et al. 2002). In the present work, a similar pattern of
288 inactivation in the three indicators was found after alkali treatment. The highest
289 concentration of NaOH (157 g/kg TS) exhibited an extreme pH (approximately 12) during
290 the 24 h treatment and was lethal for all three microorganisms. Therefore, the required
291 hygienization levels for *E. coli* were accomplished, with a value of 3.20 log₁₀ CFU/g dw
292 (95.6 CFU/g ww) for a reduction of 2.57 log₁₀. Likewise, SOMCPH and SSRC levels were
293 reduced by 2.79 and 1.72 log₁₀, respectively. Unexpectedly, increases in SSRC and *E. coli*
294 levels (1.04 log₁₀ and 0.87 log₁₀, respectively) were observed with the application of 35.3 g
295 NaOH/kg TS. This reproducible result is not described in this study and is currently being
296 investigated. It is important to note that bacteria could experience multiple physiological
297 states; this fact may prevent the measurement of actual concentrations. In contrast, viruses
298 can only be infective or not infective, simplifying their use as indicators. Additionally, the
299 levels of the three parameters as a mean of 8 replicates were calculated for the untreated
300 WAS: 5.99 log₁₀ CFU/g dw of *E. coli* (s=0.22); 7.02 log₁₀ PFU/g dw of SOMCPH
301 (s=0.34); and 6.07 log₁₀ CFU/g dw of SSRC (s=0.16).

302 For rheological characterizations, all pre-treatments were conducted on the same WAS
303 sample (45.9 ± 0.2 g TS/L) because rheological properties of sludge are highly conditioned
304 by the TS content (Pollice et al., 2006; Laera, et al., 2007). All of the analyzed WAS
305 samples (untreated and treated) exhibited pseudoplastic behavior. Fig. 2 shows the
306 evolution of the steady state shear stress as a function of shear rate for the untreated and
307 three treated sludges, together with their respective fittings to the Ostwald-de Waele model
308 (Eq. 2). The good fit of the experimental data showed the capability of the model to
309 reproduce the pseudoplastic response of the WAS. Fig. 3 shows variations in the steady
310 state viscosity when increasing treatment intensities at a shear rate of 300 s⁻¹. The steady

311 state viscosity was significantly reduced with the treatments because the treatments
312 changed the overall sludge properties, including the composition, structure, strength and
313 size of the sludge flocs (Neyens and Baeyens, 2003; Bougrier et al., 2006; Pham et al.,
314 2010; Ruiz-Hernando et al., 2013; Farno et al., 2014). The greatest reduction of the steady
315 state viscosity was observed (71% reduction) after ultrasonication at an E_S of 27,000 kJ/kg
316 TS. Thermal treatment is known to degrade cell wall membranes due to pressure difference,
317 resulting in a lower viscosity and in an improvement of the filterability (Bougrier et al.,
318 2008). However, for the thermal conditions evaluated in this study (80 °C for 10, 15 and 30
319 min) the reduction of the steady state viscosity was lower than after ultrasonication, likely
320 due to the shorter heating exposure times. Additionally, no significant differences in
321 viscosity reduction were observed between the three heating exposure times. To be specific,
322 after a contact time of 10 min, the steady state viscosity was reduced by 35%, which was
323 not significantly different from that of the exposure times of 15 (36%) and 30 min (38%).
324 For low doses of NaOH, the alkali treatment exhibited the lowest reduction of the steady
325 state viscosity (33%), whereas at higher doses the reduction was greater (65%).

326 The selection of the optimum condition of each treatment is detailed below. Because no
327 ultrasonication condition resulted in a noticeable reduction of microbial indicators, the
328 optimum condition for this treatment responded exclusively to rheological criteria.
329 Accordingly, an optimum E_S of 27,000 kJ/kg TS was selected because it displayed the
330 maximum reduction in viscosity. The optimum condition for the low-temperature thermal
331 treatment was 80 °C for 15 min because it resulted in sludge hygienization. Moreover, very
332 little difference in viscosity reduction was detected between 15 and 30 min of heating
333 exposure time at 80 °C. For alkali treatments, the optimum condition selected was 157 g
334 NaOH/kg TS (252 meq/L; pH 12.4) because it allowed the hygienization of the sludge and

335 noticeably reduced the viscosity. The optimum conditions are abbreviated as US-WAS
336 (ultrasonicated WAS), T-WAS (low-temperature thermally treated WAS) and NaOH-WAS
337 (alkali-treated WAS).

338

339 **3.2. Biomethane potential tests**

340

341 To determine the effect of the pre-treated WAS on AD, the previously determined optimum
342 conditions for each pre-treatment and the untreated WAS were analyzed by
343 physicochemical characterization (Table 1) and biomethane potential tests (Fig. 4a). As
344 shown by the sCOD/tCOD ratio and the SD (Table 1), all pre-treatments were able to
345 solubilize particulate organic matter from the WAS. Specifically, ultrasound and low-
346 temperature thermal pre-treatments presented similar efficiencies (approximately 11%)
347 which were lower than the efficiency obtained by the alkali pre-treatment (approximately
348 15%). Nevertheless, the alkali pre-treatment presented a loss of 5 g COD/L due to organic
349 matter mineralization, a phenomenon not detected in the ultrasound and low-temperature
350 thermal pre-treatments. The SD obtained by ultrasound pre-treatment is in agreement with
351 that reported by Kim et al. (2013a) when dosing at a similar E_S (approximately 25,000
352 kJ/kg TS) but is lower than that reported by Bougrier et al. (2006), who used a lower E_S
353 (6,250 and 9,350 kJ/kg TS) and reached an SD of $15 \pm 3\%$. The differences between the SD
354 values may be related to the pre-treatment performance (e.g., no cooling during
355 ultrasonication) and the sludge TS concentration (Carrère et al., 2010). Regarding the low-
356 temperature thermal pre-treatment, the SD reached in the present study is lower than that
357 reported by Kim et al. (2013b), likely due to the lower exposure time. The authors reported
358 an SD of 23 and 27% when pre-treating WAS for 6 h at 60 and 75 °C, respectively. The SD

359 achieved through alkali pre-treatment was significantly lower than the values found in the
360 literature, where an SD of approximately 30% was reported for WAS pre-treated with alkali
361 at pH 12 and room temperature. Specifically, 1 h after dosing with 65 meq KOH/L (at a
362 sample pH 12), Valo et al. (2004), recorded an SD of 31%. This value is similar to the
363 result reported in Navia et al. (2002), in which an observed SD of 32% was obtained after
364 dosing with 80 meq/L NaOH for 24 h (WAS from a kraft mill). Similarly, Jiang et al.
365 (2010), evaluated the effect of the treatment time and pH on WAS solubilization. At pH 12,
366 the authors recorded increases of the SD of 21 and 33% after 0.5 h and 24 h, respectively,
367 of pre-treatment time.

368 Although the optimum pre-treatment conditions, in terms of methane production, may
369 be those that present a high COD solubilization and low organic matter mineralization,
370 increased solubilization does not always lead to an enhanced methane potential (Kim et al.,
371 2013a). Therefore, BMP tests are needed to assess the effect of the pre-treatments on AD.
372 The effect of the pre-treatments on methane production was evaluated through the
373 modeling of the BMP tests (Fig. 4b). The 95% confidence region for biodegradability (x-
374 axis) and apparent hydrolysis rate (y-axis) indicated that each pre-treatment had a different
375 effect on WAS biodegradability. T-WAS (0.38 ± 0.1) presented similar biodegradability as
376 WAS (0.37 ± 0.3), whereas US-WAS (0.42 ± 0.2) and NaOH-WAS (0.49 ± 0.1) presented
377 increases of 13% and 34%, respectively, on WAS biodegradability and their final methane
378 potential. The low increase of WAS biodegradability after pre-treatment, when compared
379 with the literature, may be related to the selection of the pre-treatment conditions. In the
380 present study, the strength and exposure time of each pre-treatment was based on
381 rheological and hygienization criteria, rather than on the increase of the methane yield. For
382 instance, through low-temperature thermal pre-treatments (60-80 °C), increases of the

383 biogas production by 20-40% have been reported when pre-treating WAS over 0.5 to 1.5 h
384 (Hiraoka et al., 1984; Li and Noike, 1992; Wang et al., 1997). Likewise, increases of the
385 biogas production between 40 and 50% have been achieved through ultrasound pre-
386 treatment, even though lower E_s (5,000-9,350 kJ/kg TS) were applied (Bougrier et al.,
387 2006; Braguglia et al., 2008). This may be related to the TS concentration (64.2 ± 0.2 g/L)
388 and viscosity of the WAS because increased viscosity (linked to a higher TS concentration)
389 hinders the formation of cavitation bubbles (Carrère et al., 2010). Moreover, in the present
390 study, the WAS sample was cooled down during ultrasonication, thereby avoiding the
391 thermal effect. The literature is less consistent regarding the effect of alkali pre-treatment
392 on the biogas potential at room temperature. Penaud et al. (1999) demonstrated an increase
393 in biodegradability by approximately 40% after adding 125 meq NaOH/L. In contrast, Valo
394 et al. (2004), reached a pH of 12 after adding 65 meq KOH/L, but did not observe any
395 significant improvement on WAS biodegradability.

396 Similar SDs, but different biodegradabilities, reached by T-WAS and US-WAS showed
397 that some parts of the cell wall were weakened but not solubilized during the pre-
398 treatments. However, because the pre-treatment conditions applied to the WAS did not
399 affect the hydrolysis rate, it can be understood that most of the methane production still
400 came from the particulate organic matter (Fig. 4b). Finally, a possible inhibitory effect due
401 to a high sodium concentration (3.6 g Na^+ /L) on NaOH-WAS digestion, which is reported
402 within the moderate inhibition sodium concentrations for mesophilic methanogens (Chen et
403 al., 2008), may have been masked by the dilution effect (approximately 1/4) of the inoculum.

404

405 **3.3. Hygienization effect of the mesophilic anaerobic digestion aided by pre- and**
406 **post-treatments**

407

408 Although AD has been designed for increasing biogas production and solids destruction, it
409 also plays a role in pathogen inactivation (Ziemba and Peccia, 2011), and pre-treatment
410 optimization may help in this purpose. The occurrence of indicators after the BMP tests in
411 the pre-treated sludges is shown in Fig. 5. It is worth remembering that, in order to perform
412 the BMP tests, the untreated and the pre-treated WAS were mixed with digested sludge and
413 therefore the microbiological tests were made on these mixtures. For *E. coli*, the reductions
414 achieved by the entire processes (i.e., pre-treatments + mesophilic AD) provided results
415 below the detection limit of the technique ($< 2.02 \log_{10}$ CFU/g dw or < 4.00 CFU/g ww),
416 successfully overcoming the levels of hygienization established by the EPA and EU.
417 Specifically, for ultrasound pre-treatment, *E. coli* reduction was due to the single effect of
418 the AD because this pre-treatment did not sanitize the sludge (relevant data corresponding
419 to the single effect of AD are shown in Fig. 6). For the SOMCPH, the three configurations
420 generated similar results: 2.32, 2.45 and 2.47 \log_{10} reductions for ultrasound, low-
421 temperature thermal and alkali, respectively. Finally, as was observed in the preliminary
422 assays (section 3.1), unexpected results for SSRC were found after digestion of the
423 ultrasonicated and alkali pre-treated sludge, resulting in an increase of 1.62 \log_{10} and 1.80
424 \log_{10} , respectively. However, SSRC did not experience similar changes with the low-
425 temperature thermal pre-treatment. As for preliminary assays, this increase in the SSRC
426 concentration after AD is currently being investigated. From the three configurations
427 studied in this section, the thermal pre-treatment followed by mesophilic AD seems to be
428 the best option in terms of hygienization.

429 The effectiveness of post-treatments in the sanitation of digested sludge has been
430 thoroughly studied in the literature (Allievi et al., 1994; Bujoczek et al., 2002; Astals et al.,

431 2012a). The microbiological results for the three post-treatments applied after mesophilic
432 AD are displayed in Fig. 6. The digestion was sufficient to meet the *E. coli* requirements
433 established by the normative, reaching reductions of more than 3.78 log₁₀. These results
434 were below the detection limit of the technique, making impossible to evaluate the *E. coli*
435 reductions achieved by the assayed post-treatments. In contrast, the SSRC levels were not
436 changed due to the mesophilic AD or post-treatments. A single mesophilic AD reduced
437 SOMCPH levels by 1.88 log₁₀, and the combination of AD followed by the low-
438 temperature thermal and alkali post-treatments resulted in reductions of 3.42 log₁₀ and 2.56
439 log₁₀, respectively. However, no additional effect was observed with ultrasound post-
440 treatment with respect to a single AD. Taking into account that *E. coli* levels decayed
441 below detection limits and that SSRC levels remained unchanged, the level of SOMCPH
442 was the parameter that allowed the evaluation of the efficacy of post-treatments. Therefore,
443 as was the case for pre-treatments, the low-temperature thermal post-treatment seems to be
444 the best option for hygienization.

445

446 **3.4. Assessment of the feasibility of the treatments in a WWTP**

447

448 By considering an energy balance with the assessment of the different treatment scenarios
449 an estimate can be made to determine whether the energy (i.e., electricity and heat) required
450 by the pre-treatment can be recovered through the improved methane production. However,
451 these estimates rely exclusively on laboratory data; therefore, the results would not be
452 entirely conclusive for an operational WWTP. Moreover, it should be considered that the
453 heat balance is highly influenced by the solid concentration; therefore, a concentrated WAS
454 will lead to a better balance, while a diluted sludge will lead to a worse balance (Carrère et

455 al., 2012). The assessment is based on a novel WWTP approach, where the primary sludge
456 and WAS are digested separately to increase the opportunities to use digested WAS in
457 agriculture.

458 Ultrasound treatment (27,000 kJ/kg TS) was able to solubilize organic matter and
459 improve WAS specific methane production, but was not able to disinfect the WAS.
460 Therefore, the most reasonable configuration for ultrasonication would be to use it as a pre-
461 treatment prior to AD and composting or thermal post-treatment (if the digestate is intended
462 for use as fertilizer). The electricity balance of the ultrasound pre-treatment shows that an
463 increase in methane production (15 mL CH₄/g COD) results in an increased electrical
464 production of 240 kJ/kg TS, which is very low when compared to the supplied energy
465 (27,000 kJ/kg TS). Nevertheless, on an industrial scale, this difference would be lower due
466 to the higher efficiency of commercial ultrasonic devices.

467 Low-temperature pre-treatments (< 100 °C) are characterized by a low energy demand,
468 which may be supplied by a combined heat and power (CHP) unit fueled with biogas
469 (Passos et al., 2013). On the one hand, the heat required to increase the WAS from 15 to 80
470 °C were estimated to be 4.6 MJ/kg TS, assuming a WAS specific heat of 4.18 kJ/kg/°C, a
471 density of 1000 kg/m³, and 8% of the process heat losses (Astals et al., 2012a). On the other
472 hand, the heat produced by the CHP unit after burning the biogas was 3.6 MJ/kg TS, which
473 represents the energy required to increase the WAS temperature from 15 to approximately
474 65 °C. The value was obtained assuming a 35,800 kJ/kg TS methane caloric value and a
475 0.55 CHP unit yield for heat generation (Astals et al., 2012a; Passos et al., 2013). However,
476 if a 80 °C pre-treatment is required, it would be necessary to install a sludge-to-sludge heat
477 exchanger, where the pre-treatment effluent would be used to pre-heat WAS. The energy
478 recovered in the sludge exchanger should be at least the 23% of the heat contained by the

479 pre-treated WAS, which is below than the 80-85% efficiency reported for this type of unit
480 (Astals et al., 2012a; Carrère et al., 2012). As shown in the BMP tests, the low-temperature
481 thermal pre-treatment scarcely increased the biodegradability of the WAS, possibly due to
482 the shorter contact time. It is likely that a longer exposure time would result in an increase
483 of the methane production and induce an improvement of the energy balance (Li and
484 Noike, 1992). Nonetheless, a higher capital cost would be required due to the larger
485 digester volume. Additionally, both the thermal pre-treatment and the post-treatment were
486 successful in reducing the microbiological parameters. However, the pre-treatment does not
487 guarantee hygienization after the AD. Therefore, the configuration for this treatment seems
488 to depend on the final destination of the sludge: if the sludge is intended for agriculture, it
489 should undergo post-treatment to satisfactorily meet the current microbiological levels for
490 land application. If the sludge is not intended for agriculture, it may be appropriate to
491 perform a pre-treatment (the effect of the exposure time should be further investigated) to
492 enhance the AD.

493 Alkali conditioning (157 g NaOH/kg TS) has been successful in improving methane
494 production, and has reduced the levels of *E. coli* below the limits established by the EPA
495 and EU. However, as a pre-treatment, it unexpectedly increased the levels of SSRC after
496 AD and required neutralization prior to AD. In addition, it resulted in a negative economic
497 balance. The selling price of industrial NaOH and HCl are highly variable, but average at
498 300 and 200 €/ton, respectively (Solvay, 2013). Consequently, dosing 157 g NaOH/kg TS
499 and 218 g HCl_{35%}/kg TS for their subsequent neutralization requires 0.094 €/kg TS and
500 0.044 €/kg TS, respectively. The sum of the reagents cost (0.138 €/kg TS) was much larger
501 than the incomes generated through the extra methane production. Specifically, 43 mL
502 CH₄/g COD will represent an extra electricity production of 680 kJ/kg TS that, at a tariff of

503 0.10 €/kWh, will lead to a revenue of 0.019 €/kg TS Another drawback linked to alkali
504 pre-treatment is the rising sodium concentration in the digester, which can drive the AD
505 process to inhibition (Mouneimne et al., 2003; Carrère et al., 2012); therefore, the use of
506 NaOH as a pre-treatment is rather limited.

507 Finally, it is worthwhile to note that the treatments reduced the energy of pumping due
508 to the decrease on WAS viscosity. Specifically, ultrasound, thermal and alkali treatments
509 reduce the energy of pumping from 14 kJ/kg TS (no treatment) to 1.8, 6.0 and 2.5 kJ/kg TS,
510 which corresponds to a reduction of approximately 90, 60 and 80%, respectively. This
511 approach was obtained assuming a sludge flow velocity of 0.2 m/s, a pipeline length of 500
512 m and a pipeline internal diameter of 150 mm. These specifications are obtained from a
513 WWTP with a capacity of two million population equivalents (420,000 m³/day). Clearly,
514 the energy required for pumping the untreated sludge (14 kJ/kg TS) is considerably lower
515 than the cost of the discussed treatments. On the other hand, although it was not quantified,
516 it is conceivable that the decrease in viscosity improved the mixing in the digester and
517 allowed the realization of high solids AD, thus enhancing the final biogas production and
518 the energy balance.

519
520
521

522 **4. Conclusions**

523
524
525
526
527

Waste activated sludge was pre-treated and post-treated through ultrasound, low-
temperature thermal and alkali conditioning to provide an overall view of feasible scenarios
for waste activated sludge management. The selection of the optimum condition of each
pre-treatment was based on hygienization and rheological results. On the one hand, the

528 three treatments reduced the viscosity of the sludge, and this reduction was greater when
529 increasing the treatment intensity. On the other hand, the low-temperature thermal and
530 alkali treatments but not ultrasound treatment allowed the hygienization of the sludge. The
531 effects of the three optimum treatment conditions were compared in terms of the anaerobic
532 digestion improvements and hygienization. Ultrasound increased the sludge
533 biodegradability and the specific methane production (13%), but did not succeed in
534 hygienization, suggesting that the most appropriate configuration for ultrasonication is as a
535 pre-treatment before treatment in the anaerobic digester. The low-temperature thermal
536 treatment barely increased the sludge biodegradability, but allowed hygienization, which
537 suggests that it would be more suitable as a post-treatment. However, the use of longer
538 contact times would increase the chances for use as a pre-treatment. Alkali treatment
539 increased the methane production (34%) and was successful in hygienization because it
540 reduced the levels of *E. coli* below the limits established by the EPA and EU. However,
541 when used as a pre-treatment, it resulted in a high amount of sodium because of the high
542 concentrations of NaOH required, which may inhibit anaerobic digestion. The energy
543 balance revealed that under the tested conditions, the ultrasound and alkali treatments
544 required higher operating costs. Finally, it is noteworthy that SOMCPH was an appropriate
545 microbial indicator for evaluating the different sludge treatments and would be a suitable
546 candidate to complement *E. coli* measurements.

547

548

549

550

551

552

553 **Acknowledgments**

554

555 The research was carried out within the framework of the NOVEDAR Consolider-Ingenio
556 2010 Project (CSD2007-00055), the European Union (ROUTES-FP7-ENV-2010-265156)
557 and the Spanish Government (CTM2011-24897, CTQ2009-11465, CGL2011-25401, BES-
558 2012-054179).

559

560

561

562 **References**

563

564 Allievi, L., Colombi, A., Calcaterra, E., Ferrari, A., 1994. Inactivation of fecal bacteria in
565 sewage sludge by alkaline treatment. *Bioresource technology* 49, 25-30.

566 Angelidaki, I., Alves, M., Bolzonella, D., Borzacconi, L., Campos, J.L., Guwy, A.J.,
567 Kalyuzhnyi, S., Jenicek, P., Van Lier, J.B., 2009. Defining the biomethane potential
568 (BMP) of solid organic wastes and energy crops: a proposed protocol for batch assays.
569 *Water Science and Technology* 59, 927-934.

570 Anonymous, 2000. ISO 10705-2: Water Quality - Detection and Enumeration of
571 Bacteriophages - Part 2: Enumeration of Somatic Coliphages. International Organisation
572 for Standardisation, Geneva, Switzerland.

573 APHA. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater. 2005. Ed.
574 American Public Health Association, Washington. ISBN 978-0-87553-047-5.

575 Appels, L., Baeyens, J., Degrève, J., Dewil, R., 2008. Principles and potential of the
576 anaerobic digestion of waste-activated sludge. *Progress in Energy and Combustion*
577 *Science* 34, 755–781.

578 Astals, S., Nolla-Ardèvol, V., Mata-Alvarez, J., 2012b. Anaerobic co-digestion of pig
579 manure and crude glycerol at mesophilic conditions: Biogas and digestate. *Bioresource*
580 *Technology* 110, 63-70.

- 581 Astals, S., Venegas, C., Peces, M., Jofre, J., Lucena, F., Mata-Alvarez, J., 2012a. Balancing
582 hygienization and anaerobic digestion of raw sewage sludge. *Water Research* 46, 6218-
583 6227.
- 584 Batstone, D.J., Keller, J., Angelidaki, I., Kalyuzhnyi, S.V., Pavlostathis, S.G., Rozzi, A.,
585 Sanders, W.T., Siegrist, H., Vavilin, V.A., 2002. The IWA Anaerobic Digestion Model
586 No 1 (ADM1). *Water Science and Technology* 45, 65–73.
- 587 Batstone, D.J., Pind, P.F., Angelidaki, I., 2003. Kinetics of thermophilic, anaerobic
588 oxidation of straight and branched chain butyrate and valerate. *Biotechnology and*
589 *Bioengineering* 84, 195-204.
- 590 Batstone, D.J., Tait, S., Starrenburg, D., 2009. Estimation of hydrolysis parameters in full-
591 scale anaerobic digesters. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering* 102, 1513-1520.
- 592 Bougrier, C., Albasi, C., Delgenès, J.P., Carrère, H., 2006. Effect of ultrasonic, thermal and
593 ozone pre-treatments on waste activated sludge solubilisation and anaerobic
594 biodegradability. *Chemical Engineering and Processing* 45, 711–718.
- 595 Bougrier, C., Delgenes, J.P., Carrère, H., 2008. Effects of thermal treatments on five
596 different waste activated sludge. *Chemical Engineering Journal* 139, 236–244.
- 597 Braguglia, C.M., Mininni, G., Gianico, A. 2008. Is sonication effective to improve biogas
598 production and solids reduction in excess sludge digestion?. *Water Science and*
599 *Technology* 57 (4) , pp. 479-483.
- 600 Bujoczek, G., Oleszkiewicz, J.A., Danesh, S., Sparling, R.R., 2002. Co-processing of
601 organic fraction of municipal solid waste and primary sludge – Stabilization and
602 disinfection. *Environmental Technology* 23, 227-241.
- 603 Carrère, H., Dumas, C., Battimelli, A., Batstone, D.J., Delgenès, J.P., Steyer, J.P., Ferrer, I.
604 2010. Pretreatment methods to improve sludge anaerobic degradability: A review.
605 *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 183, 1-15.
- 606 Carrère, H., Rafrafi, Y., Battimelli, A., Torrijos, M., Delgenes, J.P., Motte, C. 2012.
607 Improving methane production during the codigestion of waste-activated sludge and
608 fatty wastewater: Impact of thermo-alkaline pretreatment on batch and semi-continuous
609 processes. *Chemical Engineering Journal* 210, 404-409
- 610 Chen, Y., Cheng, J.J., Creamer, K.S., 2008. Inhibition of anaerobic digestion process: A
611 review. *Bioresource Technology* 99, 4044–4064.

- 612 Cui, X., Talley, J.W., Liu, G., Larson, S.L., 2011. Effects of primary sludge particulate
613 (PSP) entrapment on ultrasonic (20 kHz) disinfection of *Escherichia coli*. *Water*
614 *Research* 45, 3300 – 3308.
- 615 Environment DG, EU, 2000. Working Document on Sludge, 3rd Official Draft. Brussels.
616 URL: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/waste/sludge/pdf/sludge_en.pdf.
- 617 Eshtiaghi, N., Markis, F., Yap, S.D., Baudez, J.C., Slatter, P., 2013. Rheological
618 characterisation of municipal sludge: A review. *Water Research* 47, 5493-5510.
- 619 Farno, E., Baudez, J.C., Parthasarathy, R., Eshtiaghi, N., 2014. Rheological characterisation
620 of thermally-treated anaerobic digested sludge: Impact of temperature and thermal
621 history. *Water Research* 56, 156-161
- 622 Foladori, P., Laura, B., Gianni, A., Giuliano, Z., 2007. Effects of sonication on bacteria
623 viability in wastewater treatment plants evaluated by flow cytometry - Fecal indicators,
624 wastewater and activated sludge. *Water Research* 41, 235 – 243.
- 625 Guzmán, C., Jofre, J., Blanch, A.R., Lucena, F., 2007. Development of a feasible method to
626 extract somatic coliphages from sludge, soil and treated biowaste. *Journal of Virological*
627 *Methods*, 144, 41–48.
- 628 Hiraoka, M., Takeda, N., Sakai, S., Yasuda, A. 1984. Highly efficient anaerobic digestion
629 with thermal pretreatment. *Water Science and Technology* 17, 529-539.
- 630 IAWPRC, 1991. Study group on health related water microbiology. Bacteriophages as
631 model viruses in water quality control. *Water Research* 25, 529-545.
- 632 Jensen, P.D., Ge, H., Batstone, D.J., 2011. Assessing the role of biochemical methane
633 potential tests in determining anaerobic degradability rate and extent. *Water Science and*
634 *Technology* 64, 880-886.
- 635 Jiang, J.Q., Zhao, Q.L., Wang, K., Wei, L.L., Zhang, G.D., Zhang, J.N. 2010. Effect of
636 ultrasonic and alkaline pretreatment on sludge degradation and electricity generation by
637 microbial fuel cell. *Water Science and Technology* 61, 2915-2921.
- 638 Kim, D.H., Cho, S.K., Lee, M.K., Kim, M.S., 2013a. Increased solubilization of excess
639 sludge does not always result in enhanced anaerobic digestion efficiency. *Bioresource*
640 *Technology* 143, 660–664.

- 641 Kim, J., Yu, Y., Lee, C. 2013b. Thermo-alkaline pretreatment of waste activated sludge at
642 low-temperatures: Effects on sludge disintegration, methane production, and
643 methanogen community structure. *Bioresource Technology* 144 , pp. 194-201.
- 644 Labanda, J. Sabaté, J. Llorens, J., 2007. Rheology changes of Laponite aqueous dispersions
645 due to the addition of sodium polyacrylates of different molecular weights, *Colloids and*
646 *Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects* 301, 8–15.
- 647 Laera, G., Giordano, C., Pollice, A., Saturno, D., Mininni, G., 2007. Membrane bioreactor
648 sludge rheology at different solid retention times. *Water Research* 41, 4197-4203.
- 649 Li, H., Jin, Y., Mahar, R.B., Wang, W.Z., Nie, Y., 2008. Effects and model of alkaline
650 waste activated sludge treatment. *Bioresource Technology* 99, 5140–5144.
- 651 Li, Y.-Y., Noike, T. 1992. Upgrading of anaerobic digestion of waste activated sludge by
652 thermal pretreatment. *Water Science and Technology* 26, 857-866.
- 653 Lopez-Torres, M., Espinosa-Lloréns, M.C., 2008. Effect of alkaline pretreatment on
654 anaerobic digestion of solid wastes. *Waste Management* 28, 2229–2234.
- 655 Lucena, F., Bosch, A., Ripoll, J. and Jofre, J., 1988. Faecal pollution in Llobregat river:
656 interrelationship of viral, bacterial and physico-chemical parameters. *Water, Air, and*
657 *Soil Pollution* 39, 15-25.
- 658 Mocé-Llivina, L., Muniesa, M., Pimenta-Vale, H., Lucena, F., Jofre, J., 2003. Survival of
659 bacterial indicator species and bacteriophages after thermal treatment of sludge and
660 sewage. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 69(3), 1452–1456.
- 661 Mouneimne, A.H., Carrère, H., Bernet, N., Delgenès, J.P., 2003. Effect of saponification on
662 the anaerobic digestion of solid fatty residues. *Bioresource Technology* 90, 89–94.
- 663 Navia, R., Soto, M., Vidal, G., Bornhardt, C., Diez, M.C. 2002. Alkaline pretreatment of
664 kraft mill sludge to improve its anaerobic digestion. *Bulletin of Environmental*
665 *Contamination and Toxicology* 69, 869-876.
- 666 Neyens, E., Baeyens, J., 2003. A review of thermal sludge pre-treatment processes to
667 improve dewaterability. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* B98, 51–67.
- 668 Neyens, E., Baeyens, J., Creemers, C., 2003. Alkaline thermal sludge hydrolysis. *Journal of*
669 *Hazardous Materials* 97, 295–314.
- 670 Passos, F., García, J., Ferrer, I. 2013. Impact of low temperature pretreatment on the
671 anaerobic digestion of microalgal biomass. *Bioresource Technology* 138, 79-86.

- 672 Payment, P. and Franco, E., 1993. *Clostridium perfringens* and somatic coliphages as
673 indicators of the efficiency of drinking water treatment for viruses and protozoan
674 cysts. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 59, 2418-2424.
- 675 Penaud, V., Delgenès, J.P., Moletta, R. 1999. Thermo-chemical pretreatment of a microbial
676 biomass: Influence of sodium hydroxide addition on solubilization and anaerobic
677 biodegradability. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology* 25, 258-263.
- 678 Pham, T.T.H., Brar, S.K., Tyagi, R.D., Surampalli, R.Y., 2010. Influence of ultrasonication
679 and Fenton oxidation pre-treatment on rheological characteristics of wastewater sludge.
680 *Ultrasonics Sonochemistry* 17, 38–45.
- 681 Pilli, S., Bhunia, P., Yan, S., Leblanc, R.J., Tyagi, R.D., Surampalli, R.Y., 2011. Ultrasonic
682 pretreatment of sludge: a review. *Ultrasonics Sonochemistry* 18, 1–18.
- 683 Pollice, A., Giordano, C., Laera, G., Saturno, D., Mininni, G., 2006. Rheology of sludge in
684 a complete retention membrane bioreactor. *Environmental Technology* 27, 723–732.
- 685 Ratkovich, N., Horn, W., Helmus, F.P., Rosenberger, S., Naessens, W., Nopens, I.,
686 Bentzen, T.R., 2013. Activated sludge rheology: A critical review on data collection and
687 modelling. *Water Research* 47, 463-482.
- 688 Ruiz-Hernando, M., Labanda, J., Llorens, J., 2010. Effect of ultrasonic waves on the
689 rheological features of secondary sludge. *Biochemical Engineering Journal* 52, 131–136.
- 690 Ruiz-Hernando, M., Martinez-Elorza, G., Labanda, J., Llorens, J., 2013. Dewaterability of
691 sewage sludge by ultrasonic, thermal and chemical treatments. *Chemical Engineering*
692 *Journal* 230, 102–110.
- 693 Seyssiecq, I., Marrot, B., Djerroud, D., Roche, N., 2007. In situ triphasic rheological
694 characterization of activated sludge in an aerated bioreactor. *Chemical Engineering*
695 *Journal* 142, 40–47.
- 696 Solvay, 2013. URL: <http://www.solvaychemicals.com/EN/Home.aspx>.
- 697 Tiehm, A., Nickel, K., Zellhorn, M., Neis, U., 2001. Ultrasonic waste activated sludge
698 disintegration for improving anaerobic stabilization. *Water Research* 35, 2003–2009.
- 699 Uma-Rani, R., Kaliappan, S., Adish-Kumar, S., Rajesh-Banu, J., 2012. Combined treatment
700 of alkaline and disperser for improving solubilization and anaerobic biodegradability of
701 dairy waste activated sludge. *Bioresource Technology* 126, 107–116.

- 702 US Environmental Protection Agency, 2003. Control of Pathogens and Vector Attraction in
703 Sewage Sludge. Under 40 CFR Part 503. EPA 625/R-92/013. Cincinnati.
- 704 Valo, A., Carrère, H., Delgenès, J.P. 2004. Thermal, chemical and thermo-chemical pre-
705 treatment of waste activated sludge for anaerobic digestion. *Journal of Chemical*
706 *Technology and Biotechnology* 79, 1197-1203.
- 707 Wang, Q., Noguchi, C., Hara, Y., Sharon, C., Kakimoto, K., Kato, Y. 1997. Studies on
708 anaerobic digestion mechanism: Influence of pretreatment temperature on
709 biodegradation of waste activated sludge. *Environmental Technology* 18, 999-1008.
- 710 Ziemba, C., Peccia, J., 2011. Net energy production associated with pathogen inactivation
711 during mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic digestion of sewage sludge. *Water*
712 *Research* 45, 4758-4768.

Table 1. Characterization of the raw and pre-treated WAS. Errors represent standard deviations.

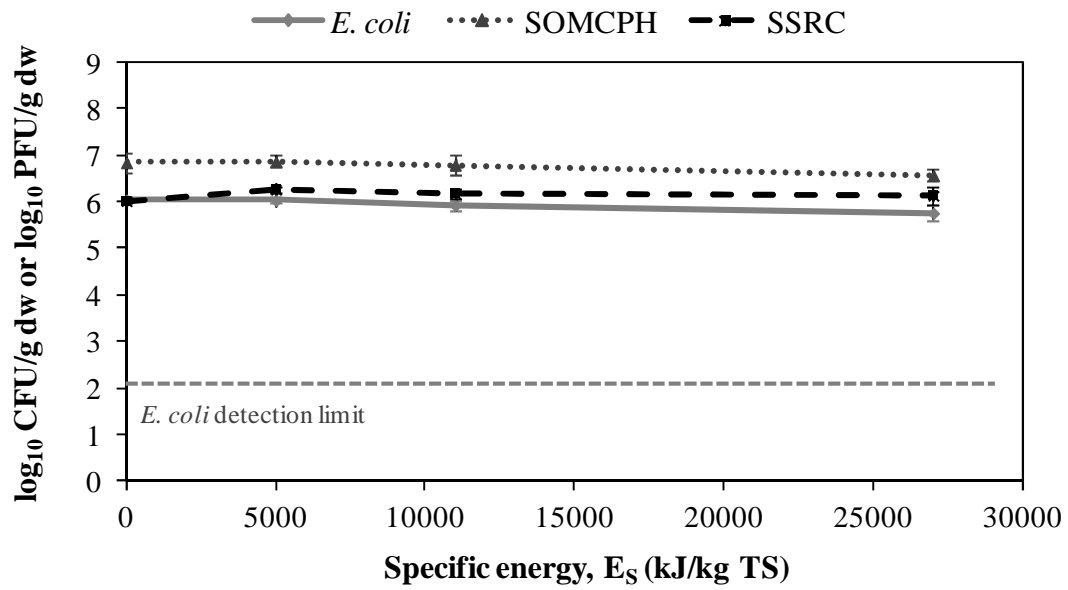
	Units	WAS	US-WAS	T-WAS	NaOH-WAS
<i>Waste characterisation</i>					
TS	g/L	64.2 ± 0.2	65.7 ± 0.1	64.6 ± 0.1	72.3 ± 0.1
VS	g/L	52.9 ± 0.2	53.9 ± 0.1	53.0 ± 0.1	49.5 ± 0.2
tCOD	g O ₂ /L	80.9 ± 0.4	80.5 ± 0.3	81.6 ± 0.5	75.7* ± 0.4
sCOD	g O ₂ /L	0.9 ± 0.1	10.3 ± 0.2	9.6 ± 0.2	12.1** ± 0.1
pH	-	6.5 ± 0.1	6.4 ± 0.2	6.4 ± 0.2	7.5 ± 0.1
VFA	mg/L	223 ± 10	952 ± 16	293 ± 21	560 ± 18
Acetate	mg/L	165 ± 4	634 ± 5	249 ± 18	481 ± 14
Propionate	mg/L	22 ± 5	197 ± 9	25 ± 8	22 ± 3
Butyrate	mg/L	23 ± 1	53 ± 4	19 ± 2	31 ± 2
Valerate	mg/L	13 ± 1	68 ± 1	n.d.***	26 ± 2
<i>Pre-treatment solubilisation efficiency</i>					
sCOD/tCOD	%	1.1 ± 0.1	12.8 ± 0.2	11.7 ± 0.2	16.0 ± 0.2
SD	%	-	11.8 ± 0.4	10.8 ± 0.6	14.0 ± 0.6

* Obtained by multiplying the SV by 1.53 g COD/g VS due to chloride interference in the COD analysis

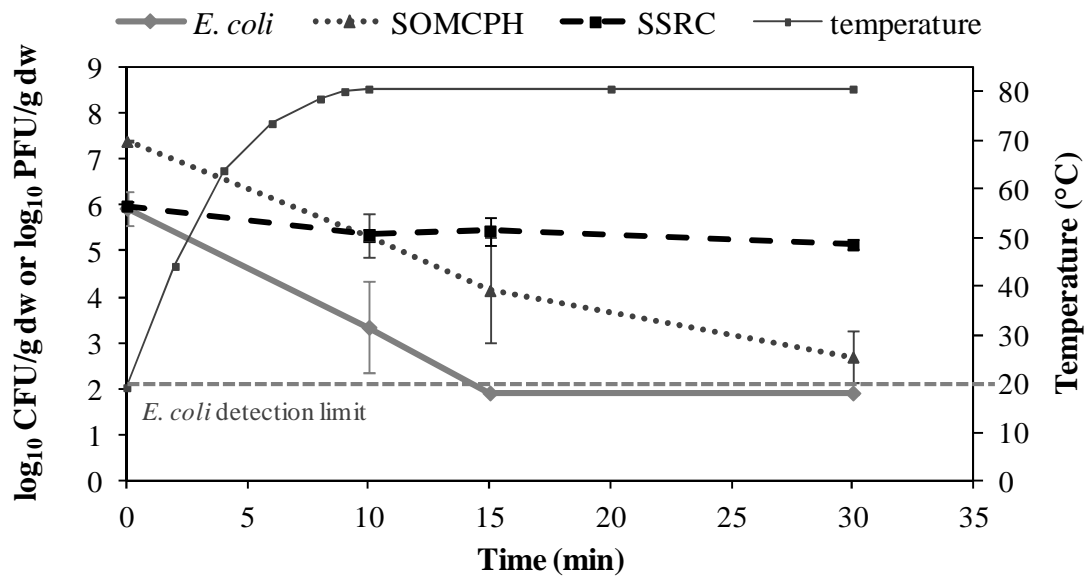
** Obtained after removing the chloride COD determined in tCOD analysis

*** n.d. non-detected (<10 mg/L)

A



B



C

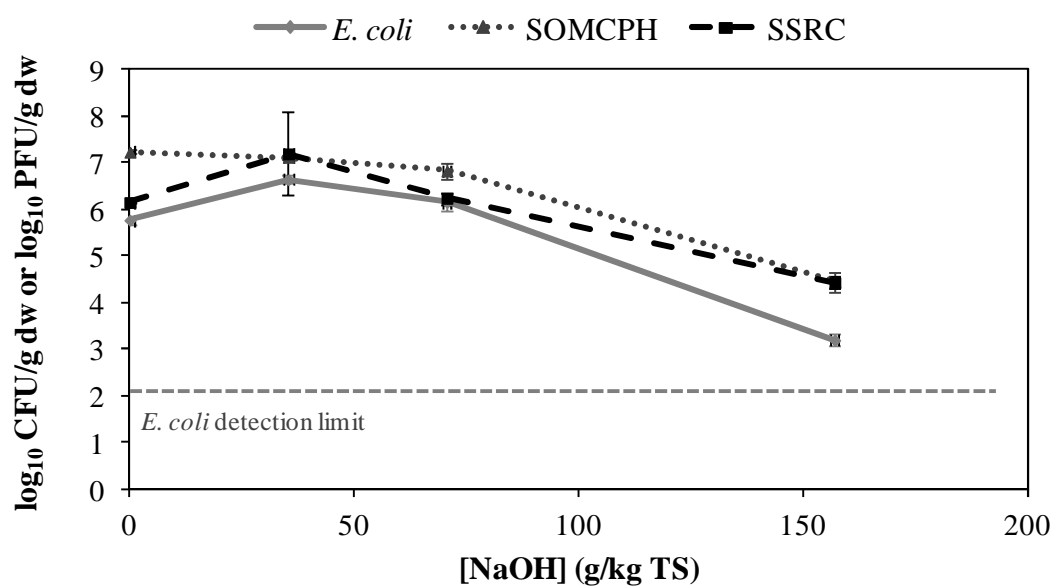


Fig. 1. Effect of the ultrasound, low-temperature thermal and alkali treatments on indicator populations (*E. coli*, SOMCPH, and SSRC). A: ultrasound conditions; B: thermal conditions; C: alkali conditions. Error bars represent standard deviations.

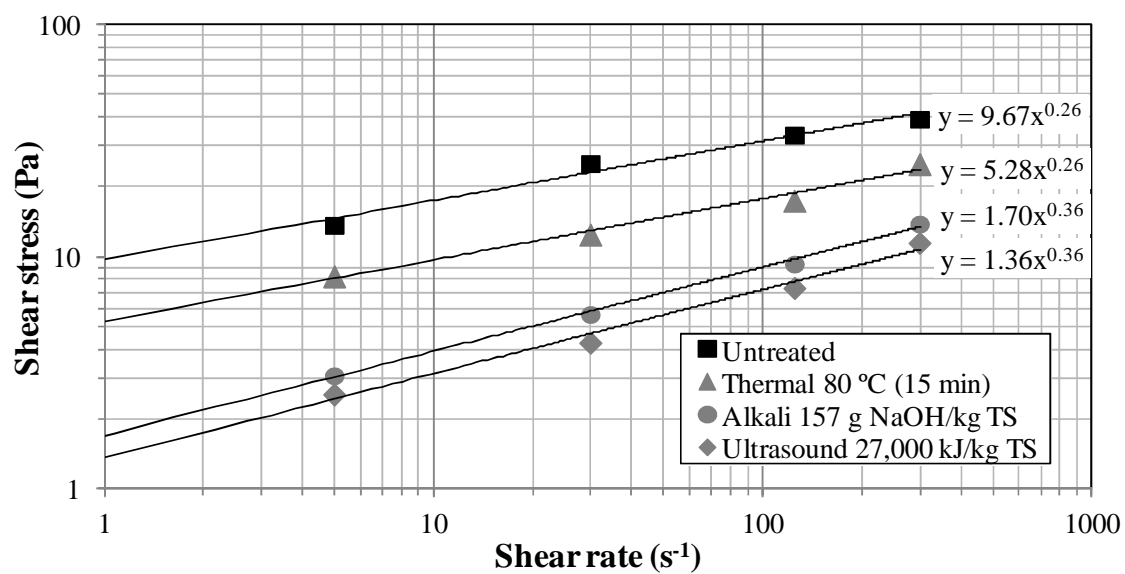


Fig. 2. Steady state shear stress as a function of shear rate for the untreated and three treated sludges (ultrasound: 27,000 kJ/kg TS; thermal: 80 °C for 15 min; alkali: 157 g NaOH/kg TS). The solid lines correspond to the fit to the Ostwald-de Waele power-law model.

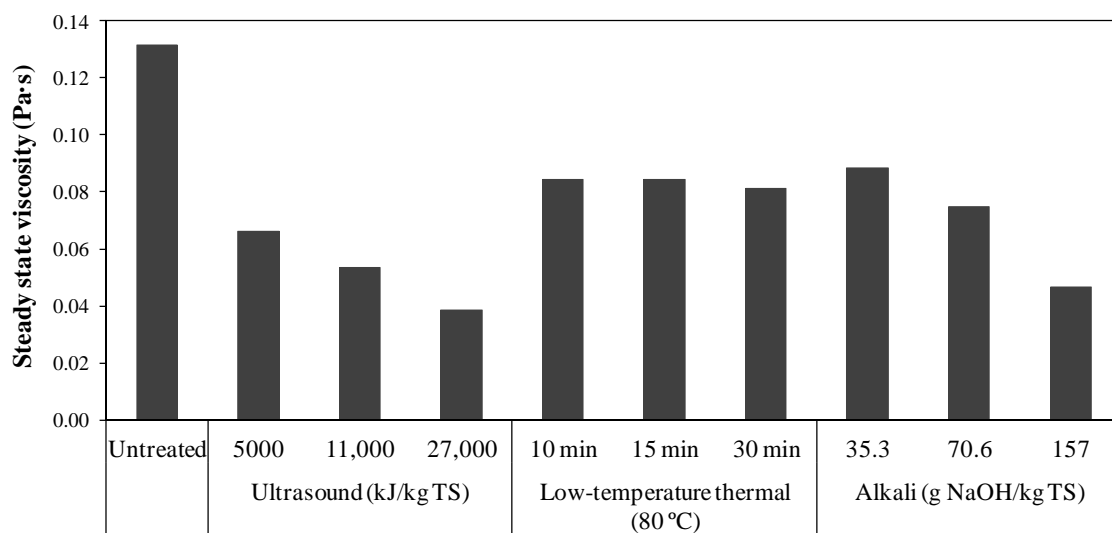
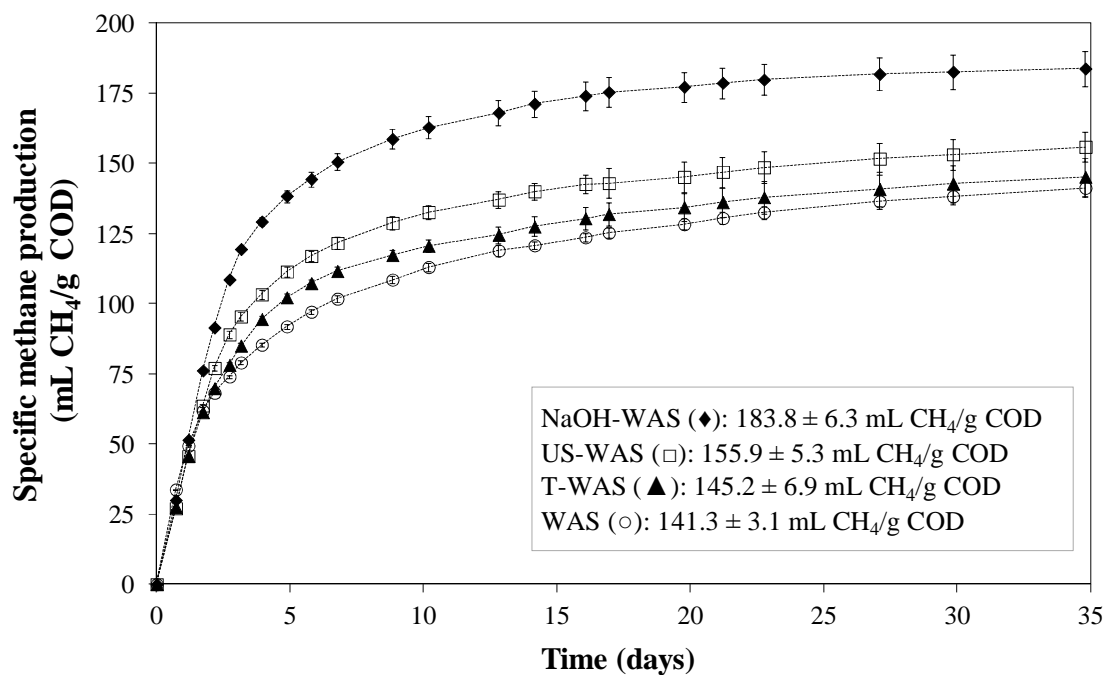


Fig. 3. Steady state viscosity at a shear rate of 300 s^{-1} .

A



B

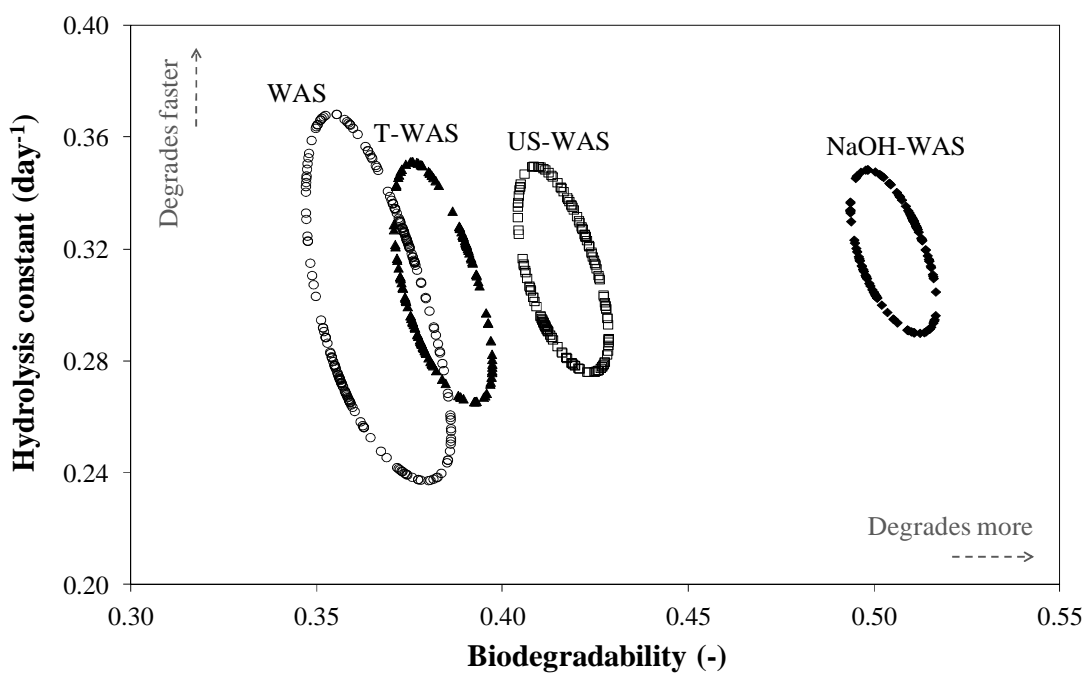
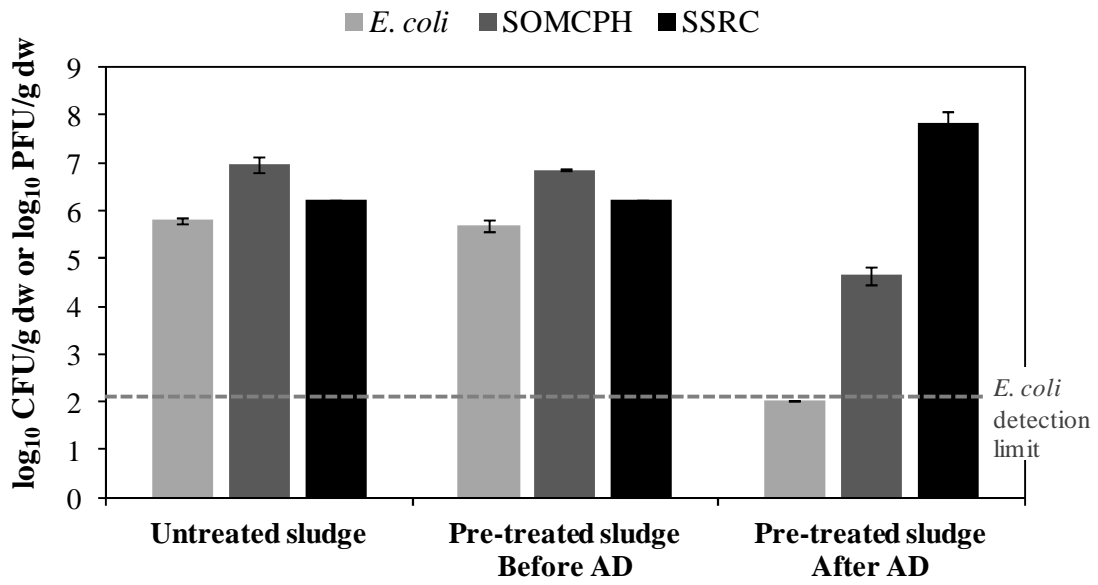
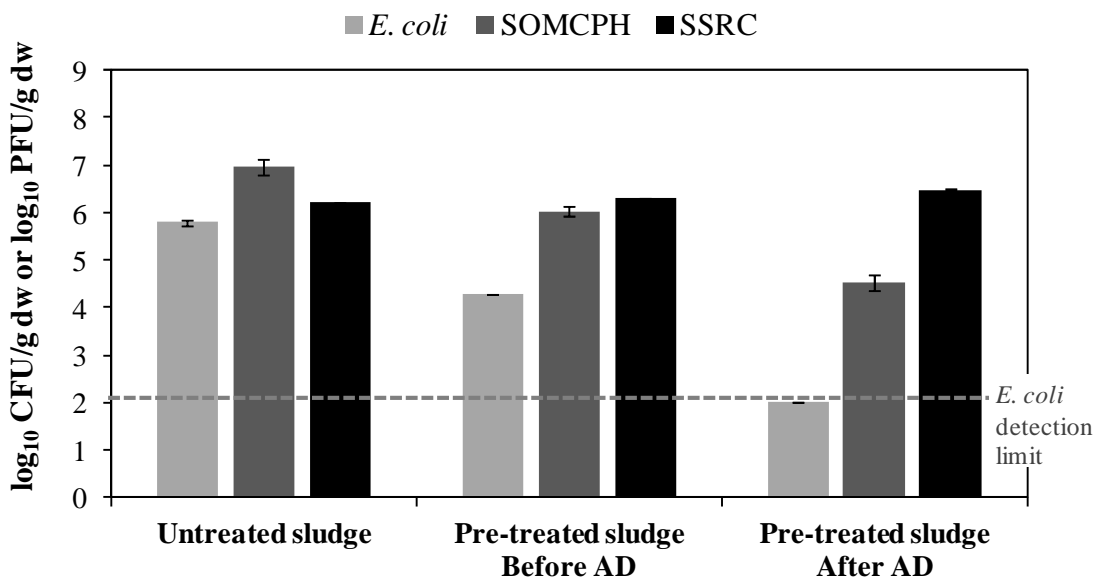


Fig. 4. Results obtained from the BMP tests: (A) Cumulative methane production curves and (B) Confidence regions for biodegradability (f_{was}) and hydrolysis constant ($k_{hyd, was}$). Error bars represent standard deviations.

A



B



C

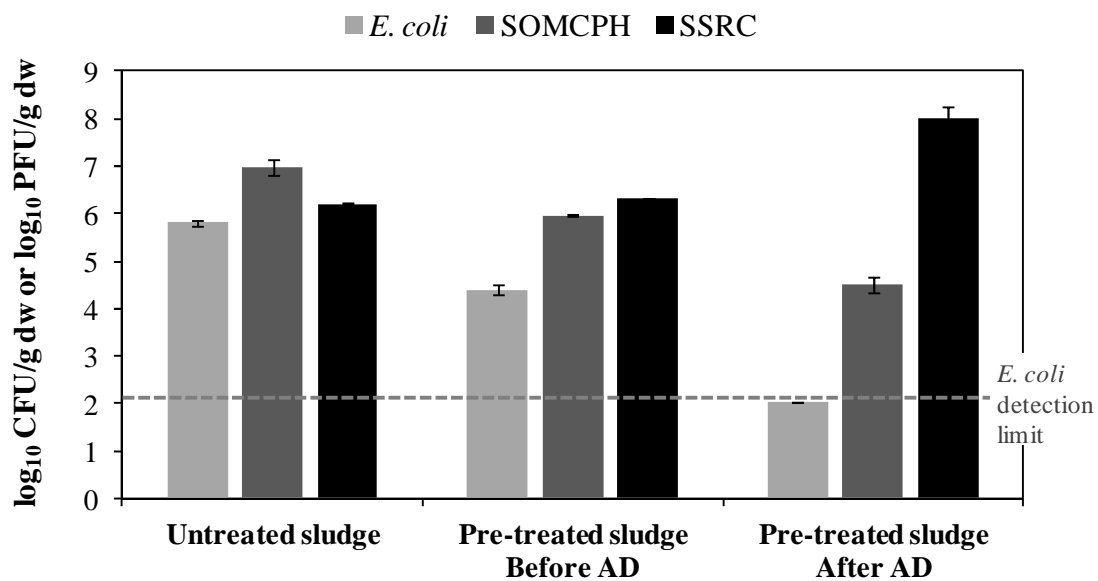


Fig. 5. Effect of different pre-treatments and the AD on the microbial populations present in sludge. A: ultrasound pre-treatment; B: low-temperature thermal pre-treatment; C: alkali pre-treatment. Error bars represent standard deviations.

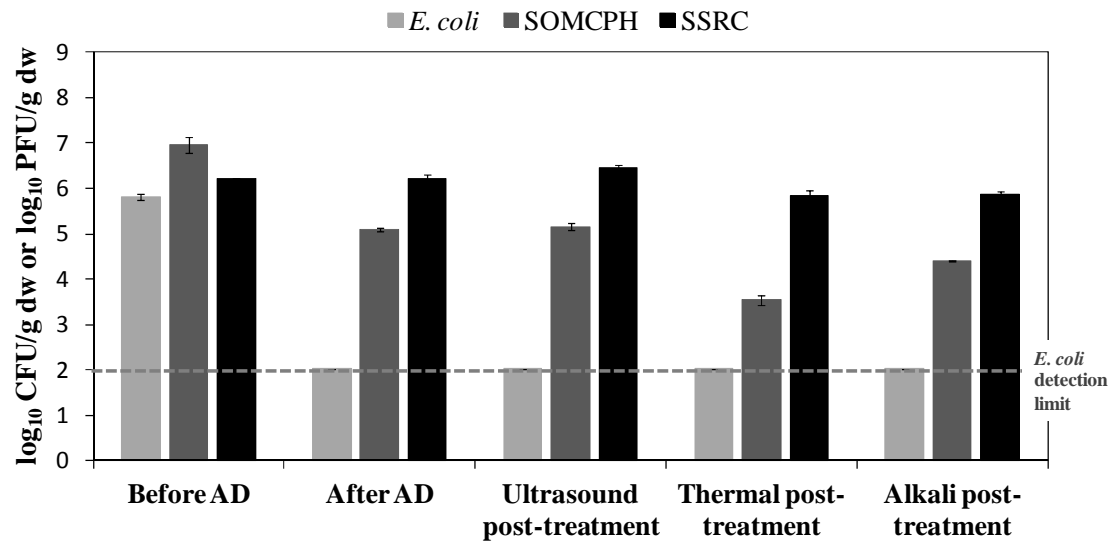


Fig. 6. Effect of the anaerobic digestion and different post-treatments on the microbial populations present in sludge. Error bars represent standard deviations.

- Thermal and alkali conditioning but not ultrasonication allowed WAS hygienization.
- The three pre-treatments were able to reduce the viscosity of WAS.
- Alkali and ultrasound pre-treatments increased WAS biodegradability.
- Thermal pre-treatment barely increased WAS biodegradability.
- Under tested conditions, ultrasound and alkali treatment entailed high costs.