



Chemosphere 41 (2000) 329-336

Biotreatment of H₂S- and NH₃-containing waste gases by co-immobilized cells biofilter

Ying-Chien Chung a, Chihpin Huang b,*, Ching-Ping Tseng c, Jill Rushing Pan b

^a Science and Technology Information Center, National Science Council, Taipei, Taiwan, ROC
 ^b Institute of Environmental Engineering, National Chiao Tung University, 75 Po-ai Street, Hsinchu 3009, Taiwan, ROC
 ^c Institute of Biological Science and Technology, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 3009, Taiwan, ROC

Received 25 June 1999; accepted 7 October 1999

Abstract

Gas mixture of H_2S and NH_3 in this study has been the focus in the research area concerning gases generated from the animal husbandry and the anaerobic wastewater lagoons used for their treatment. A specific microflora (mixture of *Thiobacillus thioparus* CH11 for H_2S and *Nitrosomonas europaea* for NH_3) was immobilized with Ca-alginate and packed inside a glass column to decompose H_2S and NH_3 . The biofilter packed with co-immobilized cells was continuously supplied with H_2S and NH_3 gas mixtures of various ratios, and the removal efficiency, removal kinetics, and pressure drop in the biofilter was monitored. The results showed that the efficiency remained above 95% regardless of the ratios of H_2S and NH_3 used. The NH_3 concentration has little effect on H_2S removal efficiency, however, both high NH_3 and H_2S concentrations significantly suppress the NH_3 removal. Through product analysis, we found that controlling the inlet ratio of the H_2S/NH_3 could prevent the biofilter from acidification, and, therefore, enhance the operational stability. Conclusions from bioaerosol analysis and pressure drop in the biofilter suggest that the immobilized cell technique creates less environmental impact and improves pure culture operational stability. The criteria for the biofilter operation to meet the current H_2S and NH_3 emission standards were also established. To reach Taiwan's current ambient air standards of H_2S and NH_3 (0.1 and 1 ppm, respectively), the maximum inlet concentrations should not exceed 58 ppm for H_2S and 164 ppm for NH_3 , and the residence time be kept at 72 s. © 2000 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Hydrogen sulfide; Ammonia; Biofilter; Thiobacillus thioparus CH11; Nitrosomonas europaea

1. Introduction

Recently, people in Taiwan have encountered numerous air pollution problems, especially those associated with bad odor. It has been reported that more than 300 substances can cause bad odor (Ikeda et al., 1980). Among these substances, NH₃ (ammonia) and H₂S (hydrogen sulfide) are the ones that often exist in our

E-mail address: cphuang@green.ev.nctu.edu.tw(C. Huang).

surroundings. Ammonia is colorless, but irritant and smelly, while H₂S is corrosive, extremely toxic, and also smelly. Large amounts of NH₃ and H₂S are generated and released from industrial processes, such as petrochemical refining, metallurgy, food preparation, wastewater treatment, and treatment of fuels (Eikum and Storhang, 1986; Ryer-Power, 1991; Yang and Allen, 1994). Excess amounts of NH₃ and H₂S have to be removed for the sake of safety and health (Buchnan and Gibbons, 1974; Prosser, 1989) and also for the reduction of environmental impacts, such as greenhouse effect, acid rain, and eutrophication. Currently, the Taiwan EPA sets the ambient air standards at 1 and 0.1 ppm for

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel.: +886-35-726-463; fax: +886-35-725-958.

NH₃ and H₂S, respectively. Based on the cost for the equipment and operation, biological treatment is believed to be the most economical option for treating NH₃ and H₂S. Recently, immobilized-cell technology has been employed in wastewater treatment. Its advantages include high microorganism content, prevention of the microbial loss, high environmental endurance, and high operational stability. In the study of exhaust gas treatment, Chung et al. (1996a,b) proved the value of the immobilized-cell technology because of its high removal efficiency, high removal potential, and high operational stability.

In treating exhaust gas, the selection of the right kind of bacteria is very important. Although activated sludge is often inoculated into the bioreactor, it requires at least three weeks for acclimation (Ottengraf and Van Den Oever, 1983). The use of pure culture has drawn great attention, because it can shorten the start-up time and increase the removal efficiencies of the reactor (Sublette and Sylvester, 1987).

Immobilized Thiobacillus thioparus CH11 biofilter has been successfully applied on removing H2S alone (Chung et al., 1996a,b). It can treat H₂S gas from high concentration (100 ppm) to low concentration (10 ppm). On the other hand, immobilized *Nitrosomonas europaea* was discovered capable of treating NH3 gas of various concentrations (10-100 ppm), and exceeding 97.5% removal after a 4-day operation (Chung and Huang, 1998). This high removal efficiency can last for three months if the pH value is adequately controlled. As NH₃ and H₂S often coexist in real situation, high concentration of these two gases may damage N. europaea and thus decrease the NH3 removal efficiency (Prakasam and Loehr, 1972; Hunik et al., 1992; Joye and Holibaugh, 1995). Hence, how to optimize the operation of the immobilized-cell biofilter to simultaneously remove NH₃ and H₂S is the key to the success of this technology.

In our previous studies, we have discovered that *N. europaea* is very effective in removing NH₃ alone and *T. thioparus* CH11 is very good at eliminating H₂S alone (Chung et al., 1996a,b; Chung and Huang, 1998). There-

fore, we adopted *N. europaea* and *T. thioparus* CH11 coimmobilized biofilter in this study. By supplying NH₃/H₂S gas mixtures of various ratios, we examined the removal efficiency, removal mechanisms, metabolized products, and kinetic parameters of the co-immobilized biofilter. In addition, the likely encountered operational problems such as pressure drop and contamination by other bacteria in field applications, as well as the design of optimal operation conditions were also discussed.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Organism cultivation and medium preparation

The original pure-culture strain of autotrophic ammonia oxidizer, *N. europaea* ATCC 19718 was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection. Their stock cultures were grown in the ammonia medium in the dark at 30°C. Autotrophic sulfur-oxidizing *T. thioparus* CH11 was isolated from the swine wastewater (Chung et al., 1996b), and the stock cultures were grown in the thiosulfate medium at 30°C. For all continuous experiments, the inflow medium was drawn directly from the nutrient tank. The basic media compositions are listed in Table 1.

2.2. Immobilization procedure

Both *N. europaea* grown in 100 ml ammonia medium and *T. thioparus* CH11 grown in 100 ml thiosulfate medium were harvested by centrifugation (7500×g for 10 min), and then washed three times with sterile distilled water. These organisms were mixed together with a sterile 4% (w/v) Na-alginate solution. With a syringe, this Na-alginate solution was dropped into a 4% (w/v) CaCl₂ solution and immediately formed 3 mm-diameter beads. These co-immobilized beads were activated by flushing with sterile buffer solution for 5 h. The initial biomass concentrations of each specie in the beads were 10⁵ cells/g-bead.

Composition of basic media for cultivation of microorganisms and continuous experiments

Medium	Ammonia medium		Thiosulfate mediun	Thiosulfate medium		Inflow medium	
Composition g l ⁻¹	$(NH_4)_2SO_4$	3.3	NH ₄ Cl	0.4	NH ₄ Cl	0.1	
	$MgSO_4$	0.25	$MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$	0.2	$MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$	0.2	
	NaH_2PO_4	0.78	NaH_2PO_4	1.2	NaH_2PO_4	0.78	
	Na_2HPO_4	0.89	Na_2HPO_4	1.2	Na_2HPO_4	0.89	
	CaCl ₂ ^a	0.74	$Na_2S_2O_3 \cdot 5H_2O$	8.0	CaCl ^a	0.74	
	$FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O^a$	2.5	$FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.01	$FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.01	
	CuSO ₄	0.08			CuSO ₄	0.08	
pН	•	7.5		7.0	•	7.5	
Temp. (°C)		30		30		30	

a Unit: mg 1^{-1} .

2.3. Apparatus and H₂S/NH₃ removal for continuous operation

A schematic of the experimental set-up of the lab scale biofilter is shown in Fig. 1. Glass columns (60 mm φ×25 cm of working height) were packed with cellladen Ca-alginate beads on top of a perforated sieve plate fitted at the bottom of the column to ensure the uniform distribution of the inlet gas. The packed volume, dry weight of beads, and numbers of cells initially packed in each column were 0.7 l, 0.28 kg, and 10¹⁰ cells/ g-bead, respectively. Four ports, 12.5 cm in spacing, were drilled along the column for sampling. The flow meter and valve were used for monitoring and controlling the gas flow through the reactor. The pressure drop across the reactor was measured with a u-tube water manometer. The $H_2S_{(g)}$ and $NH_{3(g)}$, supplied from separate gas cylinders, were first diluted with compressed air, passed a air filter (pore size 0.2 μm, LIDA 3000-06, Made in USA) and flowed upwards through the bottom of the biofilter. An inflow medium (composition shown in Table 1) was re-circulated by a peristaltic pump at a flow rate of 25 ml/min to maintain the moisture of the biofilter and supply nutrient to the co-immobilized cells. The peristaltic pump was connected to a spray nozzle to uniformly spray the medium on the surface of the filter bed. During the entire experiments, aluminum foil was wrapped around the column to prevent photoinhibition.

In the continuous experiment, the simulated H_2S -and NH_3 -containing waste gas was prepared at 1:1 (60:60), 1:2 (60:120), and 2:1 (120:60) by concentration (ppm/ppm). These mixtures were supplied to the biofilter at a flow rate of 36 l/h (residence time = 72 s) and the operating temperature was controlled at 30°C.

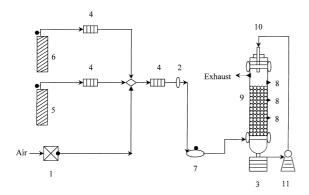


Fig. 1. Schematic of the lab scale biofilter: (1) air compressor; (2) air filter; (3) nutrient tank; (4) flow meter; (5) H₂S gas cylinder; (6) NH₃ gas cylinder; (7) inlet chamber; (8) sampling port; (9) glass column; (10) spray nozzle; (11) peristaltic pump.

2.4. Bioaerosol analysis

Microorganisms released from the biofilter were collected by liquid impingement. The air that escaped from the top of the biofilter was forced through a 250 ml flask containing 80 ml aseptically distilled water at 45 l/min for 10 h. One ml of the collected solution was inoculated to different media and the numbers of cells were determined by the serial dilution method. The PDA medium was used for fungi, the nutrient broth medium for heterotrophic bacteria, the thiosulfate medium for non-acidophilic *Thiobacilli*, and the modified Waksman medium for acidophilic *Thiobacilli* (Cho et al., 1991). The cell counts of autotrophic ammonia oxidizer were determined by the amount of nitrite produced (Sato et al., 1985). The counts were reported as colony forming units in air (CFU/m³).

2.5. Kinetic analysis

The H_2S and NH_3 removal rate in the immobilizedcell biofilter were calculated using the following equation derived from the Michaelis–Menten equation (Hirai et al., 1990)

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{K_s}{V_m} \times \frac{1}{C_{ln}} + \frac{1}{V_m},\tag{1}$$

where R (g-S or g-N/day/kg-bead) – apparent removal rate; $C_{\rm ln}({\rm ppm}) = (C-C_{\rm e})/\ln(C_{\rm o}/C_{\rm e})$, logarithmic mean concentration of H₂S or NH₃ at the inlet and outlet of the biofilter; $V_{\rm m}$ (g-S or g-N/day/kg-bead) – maximum apparent removal rate and K_s (ppm) – apparent half-saturation constant. From the linear relationship between $1/C_{\rm ln}$ and 1/R, $V_{\rm m}$ and K_s were calculated from the slope and intercept. In this experiment, the flow rates were controlled in the range of 36–72 l/h to minimize the mass-transfer limitation.

When the NH₃ oxidation was inhibited due to high NH₃ concentration (>120 ppm), an inhibition constant, K_i , must be incorporated into Eq. (1) as

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{K_s}{V_{\rm m}} \times \frac{1}{C_{\rm ln}} + \frac{1}{V_{\rm m}} + \frac{C_{\rm ln}}{V_{\rm m} \times K_{\rm i}}.$$
 (2)

At low inlet concentration (5–65 ppm), the Eq. (2) can be simplified back to Eq. (1). However, at high inlet concentration (120–200 ppm), Eq. (2) becomes Eq. (3):

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{V_{\rm m}} + \frac{C_{\rm ln}}{V_{\rm m} \times K_{\rm i}}.\tag{3}$$

2.6. Design criteria of scale-up biofilte

The concentrations of H_2S and NH_3 at the biofilter outlet were targeted at 0.1 ppm and 1 ppm. The maximum inlet concentrations and critical H_2S and NH_3

loads to meet this effluent concentration were determined at various space velocity (or residence time) according to the following equation (Chung et al., 1998).

$$SV = \frac{\alpha}{(C_o - C_e)} \times V_m \times \frac{C_{ln}}{(K_s + C_{ln})}$$
or
$$\frac{(C_o - C_e)}{\theta} = \alpha \frac{V_m \times C_{ln}}{(K_s + C_{ln})},$$
(4)

where SV is the $(d^{-1}) = F \cdot (S_a \cdot L)^{-1}$; F the gas flow rate (m^3/day) ; S_a the column cross-section (m^2) ; L the packing height (m); θ the residence time (s); C_o the inlet concentration (ppm); C_e the outlet concentration (ppm); and α is the conversion coefficient (kg-bead ppm /g-S or g-N). Let C_e be 0.1 or 1 ppm in Eq (4), and the maximum C_o can be estimated at various residence times. The loading rate (g-S or g-N/m³-h) of the biofilter can be obtained from Eq (5).

$$Load = \frac{SV \times C_o}{\alpha}.$$
 (5)

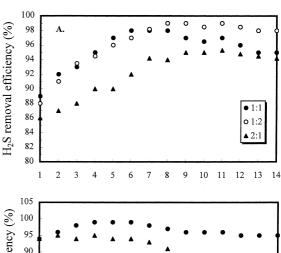
2.7. Analytical methods

Inlet and outlet H₂S gas concentrations of the biofilter were measured either continuously by a single point monitor (MDA Scientific) ranging from 50 to 1500 ppb or periodically by gas detector tubes (GASTEC) ranging from 1 to 60 ppm. Inlet and outlet NH3 gas concentrations were measured either continuously by a single 0 point monitor (MDA Scientific) in the range of 0.1–10 ppm, or periodically by gas detector tubes (GASTEC) in the range of 5–100 ppm. In all continuous experiments, H₂S/NH₃ concentration was recorded as the variation of H_2S/NH_3 concentration was within $\pm 5\%$ in 2 h. The total 12 data were recorded and then averaged to be the H₂S or NH₃ outlet concentration. Samples were taken 48 times per day for the periodic measurement with the gas detector tubes. The chemical composition of the cycling solution was also determined. Nitrate, nitrite and sulfate concentrations in the solution were measured by ion chromatography (Dionex 4500i). Ammonium was determined using an ion-specific electrode. Sulfite was determined by titration using a standard potassium iodide-iodate titrant and a starch indicator (APHA, 1992). Sulfide was determined using an ion-specific electrode. Elemental sulfur was determined by reaction with cyanide to produce thiocyanate, which was quantitated as $Fe(SCN)_6^{3-}$ (Schedel and Truper, 1980). The pH value in the circulating solution was measured 96 times per day. The data were obtained from two or more duplicate tests.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. H_2S/NH_3 removal efficiency in continuous operation

The removal efficiencies for different ratios (e.g., 1:1, 1:2, and 2:1) of H₂S/NH₃ gas mixtures at various times are illustrated in Figs. 2A and B. When H₂S and NH₃ were mixed in a ratio of 1:1, the optimum set of removal efficiency of H₂S and NH₃ occurred at around the seventh day (e.g., 98% for H₂S and 99% for NH₃) and then slightly decreased toward the end of the experiment. The removal efficiencies for H2S and NH3 still remained above 95% at the end of the two-month treatment (data not shown). The reduction in efficiency may be caused by the conversion of H_2S to $SO_4^=$ by T. thioparus CH11 and the conversion of NH₃ to NO₂ by N. europaea. Both $SO_4^{=}$ and NO_2^{-} cause the acidic condition of the system, resulting in the decrease in the removal efficiencies of the biofilter. During the entire period, the fluctuation of pH was between 7.5 and 6.9. When H₂S and NH₃ were mixed in a ratio of 1:2, high NH₃ concentration (120 ppm), surprisingly, did not inhibit the H₂S metabolism by T. thioparus CH11. On the contrary, it enhanced the



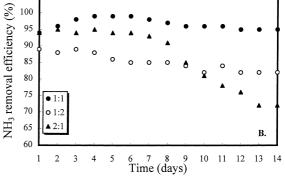


Fig. 2. Relationships between the removal efficiencies and operating time at different ratios (1:1, 1:2, 2:1) of H_2S/NH_3 gas mixtures. (A) H_2S removal efficiency (B) NH_3 removal efficiency. Conditions: 1:1 (60:60), 1:2 (60:120), and 2:1 (120:60) by concentration ppm/ppm; Superficial gas velocity = 36 l/h.

H₂S metabolism when compared to the result of 1:1 ratio, as shown in Fig. 2A. The H₂S removal efficiency increased with operating time and reached as high as 99%. The reason for this enhancement may be that the ample supply of nitrogen promotes the metabolic activity of T. thioparus CH11 (Starkey, 1934). By measuring the pH of the biofilter, we found that the decrease in pH was insignificant regardless of the generation of acid products (pH ranging 7.5-7.2). Thus, the high H₂S removal efficiency maintained in the biofilter could be due to the neutralization reaction between NH_{3(aq)} and SO_4^{\pm} , which prevents the occurrence of acidification. In the case of mixing H₂S and NH₃ with a ratio of 1:2, the removal efficiency of NH₃ is only about 85%. The lower removal efficiency may be caused by the inhibition of the N. europaea at higher NH₃ concentration (e.g., 120 ppm) (Hunik et al., 1992). When H₂S and NH₃ were mixed in a ratio of 2:1, the H₂S removal efficiency increased during the operation period and reached a maximum value of 95%. However, at such high H₂S concentration (120 ppm), the NH₃ removal was significantly suppressed and decreased down to 72%. This dramatic reduction in NH₃ removal (Fig. 2B) can be explained by two reasons. The high concentrations of H₂S and the low pH of the biofilter, which dropped to 6.5 after a 9day operation, hinder the nitrification of N. europaea (Joye and Holibaugh, 1995).

3.2. Product analysis

Mass balances of sulfur and nitrogen in the biofilter at different ratios of H₂S/NH₃ supply are listed in Tables 2 and 3. As indicated in Table 2, when 60 ppm of H₂S (in cases of 1:1 and 1:2) was supplied for 14 days, product varieties and their conversion ratios remained unchanged regardless of the NH₃ concentration. However, when the inlet H₂S concentration was increased to 120 ppm, the production ratio of S = (8.0%) increased, which suggested the incomplete H₂S metabolism of T. thioparus CH11 at high H₂S concentration (Table 2). As a result, the residual $S^{=}$ might suppress the nitrification of N. europaea (Joye and Holibaugh, 1995). This is confirmed by the significantly lower NH₃ removal efficiency in the case of a H_2S/NH_3 mixing ratio of 2:1, (Fig. 2B). Table 3 shows that the main product of NH₃ oxidation by the biofilter was NO₂. Because only NO₂ was produced from the *Nitrosomonas*, the small amount of NO₂⁻ detected might result from either the contamination of *Nitrobacter* or the chemical oxidation. Since no *Nitrobacter* was detected in the experiment, NO₃⁻ was likely the oxidation product of NO₂⁻. When the biofilter was supplied with high NH₃ (e.g., 120 ppm), 5% of residual NH₄⁺/NH₃ was found in the reactor. This residual NH₄⁺/NH₃ may neutralize the acid product of H₂S (i.e. SO₄⁻) and thus maintain the pH of the operation. This is the reason why high H₂S removal efficiency was found in the case of 1:2 mixing ratio (Fig. 2A). In this case, the NO₂⁻ concentration was about 396 mg l⁻¹. Hence, the low NO₂⁻ concentration would not result in toxicity to *Nitrosomonas* (Sato et al., 1988).

3.3. Bioaerosol analysis

Applying biofiltration on deodorized process has been proved to be very promising (Leson and Winer, 1991). However, because biofilters contain tremendous amounts of microorganisms, it is necessary to assess the environmental risk associated with the bacteria released from the biofilter when large quantities of waste gases are treated.

Table 4 shows the number of microorganisms in the outlet exhaust when the biofilter was conducted continuously for two months. Apparently, as microorganisms were immobilized in Ca-alginate, the exhaust contained only small amounts of nitrify bacteria (3 CFU/m³) and neutrophic *Thiobacillus* spp. (6–15 CFU/m³) in any cases. Because only *Thiobacillus* and *Nitrosomonas* were found in the outlet exhaust, it is reasonable to believe that the seeded species remained dominant. Since the immobilized cell biofilter was free from the contamination by heterotrophic bacteria (Table 4), this system can be considered safe if placed close to populated areas.

3.4. Pressure drop

The relationship between pressure drop and superficial gas velocity is an important parameter in determining the operational cost. The influence of superficial gas velocity on pressure drop is shown in Fig. 3. In this experiment, the superficial gas velocity was raised gradually from 18 to 180 h^{-1} and the temperature was

Table 2 Sulfur mass balances in the biofilter at different ratios of H₂S/NH₃ supply

Mixture ratio (ppm/ppm)	H ₂ S Removed (g-S/kg-bead)	SO ₄ ⁼ Produced (g-S/kg-bead) (%)	S ⁰ Produced (g-S/kg-bead) (%)	SO ₃ Produced (g-S/kg-bead) (%)	S Produced (g-S/kg-bead) (%)
1:1ª	3.21	0.81 (25.2)	2.32 (72.3)	0.065 (2.0)	0.016 (0.5)
1:2	3.17	0.78 (24.6)	2.28 (72.0)	0.082 (2.6)	0.026 (0.8)
2:1	6.19	1.12 (18.0)	4.45 (72.0)	0.125 (2.0)	0.499 (8.0)

^a 1:1 equals 60:60 (ppm/ppm).

Table 3						
Nitrogen mass	balances in the	he biofilter	at different	ratios o	of H ₂ S/NH ₃	supply

Mixture ratio (ppm/ppm)	NH ₃ Removed (g-N/kg-bead)	NH ₄ +/NH ₃ Amount (g-N/kg-bead) (%)	NO ₂ Produced (g-N/kg-bead) (%)	NO ₃ Produced (g-N/kg-bead) (%)
1:1ª	1.67	0.017 (1.0)	1.62 (97.0)	0.03 (2.0)
1:2	2.98	0.151 (5.0)	2.83 (95.0)	_
2:1	1.49	0.020 (1.4)	1.44 (96.6)	0.03 (2.0)

^a 1:1 equals 60:60 (ppm/ppm).

Table 4 Bioaerosol analysis in the outlet exhaust of the autotrophic biofilter

Mixture ratio	Medium type						
	Nutrient	PDA	Thiosulfate	Modified Waksman	Nitrifying		
1:1	ND	ND	9	ND	3		
1:2	ND	ND	6	ND	ND		
2:1	ND	ND	15	ND	ND^a		

^a ND < 3 CFU/m³, Unit: CFU/m³.

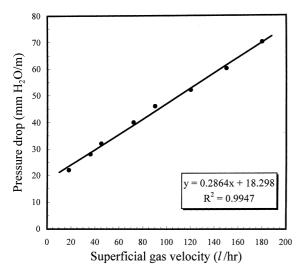


Fig. 3. Profile of pressure drop vs. superficial gas velocity for the autotrophic biofilter.

maintained 30°C. When the operation reached the steady state (about 3 days), a new superficial gas velocity was selected. Inspection of the figure reveals that pressure drop of the biofilter increases with increasing superficial gas velocity and in a good linear behavior. The possible reason is due to no significant biomass accumulation from which would slow the growth rate of the autotrophic bacteria. Consequently, the biofilter exhibited excellent dispersion characteristics.

3.5. Kinetic analysis

The apparent kinetic parameters of the maximum removal rate and half-saturation constant to degrade H₂S (5–120 ppm) under the presence of NH₃ (60 or 120 ppm) are calculated by the Lineweaver-Burk method and the results are shown in Fig. 4. Inspection of the related coefficient of the regression equation (i.e., 0.998) shown in Fig. 4 indicates that NH₃ does not intervene the metabolism of H₂S by *T. thioparus* CH11. Furthermore, the apparent maximum removal (1.11 g-S/day/kg-bead) and the apparent half-saturation constant (34.6 ppm) are similar to those reported by Chung et al. (1997) under a NH₃-free atmosphere.

Fig. 5A illustrates the kinetic analysis of NH_3 removal by N. europaea in the range of 5–65 ppm under various H_2S concentrations. Compared to the result of the H_2S -free inlet, the influence of 60 ppm H_2S in the inlet on NH_3 removal of gas mixture was not obvious. However, once the concentration of H_2S was raised to

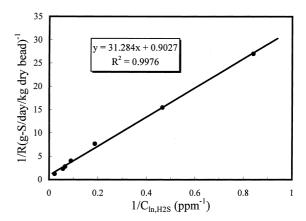
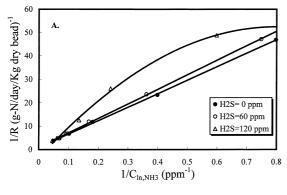


Fig. 4. Relationship between 1/R and $1/C_{\ln,H_2S}$ of H_2S degradation in the biofilter. Conditions: H_2S (5–120 ppm), NH_3 (60 or 120 ppm), and superficial gas velocity (36–72 l/h).



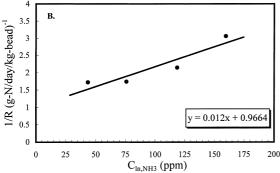


Fig. 5. Relationship between 1/R and $1/C_{\rm ln,NH_3}$ of NH₃ degradation in the biofilters. (A) Effect of H₂S concentrations on NH₃ removal by *N. europaea* at NH₃ (5–65 ppm) and H₂S (0, 60 or 120 ppm). (B) Effect of NH₃ concentrations on NH₃ removal by *N. europaea* at NH₃ (120–200 ppm) and H₂S 60 ppm. The superficial gas velocity ranges from 36 to 72 l/h.

120 ppm, a concave-down curve occurred, suggesting that high H_2S concentration inhibited the metabolism of NH_3 by N. europaea (Julitte et al., 1993). It is difficult to categorize H_2S as a competitive or non-competitive inhibitor from the existing experimental evidence. Fig. 5B shows the effect of high NH_3 concentration (120–200 ppm) on the NH_3 removal by N. europaea when the inlet H_2S concentration in the mixture was maintained at 60 ppm. As mentioned in Fig. 2B, high NH_3 concentration may inhibit the nitrification of N. europaea. Therefore, further research on the inhibition kinetic analysis at high NH_3 concentration is essential. The inhibition coefficient (K_i) was calculated as 80.5 ppm from Eq. (3) using linear regression.

3.6. Criteria for design of scale-up biofilters

A complete removal for H_2S and NH_3 can be achieved only at less than critical loading rate. The loading rate of the system is defined as the amount of inlet gas per unit of time, per volume of packing material (g-S or-N/m³-h). Thus, inlet gas concentrations play an

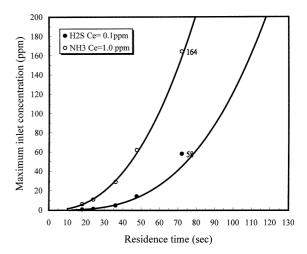


Fig. 6. Relationship between maximum inlet concentration and residence time for H₂S and NH₃ removal by the autotrophic biofilters.

important role in the design of a scale-up biofilter when constant packing material volume and space velocity are used. Finding the maximum inlet concentration and the optimal loading rate, therefore, is crucial for the biofilter operation. The relationship between the maximum inlet concentration and residence time (space velocity) for H_2S and NH_3 removal is shown in Fig. 6. From the operational point of view, to reach the ambient air standards of H_2S and NH_3 (0.1 and 1 ppm, respectively), the maximum inlet concentrations were 58 ppm for H_2S and 164 ppm for NH_3 , as specified in the figure, at the residence time of 72 s. Under such condition, the maximum loading rate was determined as 3.8 g-S/m³-h for H_2S and 5.6 g-N/m³-h for NH_3 , respectively (data not shown).

4. Conclusions

It is demonstrated that the removal efficiency remains above 95% when treating H_2S and NH_3 gas mixtures of various ratios with a co-immobilized cell biofilter. Hydrogen sulfide appears to be an inhibitory substrate for NH_3 removal, while NH_3 concentration has little effect on H_2S removal. From our studies, appropriate inlet ratios of H_2S/NH_3 (e.g., <2) and excellent dispersion characteristics can maintain the operational stability of the biofilter. Maximum inlet concentrations to reach the ambient air standards are 58 ppm for H_2S and 164 ppm for NH_3 at residence time of 72 s. These inlet concentrations are in the range of gas emission from the livestock farming and the accompanying wastewater treatment.

Acknowledgements

Funding for this work was provided partially by the National Science Council, ROC.

References

- APHA, 1992. American Public Health Association, Standard Method: Examination of Water and Wastewater, 18th ed. APHA, New York.
- Buchnan, R.E., Gibbons, N.E., 1974. Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology, 7th ed. Williams and Wilkins Co, Baltimore, MD, pp. 52–54.
- Cho, K.S., Zhang, L., Hirai, M., Shoda, M., 1991. Removal characteristics of hydrogen sulfide and methanethiol by *Thiobacillus* spp. isolated from peat in biological deodorization. Journal of Fermentation and Bioengineering 71, 44–49
- Chung, Y.C., Huang, C., 1998. Biotreatment of ammonia in air by an immobilized *Nitrosomonas europaea* biofilter. Environmental Progress 17, 70–76.
- Chung, Y.C., Huang, C., Tseng, C.P., 1996a. Biodegradation of hydrogen sulfide by a laboratory-scale immobilized *Pseudo-monas putida* CH11 biofilter. Biotechnology Progress 12, 773–778
- Chung, Y.C., Huang, C., Tseng, C.P., 1996b. Operation optimization of *Thiobacillus thioparus* CH11 biofilter for hydrogen sulfide removal. Journal of Biotechnology 52, 31–38
- Chung, Y.C., Huang, C., Tseng, C.P., 1997. Removal of hydrogen sulphide by immobilized *Thiobacillus* sp. strain CH11 in a biofilter. Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology 68, 58–62.
- Chung, Y.C., Huang, C., Tseng, C.P., 1998. Advanced study of H₂S removal by *Thiobacillus novellus* CH₃ biofilter in autotrophic and mixotrophic environments. Journal of Environmental Engineering-ASCE 124, 362–367.
- Eikum, A.S., Storhang, R., 1986. Odour Prevention and Control of Organic Sludge and Livestock Farming. Elsevier Applied Science Publishers, London, pp. 12–18.
- Hirai, M., Ohtake, M., Shoda, M., 1990. Removal kinetic of hydrogen sulphide, methanethiol and dimethyl sulphide by peat biofilters. Journal of Fermentation and Bioengineering 70, 334–339.

- Hunik, J.H., Meijer, J.G., Tramper, J., 1992. Kinetic of Nitrosomonas europaea at extreme substrate, product and salt concentrations. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology 37, 802–807.
- Ikeda, H., Asaba, H., Takeuchi, Y., 1980. Removal of H₂S, CH₃SH and (CH₃)₃N from air by use of chemically treated activated carbon. Japan Journal of Chemical and Engineering 21, 91–97.
- Joye, S.B., Holibaugh, J.T., 1995. Influence of sulfide inhibition of nitrification on nitrogen regeneration in sediments. Science 270, 623–625.
- Julitte, L.Y., Michael, R., Daniel, J.A., 1993. Inhibition of ammonia oxidation in *Nitrosomonas europaea* by sulfur compounds. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 59, 3718–3727.
- Leson, G., Winer, A.M., 1991. Biofiltration: an innovative air pollution control technology for VOC emission. Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association 41, 1045–1054.
- Ottengraf, S.P.P., Oever, A.H.C., 1983. Kinetics of organic compound removal from waste gases with a biological filter. Biotechnology and Bioengineering 25, 3089–3102.
- Prakasam, T.B.S., Loehr, R.C., 1972. Microbial nitrification and denitrification in concentrated wastes. Water Research 6, 859–867
- Prosser, J.I., 1989. Autotrophic nitrification in bacteria. Advances in Microbial Physiology 30, 125–181.
- Ryer-Power, J.E., 1991. Health effects of ammonia. Plant/ Operations Progress 10, 228–232.
- Sato, C., Leung, S.W., Schnoor, J.L., 1988. Toxic response of Nitrosomonas europaea to copper in inorganic medium and wastewater. Water Research 22, 1117–1127.
- Sato, C., Schnoor, J.L., McDonald, D.B., Huey, J., 1985. Test medium for the growth of *N. europaea*. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 32, 1101–1107.
- Schedel, M., Truper, H.G., 1980. Anaerobic oxidation of thiosulfate and elemental sulfur in *Thiobacillus denitrifans*. Archives of Microbiology 2-3, 205–210.
- Starkey, R.L., 1934. Cultivation of organisms concerned in the oxidation of thiosulfate. Journal of Bacteriology 28, 365–386
- Sublette, K.L., Sylvester, N.D., 1987. Oxidation of hydrogen sulfide by continuous cultures of *Thiobacillus denitrificans*. Biotechnology and Bioengineering 29, 753–758.
- Yang, Y., Allen, E.R., 1994. Biofiltration control of hydrogen sulfide. 1 design and operational parameters. Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association 44, 863–868.