

1 **Organic polyelectrolytes as the sole precipitation agent in municipal wastewater treatment**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 In municipal wastewater treatment, inorganic coagulants (IC), e.g. polyaluminium chloride (PAC),
11 are normally used to remove pollutants such as dissolved and particulate nutrients, in a process called
12 coagulation/flocculation. However, IC use has been linked to issues e.g. in effluent water post-
13 treatment, sludge management and disposal (IC increase sludge volume and metal concentrations in
14 sludge), etc., raising uncertainties about their overall cost-efficiency and environmental benefits. In
15 this study, the suitability of organic coagulants (OC) as sole precipitation agents to replace IC (PAC)
16 was investigated. A total of 10 synthetic (i.e. polyDADMACs and polyamines) and semi-natural
17 (chitosan, starch, and tannin-based) OC products were tested in treatment of samples from primary
18 sedimentation and secondary sedimentation stages of municipal wastewater treatment, and their
19 performance was compared with that of PAC. The study was conducted using the jar test
20 methodology. The coagulants were tested for their ability to remove target pollutants (e.g. BOD₇,
21 COD, SS, tot-P, PO₄-P, tot-N) and form rapidly settling flocs. In general, higher (up to 60%)
22 coagulant doses were needed in treatment of secondary wastewater samples than primary samples. In
23 comparison with the OC doses required for effective treatment, the PAC doses were higher (up to
24 80%). In treatment of secondary wastewater samples, OC with high molecular weight (MW) and high

25 charge density (CD) (e.g. pAmine1) achieved best removal of target pollutants (e.g. 72% SS, 87%
26 PO₄-P, 88% BOD₇), followed by PAC. In treatment of primary wastewater, PAC performed best
27 (removing e.g. 96% SS, 96% PO₄-P), closely followed by chitosan and polyamine products. Based
28 on these results, polyamine products with high MW and (very) high CDs have the potential to act as
29 the sole precipitation agent in both primary and secondary stages of municipal wastewater treatment.
30 Further research is needed to determine the effect of residual coagulant on downstream water and
31 sludge treatment processes (e.g. activated sludge process, sludge dewatering, etc.).

32 *Keywords:* Coagulation, sewage, semi-natural coagulants, synthetic polymers, municipal wastewater

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Municipal wastewater is composed mainly of suspended and dissolved solids, nutrients, pathogens,
36 metals and other organic and inorganic impurities (Lee et al., 2014). The presence of these
37 contaminants in water poses a threat to humans and the environment, due to the potential risks from
38 e.g. disease-causing microorganisms, accumulated heavy metals in receiving ecosystems,
39 eutrophication of water bodies, etc. (Drinnan, 2001). Thus, reduction, if not complete elimination, of
40 these pollutants is necessary before wastewater is released into receiving water bodies. Conventional
41 wastewater treatment plants predominantly employ coagulation-flocculation followed by solid-liquid
42 separation (e.g. sedimentation) processes in the treatment chain. The aim is effective reduction in
43 concentrations of impurities such as organic contaminants (measured as biochemical oxygen demand,
44 BOD), chemical oxygen demand (COD), suspended solids (SS) and nutrients (phosphorus, P)
45 (Bratby, 2016).

46 In general, inorganic coagulants (IC), mostly metal salts of aluminium (Al) and iron (Fe), are used in
47 the coagulation process, as they are cheap, easily controlled and well-studied (Bratby, 2016). Metal
48 salt coagulants dissociate into positively charged metal ions, so they have high charge neutralisation
49 potential (Bratby, 2016). Controlled hydrolysis of Fe- and Al-based coagulants led to the development

50 of pre-hydrolysed products such as polyaluminium chloride (PAC), which have been found to work
51 more efficiently than their hydrolysing counterparts. For example, they are more effective over a
52 wider pH range, less sensitive to changes in temperature and the nature of the raw water, etc. (Jiang
53 and Wang, 2009; Wei et al., 2015, Sillanpää et al., 2018).

54 Although IC are effective, there are several disadvantages associated with their use. These include
55 production of large sludge volumes that incur high management and disposal costs, high alkalinity
56 consumption which might increase the need for pH adjustment chemicals, and high residual Al or Fe
57 concentrations in the treated water, leading to detrimental effects on downstream purification
58 processes (Liu et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012) and receiving ecosystems (WWAP, 2017). Use of IC
59 can also restrict the use of sludge as a soil amendment, as Al- or Fe based-coagulants are known to
60 react with P, precipitating it as stable metal phosphates and thus lowering its availability for plant
61 uptake (Krogstad et al., 2005; Kirchmann et al., 2017). This decreases the fertiliser potential of the
62 resulting sludge.

63 Organic coagulants (OC), particularly synthetic OCs, are widely used in water and wastewater
64 treatment. However, they are primarily used as flocculants and act as a 'bridge' for coagulated
65 particles formed by IC. Addition of OC produces stronger and larger flocs, increasing settling rates
66 and improving solid-liquid separation (Gregory and Bolto, 2007, Sillanpää et al., 2018). Use of OC
67 as the sole precipitation agent in municipal wastewater treatment is rare, mostly due to their relatively
68 high cost and their perceived inability to remove dissolved contaminants such as dissolved organic
69 carbon (DOC) and phosphate P ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$). However, with advances in the technology for producing
70 synthetic organic polymers, costs have decreased and tailor-made products with varying molecular
71 weight (MW) and charge density (CD) are being produced (Gregory and Bolto, 2007; Bratby 2016).
72 Another type of OC, (semi)-natural polymers, which can be produced or extracted from animals, plant
73 tissues or microorganisms (e.g. chitosan, tannin-based products, etc.), has received significant
74 attention recently, as these OCs are reported to have lower toxicity and higher biodegradability than

75 synthetic OC (Renault et al., 2009; Sánchez-Martín et al., 2010; Oladoja, 2015; Heiderscheidt et al.,
76 2016b; Liu et al., 2017).

77 Good performance of commercially available OCs as the sole precipitation agent for wastewater
78 purification has been reported in laboratory-based studies (Nozaic et al., 2001; Razali et al., 2011;
79 Heiderscheidt et al., 2016a). The few studies conducted to date in full-scale wastewater treatment
80 plants (WWTPs) have found that OC can achieve the required pollutant removal and that, when costs
81 of transport, sludge management, etc. are taken into consideration, they can also be cost-effective
82 (Nozaic et al., 2001). However, the suitability of OC as the sole precipitation agent in primary and
83 secondary sedimentation stages of municipal wastewater treatment has not been studied previously.
84 Thus, there is a clear need for investigations regarding the potential of OC as the sole coagulant in
85 municipal wastewater treatment and the effectiveness of (semi)-natural products.

86 This study investigated the applicability of OC as the sole precipitation agent in primary and
87 secondary sedimentation stages of municipal wastewater treatment. The novelty of the work lies in
88 the use of real wastewater samples and testing of a range of OC, both synthetic (e.g.
89 polydiallyldimethylammonium chloride (polyDADMAC) and epichlorohydrin-dimethylamine
90 (polyamines)) and semi-natural (chitosan, starch, and tannin-based products), in comparison with a
91 normally used IC (PAC). The coagulants were tested under laboratory conditions for their capacity
92 to remove e.g. BOD₇, COD, SS, total P (tot-P), orthophosphate (PO₄-P) and total nitrogen (tot-N),
93 and their ability to form rapidly settling flocs.

94 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

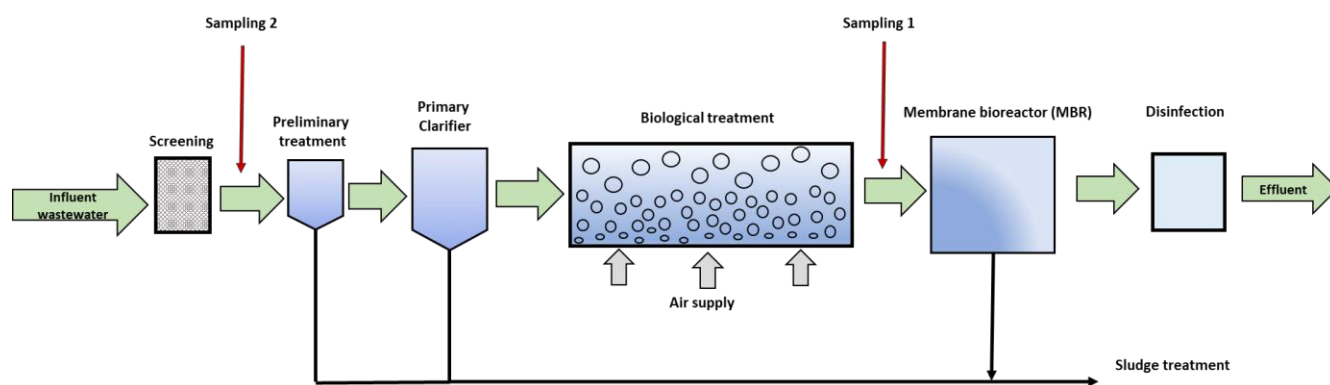
95 Experimental work was conducted using the jar test methodology, in two phases. Phase 1 involved
96 determination of coagulant optimum dosage range and purification efficiency in treatment of
97 wastewater samples collected prior to the secondary clarifier (20 ± 2 °C). A total of 11 products were
98 tested, 10 OC (polyDADMACs, polyamines, chitosan, starch, and tannin-based products) and one IC

99 (PAC). Phase 2 involved determination of coagulant optimum dosage range and purification
100 efficiency in treatment of wastewater samples collected prior to the primary clarifier (20 ± 2 °C). Five
101 products were tested in Phase 2, four OC (two synthetic and two semi-natural, based on performance
102 in phase 1) and one IC (PAC).

103 2.1 Wastewater sampling

104 Real wastewater samples were collected from Taskila WWTP (Oulu, Finland) between February and
105 April 2019. Samples for secondary sedimentation tests (sampling point 1) were collected from the
106 last cell of the activated sludge unit (before the membrane bioreactor (MBR)). Sampling point 1 was
107 located in the outflow of the activated sludge process, prior to membrane separation. The MBR line
108 had just been implemented in the WWTP and during the sampling period, no coagulants were added
109 before membrane separation. This enabled the use of activated sludge without residual coagulant
110 contamination from sludge recirculation. For the primary sedimentation tests (sampling point 2),
111 samples were collected after the pre-screening unit before the primary clarifier (Fig. 1), also avoiding
112 coagulant contamination from preliminary treatment stages.

113



114

115 Fig. 1. Sampling points at Taskila wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). Sampling 1 = prior to
116 secondary clarifier, sampling 2 = prior to primary clarifier).

117 The characteristics of the collected samples were initially assessed using parameters determined upon
118 sample collection (e.g. pH, temperature, dissolved oxygen (DO) and mixed liquor suspended solids

119 (MLSS)) (Table 1). The samples were later also assessed in water quality analyses conducted in an
 120 external laboratory (Section 2.4, Table 3). Secondary wastewater samples (pumped into 30-L
 121 containers) were placed in a 5-10°C cold-room and aerated intermittently (45 min on, 15 min off) for
 122 ≥ 12 hours to ensure DO levels were within 1-3 mg/L before the coagulation experiments. Primary
 123 wastewater samples (transferred into 40-L containers) were placed in cold storage (5-10°C) and
 124 stirred (paddle mixer) continuously (100 rpm) throughout the experimental period.

125 Table 1. Characteristics of wastewater samples upon collection and the coagulants tested on each type
 126 of sample (see Table 2 for coagulant characteristics). MLSS = mixed liquor suspended solids, DO =
 127 dissolved oxygen.

	Sample	Date	MLSS (mg/L)	pH	DO (mg/L)	Temperature (°C)	Chemical Tested
Secondary Wastewater	1	13.02.19	11310	6.80	5.3	9.8	PAC
	2	14.02.19	10240	6.83	7.5	9.6	pAmine1
	3	21.02.19	5820	6.93	9.6	9.6	pDMAC1
	4	22.02.19	5310	7.01	11.1	9.3	Tannin
	5	26.02.19	4500	7.02	10.8	9.8	pDMAC2
	6	27.02.19	4310	6.98	9.2	9.8	pAmine2
	7	07.03.19	5750	6.85	6.1	8.9	Starch
	8	08.03.19	6130	6.84	7.6	9.1	pAmine3
	9	13.03.19	7130	6.82	5.6	9.8	pDMAC3
	10	14.03.19	6980	6.81	7.8	9.9	Chitosan
	11	14.03.19	6980	6.81	7.8	9.9	pDMAC4
Primary Wastewater	1	03.04.19	---	7.54	---	7.0	PAC
	2	08.04.19	---	7.65	---	7.1	pAmine1
	3	09.04.19	---	7.41	---	8.0	Starch
	4	11.04.19	---	7.87	---	7.4	pAmine3
	5	12.04.19	---	7.74	---	7.3	Chitosan

128

129 2.2 Characteristics of coagulants tested

130 Coagulants were evaluated for their ability to induce coagulation and subsequent solid/liquid
 131 separation. The coagulants were selected based on a literature review (e.g. Bolto, 1995; Bolto and
 132 Gregory, 2007; Renault et al., 2009; Razali et al., 2011; Oladoja, 2015; Liu et al., 2017, Sillanpää et
 133 al., 2018), previous research at our department (Heiderscheidt et al., 2016a), commercial availability

134 and prevalence of use in water and wastewater treatment. Of the 11 coagulants tested, one was an
135 inorganic pre-hydrolysed metal salt of aluminium (PAC) and 10 were synthetic or semi-natural
136 polymers of varying MW and CD. These included polyDADMACs and polyamine synthetic
137 polymers and semi-natural polymers based on starch, chitosan and tannin products. The
138 characteristics of the products tested are listed in Table 2.

139 **2.3 Experimental procedure**

140 Laboratory experiments were carried out using the jar test methodology and Kemira Kemwater
141 Flocculator 2000 (six programmable paddle stirrer) equipment. Suitable mixing conditions were
142 identified in preliminary tests conducted on secondary wastewater samples using PAC as coagulant.
143 In these preliminary tests, supernatant water was drawn from 1-L samples subjected to different
144 mixing parameters after addition of PAC and constant sedimentation time (60 min) and analysed for
145 turbidity (nephelometric turbidity units, NTU). Based on the settling behaviour of the wastewater
146 (lowest turbidity values in supernatant samples), the following mixing conditions were used during
147 phases 1 and 2 of the experiment for all coagulants: 200 rpm for 30 s (fast mixing) and 40 rpm for 5
148 min (slow mixing), followed by 60 min of sedimentation.

149 Table 2. Characteristics of coagulants tested.

Metal Salt Inorganic Coagulant (IC)					
Product	Density (g/cm ³)	Concentration		Charge	
Polyaluminium chloride	1.34	42%			
Synthetic Organic Coagulants (OC)					
Product	Density (g/cm ³)	Concentration	Relative molecular weight	Charge	Char
PolyDADMAC	1.09	40%	Very high	Very high cationic	
PolyDADMAC	1.08	50%	Very high	High cationic	
PolyDADMAC	1.05	22%	High	Very high cationic	
PolyDADMAC	1.05	22%	Medium	High cationic	
Polyamine	1.20	40%	High	Very high cationic	
Polyamine	1.14	50%	Medium	Very High cationic	
Polyamine	1.18	50%	Low	Very high cationic	
Semi-natural Organic Coagulants (OC)					
Product	Concentration		Relative molecular weight	Charge	Char
Starch	100%		High	High cationic	
Chitosan	100%		Low	High cationic	
Tannin	100%		Very Low	Low cationic	

*Measured at in-house laboratory facilities.

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151
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153 To maintain more constant conditions, the pH of collected samples was adjusted to between 6.40-
154 6.70 prior to the tests, using hydrochloric acid solution (1M HCl). Stock solutions (e.g. 20 mg/mL)
155 of the coagulants were prepared using the respective specific density of different products and
156 deionised water. The stock solution for the chitosan-based product was prepared by dissolving it in
157 deionized water and 1% acetic acid (due to its insolubility in non-acidic media) (Table 3). For
158 determination of coagulant dose required, increasing doses of coagulant were added to 1-L
159 wastewater samples (primary and secondary) in glass jars. Fast and slow mixing was applied,
160 followed by sedimentation. Supernatant water samples were extracted from the jars (after
161 sedimentation) containing each coagulant dose and from jars with blanks (wastewater subjected to
162 similar mixing conditions, without addition of coagulant) and analysed for turbidity. The optimum
163 dose was identified as the dose that attained the lowest residual turbidity values for each product
164 tested. In addition, charge quantity (CQ, $\mu\text{eq/L}$) and colour analysis (mg Pt/L) were performed in all
165 samples. Standard methods and equipment were used: turbidity (EN 27027:1994; Hatch Ratio/XR
166 Turbidity meter), pH (SFS-EN 13037:1994; WTW Universal meter), colour (ISO 7887:1994;
167 Lovibond Nessleriser Daylight 2000) and SS (SFS-EN 872:2005; Class fibre filter Whatman GF/C).
168 Charge quantity analysis was carried out using the Müttek particle charge detector PCD 03 PH (Müttek
169 Analytic GmbH, Germany) following the manufacturer's instructions. **The measurement is based on
170 the streaming current principle where samples are titrated with a titrant of opposite charge until the
171 point of zero charge is reached. The titrant volume consumed to neutralize the charge of the samples
172 is used to calculate the charge density (Müttek Instruction Manual 2000; Leiviskä, 2010)**

173 Supernatant samples (two replicates) extracted from jars treated with the optimum dose of each
174 coagulant were sent to a certified laboratory. Purification efficiency was assessed based on the
175 residual concentration (determined by standardised SFS and ISO analytical methods) of: biochemical
176 oxygen demand (BOD₇): SFS-EN 1899-1:1998, chemical oxygen demand (COD): ISO 15705:2002,
177 total phosphorus (tot-P): SFS-EN ISO 15681-2:2005, orthophosphate (PO₄-P): SFS-EN ISO 15681-

178 2:2005, total nitrogen (tot-N): SFS-EN ISO 11905-1:1998, total aluminium (tot-Al): SFS-EN ISO
 179 15587-2:2002,11885:2009, and total iron (tot-Fe): SFS-EN ISO 15587-2:2002,11885:2009. Sludge
 180 volume was determined after 60 min sedimentation time in tests with secondary wastewater samples,
 181 via direct reading from the markings on the glass jars. The settling characteristics of flocs formed
 182 (optimum dose of three best-performing coagulants) in the treatment of primary wastewater samples
 183 were evaluated using the methodology described by Bratby (2006). Turbidity measurements were
 184 conducted on 30-mL supernatant samples collected at 2, 4, 6, 8, 16, 32 and 60 min during the
 185 sedimentation period.

186 2.4 Quality of wastewater samples tested

187 Samples extracted from blanks of experimental runs were sent to a certified laboratory for water
 188 quality analysis (BOD₇, COD, tot-P, PO₄-P, tot-N, tot-Fe, tot-Al) and were also tested using in-house
 189 laboratory facilities (pH, electrical conductivity (EC), turbidity, colour, SS, CQ,).

190 Table 3. Water quality characteristics of blank samples (average \pm standard deviation).

Water Quality Parameters	Secondary wastewater (mean \pm std. dev.) (n=11)	Primary wastewater (mean \pm std. dev.) (n=5)
BOD ₇ (mg/L)	68 \pm 54	143 \pm 129
COD (mg/L)	301 \pm 105	360 \pm 193
tot-P (mg/L)	1.95 \pm 0.50	3.70 \pm 0.68
PO ₄ -P (mg/L)	0.76 \pm 0.55	2.84 \pm 0.72
tot-N (mg/L)	74 \pm 8	53 \pm 5
tot Fe (mg/L)	4.33 \pm 3.29	7.50 \pm 1.75
tot Al (mg/L)	0.82 \pm 0.42	0.40 \pm 0.18
SS (mg/L)	35.91 \pm 13.79	64.73 \pm 15.17
Turbidity (NTU)	34.46 \pm 9.44	74.82 \pm 12.75
Colour (mg Pt/L)	---	315 \pm 30
pH	6.85 \pm 0.18	7.52 \pm 0.04
Sludge Volume (ml)	572 \pm 152	40 \pm 9
EC (μ S/cm)	1290 \pm 55	905 \pm 101

191 2.5 Data analysis

192 The rank-based nonparametric statistical analysis Kruskal-Wallis H test (confidence interval 90%, p
 193 ≤ 0.1) followed by the post-hoc Dunn test and Bonferroni correction (IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0) was
 194 used to test the hypothesis of equality of samples median for both the quality of the wastewater

195 samples tested (blank) and the removal of target pollutants achieved by different coagulants (PAC,
196 pAmine1, pAmine3, Starch and Chitosan). In addition, clustering based on a Principal Component's
197 analysis following Ward's method for Euclidean distance was used to determine similarities in
198 wastewater quality between blank samples and removal rates achieved by different coagulants
199 (RStudio software). Analysis regarding wastewater quality were conducted based on turbidity
200 (Kruskal-Wallis H test), BOD₇, tot-P, PO₄-P and tot-N (cluster analysis) concentrations found in
201 blank samples while analysis related to treatment efficiency was done based on removal of turbidity,
202 BOD₇, tot-P, tot-N (Kruskal-Wallis H test) and PO₄-P (cluster analysis). Removal efficiency was
203 calculated using Equation (1).

$$204 \quad R_{ef} = 100 * \frac{C_i - C_f}{C_i} (\%) \quad (1)$$

205 where: R_{ef} = removal efficiency (%), C_i = initial concentration of contaminant (mg/L) and C_f = final
206 concentration of contaminant (mg/L).

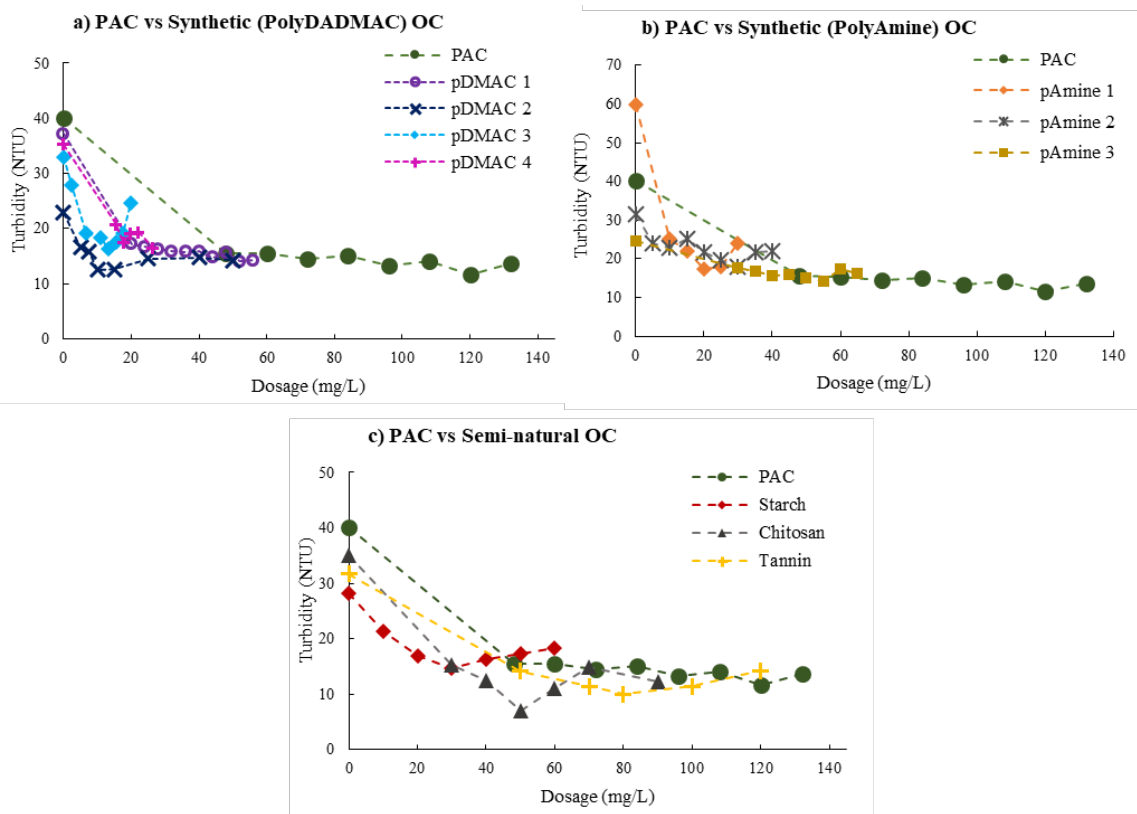
207 **3. RESULTS**

208 The effectiveness of the different OC products as sole precipitation agent for purification of municipal
209 wastewater was compared with that of PAC. Coagulant doses are reported as active dose (water
210 content of products was disregarded). The quality of the supernatant water extracted from samples
211 treated with the optimum dose of each coagulant was compared with that of their respective blank
212 samples in terms of pollutant concentrations (BOD₇, COD, SS, tot-N, tot-P, PO₄-P).

213 *3.1. Coagulant dose required for treatment of secondary wastewater samples (Phase 1)*

214 In the dosage requirement tests, an increasing dose of all coagulants resulted in a reduction in residual
215 turbidity in the supernatant water until an optimum dose was reached. Doses higher than the optimum
216 caused increased turbidity in the supernatant water. In general, OC required substantially lower doses
217 than PAC for effective turbidity removal, regardless of the initial turbidity of the wastewater samples

218 (Fig. 2). Among the OC tested, products with (very) high CD and high MW required lower doses
 219 than products with lower CD and MW. The PAC product tested achieved its lowest residual turbidity
 220 values, of about 12 NTU, at a dose of 120 mg/L. A high-MW polyDADMAC product (pDMAC3)
 221 required a dose of only 15.4 mg/L to achieve similar residual turbidity (Fig. 2a). The optimum dose
 222 identified for pAmine1 was 20 mg/L, which removed as much turbidity (71%) as PAC at 120 mg/L
 223 (Fig. 2b). Among all products tested, including IC and OC, chitosan (50 mg/L) achieved the highest
 224 overall turbidity removal (~80%) and produced supernatant water with the lowest residual turbidity
 225 values (~7 NTU).



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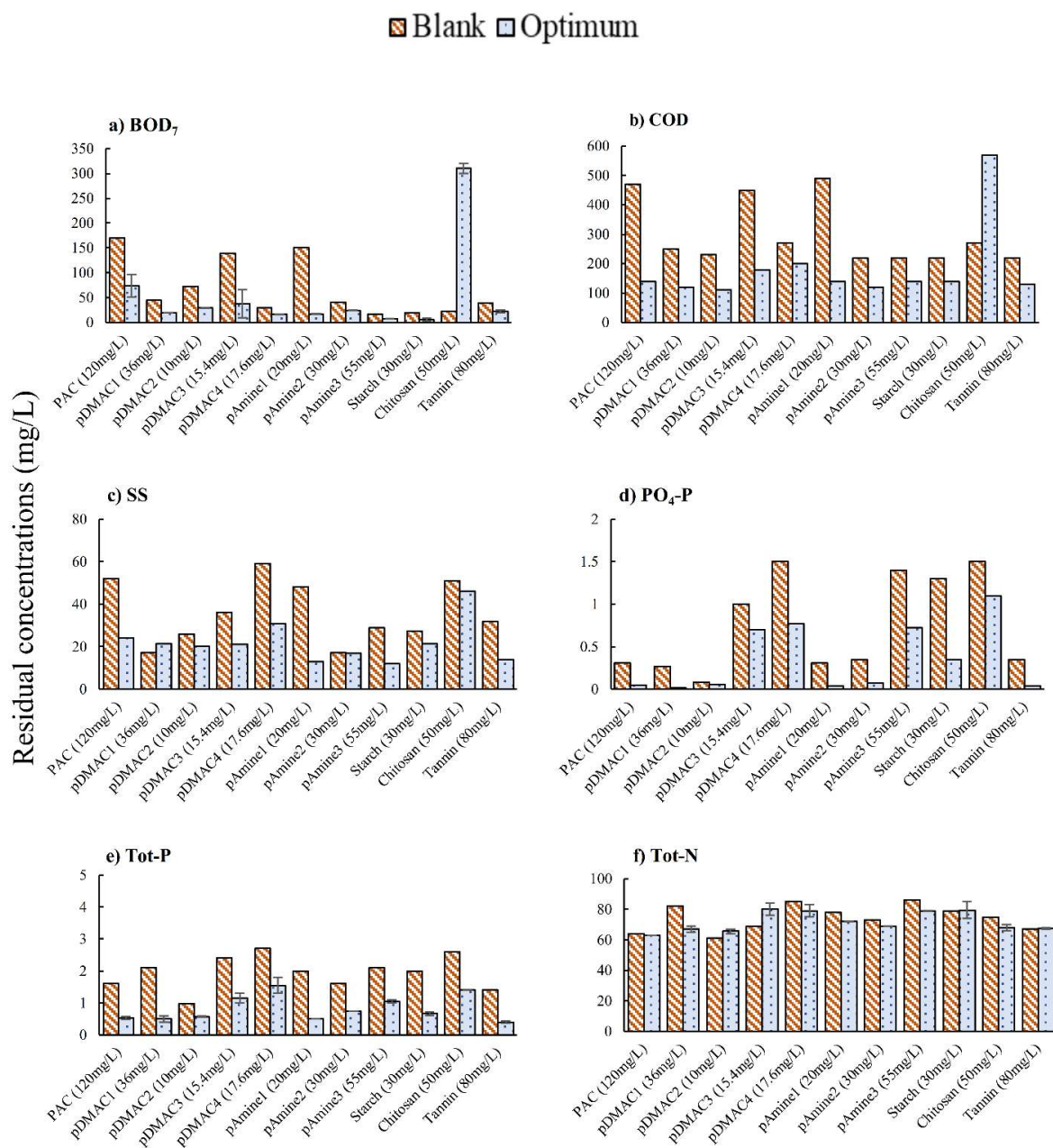
227 Fig. 2. Turbidity (NTU) of secondary wastewater samples treated with increasing doses (mg/L) of
 228 inorganic coagulant (IC) and organic coagulant (OC). Turbidity at 0 dose (mg/L) refers to the
 229 turbidity of blank samples.

230 *3.2. Purification efficiency in treatment of secondary wastewater samples (Phase 1)*

231 Purification efficiency (removal of target pollutants) achieved by the optimum dose of the coagulants
232 was evaluated. The quality of the wastewater (blank) samples varied significantly (Table S1a,
233 Supplementary Material) during the test period (e.g. turbidity, Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.047$) which made
234 a straight comparison among coagulant performances challenging. However, pair-wise comparison
235 and cluster analysis (Table S1b and Fig. S1, Supplementary Material) showed that the quality of
236 wastewater samples treated by e.g. pAmine3 and Starch (turbidity, Kruskal-Wallis $p = 0.409$) as well
237 as samples treated by PAC and pAmine1 (turbidity, Kruskal-Wallis $p = 0.546$) were not significantly
238 different.

239 In general, residual contaminant concentrations found in samples treated with OC were comparable
240 to those found in samples treated with PAC (Fig. 3). Among the coagulants tested, pAmine1 achieved
241 higher overall removal efficiencies than PAC for all target contaminants, but particularly BOD₇,
242 COD, tot-P, PO₄-P, tot-N and SS. Regarding organic matter removal, samples treated with the high-
243 MW OC (pDMAC3, pAmine1, and Starch) showed lower residual concentrations of BOD₇ than
244 samples treated with PAC. These were followed by the very high-MW OCs (pDMAC1 and
245 pDMAC2) (Fig. 3a). On the other hand, COD removal by OC was slightly lower than that achieved
246 by PAC (Fig. 3b). Treatment with chitosan produced supernatant water with substantially higher
247 BOD₇ and COD concentrations than those found in the blank samples (Fig. 3b). The lowest
248 concentrations of SS were found in samples treated with the high-MW pAmine1 and the low-MW
249 pAmine3 (Fig. 3c). In terms of removal efficiency, the highest removal of SS was achieved by
250 pAmine1 (72%), followed by pAmine3 (58%) and the tannin-based semi-natural polymer (56%). The
251 removal of SS achieved by different coagulants followed similar patterns to the turbidity removal
252 efficiency observed during dosage requirement tests (Fig. 2), except for the semi-natural products.
253 The optimum dose of chitosan achieved high turbidity removal (Fig. 2c), but wastewater samples
254 were found to contain substantial amounts of SS after purification tests (Fig. 3c).

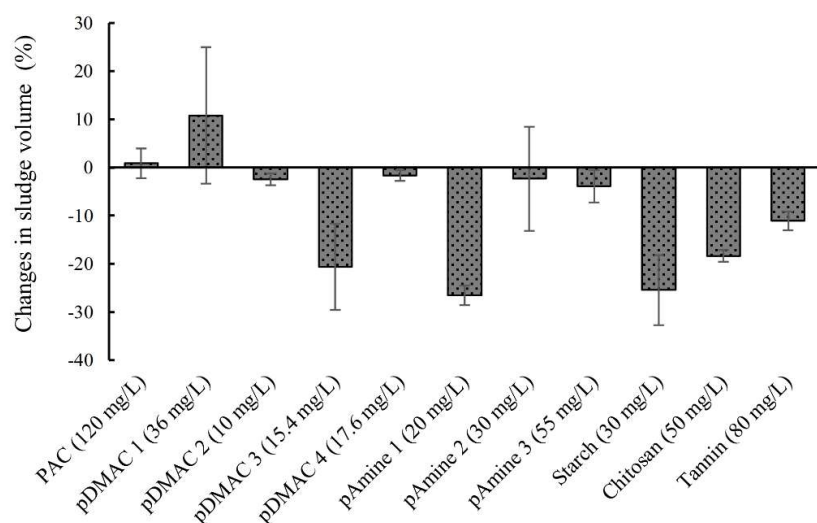
255 The synthetic OC, pDMAC1 (very high MW) and pAmine1 (high MW), attained the highest removal
 256 efficiencies of tot-P and PO₄-P. In addition, samples treated with these two synthetic OC and the
 257 tannin-based semi-natural polymer (low MW) showed the lowest residual PO₄-P and tot-P
 258 concentrations (Figs. 3d and 3e). As expected, removal of tot-N was lower than that of other target
 259 contaminants. The products pDMAC1 and chitosan achieved the highest tot-N removal rates, 18%,
 260 and 9%, respectively. It is important to note that samples treated with pDMAC2 and pDMAC3
 261 contained higher tot-N concentrations than those found in the blank samples (Fig. 3f).



263 Fig. 3. Residual concentrations (mg/L) of target contaminants in blank and treated (optimum doses)
264 secondary wastewater samples. Error bars represent maximum and minimum values obtained from
265 experimental replicates.

266 3.3. Sludge volume produced during secondary wastewater sample treatment

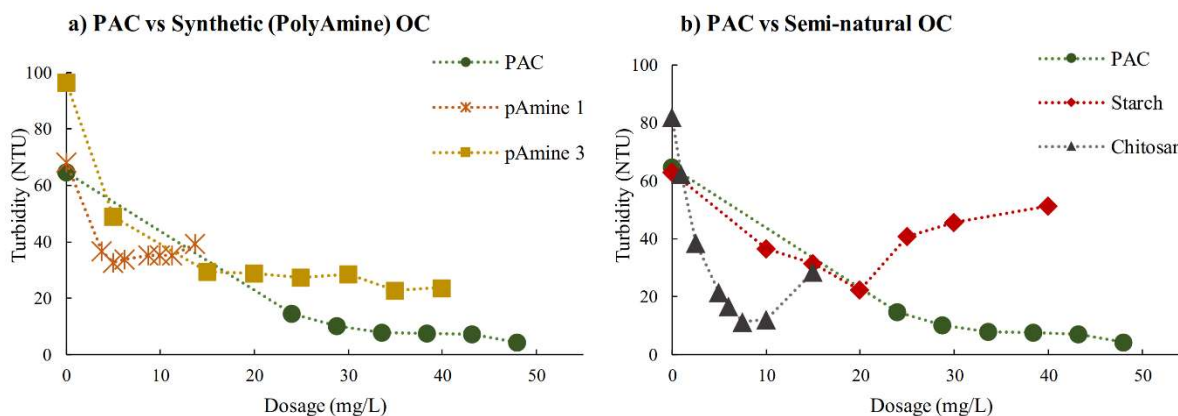
267 The amount of sludge produced due to addition of coagulant is an important parameter when assessing
268 their cost-efficiency. The volume of sludge generated by the coagulants tested in comparison with
269 the blank samples (mixing and sedimentation but no coagulant addition) increased or decreased for
270 different products (Fig. 4). Organic polymers with high MW and high CD produced lower sludge
271 volumes (~25% lower) than those observed in blank samples. Among the coagulants tested, pAmine1
272 obtained the highest reduction in sludge volume, followed by starch and pDMAC3, with 28%, 25%
273 and 20% decrease in volume, respectively, when compared to their blank samples. In contrast,
274 treatment with pDMAC1 caused a 10% increase in sludge volume and addition of PAC did not appear
275 to affect the volume of sludge produced (Fig. 4).



276
277 Fig. 4. Change in sludge volume for each coagulant (optimum dose) compared with blank samples in
278 the treatment of secondary wastewater. Error bars represent maximum and minimum values obtained
279 from experimental replicates.

280 3.4. Coagulant dose required for treatment of primary wastewater samples (Phase 2)

281 Dosage requirement tests for the treatment of primary wastewater samples were conducted using five
282 coagulants: PAC, pAmine1, pAmine3, starch, and chitosan (Fig. 5). As observed during tests with
283 the secondary wastewater samples, addition of increasing coagulant doses decreased the turbidity of
284 the supernatant water until an optimum dose was reached. Doses higher than the optimum caused an
285 increase in the supernatant water turbidity, particularly when OC were used (Fig. 5). In general, PAC
286 required a higher optimum dose (48 mg/L) than pAmine (10-35 mg/L) or semi-natural OC (7.5-10
287 mg/L). On the other hand, the residual turbidity measured in samples treated with the optimum dose
288 of PAC was evidently lower than that measured in samples treated with all other products except
289 chitosan.



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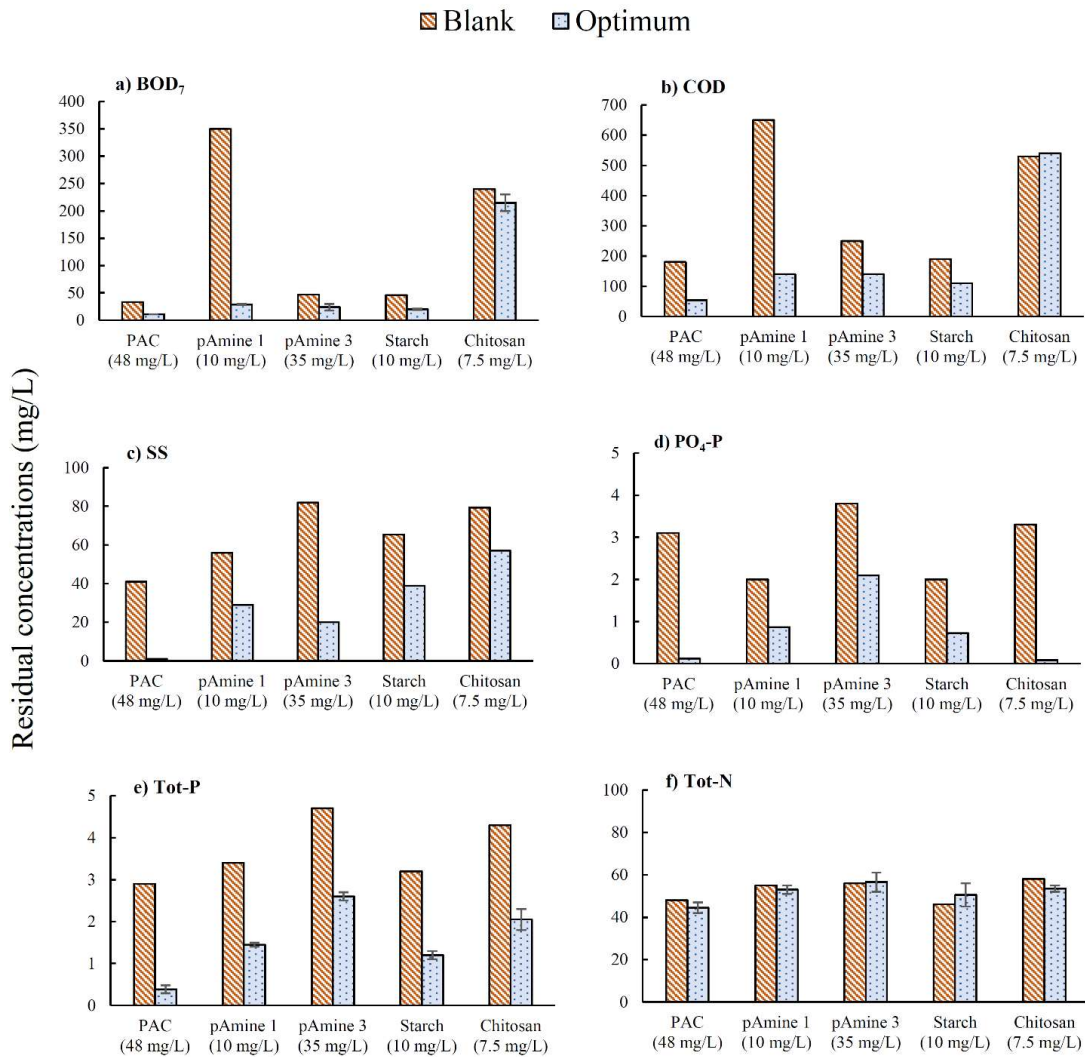
291 Fig. 5. Residual turbidity (NTU) with an increasing dose (mg/L) of polyaluminium chloride (PAC)
292 and different synthetic and semi-natural organic coagulants (OC) in treatment of primary wastewater
293 samples. Turbidity at 0 dose (mg/L) refers to the turbidity of blank samples.

294 3.5. Purification efficiency in the treatment of primary wastewater samples (Phase 2)

295 According to the statistical analysis performed, water quality varied significantly (Table S1a,
296 Supplementary Material) among primary wastewater (blank) samples (turbidity, Kruskal Wallis, $p =$
297 0.068). In particular, the organic matter and SS concentrations found in blank samples treated with

298 PAC were substantially lower than those measured in blank samples by other products (Fig. 6). Pair-
299 wise comparison and cluster analysis (Table S1c and Fig. S2, Supplementary Material) showed that,
300 samples treated by PAC and Starch (turbidity, Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 0.509$) and by Chitosan and
301 pAmine1 (turbidity, Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 0.509$) were not significantly different.

302 In general, residual contaminant concentrations were lower in samples treated with PAC. However,
303 the performance of the five OC tested was to some extent comparable to that of PAC (Figs. 6c-6e).
304 Lower residual BOD₇ and COD concentrations were found in samples treated with pAmine1 than in
305 samples treated with PAC (Fig. 6a and 6b). Semi-natural polymers (e.g. chitosan), performed as well
306 as PAC in removing PO₄-P. Samples treated with chitosan contained about 10% higher tot-N
307 concentration than the blank samples, while other products had little or negligible effects on the tot-
308 N concentration of the water (Fig. 6f).



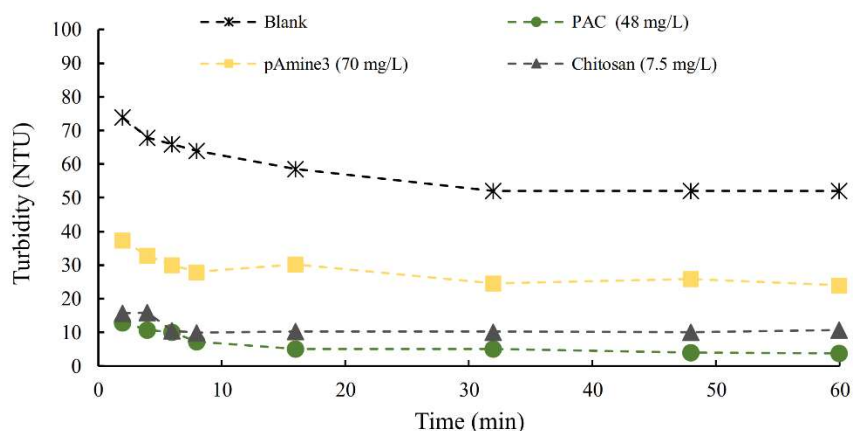
309

310 Fig. 6. Residual concentrations (mg/L) of target contaminants (see Table 3) in blank and treated
 311 (optimum doses) primary wastewater samples. Error bars represent maximum and minimum values
 312 of experimental replicates.

313 *3.6. Settling characteristics of flocs formed*

314 The ability of coagulants to form readily settleable flocs that sedimented over the selected residence
 315 time was evaluated. Three coagulants were selected according to turbidity test results from dosage
 316 requirement experiments: PAC (48 mg/L), pAmine3 (35 mg/L) and chitosan (7.5 mg/L). In
 317 comparison with the blank sample, addition of all three coagulants improved the settling
 318 characteristics of particles in suspension (Fig. 7). It was evident that, as the sedimentation period

319 progressed, the turbidity of samples to which coagulant was applied decreased at a faster rate than
320 that of the blank sample. In addition, the final turbidity of the supernatant water at the end of the
321 sedimentation period was much lower in coagulant-treated samples. Lowest turbidity residuals were
322 achieved within 20 mins of sedimentation for all coagulants, and a further increase in sedimentation
323 time had little or no effect in clarification of the supernatant water by IC or OC products (Fig. 7). Of
324 the products tested, PAC and chitosan achieved faster settling rates and better supernatant water
325 clarification than pAmine3.



326

327 Fig. 7. Settling characteristics of flocs formed by the addition of coagulant in comparison with the
328 blank sample during treatment of primary wastewater samples.

329 4. DISCUSSION

330 The quality of the wastewater samples collected prior to secondary and primary clarifiers in a
331 municipal WWTP differed markedly. For instance, the amount of particulate matter and P in
332 secondary samples was about half that in primary samples (Table 3). While most of the P in primary
333 samples was in $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ form (~70%), particulate-P was the dominant form in secondary samples
334 (~60%). During tests, it was also observed that the particulate matter in primary samples was mostly
335 composed of smaller particle sizes than the particulate matter in secondary wastewater samples. In
336 addition, the pH of primary and secondary wastewater samples differed (mean 7.7 and 6.8,

337 respectively). As the coagulant dose required for treatment and purification effectivity is directly
338 dependent on the amount and type of contaminants in the water (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Bratby,
339 2016), treatment efficiency and coagulant dose required in purification of primary and secondary
340 samples differed substantially (Fig. 3 and Fig. 6). Moreover, there were significant variations in water
341 quality between samples from the same treatment stage (secondary, **Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.047$** and
342 primary, **Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.068$**) (Table 3). Purification efficiency and dosage requirements of
343 different products were affected by water quality characteristics of the samples treated, hampering
344 direct comparison of the performance of different products tested.

345 In general, it was observed that dosage requirements of coagulants were up to 60% higher in treatment
346 of secondary samples compared with primary samples (Fig. 2 and Fig. 5). This is in line with existing
347 reports that higher particle concentrations lead to lower coagulant dosage requirement for effective
348 treatment and that smaller particles have a higher tendency to coagulate than larger particles. Thus,
349 suspensions containing a large proportion of smaller particles (as in primary samples in our study)
350 normally require lower doses of coagulant to achieve maximum solids removal (Bratby, 2016; Sun
351 et al., 2019). Optimum doses identified for OC were substantially lower than that identified for the
352 IC product tested (PAC). Higher dosage requirements of IC compared with OC have been reported
353 previously (Nozaic et al., 2001; Heiderscheidt et al., 2016a; Tetteh and Rathilal, 2019). Based on
354 results obtained with the synthetic OC tested, dosage requirements for OC generally decreased with
355 increasing MW, as also reported by Bolto et al. (1999, 2001) and Wilts et al., 2018.

356 In terms of purification efficiency, some of the OC produced treated samples with low contaminant
357 concentrations and their performance was similar to that of PAC. As reported previously by Bolto et
358 al. (2001), OC with (very) high MW and CD (e.g. pAmine1 and pDMAC1) were found to produce
359 the lowest residual concentrations of organic matter (BOD₇ and COD) in treatment of both secondary
360 and primary wastewater samples. These two OC products also achieved similar or better removal of
361 SS, PO₄-P, and tot-P than PAC. As reported previously (Wang et al., 2005; Yang, 2012;

362 Ramasahayam et al., 2014), IC was better in removing P from primary wastewater samples, where
363 PO₄ was the dominant form of phosphorus. This is attributable to the fact that PO₄-P, a strong anion,
364 competes with coordinating ligands (e.g. hydroxyl ions) to form a stable bond with polymeric
365 hydrolysis products of PAC (Duan and Gregory, 2003). Therefore, a higher number of PO₄-P ions in
366 the solution induces higher affinity to Al ions, which then form precipitates that are removed from
367 suspension via sedimentation. Conversely, in the purification of secondary samples, OC with (very)
368 high MW and very high CD worked best in removal of PO₄-P. This is most likely due to the low ionic
369 strength (due to low PO₄-P concentration) of the samples, enabling repulsion between strongly
370 charged segments of the organic polymer molecules. These molecules adopt an expanded coil
371 configuration, allowing for a larger area of contact between the polymer and PO₄-P ions and result in
372 higher removal efficiency (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Bratby, 2016).

373 Overall, low removal of N from wastewater samples was achieved by all coagulants tested, with some
374 OC (e.g. pDMAC2, pDMAC1, starch) actually increasing the tot-N concentrations in the samples
375 (Table 4). This was due to the presence of residual coagulant in the treated samples, as OC contain
376 quaternary amine groups in their structure (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Sánchez-Martín et al., 2010;
377 Heiderscheidt et al., 2016a; Heiderscheidt et al., 2016b).

378 In order to further strengthen the evaluation of the coagulant performance, statistical analysis of data
379 regarding removal rates achieved by the different coagulants was conducted (Tables S2a-b, and S3a-
380 b and Figs. S3-S4, Supplementary Material). Removal efficiency was used instead of contaminant
381 residual concentrations to minimise the effect of variations in wastewater quality on the analysis
382 performed. In the treatment of secondary wastewater samples, removal of turbidity and tot-P were
383 found to differ substantially (Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.012$, 0.080 consecutively) among the coagulants
384 while removal rates of BOD₇ and tot-N were not significantly different (Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.120$,
385 0.130 consecutively). During the treatment of primary wastewater samples, removal rates of turbidity,
386 BOD₇ and tot-P by the coagulants PAC, pAmine1, pAmine3, Starch and Chitosan were significantly

387 different (Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.009, 0.080, 0.093$ consecutively) while variations in the removal of
388 tot-N among the coagulants was statistically negligible (Kruskal Wallis $p = 0.567$).

389 It is important to emphasize that, while variations in wastewater quality may have affected the
390 coagulants performance to a great extent, the type of coagulant used was an extremely important
391 factor influencing the results obtained. For example, pair-wise comparison and cluster analysis (Table
392 S1b and Fig. S1, Supplementary Material) reveal that the quality of secondary wastewater samples
393 treated by e.g. Chitosan and pAmine1 (Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 0.228$) were not significantly different but
394 the contaminant removal rates achieved by these products varied substantially (tot-P, Kruskal-Wallis,
395 $p = 0.008$) (Table S2b and Fig. S3, Supplementary Material). Similarly, during treatment of primary
396 wastewater samples, pair-wise comparison and cluster analysis (Table S1c and Fig. S2,
397 Supplementary Material) showed that the quality of the samples treated by e.g. PAC and Chitosan
398 (Kruskal-Wallis $p = 0.186$) were not significantly different however, purification efficiency obtained
399 by the two products differed greatly (Kruskal-Wallis, $BOD_7 p = 0.048$ and tot-P $p = 0.047$) (Table
400 S3b and Fig. S4, Supplementary Material)

401 To enable more direct comparisons of the products tested, the mass (mg) of contaminant removed per
402 unit mass (mg) of coagulant added was determined (Table 4). Overall, high-MW organic polymers
403 with (very) high CD were found to remove a higher mass of contaminants from secondary samples
404 per unit mass of coagulant. The highest mass of SS, tot-P, BOD_7 and COD removed per unit mass of
405 coagulant was achieved by pAmine1, while pDMAC3 achieved similar removal of BOD_7 , COD and
406 tot-P per unit mass of coagulant as pAmine1. However, PO_4 -P was removed most efficiently by
407 pDMAC4, which is characterised by medium MW. pDMAC1 (very high MW) removed the highest
408 mass of tot-N per unit mass of coagulant, followed by pDMAC4 and pAmine1. In primary wastewater
409 samples, optimum dosage requirement tests showed chitosan to be the best-performing coagulant
410 among the OC tested. However, purification efficiency tests showed that pAmine1 removed greater
411 amounts of some target contaminants (BOD_7 and COD) per unit mass of the coagulant. Due to its

412 high dosage requirement, PAC achieved the lowest contaminant removal per unit mass of coagulant,
 413 particularly for BOD₇, tot-P and PO₄-P. In general, high-MW synthetic OC required lower doses than
 414 PAC and semi-natural OC to remove a higher mass of target contaminants. Low-MW semi-natural
 415 OC showed high removal efficiency per unit mass of coagulant for nutrients (PO₄-P, tot-P, tot-N) and
 416 SS.

417 The coagulants were also tested for their capacity to remove metals (i.e. tot-Al and tot-Fe; Table S4,
 418 Supplementary Material). The pAmine1 coagulant achieved the highest ratio of mass of tot-Al and
 419 tot-Fe removed per unit mass of coagulant added among all coagulants tested in treatment of
 420 secondary wastewater samples. Semi-natural polymers were comparatively better in removing metals
 421 from primary wastewater samples, with starch and chitosan achieving the highest mass of tot-Al and
 422 tot-Fe removed, respectively, per unit mass of added coagulant.

423 Table 4. Mass (mg) of contaminant removed per unit mass (mg) of coagulant added in treatment of
 424 primary and secondary wastewater samples (best removal values are in bold).

	Coagulants	Doses (mg/L)	SS (mg/mg)	Tot-P (mg/mg)	PO ₄ -P (mg/mg)	BOD ₇ (mg/mg)	COD (mg/mg)	Tot-N (mg/mg)
Secondary Wastewater	PAC	120.00	0.23	0.01	0.002	0.80	2.75	0.008
	pDMAC1	36.00	0.11	0.04	0.007	0.69	3.61	0.417
	pDMAC2	10.00	0.60	0.04	0.003	4.35	12.00	-0.507
	pDMAC3	15.40	0.97	0.08	0.019	6.63	17.53	-0.715
	pDMAC4	17.60	1.59	0.07	0.041	0.71	3.98	0.341
	pAmine1	20.00	1.75	0.07	0.014	6.63	17.50	0.300
	pAmine2	30.00	0.01	0.03	0.009	0.55	3.33	0.133
	pAmine3	55.00	0.31	0.02	0.012	0.17	1.45	0.127
	Starch	30.00	0.20	0.04	0.032	0.47	2.67	-0.017
	Chitosan	50.00	0.10	0.02	0.008	-5.74	-6.00	0.140
Tannin	80.00	0.23	0.01	0.004	0.22	1.13	-0.006	
Primary Wastewater	PAC	48.00	0.83	0.05	0.06	0.46	2.63	0.07
	pAmine1	10.00	2.70	0.20	0.11	32.10	51.00	0.20
	pAmine3	35.00	1.77	0.06	0.05	0.66	3.14	-0.01
	Starch	10.00	2.63	0.20	0.13	2.60	8.00	-0.45
	Chitosan	7.50	2.98	0.30	0.43	3.33	-1.33	0.60

425

426 The sludge volume produced was monitored during tests with secondary wastewater samples.
427 Treatment with PAC and the (very) high-MW and -CD pDMAC1 increased the sludge volume
428 produced in comparison with blank samples, while high-MW OC (e.g. pDMAC3, pAmine1, starch)
429 produced lower sludge volumes than blank samples (Fig. 4). Higher sludge amount generation by IC
430 can be expected, due to the formation of insoluble hydrolysis products (Bolto and Gregory, 2007;
431 Oladoja, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017; Tetteh and Rathilal, 2019). In comparison with other OC, smaller
432 flocs were observed when pDMAC1 was used. The formation of small flocs from the interaction of
433 high-CD polymer with organic matter under neutral pH conditions has been reported previously
434 (Libeck, 2010; Razali et al., 2011). In those studies, it was linked to charge reversal, which occurs
435 when there is an excess amount of polymer in the solution, causing re-dispersion of particles and
436 leading to poor settling characteristics and higher sludge volume. The possibility of charge reversal
437 appears to be higher with (very)-high MW and (very) high-CD coagulants than with low-MW and
438 low-CD coagulants (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Razali et al., 2011). However, CQ measurements
439 carried out for all coagulants at optimum dosage showed that charge reversal did not occur during the
440 treatment of samples (Tables S5 and S6, Supplementary Material).

441 The complex, long-chain structure of organic polyelectrolytes contributes to the high contaminant
442 reduction potential of OC during the coagulation and flocculation stages, since their dominant
443 mechanism is bridging particles previously coagulated by IC in a regular wastewater treatment
444 process. High-MW polyelectrolytes are more effective at bridging, whereas high-CD polyelectrolytes
445 are more effective at destabilisation by charge neutralisation (Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Wilts et al.,
446 2018). Flocs formed through a bridging mechanism are more compact and stronger than those formed
447 through charge neutralisation and electrostatic patch formation, which are the dominant
448 destabilisation mechanisms for metal salt coagulants (IC). Hence, low sludge volume formation is
449 normally observed for such polymers. IC-formed flocs are more prone to breakage and have high
450 sludge production potential, due to the relatively higher optimum dose required and the formation of

451 hydroxide precipitates (Nozaic et al., 2001; Bolto and Gregory, 2007; Oladoja, 2016; Zhang et al.,
452 2017; Tetteh and Rathilal, 2019).

453 Although sludge volume was effectively reduced by high-MW OC products, sludge settling tests for
454 primary wastewater samples showed that the low-MW semi-natural product chitosan performed as
455 well as the IC product PAC in forming larger, easily settleable flocs (Fig. 7). In addition, the flocs
456 formed in the treatment with chitosan settled within 20 min of sedimentation time and no further
457 decrease in supernatant water turbidity was seen over the remaining 40 min of settling time allowed.

458 In general, the cost of the organic products (e.g. pAmine1, Starch, etc.) are 2 times higher than the
459 PAC product tested (i.e. Al_2O_3 content > 17%) and 4-5 higher than the more affordable PAC products
460 commonly used (i.e. Al_2O_3 content 12-15%). The lower required dose of the organic products (up to
461 80%) can partly offset their higher price tag. However, complete cost-benefit analysis should be
462 conducted where e.g. product transport, storage, sludge management and disposal, etc. should be
463 taken into consideration.

464 4. CONCLUSIONS

465 The effectiveness of OC (synthetic and semi-natural) with varying MW and CD compared with that
466 of the IC (PAC) conventionally used in removal of target pollutants from real secondary and primary
467 municipal wastewater samples was successfully investigated. Overall, high purification efficiency
468 was achieved by a number of the coagulants tested (e.g. PAC, pAmine1) in treatment of wastewater
469 samples, despite variations in wastewater characteristics upon sample collection. The following
470 conclusions can be drawn:

- 471 - Higher (up to 60%) coagulant dose was needed in treatment of secondary wastewater samples
472 compared with primary samples.
- 473 - Significantly higher doses of PAC (up to 80%) than of OC were needed for effective
474 treatment.

- 475 - In treatment of secondary wastewater samples, high-MW and high-CD OC (e.g. pAmine1)
476 achieved best removal of target pollutants (e.g. SS, PO₄-P, BOD₇), followed by PAC.
- 477 - High-MW and (very) high-CD OC (e.g. pAmine1, PDMAC3, starch) reduced the volume of
478 sludge produced compared with blank samples and samples treated with PAC.
- 479 - In treatment of primary wastewater, PAC was the best performing coagulant, closely followed
480 by chitosan and pAmine1.
- 481 - The OC pAmine1 achieved high mass (mg) removal of target pollutants (SS, tot-P, PO₄-P,
482 BOD₇, COD) per unit mass (mg) of coagulant added and was among the best-performing of
483 the coagulants tested. For example, in treatment of secondary wastewater samples, 1.75 and
484 0.23 mg of SS, 0.07 and 0.01 mg of PO₄-P and 6.63 and 0.80 mg of BOD₇ were removed per
485 mg of pAmine1 and PAC, respectively.

486 Based on the results obtained, polyamine products with high MW and (very) high CDs have the
487 potential to act as the sole precipitation agent in both primary and secondary stages of municipal
488 wastewater treatment. Further research is needed on the effect of residual coagulant on
489 downstream water and sludge treatment processes (e.g. activated sludge process, sludge
490 dewatering, etc.).

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