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# Effect of filter media thickness on the performance of sand drying beds used for faecal sludge management

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## 13 Abstract

12

14 The effect of sand filter media thickness on the performance of faecal sludge (FS) drying beds was 15 determined in terms of dewatering time, contaminant load removal efficiency, solids generation rate, nutrient 16 content and helminth eggs viability in the dried sludge. A mixture of VIP-latrine sludge and septage in the ratio 17 1:2 was dewatered using three pilot-scale sludge drying beds with sand media thicknesses of 150mm (A), 18 250mm (B) and 350mm (C). Five dewatering cycles were conducted and monitored for each drying bed. 19 Although filter A (150mm) had the shortest average dewatering time of 3.65 days followed by filters B 20 (250mm) and C (350mm) with 3.83 and 4.02 days respectively, there was no significant difference (p>0.05) 21 attributable to filter media thickness configurations. However, there was a significant difference for the 22 percolate contaminant loads in the removal and recovery efficiency of suspended solids, total solids, total 23 volatile solids, nitrogen species, total phosphorus, COD, DCOD and BOD, with the highest removal efficiency 24 for each parameter achieved by the filter C (350mm). There were also significant differences in the nutrient 25 content (NPK) and helminth eggs viability of the solids generated by the tested filters. Filtering media 26 configurations similar to filter C (350mm) have the greatest potential for optimising nutrient recovery from FS.

27 *Keywords: dewatering; dewatered solids; faecal sludge; filtering media thickness; Helminth eggs; percolate;* 

## 28 Introduction

29 Globally, faecal sludge (FS) management is a growing challenge especially in urban Africa, and this is due to 30 rapid urbanisation, population growth and poor FS treatment facilities. These have contributed to an increase in 31 the volume of FS generated and accumulated within urban areas. Currently, it is estimated that over 2.7 billion 32 people globally rely on on-site sanitation facilities for their sanitation needs, and this population is anticipated to 33 increase to 5 billion by 2030 (Strande, 2014). Of which, In Sub-Saharan Africa, about 65-100% of the urban 34 residents are served by on-site sanitation technologies other than sewer systems. These systems generate 35 significant volumes of highly concentrated FS material without the benefit of the dilution that is provided by 36 water-borne sewered sanitation infrastructure (Montangero and Strauss 2004).

37 Despite the progress made in the past decades to deliver improved sanitation in urban Africa, sanitation 38 service delivery in the form of infrastructure development for FS treatment facilities has not been harmonised 39 with the needs of the increasing population. Therefore, sustainable FS treatment technologies are largely still 40 lacking in these areas. Consequently, FS is collected directly from on-site sanitation installations without any 41 treatment and subsequently used in agriculture and aquaculture or indiscriminately disposed of into the 42 environment (e.g., natural wetlands and drainage channels), leading to severe environmental and public health 43 risks. Given that FS from on-site sanitation facilities is characterised by nutrient and pollutant concentrations 44 that are 10-100 times stronger than domestic wastewater (Strauss et al. 1997), its indiscriminate disposal into 45 water bodies leads to serious public health risks in addition to oxygen depletion in aquatic systems. Yet, FS

46 contains valuable organic matter and plant nutrients such as nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K), 47 which can be recovered for safe reuse in agriculture. However, FS contains pathogens that need to be inactivated 48 if it is to be reused in agriculture so as to minimise the public health risks. In urban Africa where helminthic 49 infections are rampant, helminth eggs especially *Ascaris* eggs have been suggested as the best hygienic indicator 50 since they are more resistant to die-off than all other excreted pathogens (Feachem *et al.* 1983).

51 Various methods for low-cost FS treatment have been described, of which unplanted sludge drying beds 52 followed by co-composting of biosolids are considered to be amongst the most feasible options (Cofie et al. 53 2009). Unplanted sludge drying beds have proven to be a technically feasible FS treatment technology with the 54 recovery of nutrient and biosolids for agriculture reuse. However, the current design and operational criteria has 55 been associated with some limitations such as: generation of low quality dewatered solids in terms of NPK and 56 organic matter; percolate with high contaminant loads; longer dewatering periods and high required footprint of 57 about 0.05-0.08m<sup>2</sup>/capita of land area requirement for treatment of FS to about 20-70%TS (Cofie et al. 2006; 58 Heinss et al. 1998). These limitations have not been thoroughly addressed to-date and thus, they formed a basis 59 for this research study.

60 Previous studies on FS dewatering have attempted to address these limitations by focussing on: the particle 61 size of sand bed filters and their solid loading rates (Kuffour 2010); the use of greenhouses or mixing of FS on 62 beds (Seck et al. 2015); and dewatering of FS using locally produced natural conditioners (Gold et al. 2016). 63 Even though, the dewatering times improved, the quality of the solids for reuse in agriculture remained very low 64 and with very high percolate contaminant load. Little focus has been placed on the sand filtering thickness so as 65 to address the limitations with an aim of enhancing nutrient recovery in the resulting dry solids, contaminant 66 load removal in percolate and shortening the dewatering time. Therefore, this research investigates the 67 relationship between sand filtering media thickness and: i) dewatering time; ii) removal efficiency of 68 contaminant load in percolate; iii) solids nutrient and microbiology quality (NPK and helminth eggs); and iv) 69 solids generation rate.

# 70 Material and Methods

# 71 Pilot-scale faecal sludge dewatering facility

The study was conducted in Kampala, the capital city of Uganda at the geographical location of latitude 0°18'58" N, longitude 32°34'55" E and elevation of 1,223m above sea level. The pilot scale dewatering facility was designed and constructed at Lubigi FS treatment facility, National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC). The facility consisted of three 1m<sup>3</sup> capacity FS storage PVC tanks, percolate storage containers, outlet drains, and 12 unplanted sludge drying beds of 1m<sup>2</sup> effective drying area (see Figure 1).

# 77 Bed preparation with different sand filtering media thickness

78 The drying beds were constructed with a raised plinth wall approximately 1m from the ground level. The beds 79 comprised of three layers which included: bottom base supporting layer made of coarse aggregates with average 80 particle size within the range of 10 - 19mm and thickness of 150mm; followed by middle supporting base of fine 81 gravel with average diameter between 5 and 10mm and thickness of 100mm; and lastly, the top layer which is 82 the sand filtering media of particle size within the range of 0.2 - 0.6mm (Kuffour et al. 2009). The sand media 83 had a uniformity coefficient of 2.833. Nine out of the twelve sludge drying beds were constructed with three 84 different sand filtering media thickness of 150 mm, 250 mm, and 350 mm. Each of these beds was constructed 85 in triplicate and arranged in a randomised block design. A PVC mosquito net was placed on top of the sand 86 filtering media so as to ease the removal of dewatered solids from the drying beds and to reduce sand media 87 losses (Figure 1D and 1C).

## 88 Faecal sludge preparation and dewatering

Raw FS used in this study was collected from informal settlements located less than 0.5km from the project site (i.e., Bwaise, Kawempe and Makerere Kikoni). Sludge from VIP latrines (VIP sludge) and septic tanks (septage) was collected from the FS suction trucks that discharge to the Lubigi treatment plant and stored separately in 1m<sup>3</sup> PVC tanks. It was then transferred to the third PVC storage tank, where it was thoroughly

93 mixed in the ratio of 1:2 (VIP sludge: septage) by volume prior to application on FS drying beds. Studies

- 94 conducted in Ghana showed that this ratio resulted in good dewaterability characteristics (Cofie et al. 2006;
- 95 Koné et al. 2007). The dosing depth of <200mm was applied on each drying bed.
- 96



# 98

ģğ Figure 1: Views of the pilot-scale FS drying beds (A and B), including Cross Section X-X (C) and Longitudinal 100 Section Y-Y (D) through the FS drying beds showing their construction details.

#### 101 Monitoring FS dewatering phase

102 The percolate volume collected from each drying bed was measured every 24 hours and the total number of

103 days taken for complete dewatering of sludge was recorded. Dewatering was considered complete once the flow 104 of percolate from the drying bed stopped and the dewatered sludge could be removed easily from the drying

105 beds with a spade. Five dewatering trials were conducted and monitored for a period of 7 months.

#### 106 FS, percolate and dewatered solids sampling

107 For each cycle, raw FS sludge (VIP sludge and septage) delivered at the dewatering facility as well as the mixed 108 FS was sampled and analysed immediately for physicochemical and microbiological parameters prior to 109 dewatering on drying beds. At least 10 grab samples were taken from each FS storage tank at different sampling 110 points. These were then thoroughly mixed to form a composite sample, which was taken to the laboratory for 111 analysis. Percolate was collected daily from each drying bed and measured on site for temperature, Electrical 112 Conductivity (EC) and pH until the dewatering cycle was complete. The percolate collected from each drying 113 bed was stored separately at <4°C until the completion of the dewatering cycles to prevent any microbial 114 activity. On completion of the dewatering cycle, a composite sample of the percolate was formed from each 115 drying bed and taken for analysis. From each filter bed, dewatered solids were removed carefully and weighed. 116 It was then thoroughly mixed and analysed for physicochemical and microbiological parameters.

#### 117 Laboratory analysis

118 Percolate and raw FS samples were analysed for: pH, EC, Total Solids (TS), Suspended Solids (SS), Total 119 Volatile Solids (TVS), Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD), Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD), Dissolved

- 120 COD (DCOD), Total Ammonia (TNH<sub>3</sub>-N), Nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>), Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen (TKN), Total Phosphorus
- 121 (TP) and Potassium (K). The dewatered solids were analysed for moisture content, TVS, TN (sum of TKN
- 122 +NO<sub>3</sub>-N), TP and K. These parameters were analysed at the NWSC laboratories following standardised

analytical methods (APHA-AWWA-WEF. 2005). The raw FS, percolate and dewatered solids were also
 analysed for helminth eggs (i.e., *Ascaris* eggs) following the method developed by the U.S. EPA (2003).

# 125 Statistical analysis

126 The results were reported as average values  $\pm$  one standard deviation of triplicate readings and subjected to 127 statistical analysis using IBM SPSS Statistic 21.0 software. Data was analysed using non-parametric Friedman 128 test to examine the significance of differences amongst mean values of each filter media configuration, with 129 95% confidence level. Spearman's rho test was also used to test the significance of the correlation coefficients 130 between the dewatering time and the removal efficiency of contaminate loads from the raw FS based on a >95%

131 confidence level.  $P \le 0.05$  was set as the statistical significance criterion.

# 132 Results and Discussion

## 133 Faecal sludge composition

The raw FS (i.e., a mixture of VIP sludge: Septage (1:2)) had large nutrient and pollutant concentrations (Table 1), which are 10-100 times stronger than typical domestic wastewaters in agreement with the findings of

previous researchers (Strauss *et al.* 1997). However, such large concentrations pose a challenge in treating FS,

especially in urban Africa when compared to treating wastewater. The values for TVS were very large but

138 correlate well within the range of 0.16 - 65.60 g/l reported in the literature (Koottatep *et al.* 2001). This implies

- 139 that the mixed raw FS had possibly undergone partial degradation or stabilisation while in on-site storage or
- 140 before collection.

141 Table 1: Characteristics of raw FS (mixture of VIP sludge: Septage (1:2)) over 5 drying cycles

Parameter	(Mean ± SD)	Parameter	(Mean ± SD)	Parameter	(Mean ± SD)
pН	7.7±0.5	SS (g/l)	14.1±6.8	TKN (g N/l)	2.1±1.4
EC (mS/cm)	15.2±4.2	TS (g/l)	29.6±5.8	NO <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	0.7±0.4
COD (g/l)	14.8±10.7	TVS (%)	62.9±8.4	TNH <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	1.2±0.8
DCOD (g/l)	3.1±0.8	Viable Ascaris	00   50	TP (g P/l)	0.3±0.1
$BOD_5(g/l)$	2.7±1.0	eggs (eggs/g)	90±30	K (g/l)	1.6±0.1

142  $\pm$  one standard deviation (SD)

# 143 Dewatering efficiency of different sand filtering media thickness

144 The mean dewatering times of sand filtering media thickness 150mm, 250mm and 350mm were 3.65, 3.83 and 145 4.02 days, respectively. This clearly indicates that the dewatering time increased slightly with the increase in the 146 sand filtering media thickness, which is in agreement with Tchobanoglous et al. (2003), who reported that the 147 drainage rate is reduced with the increase in the sand layer thickness. In Figure 2, it can be observed that there 148 was a significant variation in the dewatering times of the five dewatering trials. This phenomenon was possibly 149 due to the changes in the climate conditions during the dewatering periods. This is because the performances of 150 the sludge drying beds basically rely on climatic and environmental conditions especially humidity, evaporation, 151 temperature and precipitation. Possibly longer dewatering times were recorded whenever the temperatures were 152 low (i.e., temperature varied from 15.7 -  $20^{\circ}$ C as minima and 27 -  $28.6^{\circ}$ C as maxima) and humidity was high 153 (74% to 80%) during the dewatering periods. The longer dewatering times of T1, T2 and T3 (Figure 2) were 154 also possibly because of the high solid loading rate of FS mixture, which was in the range of 324 - 535 155 kgTS/m<sup>3</sup>/yr. Similar dewatering behaviour was also reported by (Kuffour et al. 2013), who concluded that 156 dewatering time increases with increases in the solid loading rate. The variation in the dewatering time can also 157 be attributed to the variation in the degree of raw FS mixture stability, given that different raw FS mixture with 158 different degree of stability was prepared for each dewatering trial. This is because unstable sludge is 159 characterised by poor dewatering properties as it cannot easily lend itself to dewatering. The average dewatering 160 times of 3.65 - 4.02 days in this research compared very well and even better with those recorded by Evans et al. 161 (2015) in Bangladesh and Heinss et al. (1998) in Ghana.

162The different sand filtering media thickness 150mm, 250mm and 350mm were capable of dewatering163FS with SLR of 230 - 535 kgTS/m²/year in an average of 3.65, 3.83 and 4.02 days respectively. The dewatering

164 results compared fairly well and even better than those of the research studies conducted in Ghana by Kuffour et 165 al. (2009; 2013) and Cofie et al. (2006), where the dewatering periods were 9 -10 days, 4 - 7 days and 12 days for SLR of 217 - 360 kgTS/m<sup>2</sup>/year, 379 - 438 kgTS/m<sup>2</sup>/year and 196 - 321 kgTS/m<sup>2</sup>/year, respectively. 166 167 Regardless the observations discussed above, the Friedman test results at 95% confidence level indicated that 168 the sand filtering media thickness configurations had no significant difference (P=0.627) in the dewatering 169 period. The average surface solid loading rate of 441 kgTS/m<sup>2</sup>yr, 433 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr and 422.1 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr 170 attained in this study for 150mm, 250mm and 350mm, respectively reflected 0.0165, 0.0169 and 171 0.0173 m<sup>2</sup>/capita of land area requirement for treatment of FS to about 37% TS. This result contradicts with those 172 of previous researchers, who found a required footprint of about 0.05-0.08m<sup>2</sup>/capita for land area required to 173 treat FS to about 20-70%TS (Cofie et al. 2006; Heinss et al. 1998). This discrepancy in results could have been 174 due to the differences in the characteristics of FS dewatered, climatic conditions as well as the quality of locally 175 available filtering media materials used in the construction of the dewatering beds, all of which affect the 176 performance of drying beds. This study results indicated 65 - 67% reduction in the land area requirement per 177 capita for the treatment of FS to about 37%TS, which is very important in urban areas where land available for 178 FS treatment is limited. The reduction in the sand filtering media from 350mm to 150mm resulted into a further 179 5% reduction in the land area requirement per capita. However, there was no statistically significant effect of the 180 treatment on the land area requirement per capita.



#### 181 182

#### 82 Figure 2: Dewatering time of different sand filtering media thickness

183 T1, T2, T3, T4 and T5 represent each dewatering trial. Dewatering time represents the mean values of triplicate 184 beds (error bars are ± one standard deviation). Dewatering was considered complete whenever the percolate 185 from the bed stopped flowing and dewatered sludge was spadable to be easily removed from the drying beds.

#### 186

#### Solids recovery in dry sludge and removal from percolate efficiencies

187 The configured sand filter media thickness of 150mm, 250mm, and 350mm achieved high average recovery 188 efficiencies of TS, TVS and SS from raw sludge into the resulting solids (dry sludge), in the ranges of 81.0-189 83.8%, 79.4-84.9% and 94.7-97.0% respectively (Table 2). However, the contaminant loads in the percolate 190 were still higher than Uganda's recommended standards for discharge into the environment (N.E.M.A. 1999). 191 This means that the percolate needs further treatment before discharge to the environment. The mean solids 192 recovery efficiency results achieved in this study compared well with those reported by previous researchers 193 (Kuffour et al. 2009; Heinss et al. 1998). 350mm filtering media thickness achieved the best performance for 194 the recovery of TS, TVS and SS from raw sludge (Table 2). Friedman test results at 95% confidence level 195 indicated that this treatment had a significant difference (P=0.0001) in the recovery efficiency of SS, TVS and 196 TS. This improved performance may be due to the increased total particle surface area of the 350mm filter 197 media for removal of finer FS particles as the liquid infiltrates through the sand media. On the other hand, the 198 higher TS and TVS removal efficiencies recorded by 350mm filtering media may have been due to the slightly 199 longer dewatering periods exhibited by such filtering media configuration. This observation was supported by 200 the Spearmen's rho test, which revealed a stronger positive correlation between the dewatering time and TS and 201 TVS removal efficiency (see Table 5). In the present study, there was no significant correlation observed 202 between the dewatering time and SS removal efficiency (see

203 Supplementary Information

## 204

Table 5), which contradicts with the findings of Kuffour (2010). This difference in results could have been due to differences in dewatering times, wherein the present study the dewatering times were too short to exhibit a significant correlation between the two variables. Furthermore, the results show that the filter with a 350mm media had the potential of generating more solids for co-composting with other organic wastes hence enabling the optimum reuse of FS organic matter and nutrients. Based on this study, it was observed that an increase in the sand filtering media by 100mm leads to 24.9%, 12.9% and 7.7% recovery of SS, TVS and TS respectively from the percolate, which thus implies an increase in the quantity of solids retained by the unplanted sludge

212 drying filter for reuse or composting.

213	Table 2: Percolate quality and solids removal and recovery efficiencies	5
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Parameter (Units)	N.E.M.A. (1999)	Percolate quality (Mean ± SD)			% Recovery*	and Removal**	* (Mean ± SD)
	Discharge Standards	150mm	250mm	350mm	150mm	250mm	350mm
SS (g/l)	0.10	0.72±0.68	0.51±0.42	0.41±0.38	94.70±3.90	96.10±2.70	97.00±2.20
TS (g/l)	-	5.41±1.51	$5.03 \pm 1.50$	4.61±1.52	$81.00{\pm}7.00$	82.30±6.80	83.80±6.70
TVS (g/l)	-	3.67±1.00	3.21±0.95	2.78±0.95	79.40±6.60	82.40±3.50	84.90±3.00

\*% of concentrations retained in the solids fraction by the filtering media based on the initial FS concentration.

215 \*\* % of concentrations remained in the percolate after dewatering based on the initial FS concentration.

# 216 Nutrient removal from percolate and recovery in dry sludge

217 Removal efficiencies of TNH<sub>3</sub>-N from raw sludge were high for all the media thickness (Table 3); however, the 218 remaining average concentration of ammonium in the percolates were still high for disposal into the 219 environment – i.e., 0.27gN/l in 150mm; 0.19gN/l in 250mm; and 0.15gN/l in 350mm. This might be as a result 220 of hydrolysis of organic nitrogen, thus resulting into release of total ammonia. The recorded TNH<sub>3</sub>-N 221 concentrations in percolate were not any close to the recommended Uganda standards of 0.01gNH<sub>3</sub>-N/l for 222 discharge into the environment (N.E.M.A. 1999). TNH<sub>3</sub>-N removal efficiency increased gradually with the 223 increase of the sand filtering media thickness (Table 3). The reductions in TNH<sub>3</sub>-N might possibly be a result of 224 its NH<sub>4</sub>-N fraction reduction, which could be linked to the organic matter (TVS) removal and nitrification. This 225 is because literature suggested that during loading of the sludge drying beds, NH<sub>4</sub>-N is absorbed onto the 226 organic matter and bed media, which contains oxygen for accelerated nitrification by nitrifying aerobic bacteria 227 (Lienard et al. 2005; Tchobanoglous et al. 2003). Therefore, as the thickness of the filtering media increases, the 228 oxygen within the sand filtering media also increases and so the nitrification rate for NH<sub>4</sub>-N hence TNH<sub>3</sub>-N 229 reduction.

230 All the filter media thickness attained a relatively high percentage removal of TN, in a range of 60.7 -231 83.0%. This possibly might have been as a result of nitrogen loss by denitrification in the sand filtration system, 232 organic nitrogen mineralisation and high organic matter (TVS) removal (Epstein 2003; Panuvatvanich et al. 233 2009). The nitrate concentration in the percolate increased gradually with the increase of the sand filtering 234 media thickness 150mm (0.29gN/l), 250mm (0.43gN/l), 350mm (0.75gN/l), yet the removal efficiency reduced 235 (Table 3). This can possibly be attributed to the nitrification of NH<sub>4</sub>-N fraction to NO<sub>2</sub>-N and finally to NO<sub>3</sub>-N 236 in the filtering media, which is supported by the oxygen stored in the interstitial spaces of the sand matrix and 237 also in biofilms surrounding surfaces of sand particles. This leads to rapid consumption of available nitrogen 238 substrates by aerobes (Tanner et al. 2002). Therefore, the results of this study suggest that improvement of the 239 nitrification rate in the unplanted drying bed treating FS can be achieved by an increase in the sand filtering 240 media thickness. In Table 3, it can be noted that the NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations detected in percolate did not comply 241 with the Uganda wastewater discharge standards of 0.02 gNO<sub>3</sub>-N/l, which implies the percolate needs further 242 treatment.

The nutrient recovery efficiencies in the range of 51.9 – 56.6% and 34.7 - 48.3% for TP and K respectively, achieved in this study were comparable with those reported by previous researchers (Kuffour 2010). The 350mm media filter exhibited an outstanding performance over the others for recovery of TKN, TP and K from raw sludge with an average of 83.0%, 56.6% and 48.3% respectively. This implies that percolate

- 247 from this media thickness contained less nutrients as the greater fraction was retained in the solids. It is
- important to note from Table 3 that the concentrations of all the nutrients in the percolate were still higher than
- 249 the recommended discharge standards into the environment, despite the high recovery efficiencies, which
- 250 implies that percolate needs further treatment before discharge to the environment.
- 251 In respect to the above discussion, the Friedman test results at 95% confidence level show that the 252 treatment had a significant difference with P=0.0001 in the percolate concentration and recovery efficiency of 253 TNH<sub>3</sub>-N, TKN, and TP. However, there was no significant difference (P= 0.487) observed at p<0.05 that the 254 treatment had on the percolate concentration of K. The results from this study indicate that an increase in the 255 sand filtering media by 100mm led to 27.4%, 33.0% and 10.7% reduction in TNH<sub>3</sub>-N, TKN, and TP 256 concentrations in the percolate. This confirms the role of sand filtering media thickness on nutrient recovery 257 from FS by using unplanted drying beds. In this study, no significant correlation was observed between the 258 dewatering time and removal efficiencies of K, TKN, NO<sub>3</sub>-N, and TNH<sub>3</sub>-N (Table 6). This implies that 259 dewatering time had little influence on the removal of such nutrients during FS dewatering.

#### 260 Table 3: Percolate quality, nutrient removal (percolate) and recovery (solids) efficiency

Parameter (Units)	N.E.M.A. (1999)***	<i>Percolate quality (</i> Mean ± SD)			Recovery a	<i>and Removal ef</i> (Mean ± SD)	ficiency, %
	Discharge Standards	150mm	250mm	350mm	150mm	250mm	350mm
TP (g P/l)	0.01	0.11±0.02	0.10±0.02	0.09±0.02	51.9±18.1	54.2±18.4	56.6±17.7
K (g/l)		1.07±0.10	0.96±0.15	0.85±0.35	34.7±10.1	41.5±11.2	48.3±21.4
TKN (g/l)	0.01	0.61±0.17	0.46±0.16	0.27±0.03	60.7±22.3	71.1±17.5	83.0±7.5
NO <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	0.02	0.29±0.23	0.43±0.38	0.75±0.51	60.7±6.2	42.1±15.7	-2.4±1.9
TNH <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	0.01	$0.27 \pm 0.05$	0.19±0.02	0.15±0.01	69.4±15.2	77.4±11.0	80.7±11.3

\*% of concentrations retained in the solids fraction by the filtering media based on the initial FS concentration.

262 \*\* % of concentrations remained in the percolate after dewatering based on the initial FS concentration.

263 \*\*\* N.E.M.A. ?

#### 264

#### Biodegradable organics removal from the percolate and recovery in dry sludge efficiencies

265 The results from this study reveal that all the filtering media thickness of 150mm, 250mm, and 350mm 266 achieved a high average removal efficiency of COD, DCOD and BOD, in the ranges of 91.3- 93.4%, 67.9-267 77.7% and 85.6-92.8%, respectively (Table 4). The configured filter media thickness exhibited an impressive 268 performance with results that compared well and even better than those reported by Kuffour (2010), Cofie et al. 269 (2006) and (Heinss et al. 1998), which were in the range of 70-91%, 65.8-77.7% and 70-90% for COD, DCOD 270 and BOD respectively. However, the average contaminant loads of COD and BOD in the percolate, which were 271 in the range of 1.08-1.33 g/l and 0.16-0.31 g/l respectively, were higher than the recommended Uganda 272 standards of 0.10g/l (COD) and 0.05g/l (BOD<sub>5</sub>) for discharge of effluent to the environment (N.E.M.A. 1999). 273 This possibly might have been due to the high contaminant load in the raw sludge because of the short storage 274 duration of FS in the on-site sanitation prior to collection and transportation to the dewatering facility. This 275 implies that raw FS had undergone partial degradation or stabilisation since the storage duration was not enough 276 for sufficient biodegradation of organic pollutants. An excellent DCOD decrease exhibits the presence of 277 dissolved organics for microbial action (Tchobanoglous et al. 2003). The high removal efficiency of COD, 278 DCOD and BOD achieved in this study might possibly be due to the availability of oxygen in the sand filter 279 media for aerobic microorganisms that biodegrade the available organics aerobically, and the presence of easily 280 biodegradable FS organics for bacterial action. The presence of these easily biodegradable FS organic 281 constitutes is proposed based on the low COD/BOD ratio of (5.4) (Heinss et al. 1998). The high removal 282 efficiency of organics could also be attributed to the high percentage removal of solids from raw FS achieved by 283 all the media thickness.

The 350mm filtering media exhibited an outstanding performance over 250mm and 150mm in the removal of COD, DCOD and BOD from raw FS with an average of 93.4%, 77.7%, and 92.8% respectively. This impressive performance of 350mm might possibly be due to its ability to achieve high solids removal efficiency, deepest sand filtering media thickness which provides an increase in surface area and also maintains sufficient

288 aerobic conditions for microbial actions that biodegrade dissolved organics thus a higher reduction in the 289 dissolved organics, COD, DCOD and BOD concentration. Thus, the results of this study support the suggestion 290 that an improvement in the removal of BOD, COD, and DCOD in the unplanted drying bed treating FS can be

291 achieved by an increase in the sand filtering media thickness. This is because the increase in the sand thickness 292

- maintains sufficient oxygen for aerobic microbial, which contribute to the breakdown of organic pollutants in 293 FS. In support of the above discussion, the Friedman test results at 95% confidence level indicated that the sand
- 294 filter media configuration had a significant difference with P=0.0001 in the removal efficiency of BOD, COD,
- 295 and DCOD. In Table 7, it can be noted that no significant correlation was observed between the dewatering time
- 296 and removal efficiency of organic pollutants during composting.

297 Table 4: Percolate quality, Organic pollutants removal (from percolate) and recovery (in dry sludge) 298 efficiency

CHICK	icy								
Parameter (Units)	N.E.M.A. (1999)	<i>Percolate quality (</i> Mean ± SD)			% Recovery* and Removal** (Mean ± SD)				
	Discharge Standards	150mm	250mm	350mm	150mm	250mm	350mm		
COD (g/l)	0.10	1.33±1.09	1.23±1.16	1.08±1.03	91.3±1.0	92.4±2.3	93.4±2.0		
DCOD (g/l)	-	0.97±0.31	$0.85 \pm 0.34$	0.67±0.16	67.9±9.6	72.3±9.6	77.7±6.6		
BOD (g/l)	0.05	0.33±0.25	0.24±0.20	0.16±0.14	85.6±14.7	89.4±11.3	92.8±8.1		

299

\*% of concentrations retained in the solids fraction by the filtering media based on the initial FS concentration. 300 \*\* % of concentrations remained in the percolate after dewatering based on the initial FS concentration.

#### 301 Helminth eggs removal efficiency

302 The three designed filter media thickness achieved 100% helminth eggs removal efficiency from percolate in 303 comparison to raw sludge, which means that all of the helminth eggs were retained in the dewatered solids. This 304 result is consistent with that of previous researchers (Evans et al. 2015; Heinss et al. 1998). In comparison to the 305 helminth eggs in raw FS mixture, the filtering media thickness 150mm, 250mm, 350mm achieved 55.6%, 306 64.3%, 72.1% average percentage reduction of helminth eggs in the dewatered solids with a moisture content of 307 60.6% -66.4%. However, these helminth eggs reductions were much higher than the 30%-50% reductions 308 reported by Evans et al. (2015) in the field study conducted in Bangladesh on unplanted sludge drying beds, 309 where the moisture content was in the range of 50%-69%. The significant reductions in the helminth eggs 310 attained in this study can be attributed to the thermal destruction of helminth eggs, which may have been due to 311 the exposure of the dewatering FS to solar radiation and relatively high ambient temperatures, especially during 312 the dry season. Similar behaviour has been reported by other authors (Seck et al. 2015; Nordin 2010). On the 313 other hand, this significant reduction in the helminth eggs can be explained by the reduction in moisture since 314 pathogens have been reported to be extremely sensitive to moisture loss during sludge drying, with their 315 numbers reducing dramatically with moisture losses (Öğleni and Özdemir, 2010).

316 It is interesting to note that helminth eggs concentrations in the solids generated by configured sand 317 filtering media thickness reduced gradually with increase in the sand filtering media thickness from 150mm 318 (43egg/g), 250mm (35 egg/g) to 350mm (27 egg/g) (Figure 3(A)). This might possibly have been due to the 319 entrapment of helminth eggs within the sand filtering media as FS containing eggs infiltrates through the 320 filtering media. Therefore, as filtering media thickness increases the quantity of eggs entrapped increases too 321 and thus their reduction in the solids. This implies that more helminth eggs are trapped within the sand filtering 322 media and therefore further research is required to establish the most appropriate way for inactivation of 323 helminth eggs entrapped within sand filtering media. The results of viable helminth eggs in the solids recorded 324 in this study collaborate well with those reported by Koné et al. (2007) in Ghana, which was in the range of 25-325 83 eggs/g.

326 Although a significant reduction in helminth eggs was observed in this study, their concentrations in the 327 dewatered solids were considerably higher than the threshold egg count of  $\leq 1$  egg/litre suggested by World 328 Health Organisation (2006) nematode guideline for biosolids safe for agricultural use. This result is not 329 surprising, given that the dewatering FS was exposed to the high ambient temperatures and solar radiations for a 330 very short duration to achieve complete die-off of helminth eggs, yet the temperature-time relationship is a key

- 331 factor for responsible for the thermal destruction of helminth eggs (Koné et al. 2007). Secondly, the dewatering
- 332 process was also of very short storage duration (3.65 4.02 days), and the moisture content in the dewatered
- 333 solids was not low enough to influence the inactivation of helminth eggs. Literature has shown that the moisture
- content must be reduced to  $\leq 5\%$  ( $\geq 95\%$ ) in the dewatered solids so as to ensure complete inactivation of helminth eggs at ambient temperature (Feachem et al. 1983). Therefore, this implies that dewatered solids need
- further treatment such as co-composting with organic waste so as to inactivate the helminth eggs and other
- 337 pathogen indicators to comply with the guidelines prior to reuse in agriculture.

# 338 Characteristics and quantity of dewatered solids

339 Given the average accumulation rate of dry solids (TS) and organic matter (TVS) for all configured filter media 340 thickness (Figure 4B and 4C), it can be noted that 350mm had a potential to generate the highest amount of dry 341 solids and organic matter with an average rate of 87.8% and 70.9% respectively. The outstanding performance 342 of 350mm in the generation of TS and TVS was possibly due to its potential to achieve the highest solids (TS 343 and TVS) removal efficiency from percolate as discussed previously. Based on the average dewatering time of 344 each filter media thickness, the annual average solids production and their corresponding organic matter 345 accumulation rate (kg TVS/m<sup>2</sup>/yr) were estimated (Figure 4 (D)). Interestingly, 150mm had the highest average 346 annual generation rate of dry solids, which was 441 kgTS/m<sup>2</sup>yr compared to 433 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr and 422 347 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr for 250mm and 350mm respectively. This could possibly be attributed to shortest dewatering times 348 that 150mm achieved in all dewatering trials. However, 350mm had the highest annual generation rate of 349 organic matter which was 300kg TVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr compared to 295 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr and 299 kgTVS/m<sup>2</sup>yr for 150mm and 350 250mm respectively. Irrespective of the above discussion, the Friedman test results at 95% confidence level 351 showed that the treatment had no significant difference with P=0.549, and P=0.127 in the generation of dry 352 solids (TS) and TVS respectively.

353 The nutrient content (NPK) of the solids generated by the different filter media thickness 150mm, 354 250mm and 350mm were generally high and these were comparable with those reported by Kuffour (2010). 355 150mm had the potential to generate solids with the highest TN content of 5.01% of TS whereas 350mm 356 generated those with the highest TP and K, which were 26.6 P g/kg and K of 4.64 K g/kg respectively (see 357 Figure 3). This study noted that the loss of TN content in the generated solids increase with an increase in the 358 sand filtering media thickness. This TN loss is attributed to the high NH<sub>3</sub>-N volatilisation which is due to the 359 longer dewatering times of SM 3. TN loss behaviour attained in this study is similar to that reported by 360 Panuvatvanich et al. (2009) in the field investigation on vertical-flow constructed wetlands. An increase in the 361 sand filtering media by 100mm led to 25.54% increase in the TN loss of the generated solids. However, TP and 362 K increased with increase in the sand filtering media. This might possibly be attributed to 350mm's potential to 363 achieve the highest TP, K and solids recovery efficiency from FS as previously discussed. In respect to the 364 above discussion, the Friedman test results at 95% confidence level indicated that the treatment had a significant 365 difference with P=0.003, P=0.0001 and P=0.002 in the generation of dry solids with TN, P and K respectively.

366

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367 368 369

thickness.



# 370 371

Figure 4: (A) Average dry solids per cycle, (B) Average percentage TS accumulation rate, (C) Average organic 372 matter per cycle and (D) average dry solids and organic matter per m<sup>2</sup>/year generate by the configured filtering 373 media thickness.

#### 374 Conclusion

375 This research study aimed at investigating the effect of sand filtering media thickness on the performance of FS 376 drying bed. The following conclusions can be drawn based on the findings obtained:

377 The sand filtering media thickness of unplanted sludge drying beds can be reduced to 150mm thickness 378 if the purpose of the drying beds is to optimise annual generation of solids with highest TKN content. In this 379 study, 150 mm media thickness proved robust as it had the shortest dewatering time regardless of the variation 380 in the quality of raw FS mix and climatic conditions, yet it lowers the construction costs of the beds. The 381 dewatering time of the beds was not significantly influenced by the sand filtering media thickness 382 configurations. The improved dewatering performance attained in this study results into 65 - 67% reduction in

the land area required per capita for the treatment of FS to about 37%TS. The reduction in the sand filtering media from 350mm to 150mm could result into a further 5% reduction in the required land area/ capita. The recommended design criteria for SLR is XXXX kg/m2/year.

386 Where the purpose of the drying bed is to improve on the percolate quality, the sand filtering media 387 thickness can be increased to 350mm thickness. This study reveals that the removal efficiency of the 388 contaminant loads (TNH<sub>3</sub>-N, COD, DCOD and BOD) from raw sludge had a statistically significant difference 389 influenced by sand filtering media thickness configurations. Thus, the contaminant load (TNH<sub>3</sub>-N, COD, DCOD 390 and BOD) removal efficiency increased with increase in the sand filter media thickness. This shows that 391 problems of overloading downstream FS treatment facilities (such as stabilisation ponds or wetlands) with 392 organic pollutants can possibly be gradually reduced with the increase of the filtering media thickness. Although 393 the removal efficiency of contaminant loads achieved by all the filter media thickness was generally high, their 394 concentrations in the percolate were still high and thus percolate needed further treatment (e.g., using 395 stabilisation ponds or constructed wetlands) before discharge to the environment. Although, if the final 396 stabilisation of the resulting dry sludge is conducted by (co-) composting, the percolate can be use to maintain 397 moisture in the piles and hence, helping to fully recover nutrients from raw FS.

398 The recovery efficiency of nutrients (TN, TP, K) and solids (TS, TVS, SS) from percolate and raw FS 399 mix increased with increase in the sand filtering media thickness. This implied that more solids and nutrients 400 were retained by 350mm filtering media for reuse in agriculture. This solids and nutrient recovery efficiency 401 was significantly influenced by the sand filtering media thickness configurations.

There were significant differences in the nutrient content (NPK) of the solids generated by the different filter media thickness. 150mm filtering media thickness had a potential to generate annually the highest solids but with the highest TN content whereas 350mm generated those with the highest organic matter, TP and K content. The study noted the TN loss in the generated solids increased with increase in the sand filtering thickness and the reverse was true for organic matter, TP and K.

407 100% of the helminth eggs were retained in dewatered solids by all the configured media filtering
408 thickness, which implied that solids needed further treatment either through composting or storage so as to
409 inactivate the eggs prior to reuse in agriculture. Interestingly, the configured filtering media thickness achieved
410 between 55.6% - 72.1% helminth eggs inactivation in dewatered solids during the dewatering phase.

411 The study reveals that 350mm filtering media had the highest potential of optimising the nutrients 412 recovery from FS by generating the solids with highest organic matter and nutrient content for reuse in

413 agriculture.

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# **4**99

# 501 Supplementary Information

#### 502

# 503Table 5: Correlation coefficients between dewatering time and percolate solids removal efficiency of504different filtering media

Parameter			Filtering Media	Dewatering tim	е		
(Units)	15	50mm	2	250mm 350mm			
	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r	
SS (g/l)	0.934	0.023	0.879	0.043	0.726	0.099	
TS (g/l)	0.018*	0.601	0.011*	0.636	0.007*	0.661	
TVS (g/l)	0.052*	0.510	0.031*	0.556	0.006*	0.674	

505 \* indicates significant at P<0.05 respectively.

# Table 6: Correlation coefficients between dewatering time and percolate nutrient removal efficiency of different filtering media

Parameter (Units)			Filtering Media	Dewatering tim	е	
	1	50mm	2	250mm	35	50mm
	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r
TP (g P/l)	0.098	0.444	0.007*	0.667	0.030*	0.561
K (g/l)	0.235	0.441	0.983	0.008	0.185	0.485
TKN (g/l)	0.066	0.487	0.054	0.506	0.168	0.375
NO <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	0.198	0.352	0.482	0.197	0.603	0.146
TNH <sub>3</sub> (g N/l)	0.226	0.333	0.412	0.229	0.243	0.321

509 \* indicates significant at P<0.05 respectively.

#### 510 Table 7: Correlation coefficients between dewatering time and percolate organic pollutants removal 511 efficiency of different filtering media

Parameter (Units)			Filtering Media 1	Dewatering tin	ıe		
	150mm		35	350mm		250mm	
	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r	<i>p</i> -values	r	
COD (g/l)	0.423	0.224	0.445	0.214	0.201	0.350	
DCOD (g/l)	0.423	0.224	0.849	0.054	0.771	0.082	
BOD (g/l)	0.575	0.157	0.345	0.262	0.248	0.318	

<sup>506</sup>