The Cultivation of Algae Using Waste Water from Feedlots

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Abstract

The cultivation of algae in waste water from a cattle feedlot is described. An average annual algal production rate of 10 g m⁻²d⁻¹ of dried algal material was achieved, while a reduction in inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations in excess of 90% was maintained in a high rate algal pond supplied with feedlot effluent. These results indicate that the algal pond concept can be utilized efficiently under South African conditions, and research needed to optimize such a treatment/production system is discussed.

Introduction

The mass cultivation of algae has been studied extensively in the past 40 years (Goldman, 1979). Originally investigations centred on the production of single cell protein for human consumption. New applications such as the following developed with time: The treatment of waste water in which Oswald (1973) showed a reduction of BOD, coupled with the incorporation of nitrogen and phosphorus in algal biomass which reduced the intensity of eutrophication; the production of specific chemicals (Ben Amotz, 1977); the combination of algal, fish and prawn culture (Stanley and Jones, 1976; Shelef, 1976); the bioconversion of solar energy (Goldman and Ryther, 1977); and the production of health foods (Kawaguchi, 1980). Goldman (1979) concluded however, that the large scale cultivation of algae will be most successfully applied in the treatment of waste water.

In South Africa the pond concept has been applied extensively in the treatment of sewage, either as oxidation or as maturation ponds (Meiring et al., 1968). The ponds are intended to fulfil a biological waste treatment requirement utilizing bacteria and algae. The treatment of waste water can be combined with the production of protein materials such as bacterial, algal and fish biomass (Pieterse et al., 1981) indicating that such a combination has a significant potential for the South African situation (see also Stengel, 1970). The conclusion was drawn by Pieterse et al. (1981) that a large amount of basic research must be done in order to develop, apply and optimize a new technology for integrated waste treatment production systems under South African conditions.

This paper will concentrate on organic and inorganic wastes produced by animals such as cattle which, for economic and other reasons, are kept in confinement units (see Figure 1). Massive amounts of waste material consisting of urine and faeces are being produced in a concentrated point-source form in these confinement units (Table 1). The waste materials are usually removed by wash or flush water representing a major source of environmental pollution with significant health and aesthetic consequences. Although the South African Water Act prohibits the

Figure 1 Location of beef feedlots in South Africa (Menné, 1980).

pollution of surface waters, no biological treatment process for livestock wastes has been introduced officially.

The intensity of the potential pollution problem can best be illustrated with the following example. The largest cattle feedlot system in South Africa contains approximately 30 000 animals producing the equivalent waste of a city of 180 000 to 300 000 people. A city of 300 000 people is required by law to treat its waste water, yet no similar requirement is expected from feedlots.

TABLE 1 NONDISPERSED ANIMAL WASTE PRODUCTION IN SOUTH AFRICA (BASED ON FIGURES FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE; MENNÉ, 1980).

	Animals in 1978	Dry Solids t a-1	Urine* m ³ a ⁻¹
Cattle feedlots	150 000	117 000	~ 3000
Pig Production	921000	128 000	~ 7400
Poultry farming	35 700 000	142 800	

*Based on average daily water intake: 20 ℓ per animal for cattle and 8 ℓ per animal per day for pigs.

TABLE 2 NUMBER OF CATTLE IN 26 OF THE MOST IMPORTANT FEEDLOTS IN SOUTH AFRICA (ANOMYMOUS, 1979).

Jan 1978	May 1978	Jan 1979	May 1979
67 728	85 010	90 934	124 590

BEEF FEEDLOTS
1 DOT = 1 000 ANIMAL CAPACITY

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The problem of pollution could be further aggravated by the increasing number of cattle kept in confinement units (Table 2).

In ponds intended to stimulate algal growth (both for water treatment and algal production purposes) a complex system of reactions and processes, changing equilibria, and different types of organisms are found, interrelating with one another in various ways. This paper will concentrate on the cultivation of algae in a high rate algal pond receiving waste water from a cattle feedlot.

Factors controlling the rate of change of any algal population are given by the following equation (based on Uhlman, 1971):

THE RATE OF CHANGE . of and algal population Δx Δt **EOUALS** $\mu.x + Vol.x_0 + Susp.x + Res.x$ **MINUS** Vol.x + Pred.x + Sed.x + Dec.x + Par.xWhere x = algal biomass/volume Vol = flow volume $\mu.x = Growth rate$ Vol.x₀ = rate of algal biomass import Susp.x = rate of suspension of algal cellsRes.x = rate of resuspension of algal cells Vol.x = rate of algal biomass export Pred.x = rate of predationSed.x = rate of sedimentation of algal cellsDec.x = rate of decompositionPar.x = rate of parasitization

The growth rate, inflow volume and rate of algal biomass export are the only factors that will be considered here in some detail.

Materials and Methods

The cattle feedlot-algal/bacterial/fish pond system is illustrated in Figure 2. Waste waster from the 1000 capacity confinement unit is screened with a 125 μ m mesh sieve which removes $\sim 63\%$ of the suspended material. The screened water flows into a storage pond where the organic matter is partly stabilized by bacterial metabolism. Storage pond water is added once a day to the high rate algal pond, while the overflow from the algal pond flows into the fish pond. Water is pumped from the fish pond back to the confinement unit to be re-used as wash or flush water. Water is added to the system to replace water losses. Only part of the normal wash water volume of 500 ℓ per animal per day (500 m³ d-1) is being put through the pond system. The sizes of the different ponds are given in Table 3.

The high rate algal pond has a surface area of approximately 3 200 m² (Figure 2). Mixing is achieved by means of a paddle wheel which induces a flow of 5 cm s⁻¹ in winter and 13 cm s⁻¹ in summer.

Water samples for analyses were taken at positions 1, 2, 5 and 8 (Figure 2). The study period covered in this report extended from January 1979 to June 1980. Standard methods were used to quantify the different parameters.

TABLE 3 CAPACITIES AND DEPTHS OF SOETVELDE PONDS (SEE FIGURE 2)		
Pond	Depth (m)	Capacity (m³)
torage	~0,40	350
Mgal	0,45	1 440
Fish	1,20	18 000

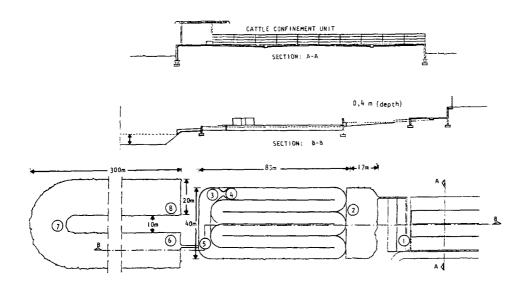


Figure 2

The Soetvelde Confinement Unit-Pond Treatment System. 1 = screen; $2 = storage\ pond$; $3-5 = algal\ pond$; $6-8 = fish\ pond$.

Results and Discussion

Algal populations and algal growth

The chlorophyll a concentration in the algal pond varied between 140 and 18 765 μ g ℓ^{-1} (Figure 3), and was generally much higher than that of the fish pond. The algal concentration appeared to be related to the flow rate and retention time (Figures 3 and 4). High algal concentrations were maintained at a retention time of approximately 30 days (from September 1979 to March 1980).

The average chlorophyll a concentration between May 1979 and July 1980 amounted to ~9500 $\mu g \ell^{-1}$. At a retention time of 41 days, the average daily production amounted to ~0,1 g Chl a m⁻² d⁻¹ or ~10 g dry algal mass m⁻² d⁻¹. In his review Goldman (1979) considered a figure of 30 g m⁻² d⁻¹ as a high value and indicated that a good average lies between 15 and 20 g m⁻² d⁻¹. De Pauw *et al.* (1978) recorded an algal growth of 10 g m⁻² d⁻¹ in diluted pig manure while Boersma *et al.* (1975) recorded a figure of 22 g m⁻² d⁻¹ also in diluted pig manure

Soeder et al. (1978) observed the accumulation of Pb and Cd in or on algal cells. As large amounts of algal material are produced by the algal pond, this phenomenon of accumulation as well as its possible effects should be studied in more detail.

The total average annual algal production of the system amounted to ~13 x 10³ kg dried material. At an algal/fish biomass conversion ratio of 13:1 (Tang and Chen, 1966) ap-

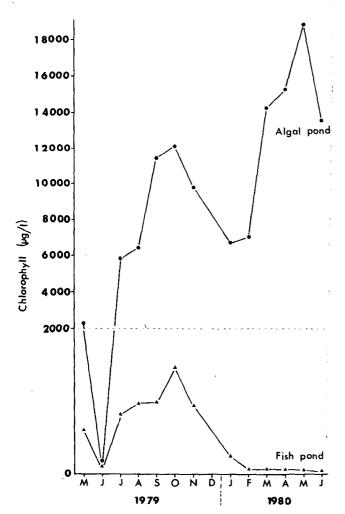


Figure 3 Monthly chlorophyll α concentrations in the algal and fish ponds.

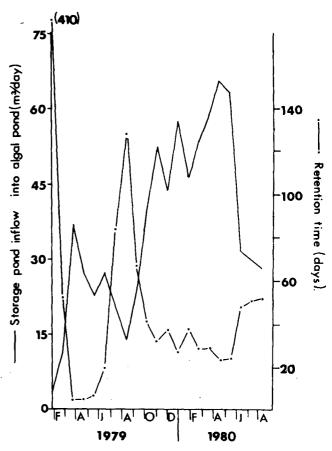


Figure 4

Monthly volume of algal pond inflow from the storage pond, and retention time of the algal pond based on total flow.

proximately 1 x 10³ kg of fish can be produced annually in such a system. It must be remembered that this figure represents only the contribution of the algae, as detrital material from the algal pond will result in additional fish biomass.

Nitrogen and phosphorus were not found to be growthlimiting under normal conditions in the algal pond, but nitrogen can be considered as potentially being the primary limiting nutrient.

Some information on the algal populations is given in Table 4. Micractinium sp. (possibly M. pusillum) was the dominant alga as for other similar waters (Shillinglaw and Pieterse, 1980; Denoyelles, 1967). In September an almost unialgal suspension was present, while a Mellosira sp. achieved codominance in June during periods of low algal density.

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF ALGAL POPULATIONS ON TWO DATES
REPRESENTING LOW AND HIGH DENSITIES
(COMPARE FIGURE 4)

	June 1979	9	September 1	1979
Chlorophyll α (μ g ℓ^{-1}) Total cell number (\times 106 m ℓ^{-1})	140		11 398	
Total cell number (\times 106 m ℓ^{-1})	0,46	i	6,	.3
Total number of genera	12		7	
Domination*	Micractinium Melosira Scenedesmus	47% 34% 10%	Micractinium Scenedesmus Actinastrum 0	

*Based on the number of cells as a % of the total number of cells per unit volume of water.

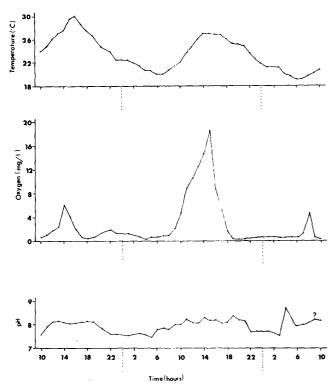


Figure 5
Hourly pH, temperature and oxygen conditions in the algal pond on 29-30 January 1980.

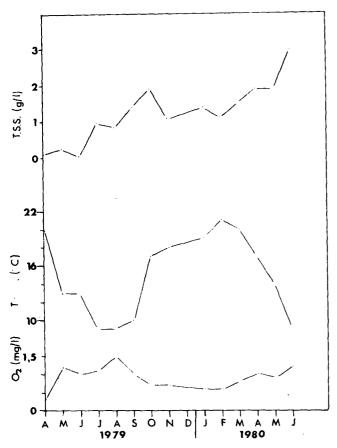


Figure 6 Monthly concentrations of total suspended solids (TSS), oxygen (O_2) and temperature (°C) in the algal pond.

Chemical conditions in the pond system

pH conditions in the algal pond ranged between 7 and 9 during the year long study period as well as during the 48 h study period (see Figure 5). In waters with high nitrogen and phosphorus levels like in the algal pond, CO₂ can become an important controlling factor in algal growth (Stengel and Soeder, 1975).

The COD values in the algal pond varied between 13.0×10^3 and 0.5×10^3 mg ℓ^{-1} , while BOD varied between 500 and 300 mg ℓ^{-1} . An average overal BOD and COD removal of $\sim 20\%$ and $\sim 70\%$ respectively occurred from the screened water to the effluent of the fish pond (Cloete, 1981).

The monthly dissolved oxygen concentration (determined between 06h00 and 07h00) for the study period and given in Figure 3, ranged between 0,4 and 1,5 mg ℓ^{-1} . The oxygen concentration was largely dependent on the time of measurement (Figure 5). During the night the concentration was reduced to almost nil while a peak of \sim 19 mg ℓ^{-1} was reached when no storage water was added to the algal pond. When water from the storage pond water was added, the oxygen concentration remained low because of oxygen consumption by the added water (Cloete *et al.*, 1982).

The concentrations of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the water are the result of gaseous exchange between the water and atmospheric phases, as well as uptake and production rates of at least the algae and bacteria. Decomposition of organic material by bacteria therefore supply CO₂ to the algae for autotrophic growth possibly indicating that complete stabilization in the storage pond could result in severe CO₂ limitation with detrimental effects on the efficiency of the system. Mixed algal/bacterial cultures provide for maximum nutrient removal (Humenik and Hanna, 1970).

Low oxygen concentrations apparently did not inhibit algal growth (Figure 5) and remained relatively low throughout the day due to oxygen consumption by decomposition reactions. Low oxygen concentrations are advantageous, however, in that they limit, together with alkaline conditions, predator numbers in algal ponds by increasing zooplankton mortality (O'Brien and Denoyelles, 1972).

The total suspended solids (TSS) increased in the algal pond during the study period (Figure 6) partly because of better algal growth and possibly partly due to an increased supply of particulate matter from the storage pond. The TSS of most outdoor cultures vary between 0 and 2 g ℓ^{-1} (Boersma *et al.*, 1975). The average TSS of the algal pond was approximately 1 g ℓ^{-1} (Figure 6). The removal of TSS by the system amounted to approximately 94%. The average amount of suspended matter finding its way into the system in the screened underflow water was approximately 70 kg d⁻¹.

High levels of ammonia N (NH₃-N) and phosphate P (PO₄-P) were found in the screened water (Figure 7). Nitrate (NO₃-N) and Nitrite (NO₂-N) concentrations were low (Pieterse et al., 1981). These conditions compared well with other feedlor effluents (Miner et al., 1966; Loehr, 1969; Wells et al., 1970). Marked reductions in NH₃-N (99%) and PO₄-P (95%) concentrations occurred in the system, comparing well with results from the literature (De Pauw et al., 1978; Shillinglaw and Pieterse, 1977). The NO₂-N and NO₃-N concentrations in the system increase to \sim 0,3 mg ℓ ⁻¹ (Pieterse et al., 1981). The NO₃-N and NO₂-N concentrations of the fish pond effluent were lower than that of the Stander Water Reclamation Plant at Daspoort (e.g. Hattingh, 1977), while the average NH₃-N and PO₄-P concentrations were slightly higher.

In some maturation ponds algal growth is poor or irregular, a

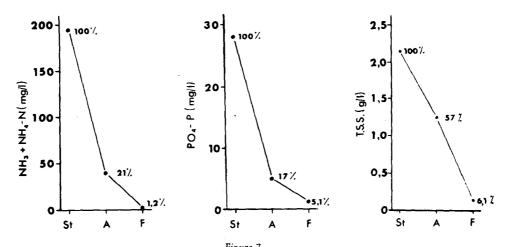


Figure 7

Average ammonia nitrogen $(NH_3 + NH_4 - N)$, phosphate phosphorus $(PO_4 - P)$ and total suspended solids (TSS) concentrations for the period May 1979 to June 1980. St = storage pond; A = algal pond; F = fish pond.

phenomenon possibly due to ammonia inhibition under alkaline pH conditions coupled with short retention time (Abeliovitch and Azov, 1976; Shillinglaw and Pieterse, 1977). the average NH₃-N concentration in the algal pond amounted to 40 mg ℓ^{-1} which would only inhibit algal growth significantly under low density algal conditions at pH levels of 9,0 and 9,5 (Pieterse et al., 1981). As such high pH conditions are rarely reached, it does not seem as if ammonia is inhibiting algal growth in the high-rate algal pond.

During the transfer of storage pond water to the algal pond, the average NH₃-N concentration was increased instantaneously to approximately 86 mg ℓ^{-1} , giving free NH₃-N concentrations of 0,43 and 4,1 mg ℓ^{-1} at pH's of 7 and 8 respectively based on the equation given by Spotte (1970). The growth rate of low density (35 mg ℓ^{-1} inoculum) algal populations will be reduced by a factor of two at a free NH₃-N concentration of 4,2 mg ℓ^{-1} at a pH of 8 (Table 5). This would result in the washout of the population depending upon the retention time. Ammonia is, however, not considered to be inhibiting to growth during periods of high algal density (compare 70 mg ℓ^{-1} inoculum, Table 5) as was mosly the case in the algal pond. It is nevertheless interesting to note that *Scenedesmus bijugatus* appeared to be able to adapt to high NH₃ and high pH conditions (Table 5).

The pond system markedly improved the quality of the cattle feedlot effluent, yet the effluent did not comply with standards set for drinking water (SABS, 1971; see also Train, 1979).

IN mg l	-1 REDUCING THE GI NESDESMUS BIJUGA (GOUGH-PALMER,	TUS BY HALF
pН	35 mg ℓ ⁻¹	70 mg ℓ-1
6,5	0,23	
7,0	1,04	_
7,5	2,10	4,8
8,0	4,23	19,0
8,5	8,22	43,8
9.5	12.42	54.0

Environmental pollution and eutrophication will, however, be minimized should the fish pond effluent enter surface water supplies.

Physical conditions in the pond system

Temperatures (determined between 06h00 and 07h00) in the algal pond varied between 9°C in winter and 20°C in summer (Figure 6). In summer and on an hourly basis (Figure 5), the temperature varied between ~19°C at 06h00 and ~30°C at 16h00.

The colour of the water in the algal pond was usually brownish, turning green under high algal concentration conditions. Orange-red light penetrated the water deeper than any other, indicating that photosynthetis was primarily based on the absorption of orange-red light. Light available for photosynthesis was present only in approximately the upper 20 cm of the water column, while the photic zone was not deeper than approximately 2 cm under conditions of high algal concentration. Continuous stirring by the paddle wheel was therefore necessary to ensure continual agal growth. The light shading effect of non-living suspended matter can be eliminated by employing dialysis tubing (Dor, 1975).

The average retention time based on total monthly flow rates was 41 days for the algal pond (see Figure 4), with a minimum of 6 days occurring in May 1979 and a maximum of 113 days occurring in July 1979. Short retention periods corresponded with low algal concentrations, possibly indicating that the growth of the algae could have been inhibited by some factor. In the literature retention times recommended for pond operation vary from a day or three (McGarry and Tongkasame, 1971; Boersma et al., 1975) to periods longer than 20 days (Dugan et al., 1972), but a two stage system shortens the total retention time by increasing the effectiveness (Kormanik, 1972). In winter the retention times must be three times as long as in summer because of the lower temperatures and shorter days (St. Amant and Beck, 1970). The retention time of the algal pond must also be significantly longer during winter in South Africa (Figure 4). Further research needs to be done to determine the optimal retention times for winter and summer conditions. In this regard the growth rates of the algae are of extreme importance (Garrett et al., 1978). Shillinglaw (1978) indicated that retention time influences the composition of algal populations in experimental

maturation ponds. Microcystis aeruginosa became dominant when the retention time was longer than approximately 15 days.

Conclusions

Water is used, amongst others, to transport waste. In this regard urine and *faeces* produced by animals in feedlots are of paramount importance as vast amounts of waste water are produced, causing health hazards, eutrophication and aesthetic problems. As a matter of urgency consideration must be given in South Africa to the development and application of integrated livestock waste treatment-production systems in order to reduce environmental pollution and to utilize 'out-of-place' resources (i.e. the wastes).

The results presented in this paper clearly illustrate that the wastes produced by animals can be converted into usable organic matter, while significant water quality improvements occur at the same time.

The constraints imposed by economic and other considerations indicate, however, that biological recycling systems, as the one described above, must be skilfully managed in order to optimize their efficiency (see also Garrett et al., 1978). The understanding of the ecology of these systems in general as well as the mechanisms involved is of fundamental concern. Further research into various aspects of the problem is therefore needed.

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