1 Microalgae harvesting using flocculation and dissolved air

2 flotation: selecting the right vessel for lab-scale experiments

- 3 Rao N.R.H.,^{1,2} Beyer V.P.,² Henderson R.K.,³ Thielemans W.,² Muylaert K.^{1,*}
- 4 ¹ Laboratory of Aquatic Biology, KU Leuven, Kulak Kortrijk, 8500 Kortrijk, Belgium
- 5 ² Sustainable Materials Lab, Department of Chemical Engineering, KU Leuven, Kulak
- 6 Kortrijk, 8500 Kortrijk, Belgium
- ³ Algae and Organic Matter (AOM) Laboratory, School of Chemical Engineering, The
- 8 University of New South Wales, Sydney 2052, Australia
- 9 Corresponding author <u>koenraad.muylaert@kuleuven.be</u>
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ABSTRACT: Flocculation combined with dissolved air flotation (DAF) is a promising 11 12 technology for harvesting microalgae; therefore, optimisation of flocculant–DAF operating 13 conditions are frequently explored in laboratory experiments. DAF systems have jars of 14 differing volumes, height to diameter ratios, shapes and materials used to manufacture the 15 jars; thus, the harvesting efficiency (η) may differ between these jars. The aim was to systematically compare η between different types of benchtop DAF jars. Evaluation of 30 16 17 different types of DAF jars revealed that η was not influenced by the volume of the jars, but 18 was impacted by the height to diameter ratio, with optimal n at a ratio ranging between 1.6 to 19 2.05. There was no difference in n between cylindrical and cuboid jars, but jars made of 20 hydrophobic (polypropylene) plastic resulted in a lower n. Overall, these results are useful to 21 guide the design of lab-scale DAF microalgae harvesting experiments.

- 22
- 23 Keywords: Biofuels; DAF sizing; Microbubbles; Polymers; Water treatment.

24 **1. Introduction**

25

26 Microalgae are an attractive and novel source of biomass for production of food, feed or 27 biofuels because they combine a high productivity with a biomass composition that is low in 28 fibre and high in protein and carbohydrates or lipids [1-3]. They are also a promising 29 technology to recover valuable nutrients such as N and P from wastewater [4]. An important 30 challenge in large-scale production of microalgae is the harvesting of the biomass [5]. The standing crop biomass concentration in microalgal cultures is relatively low $(1 - 5 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$ due 31 to self-shading of the microalgal cells, therefore large volumes of water need to be processed 32 33 at an acceptable cost to harvest microalgae. To conserve energy, this is best done in a two-34 stage process in which the bulk of the water is removed during a pre-concentration step that generates a sludge with dry matter content of $\sim 50 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ and a second step in which all 35 36 extracellular water is removed using centrifugation to generate a biomass paste with a dry 37 matter content of 20 % [6]. Flocculation is an interesting approach to be used during the pre-38 concentration step as it generates large aggregates of cells that can then be easily separated 39 from the liquid using simple gravity settling (sedimentation) [5, 7]. As the density of the 40 microalgal flocs is close to that of water, sedimentation is a slow process $(1.25 - 2.5 \text{ m} \cdot \text{h}^{-1})$ 41 and often results in a loose sludge with a high water content (< 2 % solids) [8-10]. An 42 alternative approach to separate microalgal flocs from the liquid is to use dissolved air 43 flotation (DAF). In DAF, air-water mixture is pressurised in a saturator (pressure tank), 44 released through a nozzle and introduced to the bottom of flotation jars containing a 45 microalgal suspension that has been previously mixed with a flocculant [3, 11, 12]. The small 46 air bubbles attach to the flocs and concentrate the flocs in a float layer that can be skimmed off the surface. DAF is much faster (hydraulic rates of $10 - 25 \text{ m} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) and can generate a 47 48 sludge with a higher dry matter content (2 - 7 %) compared to gravity sedimentation [8, 9].

This results in a harvesting system with a smaller footprint and in lower volumes of sludge
that need to be dewatered using centrifugation. Hence, DAF is increasingly being explored as
a promising technology for harvesting microalgae [13].

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53 The efficiency of DAF for microalgae harvesting depends on the interaction between 54 microalgal flocs and air bubbles. This interaction can be quite variable, depending on the type 55 of flocculant used, the microalgae species, culture conditions or the chemistry of the water 56 [14]. Additionally, several theoretical and pilot-scale studies have established that the 57 removal of particles via DAF is greatly dependent on optimising the design of the separation 58 tank as it can influence bubble residence times and bubble-floc interactions. For instance, 59 varying the H : D ratios of the separation tank can impact the residence time of microbubbles 60 and thus, the microbubble-floc interactions [15]. When the H : D ratio is low, the residence 61 time of bubbles decreases as the bubbles do not have sufficient time to interact with flocs 62 before they reach the liquid surface, thereby decreasing the DAF harvesting efficiency [16, 63 17]. For instance, Lundh, Jönsson [17] noted increasing microbubble residence times from 28 64 - 61 s as the H : W ratio increased from 2.1 to 4.6 in a pilot-DAF study. In another study, 65 Yang, del Pozo [18] noted that when the H : W ratio was > 4.5 in a pilot-DAF plant, greater bubble coalescence occurred due to the turbulent flow of bubbles in the vertical direction, 66 67 which decreased the bubble residence time. Hence, it is clear that the design of the separation 68 tank could impact DAF separation outcomes.

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Until now the design of the separation vessel has been evaluated only in experimental and
theoretical pilot-scale DAF studies and not in lab-scale studies that use benchtop DAF

systems. A review of the literature revealed that the DAF jars used in commercially available

73 and in-house made benchtop DAF testers are of different shapes, sizes and materials (Table 74 1). The volume of the DAF jars used in benchtop lab-scale DAF systems varied between 0.5 75 -2 L and shapes of the DAF jars were cuboidal or cylindrical. The use of different jars 76 and/or variable volumes have also resulted in a height to width ratio (H : W for cuboidal jars) or height to diameter ratio (H : D for cylindrical jars) of 1.4 - 2.1 of the liquid volume in the 77 78 jar (Table 1). Similar to the pilot-scale systems, the variations in the design of the benchtop 79 DAF jars could influence the DAF harvesting efficiency. Additionally, the material from 80 which the jars are made may also influence flotation outcomes. A review of the benchtop 81 DAF systems used also revealed that the DAF jars were made of differing materials including 82 plexiglass, polycarbonate, glass and plastic (with the type of plastic not specified) (Table 1). 83 Air bubbles are relatively hydrophobic [15] and may therefore interact with the wall of the 84 jar. This may be especially consequential when the jars are made from hydrophobic polymers 85 and/or when jars have a small volume and hence, a high surface to volume ratio. Overall, 86 there has been no methodical study on the influence of dimensions and other properties of 87 DAF jars on DAF performance. A systematic investigation is essential to allow comparison 88 of results of different studies using different types of DAF jars.

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The use of DAF in combination with flocculation is a relatively complex process involving the formation of flocs after addition of a flocculant followed by the harvesting of the flocs from the liquid by flotation. This degree of complexity may be reflected in a high degree of variability between replicate tests. Because flotation experiments require quite large volumes of culture, it may be necessary to use different batches to evaluate all possible combinations

^{90 (}Table 1)

of flocculant concentration, flocculation time, microalgae concentration or DAF recycle ratio
(ratio of pressurised water to feed volume). It is therefore also important to have an
understanding of the degree of variability between DAF experiments carried out on different
batches of culture of the same species. For instance, the surface properties of microalgal cells
are known to change depending on the growth stage of a culture [30] and thus, different
results may be obtained when the growth stage differs slightly between different batches of
cultures of the same microalgae species.

104

105 Overall, the twin novelties of a systematic evaluation of the benchtop DAF jars and 106 estimation of the variability in harvesting efficiencies across multiple microalgal batches 107 form the basis of this study. Hence, the aim was to examine several DAF jars with differing 108 attributes - volume, H : W or H : D ratios and materials - to identify the most appropriate jar 109 to conduct lab-scale DAF testing. Additionally, the coefficient of variation was estimated 110 between replicate DAF experiments using the same batch of microalgae and between DAF 111 experiments carried out on different batches of the same microalgae species. All experiments 112 were carried out using the freshwater microalgae Chlorella vulgaris as a model species and 113 the model flocculant used was cationic poly(2-(dimethylamino) ethyl methacrylate) or 114 pDMAEMA. Chlorella vulgaris is a commercially important species of freshwater 115 microalgae [31] that is frequently used as a model species in microalgae harvesting studies 116 [32]. PDMAEMA was synthesised in-house as a sustainable alternative to the toxic 117 polyacrylamide-based flocculants, which have been frequently used in microalgae 118 flocculation – sedimentation/ DAF experiments [33].

119	2. Materials and methods
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121	2.1 Chemicals
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123	The following chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received: 2-
124	(dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate (DMAEMA monomer) (98%, contains 700-1000 ppm
125	hydroquinone as inhibitor), 2-cyano-2-propyl benzodithioate (reversible addition –
126	fragmentation chain transfer [RAFT] agent) (>97%), 1,1'-azobis(cyclohexanecarbonitrile)
127	(radical initiator) (98%), dioxane (99.5%), n-heptane (99%), chloroform with 0.6% ethanol
128	stabiliser (reagent grade), tetrahydrofuran stabilised with 250 ppm BHT (>99.9%), and
129	triethylamine (>99.5%).
130	
131	2.2 Microalgal cultivation
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133	The freshwater microalgae Chlorella vulgaris (211-11b SAG, Germany) was used in all
134	experiments. The microalgae was cultivated in 30 L plexiglass bubble column
135	photobioreactors (length – 100 cm; diameter – 20 cm). The photobioreactors were
136	illuminated from two sides with daylight fluorescent tubes that each produced a
137	photosynthetic photon flux of 100 μ mol·m ⁻² s ⁻¹ at the surface of the reactor (24 h light cycle).
138	The algal suspension was mixed and oxygen was purged by bubbling the reactor with 0.2
139	μ m-filtered air (5 L·min ⁻¹). The pH was maintained at 8.0-8.5 by supplying pure carbon
140	dioxide (2 - 3%) using a pH-controller system. The culture medium consisted of Wright's

141 cryptophyte medium. The biomass concentration was monitored by measuring optical density

142 at 750 nm (OD₇₅₀) using a Genesys 10S UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, UK). Flocculation – DAF experiments were carried out with late-exponential growth phase 143 cultures with a biomass concentration of ~0.5 g·L⁻¹ (corresponding to an OD₇₅₀ of ~0.70, ~ 5 144 $\times 10^8$ cells·mL⁻¹), which is a typical biomass concentration obtained in extensive raceway 145 146 pond cultivation systems. Optical density was calibrated against dry weight, which was 147 determined gravitationally after filtering a known volume of culture on pre-weighed GF/F glass fibre filters (Whatman, UK). A total of 22 batches of Chlorella vulgaris were cultured 148 149 over a total period of 11 weeks in 30 L bubble column photobioreactors to provide sufficient 150 volume of algal suspension to be used in the experiments. The optical density varied from 151 0.646 to 0.732 between these different batches (0.696 \pm 0.02; n = 187). Replicate experiments 152 were always done using the same batch. Several experimental conditions were repeated with 153 different batches to determine the experimental variability in harvesting efficiency between 154 different batches of the same microalgae species cultured under identical conditions.

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156 **2.3 Polymer synthesis and characterisation**

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158 The DMAEMA monomer (3.0 g, 19.1 mmol, 1000 eq.), RAFT agent (4.22 mg, 0.019 mmol, 159 1.0 eq.), and the radical initiator (0.470 mg, 0.00191 mmol, 0.1 eq.) were dissolved in 3.0 ml 160 of dioxane in a glass vial equipped with a stirring bar. The glass vial was sealed with a 161 septum and degassed by bubbling the reaction solution with argon for 15 minutes. 162 Subsequently, the glass vial was placed in a pre-heated oil bath and stirred for 48 h at 90 °C. The reaction mixture was allowed to cool down to room temperature and was diluted with 163 164 chloroform. The obtained slightly viscous solution was then twice precipitated in cold 165 heptane and dried on a rotary evaporator under reduced pressure. Further drying in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 24 h yielded a sticky solid with a pinkish hue as the product. A single batch
of pDMAEMA was used in the entire study.

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169 The molecular weight of the obtained polymers was determined using gel permeation 170 chromatography (GPC). GPC measurements were conducted on an Agilent 1260 infinity 171 system operating in THF + 1% triethylamine and equipped with an autosampler, a refractive 172 index detector, and a variable wavelength detector. The setup was complemented with a light 173 scattering detector (miniDAWN from Wyatt Technologies) and a viscometer (ViscoStar from 174 Wyatt Technologies). The system was equipped with a PLgel 5 mm guard column (50×7.5 175 mm) and two separation columns from Agilent (PLgel mixed-C) which were kept at 35 °C in 176 a column oven. Samples were prepared by dissolving a known amount of the polymer in 177 HPLC grade THF + 1% triethylamine. All samples were filtered through 0.2 µm PTFE filters before analysis. Measurements were conducted at a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹ and 100 μ L of 178 179 sample solution were injected. The values for Mn, Mw, and polydispersity index (PDI) were 180 determined from the RI detector signal and the light scattering detector signal. The dn/dc 181 values of purified samples were determined by the 100% mass recovery method, measuring 182 solutions with known polymer concentrations. Data analysis was conducted using Astra 8.1 183 software from Wyatt Technologies.

184

The pDMAEMA flocculant synthesised in this study had a degree of polymerisation (number of monomer units in each polymer molecule) of 50, and the polymer molecular weight was observed to be 9.5 kDa as determined by GPC. The dispersity, which measures the degree of variability (broadness) in the molecular weights of the different polymer molecules was 1.02. A dispersity of 1 indicates that the polymer molecules are fully monodisperse and have no 190 variability. This suggested that the pDMAEMA molecules in this study were predominantly

191 monodisperse with nearly identical molecular weights.

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193 **2.4 Flocculation-dissolved air flotation experiments**

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195 2.4.1 Flocculation-dissolved air flotation protocols

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197 A Platypus DAF Tester (Aquagenics Pty Ltd, Australia) was used in all experiments. 198 Conditions for flocculation followed by DAF were initially optimised in the standard 2 L DAF jars that are supplied with the Platypus DAF Tester. These jars are made of 199 200 polycarbonate, are cuboid in shape and have a height of 19.7 cm and width of 10.5 cm (H : W 201 ratio 1.9). The algal suspensions were first flocculated with pDMAEMA. The optimal 202 polymer dose was determined in exploratory experiments (see Section S1) and was kept 203 constant in all DAF trials in this study (25 mg \cdot L⁻¹). Prior to addition of the polymer the pH of 204 the algal culture was adjusted to pH 6 by addition of 1M HCl or NaOH in order to ensure 205 protonation of the amine groups on the pDMAEMA. After addition of the polymer, the algal 206 suspension was stirred at 200 rpm for 2 min, followed by slow stirring at 30 rpm for 20 min to promote floc growth [34]. Mixing was done using the 7.6×2.5 cm flat paddle impellers of 207 208 the Platypus jar tester. DAF was conducted immediately after the slow stirring phase.

209

The saturator of the Platypus DAF Tester was used to generate the microbubbles. The
saturator was filled with demineralised water that was pressurised to 450 kPa with air using
an oil-free compressor (OS20P, Abac, Belgium). Depressurised water containing the

213 microbubbles was introduced at the bottom of the flotation jar through polyethylene tubing (5 214 mm diameter) connected to the outlet of the saturator. The volume of depressurised water 215 introduced (referred to in DAF process technology as the recycle ratio) was 10 % of the 216 influent volume. After introduction of the depressurised water, a 10 min waiting time for the 217 bubble blanket to rise and create a froth-float layer on the surface was provided. After 10 218 min, a 5 mL sample was collected from the middle of the clarified zone. The harvesting 219 efficiency (η) was estimated from the initial OD_i and final OD_f optical density (750 nm) of the liquid according to equation (1): 220

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$$\eta = \frac{OD_i - OD_f}{OD_i} \times 100$$
 (Equation 1)

222

223 2.4.2 Evaluating different jars for dissolved air flotation testing

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225 DAF performance was compared between different types of DAF jars that varied in volume, height, and width, and that were made from different materials. The concentration of the 226 polymeric flocculant (25 mg \cdot L⁻¹), the mixing time and intensity (200 rpm for 2 min followed 227 by 30 rpm for 20 min), the percentage of pressured water added (recycle ratio – 10 %) as well 228 229 as the flotation time (10 min) were maintained constant over all experiments. The 2 L 230 Platypus DAF jar (height 19.7 cm, width 10.5 cm) was used as a benchmark and compared 231 with other recipients in a series of experiments. When jars other than the 2 L Platypus DAF jar were used, flocculation was first conducted in the 2 L Platypus DAF jar under conditions 232 233 described in Section 2.4.1. The flocculated suspension was subsequently gently transferred 234 into the test jar before depressurised water containing bubbles was introduced to the bottom 235 of the jar. Exploratory experiments had indicated that the transfer of the flocculated algal

236 suspension between jars prior to the DAF had no significant influence on the harvesting 237 efficiency (see SI Section S1). The flocculation – DAF performance in all tests was evaluated 238 in triplicate using a single batch of *Chlorella vulgaris*.

239 • Test-1 – Varying shape of DAF jars: The variation in the harvesting efficiency due to

240 changes in the shape of the DAF jar – cuboidal (Platypus DAF jar) and cylindrical (Duran

241 2 L Schott bottle) was first evaluated. The volume of liquid in the jars was kept constant at

242 2 L. The cylindrical jar had similar dimensions (height -18.9 cm; diameter -11.6 cm) to 243 the Platypus jar (height -19.7 cm; width -10.5 cm).

244 • Test 2 – Varying fill level of DAF jar: The changes to the harvesting efficiency when

decreasing the fill level of the standard Platypus DAF jars was then examined. The volume 245 246 of algal suspension introduced into the jar varied between 2 to 0.5 L, resulting in a 247 decrease in fill level from 19.7 to 0.56 cm and a reduction in the H : W ratios from 1.9 to 0.5.

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249 Test-3 – Varying liquid volumes at a constant H : D ratio of the DAF jars: In test-2, the 250 reduction in fill level did not allow the evaluation of whether changes in harvesting 251 efficiency were due to changes in volume or changes in H : D ratio. Therefore, in one 252 series of follow-up experiments, jars with decreasing volume but a H : W ratio fixed at 1.2 253 -1.3 were used. Like the standard Platypus jar tester, these jars were cuboidal in shape 254 and were made of polycarbonate.

• Test-4 – Varying H : D ratios of the DAF jars at constant liquid volumes: In a series of 255 256 follow-up experiments, jars with a decreasing H : D ratio (1.9 to 0.4) but a fixed volume (2 257 L) were examined. For these experiments cylindrical glass jars were used. Finally, an 258 additional series of experiments were carried out in which the H : D was increased relative to the H : D ratio of the standard Platypus DAF jars. These experiments were carried out 259

260	in cylindrical glass jars that were filled to different levels, resulting in H : D ratios varying
261	from 2.06 to 6.09.
262	To confirm the influence of volume and H : D ratio on harvesting efficiency in benchtop
263	DAF experiments, additional experiments were carried out in 16 additional types of jars
264	with varying volume and H : D ratio.
265	• Test-5 – Varying DAF jar material: To evaluate the influence of jar material properties on
266	the harvesting efficiency, jars with comparable H : D ratio and identical volumes (0.4 L)
267	but made of different materials were used: glass, stainless steel, polycarbonate, and
268	polypropylene.
269	An overview of all DAF jars used in this study and their properties is provided (see
270	supplementary material).
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271	
272	2.4.3 Biological variability in DAF harvesting efficiencies
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274	Replicate experiments were conducted using different batches of Chlorella vulgaris to
275	evaluate if there was statistically significant biological variability in harvesting efficiencies
276	when using multiple batches of algae. The flocculation – DAF harvesting performance was
277	tested in the standard Platypus DAF jars for 5 independent batches of Chlorella vulgaris
278	cultured at intervals of at least one week over a period of 4 months. For each batch the
279	harvesting efficiency was tested in triplicate.
280	

281 2.4.4 Statistical analysis

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Differences in the harvesting efficiency between different types of jars (fill level, volume, H:
D ratio, materials) and between different batches of microalgal culture were evaluated using
one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's post-hoc test.

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287 A total of 187 DAF experiments were carried out in 30 types of jars with H : D ratio varying 288 between 0.46 and 6.09 and volume ranging from 0.05-2 L. These included replicate 289 experiments using the same batch of microalgae as well as using different batches of 290 microalgae. The influence of volume and H : D (H : W) ratio on the harvesting efficiency 291 across all experiments was evaluated using second order polynomial regression. The H : D 292 (or H : W) ratio and volume were log-transformed as a Shapiro test and had indicated that 293 data did not conform to normal distribution. To evaluate whether H : D (or H : W) and 294 volume independently explained variation in removal efficiency, a step-wise forward linear 295 regression was carried out. To quantify the experimental variability in harvesting efficiency, 296 the coefficient of variation (standard deviation / mean) was calculated between replicate experiments using the same batch of microalgae. All statistical analyses were carried out in R 297 298 (version 4.2.0).

299

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Evaluating optimal polymer concentrations for dissolved air flotation

303 experiments

305	The harvesting efficiency of Chlorella vulgaris after flocculation by pDMAEMA and
306	subsequent concentration using DAF increased from < 25 % at a pDMAEMA concentration
307	of 15 mg·L ⁻¹ to 80.2 ± 1.9 % at 20 mg·L ⁻¹ (see supplementary material). A further increase in
308	the polymer concentration resulted in an increase in the DAF harvesting efficiency up to 88
309	%, with no further increase in DAF harvesting efficiencies observed at higher doses of
310	polymer (see supplementary material). Therefore, a pDMAEMA dose of 25 mg \cdot L ⁻¹ was
311	chosen for all the subsequent experiments conducted in this study. The maximum DAF
312	harvesting efficiency achieved for Chlorella vulgaris when using pDMAEMA in the current
313	study was comparable to the $85 - 90$ % obtained for <i>Chlorella sorokiniana</i> with the
314	polyacrylamide-based Zetag [35] and ~ 90 % achieved for <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> with a cationic
315	polyacrylamide [36]. This shows that pDMAEMA used in this study is an effective flocculant
316	for harvesting microalgae via DAF.
317	
318	3.2 The influence of the shape of the dissolved air flotation jar on flotation
319	efficiency

When cuboidal (standard jar) and cylindrical DAF jars were used to evaluate if the shape of
the DAF jars had an influence on the harvesting outcomes (test-1), no significant differences

in the harvesting efficiencies were observed between the DAF jars (ANOVA F[1,4] = 0.18, p = 0.689) (**Fig.1**). This indicated that any variation in DAF separation efficiencies observed in this study were independent of whether the shape of the DAF jar used was cuboidal or cylindrical.

- 327
- 328 (Figure 1)
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330 **3.3 Varying the volume and height : diameter or width ratios of the dissolved air**331 **flotation jars**

332

333 The initial optimisation of the dose of pDMAEMA was done in the standard Platypus DAF jars filled to the maximum fill level (2 L). When the volume of liquid was decreased from 2 L 334 335 to 0.5 L (test-2) a significant reduction in the harvesting efficiency was observed (ANOVA 336 F[4, 10] = 29.6, p < 0.001) (Fig.2). While the decrease in the fill level from 2 to 1.5 L had no 337 effect, fill levels of 1.25 L and lower resulted in significantly lower harvesting efficiencies 338 compared to the 2 L level in the Platypus DAF jar (Fig.2). The harvesting efficiency declined 339 from 83 ± 5 % at the 2 L level to 54.5 ± 7.2 % when the jar was filled with only 0.5 L. 340 341 (Figure 2)

342

343 Varying the fill levels in the DAF jar results in differing H : D (or H : W) ratios as well as
344 different volumes of the liquid suspension. However, it was unclear whether the algal

345	harvesting efficiency was mostly influenced by a change in volume or a change in H : D
346	ratio. To isolate and examine these effects, additional experiments were carried out where the
347	volume was reduced but H : D ratio was constant (test-3) and where the volume was kept
348	constant but H : D ratio was reduced (test-4). When the H : D ratio of the liquid volume was
349	reduced while keeping the volume constant at 2 L (test-4), a significant decrease in the algal
350	harvesting efficiency was observed (ANOVA $F[4,10] = 212$, $p < 0.001$) (Fig.3). While a
351	decrease in H : D ratio from 1.9 in the standard jar of the DAF tester to 1.6 had no significant
352	effect, further decreases to 1.3 or lower resulted in a significantly lower algal harvesting
353	efficiency (Fig.3). On the contrary, when the volume of the algal suspension was reduced
354	while maintaining a H : D ratio constant between 1.3 - 1.4 (test-3), no significant differences
355	in the algal harvesting efficiency were observed, even though the volume was lowered by
356	almost 20 times from 2 L to 125 mL (ANOVA F[4,100] = 0.75, p = 0.582) (Fig.4). This
357	demonstrates that the volume of the DAF jar can be decreased without impacting the
358	harvesting efficiency as long as the H : D ratio of the jar is close to its optimum. Interestingly,
359	while the harvesting efficiency did not significantly differ between the DAF jars evaluated in
360	this test, it was on average ~ 66 %, which was lower than the ~ 83 ± 5 % achieved using the
361	standard Platypus DAF jar. This can be ascribed to the fact that the H : D ratio of the jars
362	with varying volume (1.3) was lower than H : D ratio of the Platypus DAF jar (1.9).

363

364 (Figure 3, 4)

365

In the experiments carried out so far, the highest algal harvesting efficiency was observed for
the jar with the highest H : D ratio (Figs.1-2). To test whether an even higher harvesting
efficiency may be achieved by further increasing the H : D ratio, several jars with variable

369	volumes but increasing H : D ratio were examined. Interestingly, increasing the H : D ratio
370	from 2.06 to 6.09 did not result in an increase, but rather a decrease in the harvesting
371	efficiency (ANOVA $F[6,14] = 8.9$, p < 0.001) (Fig.5). While an increase in H : D ratio from
372	2 to 2.5 had no significant effect, a further increase to 3 or higher resulted in a significantly
373	lower harvesting efficiency (Fig.5).

374

375 (Figure 5)

376

377 The experimental results presented above indicate that the harvesting efficiency of 378 flocculation-DAF is related in a unimodal way to H : D ratio of the jars used while volume 379 has no significant effect. Multiple regression was used to explore the dependence of harvesting efficiency on H : D ratio and volume. Results of a total of 16 flocculation-DAF 380 381 experiments were used for this analysis. The harvesting efficiency was related in a unimodal 382 way to the H : D ratio and increased following a saturating curve with the volume. The H : D ratio explained more variation in the harvesting efficiency ($R^2 = 0.33$) compared to the 383 volume ($R^2 = 0.18$) (**Table 2**). As the volume and H : D ratio were negatively correlated 384 (Pearson correlation coefficient 0.32), the response of harvesting efficiency to volume may be 385 partly explained by its response to H : D ratio. Indeed, when the residuals of the regression of 386 387 the harvesting efficiency against the H : D ratio were regressed against the volume, the volume explained very little of the residual variation in the removal efficiency ($R^2 = 0.08$) 388 (Table 2). These further reiterate that lab-scale DAF harvesting efficiencies would not get 389 390 impacted by the volumes of the liquid as long as the H : D of the liquid volume was within 391 the optimal range of 1.6 - 2.06.

393 The importance of H : D ratio in determining the harvesting efficiency can be attributed to the

394 behaviour of the bubble blanket during the flotation process. When the H : D ratio decreases 395 below its optimum (< 1.6), there is limited coalescence of bubbles due to a greater number 396 and movement of microbubbles in the horizontal plane [37, 38]. However, the distance to the 397 surface of the liquid decreases which reduces the microbubble residence times and reduces opportunities for bubble-floc collisions. Overall, it is suggested that low microbubble 398 399 residence times outside the optimal H : D ratio range inhibits microbubble-floc collisions and 400 mixing, consequently impacting the DAF harvesting efficiency [15, 38]. As the height of the 401 jar increases while the diameter remains constant (at H : D ratio > 2.5), the ratio of 402 microbubble size to cross-sectional area of the jar increases, resulting in a greater number and 403 movement of microbubbles in the vertical rather than horizontal plane [18, 39]. Owing to the 404 turbulence created during bubble injection, a velocity gradient exists between the different 405 bubbles which enhances bubble coalescence [18, 37]. As the coalesced bubbles rise faster 406 than DAF microbubbles, the bubble residence time and bubble-floc collisions decrease, 407 thereby impacting flotation efficiency.

408

409 Interestingly, the optimal H : D ratio range observed in this study was lower than the: (a) 410 2.75-4.1 range observed by Lundh, Jönsson [17] for pilot-scale DAF, and (b) 2.5-3.5 range 411 suggested for designing pilot- and full-scale DAF jars [15]. One hypothesis behind the 412 discrepancy is that unlike the lab-scale batch DAF process, there is a constant feed inflow 413 into the pilot- and full-scale DAF systems as they are continuous processes. Therefore, the 414 height of the flotation tanks in pilot- and full-scale systems are increased to combat the constant feed inflow and prolong the microbubble residence times in the contact zones of 415

pilot- and full-scale DAF systems. This results in elevated H : D ratios for these systems. The
lab-scale batch DAF experiments are carried out in batch rather than continuous mode and
have no such requirements, and hence, DAF separation efficiencies can be optimised at lower
H : D ratios.

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421 **3.4 Influence of materials of the dissolved air flotation jar on harvesting**

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422 efficiency
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As microbubbles are hydrophobic, the use of hydrophobic material can influence DAF 424 425 outcomes. In this study, no differences were observed between polycarbonate, glass and steel 426 jars but a significantly lower removal efficiency was observed for the polypropylene jar 427 (ANOVA F[3,8] = 61, p < 0.001) (Fig.5). Visually, a large proportion of the microbubbles 428 when introduced into the jar preferentially interacted with the walls of the polypropylene 429 DAF jar than attach to the flocs. This was unsurprising given that polypropylene presents a 430 hydrophobic surface [40, 41], thereby increasing the entropic driving force for bubble 431 attachment to the wall [42]. Hence, it is suggested that hydrophobic materials are to be 432 avoided when selecting DAF jars. 433 (Figure 6, Table 2) 434 435 436 3.5 Degree of variability across microalgal batches during dissolved air flotation testing 437 438

439 To understand the degree of variability in DAF harvesting efficiencies across replicate 440 experiments using the same batch of microalgae, the coefficient of variation was calculated 441 for a total of 39 experiments. The coefficient of variation was on average 7.6 % and varied 442 between < 1 % and 20 %. The coefficient of variation was negatively correlated with the 443 harvesting efficiency (Pearson correlation coefficient r = -0.47, p = 0.003), indicating that 444 the variability between replicate experiments was lowest when the harvesting efficiency was high. To evaluate whether the harvesting efficiency was different when different batches of 445 446 microalgae were used, a comparison of the results of flocculation – DAF test carried out in 447 the 2 L Platypus DAF jar with five different microalgal culture batches cultured over a period 448 of four months was undertaken. Analysis of the data revealed that the average harvesting 449 efficiencies for the five batches varied between 78-88% but did not differ significantly 450 between the batches (ANOVA F[4,10] = 1.9, p = 0.172). This implied that there was no 451 variability in the harvesting efficiencies across batches as long as the culture conditions in 452 every batch remained identical.

453

454 **3.6 Recommendations for selecting appropriate dissolved air flotation jars**455

The use of benchtop DAF systems has been gaining traction in algal harvesting studies. This systematic study demonstrates that the properties of jars used in benchtop DAF experiments can influence the algal harvesting efficiency. In this study, the H : D (or H : W) ratio and the material used to manufacture the DAF jar were found to be the critical determinants of algal harvesting efficiency via DAF, while there was no impact of shape of the jar or volume of the liquid used (**Table 2**). Maximum DAF harvesting efficiencies of 76 – 88 % were observed for DAF jars with differing volumes, all of which had an H : D (or H : W) ratio between 1.60 – 463 2.05 (Fig.4); the harvesting efficiencies decreased sharply to < 60 % on either side of this range irrespective of the liquid volumes (Fig.4), indicative of a narrow window for the most 464 465 appropriate H : D (or H : W) ratio. When DAF jars made of different materials were trialled, 466 the harvesting efficiencies declined only when using polypropylene, suggesting that DAF jars made of hydrophobic materials should be avoided (Table 2). Overall, the recommendation is 467 468 to use DAF jars that can hold liquid volumes between 0.125 - 2 L as long as the H : D ratio of the liquid volume ranges between 1.60 - 2.06 and the DAF jar is not made of hydrophobic 469 470 materials. While the DAF jars used in commercially available and in-house made benchtop 471 DAF testers largely fall into this category, there were also some DAF jars which had H : D < 472 1.60 and were made of unspecified material which may not be suitable for DAF testing 473 according to the current study (Table 1). This study also suggests that DAF jars that are 474 smaller than those supplied by manufacturers can be used for algal harvesting experiments, 475 enabling a greater number of experiments to be conducted using a given volume of algal 476 culture.

477

478 This study was performed using the freshwater microalgae species Chlorella vulgaris and the 479 polymeric flocculant pDMAEMA. While overall harvesting efficiencies may be very 480 different when using different microalgae species and flocculants, the analysis of the results 481 from this study indicate that the effect of DAF jar properties on harvesting efficiency will be 482 similar in different settings. No statistically significant differences in harvesting efficiency 483 were observed between replicate DAF experiments using different batches of exponential 484 growth phase Chlorella vulgaris cultures. In non-exponential growth phase cultures and/or 485 cultures experiencing stress conditions, the cell properties may change quickly over time and 486 even minor variations in the timing of harvesting experiments may result in differences in

487	harvesting efficiency. Thus, when using different culture batches, the recommendation is to
488	compare identical flocculation and DAF experimental conditions between different batches of
489	culture to control differences in cell properties between culture batches.

491	It is to be noted that in addition to the DAF jar properties and microalgal batches, other
492	factors such as flocculant and its solvent properties, flocculation and DAF operating
493	conditions including flocculation time, flotation time, recycle ratio can influence the
494	microalgal harvesting efficiency via DAF [43]. Hence, it is recommended that these factors
495	be evaluated in detail in the future to get a holistic understanding of how harvesting
496	efficiencies can be tailored via DAF.

4. Conclusions

500	A systematic comparison of different benchtop DAF jars to harvest Chlorella vulgaris via
501	DAF revealed significant differences in harvesting efficiency. Optimal H : D ratios of 1.60 –
502	2.05 of the liquid volume in the DAF jar and the use of non-hydrophobic materials to
503	manufacture DAF jars is recommended to optimise lab-scale DAF. No statistically significant
504	differences were observed between cuboid or cylindrical shaped jars, and volumes of liquid
505	between 0.125–2 L. Multiple batches of microalgae could be used provided that the culture
506	conditions throughout the growth period remain the same across the multiple batches.

507 E-supplementary data for this work can be found in e-version of this paper online.

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Model	Jar shape	Height:Width ratio	Volume (L)	Material	References
DBT6, EC Engineering DAF Tester, UK and Canada	Cuboid	2.1	1	Plexiglass (polymethyl methacrylate)	[14, 19, 20]
Platypus DAF Tester, Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	1.8 - 2.05	2	Polycarbonate	[21, 22]
Multiplace Orchidis [™] FTH3 Flottatest, France	Cylindrical	1.4 – 2.1	0.6 – 1	Glass	[23, 24]
TA6 DAF Tester, Hengling, China	Cylindrical	N/A	0.4	Glass	[25]
In-house built DAF testers	Cuboid, cylindrical	1.4 – 1.8	0.5 – 2	Glass, plastic, unspecified	[26-29]

 Table 1. Commonly used bench scale dissolved air flotation jar testers in several studies.

Table 2. Output of second order polynomial ($y = a + bx + cx^2$) of the harvesting efficiency (Eff) modeled against the independent parameters height to diameter ratio (HD) and volume (Vol). The independent variables were log-transformed to approach normality. The model R², F degrees of freedom, F statistic, p-value and estimates for parameters a, b and c are given.

Model	R ² adj	df	F	р	а	b	с
$Eff = a + b \cdot logHD + c \cdot logHD^2$	0.33	2, 183	46	< 0.001	70***	-4.3	-77***
$Eff = a + b \cdot \log Vol + c \cdot \log Vol^2$	0.18	2,183	22	< 0.001	70***	52***	-28**

DAF Jar Details				Height	Width or Diameter	H:D ratio	Liquid Volume
Jar used	Manufacturer	Shape	Material	cm	cm	cm·cm ⁻¹	L
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	19.70	10.50	1.90	2.00
2 L Duran bottle	Schott, Germany	Cylinder	Glass	18.90	11.60	1.63	2.00
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	5.60	10.50	0.53	0.50
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	10.80	10.50	1.02	1.00
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	12.70	10.50	1.21	1.25
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	15.20	10.50	1.44	1.50
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	19.70	10.50	1.90	2.00
Nalgene 0.125 L	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	6.60	5.20	1.27	0.125
Nalgene 0.25 L	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	8.10	5.90	1.37	0.22
Nalgene 0.65 L	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	10.10	7.60	1.33	0.45
Nalgene 1 L	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	12.10	9.20	1.32	0.73
Nalgene 2 L	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cylinder	Polycarbonate	13.70	9.90	1.38	0.96
3 L Duran bottle	Schott, Germany	Cylinder	Glass	8.40	18.20	0.46	2.00
3 L Beaker	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	13.10	14.60	0.90	2.00
2 L Beaker	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	16.50	13.00	1.27	2.00
2 L Duran bottle	Schott, Germany	Cylinder	Glass	18.90	11.60	1.63	2.00
Platypus DAF jar	Aquagenics, Australia	Cuboid	Polycarbonate	19.70	10.50	1.90	2.00
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	13.80	6.70	2.06	0.50
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	17.00	6.70	2.54	0.60
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	12.00	4.00	3.00	0.15
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	22.70	6.70	3.39	0.80
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	28.30	6.70	4.22	1.00
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	12.80	2.60	4.92	0.07
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	13.40	2.20	6.09	0.05
Storage bottle	Corning, Cole-Palmer, UK	Cylinder	Polycarbonate	12.80	6.20	2.06	0.40
Measuring cylinder	AARK, China	Cylinder	Glass	12.00	6.50	1.84	0.40
Steel vessel	Not available	Cylinder	Steel	13.00	7.30	1.78	0.40
Centrifuge tube	Thermo Fisher, Germany	Cylinder	Polypropylene	14.00	6.50	2.15	0.40

Table S1. List of dissolved air flotation jars and their design parameters used in the current study.



Fig.1. Comparisons of separation efficiencies when conducting dissolved air flotation (DAF) in the 2 L Platypus DAF jar and a 2 L Schott Duran bottle. Cuboidal Platypus DAF jars (height 197 mm, width 105 mm) made of polycarbonate and a cylindrical Schott Duran bottle (height 189 mm, width 116 mm) made of glass were used. Poly(dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate) was used as the flocculant.



Fig.2. Dissolved air flotation performance when using Platypus dissolved air flotation jar filled to different heights (5.60-19.70 cm) and volumes (0.50-2.00 L) of *Chlorella vulgaris* culture suspension. Error bars represent standard deviations obtained for experimental variability.



Fig.3. Dissolved air flotation performance when using different DAF jars that had fixed volumes of the flocculated *Chlorella vulgaris* suspension (2 L) but differing H : W ratio from 0.46 - 1.90. Error bars represent standard deviations obtained for experimental variability. The volume of the DAF jars listed in the figure represent the total volume of the DAF jars (2 – 5 L) and not the volume of the flocculated *Chlorella vulgaris* suspension (2 L) used.



Fig.4. Dissolved air flotation performance when using different Nalgene DAF jars that had similar H : W ratio $(\sim 1.2 - 1.3)$ but differing volumes (125 mL – 2L) of the flocculated *Chlorella vulgaris* suspension. Error bars represent standard deviations obtained for experimental variability.



Fig.5. Algal harvesting efficiency when using dissolved air flotation jars made of polycarbonate, polypropylene, glass and steel. The jars were cylindrical and had H : D ratios ranging from 1.78-2.15. See Table S2 for details.



Fig.6. Algal harvesting efficiency versus log-transformed (a) volumes, and (b) H : D ratios when using several dissolved air flotation jars. 187 tests were undertaken 30 different types of jars with H : D ratio varying between 0.46 and 6.00 and volume ranging from 0.05-2 L.



Fig S1. Dose response curve for *Chlorella vulgaris* separation via dissolved air flotation using poly(dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate) as the flocculant.



Fig S2. No statistically significant changes (ANOVA F[1,4] = 2.27, p = 0.206) were observed in separation efficiencies when conducting dissolved air flotation (DAF) (a) in the same jar in which flocculation was conducted, and (b) after transferring the flocculated suspension from one DAF jar to another. Cuboidal Platypus DAF jars (height 197 mm, width 105 mm) made of polycarbonate were used. Two liters of *Chlorella vulgaris* culture was separated. Poly(dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate) was used as the flocculant