1	Simultaneous nitrification and denitrification using a novel up-flow			
2	bio-electrochemical reactor			
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14	Abstract:			
15	Nitrogen removal is a problem in the field of water treatment, especially in the			
16	presence of sulfate. Conventional nitrification and denitrification are usually carried			
17	out in two separate reactors. In addition, the effect of sulfate on hydrogenotrophic			
18	denitrification is not clear. In this study, simultaneous nitrification and denitrification			
19	(SND) for nitrogen removal from water was conducted using a single novel up-flow			
20	bio-electrochemical reactor (UBER). The influence of dissolved oxygen (DO) on			
21	nitrogen removal was investigated. When influent DO was 7.0 $-$ 8.0 mg $L^{\text{-1}},$ a			
22	heterotrophic nitrification zone (with DO $3.2 - 5.5 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1}$) and a hydrogenotrophic			
23	denitrification zone (with DO $1.6 - 4.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) were obtained within the reactor, and			
24	the removal rates of NH_4^+ -N and TN reached more than 90%. The distribution of DO			

inside developing biofilms was measured using microelectrodes. When DO in the hydrogenotrophic denitrification zone was 2.9 mg L^{-1} , DO inside the biofilm was just 0.5 mg L^{-1} . The effect of sulfate on hydrogenotrophic denitrification was studied by regulating the S/N ratio of influent water. Simultaneous removal of nitrate and sulfate can be achieved at low S/N, and the removal rates of nitrate and sulfate were ~80%. With increasing S/N ratio, sulfide produced by sulfate reduction inhibited both denitrification and further sulfate reduction.

32 Keywords: Nitrification and denitrification; Bio-electrochemical reactor; Biofilm;
33 Sulfate

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Nitrogenous contaminants such as nitrate and ammonia can promote eutrophication, causing deterioration of water quality and posing potential hazards to 36 human or animal health [1]. Therefore, different technologies such as reverse osmosis, 37 38 chemical denitrification and biological denitrification have been developed to remove nitrogenous contaminants from water bodies [2]. Simultaneous nitrification and 39 40 denitrification (SND) is one of the most widely accepted biological solutions for 41 removing nitrogen from high ionic strength nitrogenous wastewaters [3]. SND is 42 highly effective at removing nitrogen compounds [4-5] because it uses small reaction 43 volumes, has short reaction times and low energy consumption [6-7]. It is estimated 44 that the SND process utilizes 22-40% less carbon and reduces sludge yield by 30%

45	compared with conventional nitrification and denitrification systems [8]. Through the
46	SND process, oxygen and NO3 ⁻ -N can fully be utilized as the alternate electron
47	acceptors, which results in low DO [9-10]. Additionally, SND can be accomplished at
48	neutral pH because it is self-buffering, with alkalinity produced during denitrification
49	consumed during nitrification. Robertson et al. [11] reported that the experimental
50	conditions for SND were difficult to control in one reactor. Consequently, it is
51	necessary to develop a novel reactor for SND to ensure different microbial
52	communities are distributed effectively, and don't change with changing influent load.
53	The "bio-electrochemical reactor" system is a novel method for water and
54	wastewater denitrification that improves biological denitrification by immobilizing
54 55	wastewater denitrification that improves biological denitrification by immobilizing autohydrogenotrophic bacteria directly on the surface of a cathode to provide easy
55	autohydrogenotrophic bacteria directly on the surface of a cathode to provide easy
55 56	autohydrogenotrophic bacteria directly on the surface of a cathode to provide easy access to NO_3^- and H_2 as the electron acceptor and electron donor respectively [12].
55 56 57	autohydrogenotrophic bacteria directly on the surface of a cathode to provide easy access to NO_3^- and H_2 as the electron acceptor and electron donor respectively [12]. Eq. (1) shows the general reaction leading to autohydrogenotrophic denitrification in

61 $2NO_3^{-}+5H_2\rightarrow 4H_2O+N_2+2OH^{-}(1)$

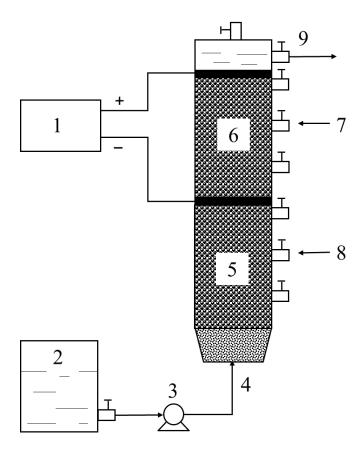
Another limiting factor on N removal treatment systems is sulfate, which is common in natural water bodies and wastewaters. Under anaerobic or anoxic conditions, nitrate and sulfate can be reduced to nitrogen and sulfide by denitrifying bacteria and sulfate reducing bacteria, respectively. Nitrate reduction is thermodynamically more favourable than sulfate reduction [14]. Chen *et al.* [15] found that the degree of SO_4^{2-} reduction steadily decreased with higher influent NO_3^{-} concentration. Conversely, the end product of sulfate reduction, sulfide, is harmful to microorganisms at high concentration and has the potential to both inhibit N removal processes and prevent further sulfate reduction. The relationship between nitrate and sulfate in low DO environments therefore needs further study.

The goal of this study was (1) to design a novel reactor which combined heterotrophic nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification for SND (2) to investigate nitrogen removal efficiency and DO distribution in biofilms in the reactor (3) to explore the effect of sulfate on hydrogenotrophic denitrification.

76 2. Materials and methods

77 **2.1. Experimental apparatus**

A schematic of the lab-scale novel UBER used in the study is shown in Fig. 1. The new UBER for SND was divided into two functional units, a lower heterotrophic nitrification zone and an upper hydrogenotrophic denitrification zone, to ensure different microbial communities were distributed effectively. The apparatus for experiments on the effect of sulfate has the same volume and arrangement of experimental materials but without the heterotrophic nitrification zone.





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Fig. 1 Schematic of UBER for SND. (1) DC power supply; (2) influent tank; (3) 85 86 influent pump; (4) inlet; (5) heterotrophic nitrification zone; (6) hydrogenotrophic 87 denitrification zone; (7) sampling tap 1; (8) sampling tap 2; (9) outlet 88 The UBER was built using a 2 L Plexiglass cylindrical column (inside diameter of 9.2 cm, height 35cm), sealed at the top. A stainless steel wire mesh was installed at 89 90 the middle of the reactor as a cathode and a carbon rod (8.8 cm long) was installed at 91 the top of the reactor as the anode. An adjustable power supply (APS3005D, 92 Shenzhen, China) was applied to provide direct current. One inlet port was installed at

the bottom of the cylindrical column, and one outlet port was installed 27 cm from the

bottom, leaving a 3 cm head space. Sampling points were installed every 5 cm from

95 the bottom. Sampling tap 1 and tap 2 were installed 25 cm and 10 cm from the bottom,

96 respectively. The reactor was filled with carbon granules (in size range of 1-2 cm) which were washed with deionized water four times prior to use. To provide a sticky 97 98 surface for microorganisms on the carbon granules, they were saturated and boiled in 99 2% agar solution. The total volume of carbon granules was 1 L, accounting for 50% 100 of the reactor's capacity. The reactor was covered with aluminium foil to exclude light 101 and prevent algal growth.

102

2.2. Synthetic influent and sludge

103 Based on the water quality that is characteristic of local polluted rivers, reservoirs 104 and groundwater [16], synthetic wastewater for this work was prepared with a low 105 C/N ratio. The composition of synthetic wastewater for the SND experiments comprised; glucose (0.6 g L⁻¹), NH₄Cl (0.23 g L⁻¹), KH₂PO₄ (0.013 g L⁻¹), 106 107 MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.02 g L⁻¹), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.001 g L⁻¹), FeSO₄·7H₂O (0.001 g L⁻¹), NaHCO₃ (0.252 g L^{-1}) and 1 ml trace solution. The components of the trace solution 108 were $ZnSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ (100 mg L⁻¹), $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ (30 mg L⁻¹), H_3BO_3 (300 mg L⁻¹), 109 CoCl₂·6H₂O (200 mg L⁻¹), CuCl₂·2H₂O (10 mg L⁻¹), NiCl₂·2H₂O (10 mg L⁻¹), 110 Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O (30 mg L⁻¹) and Na₂SeO₃ (30 mg L⁻¹). Oxygen (O₂) was added from 111 a gas cylinder to adjust the DO of the influent on demand. Aerobic and anaerobic 112 113 sludge were obtained from a secondary sedimentation tank and an anaerobic digester 114 tank in the Xin'anhe Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plant in Yantai, China. Aerobic 115 and anaerobic sludge were aerated with oxygen and bubbled with nitrogen, respectively, for 24 h. The two kinds of activated sludge were mixed in equal volumes 116

117 prior to pouring (1 L) into the reactor.

The simulated wastewater composition for the sulfate effect experiments 118 comprised: NaHCO₃ (0.252 g L⁻¹), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.34 g L⁻¹), FeCl₃ (0.1 g L⁻¹), 119 120 KH_2PO_4 (0.027 g L⁻¹), CaCl₂ (0.3 g L⁻¹), 1 ml trace solution I and 1 ml trace solution II. The components in trace solution I were: EDTA(5g L^{-1}), FeSO₄ (5 g L^{-1}). The 121 components in trace solution II were: EDTA (15g L⁻¹), H₃BO₃ (0.014g L⁻¹), 122 $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ (0.99g L⁻¹), $CuSO_4 \cdot 5H_2O$ (0.25 g L⁻¹), $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (0.24g L⁻¹), 123 ZnSO₄·7H₂O (0.43g L⁻¹), NiCl₂·6H₂O (0.19 g L⁻¹), Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O (0.22 g L⁻¹) and 124 125 Na₂SeO₃·10H₂O (0.21 g L⁻¹). The concentrations of NaNO₃ and Na₂SO₄ were added as required for the experiment. The simulated wastewater was purged with nitrogen 126 for 1 h to remove residual oxygen. Anaerobic sludge was bubbled with nitrogen for 24 127 128 h before pouring (1 L) into the reactor.

129

2.3. Experimental conditions

130 The removal rates of NH4⁺-N and total nitrogen (TN) in the reactor were 131 investigated under different conditions. At the beginning of the experiment, the pH of 132 the synthetic wastewater was adjusted to 7.5 using NaHCO₃. The temperature was controlled at $30 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C to accelerate the reaction rate and shorten the experimental 133 134 period. The bio-electrochemical reactor was operated with a feed of 200 ml/h 135 synthetic wastewater (hydraulic retention time = 10 h). DO concentration in the bulk 136 solution inside the reactor was set by adjusting inflow at different phases. The UBER experiment lasted 95 days and was divided into 4 phases: days 1-30, 31-50, 137

138	51-70 and 71-95 (Table 1). These phase divisions ensured that the biofilm had enough
139	time to mature and stabilize. In phase 1, the influent DO was adjusted to 5 mg L^{-1} .
140	Consequently, the influent DO was adjusted to 6 mg L ⁻¹ in phase 2, 7 mg L ⁻¹ in phase
141	3, and to 8 mg L^{-1} in phase 4 (Table 1).
142	The effect of sulfate on hydrogenotrophic denitrification performance in the
143	reactor was studied by regulating the influent S/N. Three experiments were conducted
144	with S/N ratios of 1:2 (SO ₄ ²⁻ -S: 25mg L ⁻¹ , NO ₃ N: 50mg L ⁻¹), 1:1(SO ₄ ²⁻ -S: 50mg L ⁻¹ ,
145	NO ₃ ⁻ -N: 50mg L ⁻¹) and 2:1 (SO ₄ ²⁻ -S: 50mg L ⁻¹ , NO ₃ ⁻ -N: 25mg L ⁻¹) respectively. The
146	experiments were carried out at 30 \pm 2°C, 10 mA electric current and 6 hours of

147 hydraulic retention time until the effluent parameters were stable.

148

Table 1 Detailed operating conditions

	Phase1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
Operation period (day)	30	20	20	25
Hydraulic retention time (h)	10	10	10	10
Electric current (mA)	20	20	20	20
Influent DO (mg L ⁻¹)	5	6	7	8
T (°C)	30	30	30	30
Influent NH_4^+ -N (mg L ⁻¹)	60	60	60	60

149 **2.4. Sampling and analysis**

Samples were collected from the sampling taps. The pH, temperature (T) and DO were measured immediately using a pH meter (PSH-3C, China), thermometer, and oxygen microelectrode (PRO 3.0, Unisense, Denmark). The COD of the effluent was measured using the potassium dichromate method. Then, remaining water samples

154 were filtered using 0.2µm syringe filters prior to analysis for NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N, and NO₂⁻N using an Autoanalyzer III (Seal, Germany) with an analytical precision of 155 0.5% unit. SO_4^{2} -S and sulfide were analyzed by an ion chromatograph (Dionex 156 157 ICS3000, USA) and iodometric titration method [17] respectively. TN was detected 158 using an UV spectrophotometry meter (TU-1950, Persee, Beijing, China). The DO 159 distribution in the biofilm (adhered to the carbon granule surface) with depth was measured using a miniaturized Clark-type oxygen sensor with a guard cathode (DO 160 161 microsensor, Unisense Microsensor, Denmark). A Micro Profiling System (Unisense) 162 was used to control the penetration distance and acquire data.

163 **3. Results and discussion**

164 **3.1. Start-up of the novel UBER**

DO level, electric current and hydraulic retention time are three important factors in the nitrification and denitrification process. In this study, the novel UBER was operated for 95 days (phases 1-4) with different influent DO values (Table 1). During phase1, high current (20 mA), high temperature (30° C), short hydraulic retention time (10 h) and 5.0 mg L⁻¹ DO were applied to supply sufficient substrates to support microbial activity (inoculated aerobic sludge and anaerobic sludge). The possible electrochemical reactions at the anode include:

172
$$C + 2H_2O \rightarrow CO_2 + 4H^+ + 4e (e^0 = 0.207 V) (2)$$

173
$$H_2O \rightarrow 1/2O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e (e^0 = 1.229 V) (3)$$

174 And the possible electrochemical reactions at the cathode are

175
$$2H^+ + 2e \rightarrow H_2 (e^0 = 0.000 \text{ V}) (4)$$

176
$$2H_2O + 2e \rightarrow H_2 + 2OH^- (e^0 = -0.828 \text{ V}) (5)$$

According to reaction (2) and (3), CO₂ is formed prior to O₂ at the anode. This CO₂
could serve as pH buffer and inorganic carbon source. The hydrogen gas produced
from the cathode serves as the electron donor for hydrogenotrophic denitrification.

180 Fig. 2 shows the variations in water quality between the lower and upper zone. In 181 the first two days, the effluent concentration of NH4⁺-N was a little higher than initial influent concentration (60 mg L^{-1}), which may be due to the death of bacteria which 182 183 cannot adapt to the influent conditions. In the lower zone, NH4⁺-N and COD declined sharply while NO₃⁻-N increased gradually and remained stable during the whole 184 period. During phase 4, the steady concentrations of NH₄⁺-N, NO₂⁻-N and NO₃⁻-N 185 were 3.5 mg L^{-1} , 1.5 mg L^{-1} and 24.1 mg L^{-1} , respectively. There were ~56.5 mg L^{-1} N 186 removed as NH4⁺-N and 25.6 mg L⁻¹ N produced as NO2⁻-N and NO3⁻-N. The 187 188 removal rate of NH4⁺-N reached 96.5% at the end of phase 4 (Fig. 2c). These results 189 indicate that nitrification occurred in the lower zone. This may include a variety of 190 nitrification reactions, such as heterotrophic nitrification and autotrophic nitrification. 191 In contrast chemoautotrophic nitrifiers, heterotrophic nitrifiers can use both inorganic 192 and organic substrates for nitrification [18-19]. A high C/N ratio can stimulate the 193 growth of heterotrophic bacteria and inhibit the activity of autotrophic nitrifiers [20]. 194 In the presence of large amounts of organic matter, autotrophic nitrifying bacteria have less competition for oxygen and organic matter than aerobic heterotrophic 195

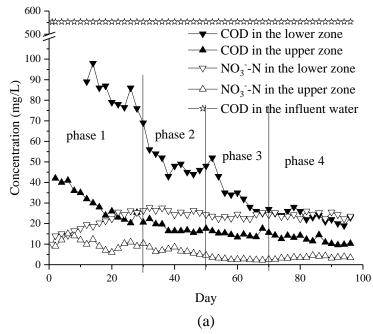
196 bacteria, allowing the heterotrophs to become predominant.

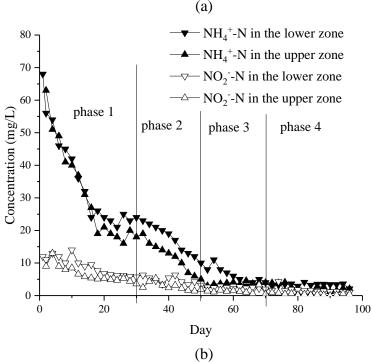
In the upper zone effluent water, there was no significant variations in NH4⁺-N 197 198 and NO₂⁻-N between the upper zone effluent and the lower zone effluent, but the 199 concentration of NO₃⁻-N showed a distinct decline. This implied that denitrification 200 mainly occurred in the upper zone. Both H₂ and organic matter can be used as 201 electron donor for denitrification in the reactor. The maximum denitrification rate in the upper zone was 0.055 kg $NO_3^{-}-N/(m^3 d)$, and it was close to the similar 202 denitrification reactor, indicating that hydrogenotrophic 203 bio-electrochemical 204 denitrification dominated in the upper zone.

205 In general, the hydrogenotrophic denitrification occurs at lower rates than 206 heterotrophic denitrification owing to slower bacterial growth rates [2]. For example, 207 Hamlin et al. used four kinds of organics as carbon sources and the obtained maximum daily denitrification rate was $0.67-0.68 \text{ kg NO}_3$ -N/(m³ d), regardless of 208 the carbon source [21]. The average denitrification rate was 0.62 kg $NO_3^{-}-N/(m^3 d)$ in 209 210 the ethanol supported system [22]. Sunger and Bose [23] achieved a denitrification rate of 0.027 kg $NO_3^{-}N/(m^3 d)$ in a fixed-bed hydrogenotrophic denitrification 211 212 system. Park et al. [24] achieved a higher denitrification rate (0.077-1.68 kg $NO_3^{-}-N/(m^3 d)$) using a bio-electrochemical reactor. 213

After 30 days, concentrations of NH_4^+ -N, NO_3^- -N, and COD in the upper zone effluent reached 19.2 mg L⁻¹, 8.6 mg L⁻¹, and 22.3 mg L⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 2). Generally, stable water quality of the outlet and the color of biofilm can be used as

217	indicators of the mature status of the biofilm. In this study, stable water quality and
218	dark brown biofilm on the carriers (carbon granules) showed that the microbiological
219	UBER systems had established after 30 days. In the lower zone, NO ₃ ⁻ -N increased to
220	26.3 mg L ⁻¹ at the end of phase 1 and remained at similar levels from phase 2 to phase
221	4. Meanwhile, NH ₄ ⁺ -N decreased to ~3 mg L ⁻¹ from phase 2 to phase 4, and the
222	removal rate of COD reached 95.8% at the end of phase 4. In the upper zone, after
223	phase 2, both of NO ₃ ⁻ -N and NO ₂ ⁻ -N were <5 mg L^{-1} , and NH ₄ ⁺ -N and COD kept low
224	levels (~5 mg L ⁻¹ and ~15 mg L ⁻¹ , respectively). These results demonstrate that
225	heterotrophic nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification was stable in the
226	lower and upper zone respectively. As shown in Fig. 2(c), microbes maintained the
227	ability to remove organic matter with more than 90% COD removal rate during the
228	process of inoculation and acclimation (phase1). In the last phase, the removal rate of
229	COD was up to 98%. The COD removal efficiency of the bio-electrochemical reactor
230	was excellent.





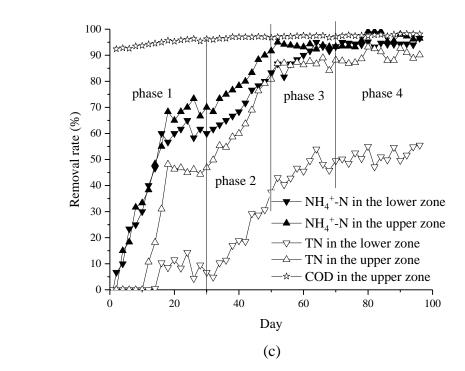


Fig. 2 Profiles of COD and NO_3^-N (a), NH_4^+-N and NO_2^-N (b), and NH_4^+-N and TN removal rate (c) over time

3.2. Influence of DO on the nitrogen removal

240 During the experimental process, influent DO levels in influents were adjusted to 5, 6, 7 and 8 mg L^{-1} in phases 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The relationship between DO 241 and nitrogen removal is shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3. As shown in the lower 242 heterotrophic nitrification section, the NH4⁺-N and TN removal rates in phase 2 were 243 83.3% and 37.5%, respectively, with 3.2 mgL^{-1} DO. In phase 3, DO increased to 4.8 244 mg L⁻¹, and the removal rates of NH₄⁺-N and TN gradually increased to 93.3% and 245 246 49.5%, respectively (Fig. 2c). In the upper hydrogenotrophic denitrification section, 247 the removal rates of NH4⁺-N and TN reached 80% while the DO level was 1.7 mg L⁻¹ at phase 2. In phase 3, NH4⁺-N and TN removal rates achieved 90% with 2.4 mg L⁻¹ 248 DO level (Fig. 2c). 249

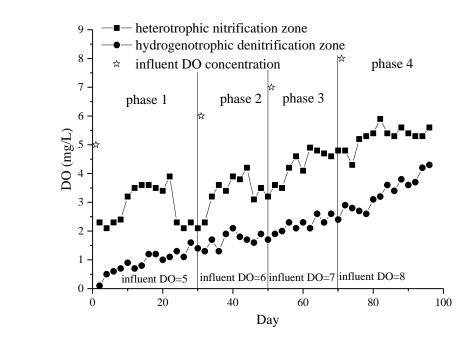


Fig. 3 Variations of DO in the heterotrophic nitrification zone and hydrogenotrophic

252

250

denitrification zone

In phase 4, the DO levels in bulk solution increased further to 5.5 mg L^{-1} and 4.2 253 mg L^{-1} in the heterotrophic nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification zones, 254 respectively, by increasing influent DO levels to 8.0 mg L⁻¹. At this stage, the effluent 255 quality parameters such as NH4⁺-N and NO2⁻-N remained stable (Fig. 2). Meanwhile, 256 257 the TN removal rates of the reactor were kept stable (above 90%). This phenomenon 258 indicated that the hydrogenotrophic denitrification was not restricted by relatively high DO level (4.2 mg L⁻¹). Deng et al. [25] had similar results, showing that the 259 260 autotrophic denitrification process using hydrogen from Fe-C galvanic cells as an 261 electron donor was not affected by DO. Li et al. [26] also had similar findings, with maximum nitrogen removal efficiency of 96.5% while the DO concentrations of 262 influent and effluent were 7.95 and 6.74 mg L⁻¹, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3, DO 263 levels were well below the influent levels throughout. The decline of DO 264

concentrations (about 1.3 mg L⁻¹) in the hydrogenotrophic denitrification zone
between influent and effluent was likely due to consumption by aerobic denitrifiers
[27]. The microbial community in the reactor needs to be studied.

268 **3.3. Simultaneous nitrification and denitrification**

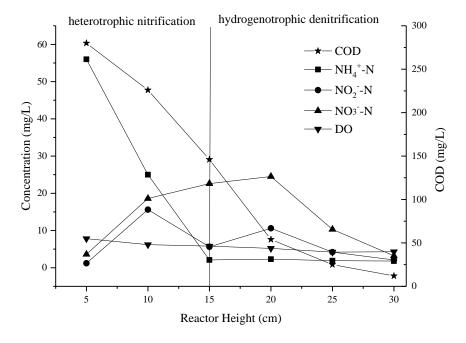
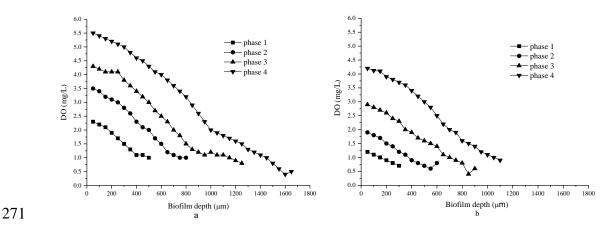
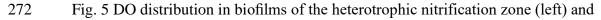




Fig. 4 The water quality parameters at different depths of the reactor





273 hydrogenotrophic denitrification zone (right) in four phases

At the end of the experiment (95 days, four phases), the concentrations of NH_4^+ -N,

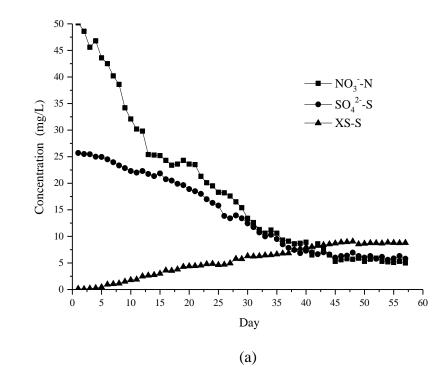
275 NO₃⁻-N, NO₂⁻-N, TN and COD at different depths of the reactor were measured. As

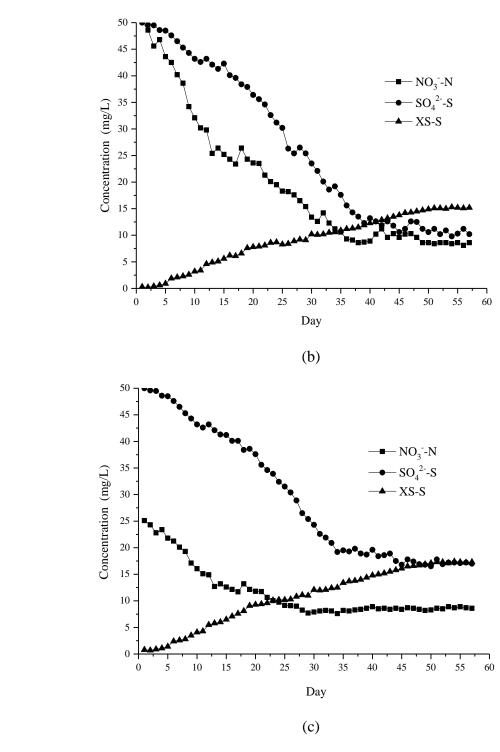
276 show in Fig. 4, NH₄⁺-N and COD abruptly decreased to the lowest value (close to zero) with depth. However, NO₃⁻-N increased gradually in the heterotrophic 277 278 nitrification zone (nitrification dominated the nitrogen removal process), then 279 decreased in the hydrogenotrophic denitrification section (denitrification dominated the process); almost no NO₂⁻-N accumulated in the whole process. In the 280 281 heterotrophic nitrification zone, the concentration of NH4⁺-N decreased from 56 mg L^{-1} to 2.1 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 4) while both of NO₃⁻-N and NO₂⁻-N increased, which proved 282 283 that nitrification occurred. Meanwhile, the TN removal rate (above 50%) during phase 284 4 in Fig. 2c illustrates that significant denitrification took place in this point. As for the hydrogenotrophic denitrification section, NH₄⁺-N and COD decreased gradually 285 286 with the reactor height, which showed partial nitrification could occur in this section. $NO_2^{-}N$ went up to 10.6 mg L⁻¹ firstly and then reduced to 2.1 mg L⁻¹ (Fig. 4), 287 288 moreover, there was similar variation trend in NO₃⁻-N. This suggests both nitrification 289 and denitrification could occur in the upper denitrification zone. These phenomena 290 confirmed simultaneous nitrification and denitrification had been achieved in the different parts of the reactor. 291

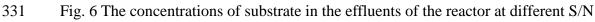
The transfer and consumption of DO in the biofilm serve important functions in nitrogen removal in the UBER system. Excessively high DO transfer resistance in the biofilm results in the aerobic layer being too thin and complicates ammonia oxidation. Conversely, excessively low DO transfer resistance makes the anaerobic layer too thin and slows down denitrification [28-29]. Determining the DO content in the biofilm is 297 helpful for understanding the mechanism of nitrogen removal. The DO microdistributions (by microelectrode) in the nitrification and denitrification biofilms 298 299 are shown in Fig. 5. In the heterotrophic nitrification zone, the thickness of biofilm at 300 phase 1 was 500 µm and then increased with time. Consequently, the thickness of 301 biofilm increased to 1650 µm during phase 4. There was a similar pattern in the 302 hydrogenotrophic denitrification zone, where the thickest biofilm was 1100 µm at 303 phase 4. The thickness of both biofilms increased with time, showing a continued growth of the microbial communities. It also can be seen that biofilm thicknesses in 304 305 the heterotrophic nitrification section were thicker than those in the hydrogenotrophic denitrification section at the same phase. This result was in accordance with the fact 306 heterotrophic microorganisms have faster growth rates than autotrophic 307 that 308 microbes. For the DO microdistribution in biofilms in the heterotrophic nitrification zone (Fig. 5, left), the DO levels in the biofilm declined to approximately 1.1 mg L⁻¹ 309 310 and then maintained a similar level, though the bulk DO values were different in 311 different phases. Similar trends were shown in the hydrogenotrophic denitrification 312 zone (Fig. 5, right), where the DO levels in the biofilms continuously dropped to nearly 0.5 mg L^{-1} . The maximum DO in the upper and lower parts were 4.2 mg L^{-1} 313 and 5.5 mg L⁻¹, respectively. DO in biofilms decreased with the depth of biofilms at 314 315 all phases. Thus, nitrification occurred in the outer layer of the biofilms consumed 316 oxygen, which contributed to low DO conditions inside for anoxic denitrification. The 317 DO variation in the biofilms indicated that nitrification can occur in the outer layer of the biofilms whereas denitrification can occur in the inner layer.

319 Overall, nitrification and denitrification for nitrogen removal with the UBER 320 system could be realized simultaneously. Simultaneous nitrification and denitrification was not only achieved through the whole reactor but also in the individual 321 322 heterotrophic nitrification zone hydrogenotrophic denitrification and zone, respectively. 323

324 **3.4. Effect of sulfate on hydrogenotrophic denitrification**







332 ratio (a)S/N=1:2; (b)S/N=1:1; (c)S/N=2:1 (XS-S refers to sulfide)

As shown in Fig. 6a, when the S/N ratio was 1:2, both effluent NO_3^--N and SO₄²⁻-S decreased to ~5 mg L⁻¹, the concentration of XS-S gradually increased to ~8

335	mg L ⁻¹ . The average removal rate of NO ₃ N (1 mg (L d) ⁻¹) was significantly greater
336	than that of $SO_4^{2-}S$ (0.44 mg (L d) ⁻¹) when the effluent parameters remained stable.
337	The concentration of NO_3^N and $SO_4^{2-}-S$ kept declining when the XS-S reached
338	about 8 mg L ⁻¹ . Finally, the removal rates of NO ₃ ⁻ -N and SO ₄ ²⁻ -S reached ~80%. The
339	results indicate that effective removal of nitrate and sulfate can be achieved
340	simultaneously at low S/N ratio since this concentration of XS-S (8 mg L ⁻¹) didn't
341	inhibit hydrogenotrophic denitrification. Under a 1:1 S/N ratio, effluent $SO_4^{2-}-S$
342	dropped to ~10 mg L^{-1} and XS-S went up to 15 mg L^{-1} . When the effluent
343	concentration of NO ₃ ⁻ -N was higher than 15 mg L^{-1} (the first 13 days), the removal
344	rate of NO ₃ ⁻ -N (1.9 mg (L d) ⁻¹) was greater than that of SO ₄ ²⁻ -S (0.54 mg (L d) ⁻¹). The
345	effluent concentration of NO_3^- -N remained stable (7 mg L ⁻¹) after 37 days, while the
346	XS-S was 10 mg L ⁻¹ . At that stage, the average removal rate of SO_4^{2-} -S was equal to
347	NO ₃ ⁻ -N (1.25 mg (L d) ⁻¹). After 50 days, the XS-S increased to 15 mg L ⁻¹ and the
348	SO_4^{2-} -S reached a stable level (10 mg L ⁻¹) (Fig. 6b). It can be inferred that the
349	denitrification process was inhibited when the XS-S reached 10 mg L ⁻¹ , and sulfate
350	reduction was inhibited when it reached 15 mg L^{-1} .

Results were similar with a S/N ratio of 2:1 (Fig. 6c). After 28 days, the concentration of XS-S reached 10 mg L⁻¹ and effluent NO₃⁻-N was stable at about 7 mg L⁻¹. The average removal rate of NO₃⁻-N was similar to SO₄²⁻-S (0.7 mg (L d)⁻¹). When the XS-S increased to 15 mg L⁻¹ at day 45, the SO₄²⁻-S equilibrium concentration (15 mg L⁻¹) was achieved. Denitrification and sulfate reduction processes were inhibited when the XS-S reached 10 mg L^{-1} (day 28) and 15 mg L^{-1} (day 45), respectively. The final removal rates of NO₃⁻⁻-N and SO₄²⁻⁻S were below 68%. In the three groups of experiments, the denitrification percent declined and time for stable effluent NO₃⁻⁻-N shortened as S/N ratio increased. Further studies are needed on how sulfate inhibits hydrogenotrophic denitrification: competition for electronic donors or the toxicity of sulfide on denitrifying bacteria.

362 **4. Conclusions**

The SND could be achieved with the novel UBER system for synthetic 363 wastewater treatment. DO in bulk solution was an important factor that affected the 364 365 nitrification and denitrification processes in both heterotrophic nitrification and hydrogenotrophic denitrification sections of the reactor. The experimental results 366 367 indicated that high nitrogen removal efficiency could be achieved through SND by the 368 UBER system. Relatively high DO concentration didn't inhibit hydrogen autotrophic denitrification significantly. Simultaneous removal of NO₃⁻-N and SO₄²⁻-S can be 369 achieved at low S/N ratio, but higher ratios caused inhibition of denitrification and 370 371 sulfate reduction

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