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# **Digested blackwater treatment in a partial nitrification-anammox reactor under repeated starvation and reactivation periods**

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**ABSTRACT:**

Wastewater source-separation and on-site treatment systems face severe problems in wastewater availability. Therefore, the effect of repeated short-term starvation and reactivation periods on a partial nitrification-anammox (PN/AMX) based process was assessed treating digested blackwater at room temperature. Two sequencing batch reactors (SBR) were operated, one of them during 24 h/day the whole week (SBR-C, which served as control) and the other with repeated starvation/reactivation periods during the nights and the weekends (SBR-D), using simulated blackwater (300 mg N/L and 200 mg COD/L) as substrate. Results showed no remarkable differences in overall process performance between both reactors, achieving total nitrogen removal efficiencies (NRE) around 90 %. Furthermore, no significant variations were measured in specific activities, except for the aerobic heterotrophic one that was lower in SBR-D, presumably due to the exposure to anoxic conditions. Then, the technical feasibility of applying the PN/AMX system to treat real blackwater produced in an office building during working hours was successfully proved in a third reactor (SBR-R), with the same starvation/reactivation periods tested in SBR-D. Despite the low temperature, ranging from 14 to 21 °C, total NRE up to 95 % and total nitrogen concentration in the effluent lower than 10 mg N/L were achieved. Moreover, the PN/AMX process performance was immediately recovered after a long starvation period of 15 days (simulating holidays). Results proved for the first time the feasibility and long-term stability (100 days) of applying the PN/AMX process for the treatment (and potential reuse) of blackwater in a decentralized system where wastewater is not always available.

**Keywords:** anammox; blackwater; decentralized systems; starvation; nitrification; wastewater source separation.

## **1. Introduction**

The increasing water scarcity and resources depletion have triggered efforts on the implementation of sustainable water management approaches (European Commission, 2016; WWAP, 2017). Decentralized wastewater treatment systems become an attractive alternative to be applied in small agglomerations enabling the energy and nutrients recovery, ensuring the local water availability by reusing the treated water and decreasing both investment and operational costs (WWAP, 2017). Source-separation systems allow segregating the different streams for a more intensive treatment depending on their characteristics and their final use promoting the water reuse (Malila et al., 2019; WWAP, 2017). Blackwater (i.e., toilet water) is an organic matter and nutrients concentrated stream contributing to approximately 92 % of total nitrogen, 75 % of phosphorus and 52 % of the organic matter contained in mixed domestic sewage (Gottardo Morandi et al., 2018). Moreover, blackwater composition considerably varies according to its origin, infrastructure, toilet flushing systems and user habits (Gao et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2018), as it is summarized in Table 1 blackwater is more concentrated in residential areas whereas the one deriving from workplaces or touristic installations (museums, parks, etc.) is generally more diluted.

1 Table 1. Summary of blackwater composition depending on the origin and toilets flushing system.

Reference	Origin	tCOD (g/L)	sCOD (g/L)	pH	TN (mg N/L)	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N (mg N/L)	Toilet flushing (L/flush)
This study	Office building	2.3 ± 0.1	0.56 ± 0.01	7.5 ± 0.1	115 ± 6	95 ± 5	4.5/ 3
Gallagher and Sharvelle, 2011	Office building	2.0 ± 0.2	0.67 ± 0.16	8.0	145 ± 24 <sup>a</sup>	102 ± 8	5 toilet + 1.5 urinal
Ren et al., 2018	Office building	0.4 ± 0.1	0.31 ± 0.03	-	74 ± 6	66 ± 7	-
Zeeman et al., 2008	32 houses	19 ± 3.4	3.2 ± 0.6	8.6	-	1400 ± 300	1
De Graaff et al., 2010	32 houses	7.7 ± 2.5	2.3 ± 0.8	8.6 ± 0.5	1200 ± 180	850 ± 150	1 (7.8 L/p/d)
Palmquist and Hanæus, 2005	44 houses	0.8 - 3.1	-	8.9 - 9.1	130 - 180 <sup>a</sup>	-	-
Knerr et al., 2011	15 inhabitants residential	2.9 ± 0.8	-	9.0 ± 0.1	273 ± 39 <sup>a</sup>	202 ± 32	9
Ren et al., 2018	2 houses	0.7 ± 0.1	0.40 ± 0.06	-	149 ± 19	139 ± 20	-
Zeeman et al., 2008	University	9.5 ± 6.5	1.4 ± 0.5	8.8 ± 0.2	1000 ± 130 <sup>a</sup>	710 ± 10	1
Moges et al., 2018	Student dormitory (48 inhabitants)	5.5 ± 1.3	1.2 ± 0.3	9.0 ± 0.3	-	900 ± 200	1.2
Murat Hocaoglu et al., 2010	Campus lodges	1.1 ± 0.6	0.4 ± 1.2	8.0 ± 0.3	180 ± 28 <sup>a</sup>	147 ± 18	9
Todt et al., 2015	Student dormitory (48 inhabitants)	8.9 - 11.4	-	-	1400 - 1700 <sup>a</sup>		1.2
Oarga-Mulec et al., 2017	Tourist park	-	2.2 ± 1.0	8.5 ± 0.6	-	810 ± 240	0.8
Lansing et al., 2017	Hotel	-	1.1 ± 0.3	7.2 ± 0.1	194 ± 24 <sup>a</sup>	164 ± 28	4
Lansing et al., 2017	Clinic		6.1 ± 0.8	7.0 ± 0.2	703 ± 267 <sup>a</sup>	161 ± 20	4
Sharma et al., 2016	Residential school	1.7 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.2	8.1 ± 0.2	117 ± 28	88 ± 19	5
Ren et al., 2018	Fire Station	0.2 ± 0.1	0.13 ± 0.01	-	62 ± 7	54 ± 9	-
Ren et al., 2018	2 Hotels	0.7 ± 0.2	0.45 ± 0.12	-	69 ± 16	61 ± 14	-

2 COD: chemical oxygen demand (“t” and “s” refers to total and soluble, respectively); TN: Total nitrogen; <sup>a</sup>TKN: Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen.

3 The anaerobic digestion of blackwater allows recovering its energy content as biogas (Gao et  
4 al., 2019; Moges et al., 2018). In the case of the anaerobic membrane reactors (AnMBR), the  
5 high quality and disinfected nitrogen-rich permeate, after the ammonium oxidation to nitrate,  
6 may be used as fertilizer while irrigating. However, the irrigation water requirements  
7 (quantity and nutrients concentration) vary along the year and the type of crop growing  
8 (European Commission, 2016). Thus, a nitrogen removal system needs to be also considered  
9 to obtain a clean effluent suitable for other reuse purposes, or ultimately, to discharge, in  
10 order to reduce the potential environmental impact of the anaerobic digestion process.

11 The combination of the partial nitrification and anammox (PN/AMX) processes represents an  
12 adequate and intriguing alternative since it allows the completely autotrophic nitrogen  
13 removal from wastewater and promotes the recovery of the wastewater energy content. The  
14 anaerobic biodegradability of the blackwater range from 40 to 80 %, meaning that residual  
15 organic matter is present in the effluent of the anaerobic digester (De Graaff et al., 2010; Gao  
16 et al., 2019). Nevertheless, previous studies indicate that it is possible to achieve and maintain  
17 stable the PN/AMX processes at moderate nitrogen concentrations and temperature (i.e., the  
18 conditions of the anaerobically digested blackwater) when moderate organic matter  
19 concentration are present in wastewater (Hoekstra et al., 2019; Pedrouso et al., 2018). Despite  
20 the number of research works about blackwater treatment exponentially rose, scarce  
21 information is available about its treatment by anammox based process.

22 Decentralized systems would have to deal with large fluctuation in both flow and composition  
23 of wastewaters (European Commission, 2016). This high variability in wastewater production  
24 could top at the extreme case of a single office building where wastewater flow rate would be  
25 zero during nights, weekends and holidays. Thus, the biological systems are frequently  
26 exposed to famine conditions affecting the process robustness (Wang et al., 2018). Modular

27 treatment trains enable to adapt the treatment requirements depending on the final water  
28 purpose. In the periods when treated wastewater is reused for irrigation, nitrogen removal  
29 process is not required and the corresponding unit would have no water supply. As anammox  
30 bacteria are traditionally considered sensitive to environmental changes, the study of short-  
31 term starvation effect over the anammox activity is of great interest. However, limited  
32 information is available about the response of simultaneous PN/AMX processes under oxygen  
33 and nitrogen absence (Reeve et al., 2016) and the influence of repeated starvation on the  
34 biomass from a reactor operating in transient conditions, as can occur in a decentralized  
35 system treating blackwater, was not studied.

36 Hence, the aim of this study is to evaluate the operation of a PN/AMX based process (ELAN<sup>®</sup>  
37 process), treating anaerobically digested blackwater at room temperature, and to assess the  
38 impact of regular stops and reactivation periods on the biological reactor due to the highly  
39 variable influent flow rate in a decentralized system. Additionally, the study of the different  
40 microbial populations involved (anammox, ammonium and nitrite oxidizers and heterotrophs)  
41 was evaluated in terms of their specific activity, to understand the effect of the  
42 starvation/reactivation periods over them.

## 43 **2. Material and Methods**

### 44 **2.1. Reactors setup and operation**

45 Three one-stage PN/AMX reactors, with a working volume of 4 L and a volume exchange  
46 ratio of 20 %, were operated. Reactors were run as sequencing batch reactors (SBR) with a 3-  
47 hour cycle configuration (See Table S1 in Supporting Material for details of the phase's  
48 distribution in the cycle). The air flow rate was manually adjusted by means of a gas flow  
49 meter (P model, Aalborg). Mechanical stirring (with a velocity of 40 -50 rpm) was provided

50 in order to guarantee the reactor mixture. The SBRs were inoculated with biomass from a full-  
51 scale ELAN<sup>®</sup> reactor (one-stage PN/AMX technology with granular sludge) treating the  
52 supernatant from an anaerobic sludge digester of a municipal wastewater treatment plant  
53 located in Guillarei (Tui, NW Spain) (Morales et al., 2018). All reactors operated at room  
54 temperature and neither pH nor dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration were controlled. The  
55 experimental conditions for each reactor are summarized in Table 2.

56 Firstly, two of the reactors (SBR-C and SBR-D) were fed with synthetic influent (Table  
57 S2 in Supporting Material) simulating the moderate nitrogen concentration (300 mg N/L as  
58 ammonium chloride) and the residual organic matter (200 mg COD/L as sodium acetate) of  
59 the digested blackwater, resulting in an influent COD to nitrogen ratio of 0.67 g COD/g NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-  
60 N. The reactors operated with the SBR cycle configuration named Cycle 1 comprising: 5 min  
61 of anoxic mixed feeding, 160 min of aerated reaction, 10 min settling and 5 min of effluent  
62 withdrawal. Both reactors were operated in continuous mode for 28 days (7 days/week and 24  
63 h/day). Then, SBR-D was stopped during the night and weekends simulating the lack of  
64 wastewater in a decentralized treatment system from an office building. With this change the  
65 hydraulic retention time (HRT) in SBR-D increased from 0.63 to 1.75 days (considering that  
66 it was only fed 4 cycles/day and 5 days/week), whereas SBR-C served as control and it was  
67 operated always without stops with a HRT of 0.63 days. The stops in SBR-D provoked that  
68 the temperature inside the reactor varied in a wider range than in SBR-C (Table 2), but this  
69 difference was not statistically significant.

70

71

72



Table 2. Summary of the experiments performed.

<i>Reactor</i>	<i>Media</i>	<i>Temperature (°C) <sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Stages (days)</i>	<i>Cycle <sup>b</sup></i>	<i>Stops</i>
SBR-C	Synthetic	18.6 - 23.7 (21 ± 1)	Start-up (0 - 28)	Cycle 1	No
			Continuous (29 - 90)		
SBR-D	Synthetic	14.4 - 24.4 (21 ± 2)	Start-up (0 - 28)	Cycle 1	No
			Discontinuous (29 - 90)	Cycle 1	Nights and weekends
SBR-R	Pre-treated blackwater	14.0 - 21.3 (19 ± 2)	Stage I (0 - 40)	Cycle 1	Nights and weekends
			Stage II (41 - 58)	Cycle 2	Nights and weekends
			Starvation (59 - 74)	No	15 days
			Stage III (75 - 100)	Cycle 2	Nights and weekends

74 <sup>a</sup> As temperature was not controlled, the range indicates the minimum and maximum values measured inside the reactors,  
75 while the average value with the standard deviation for the corresponding operational period is reported in brackets.

76 <sup>b</sup> See in supplementary material Table S1 the definition of each cycle.

77 <sup>c</sup> Low average values due to winter holidays, with no central heating in the laboratory building.

78 After the operation of the synthetic media fed reactors a third reactor (SBR-R) was fed with  
79 anaerobically digested blackwater (Table 3) collected in an office building (where  
80 approximately 200 people work) with source-separated sanitation located in Porto do Molle  
81 Business Center (Nigrán, NW Spain). The used blackwater was less concentrated than the one  
82 used in other studies (Table 1) and that the used previously in the synthetic fed reactors (SBR-  
83 C and SBR-D), as it was mainly composed by urine and diluted using regular flushing toilets  
84 (3.0 - 4.5 L/flush). The raw blackwater (Table 3) was previously digested in an AnMBR  
85 comprising an anaerobic stirred reactor (2.8 m<sup>3</sup>) coupled to a membrane tank (1 m<sup>3</sup>) equipped  
86 with an ultrafiltration flat-sheet membrane module (6.25 m<sup>2</sup>). The AnMBR was operated at  
87 room temperature (18 - 26 °C) achieving a 90 % of organic matter removal and producing an  
88 effluent with a COD/N ratio of 0.9 g COD/g NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N. SBR-R was operated for 100 days with  
89 different operational stages depending on the cycle configuration applied and the regime of

90 stops (Table 2). It was started-up and operated for 40 days with the same operational cycle  
 91 and stops as SBR-D (Stage I-Cycle 1). Then, to improve the total nitrogen removal efficiency  
 92 (NRE), an anoxic reaction phase (20 min) was implemented after the feeding (Stage II-Cycle  
 93 2, days 41 - 58). Thus, the aerobic reaction phase was reduced to 140 min. Finally, the reactor  
 94 was operated from day 75 to 100 (Stage III) to study the reactivation of the PN/AMX process  
 95 after a 15 days starvation period. During this starvation period (from day 59 to 74) no  
 96 measurements were done, as the reactor was completely stopped (no feeding, mixing and  
 97 aeration).

98 Table 3. Characterization of raw blackwater and anaerobically digested blackwater.

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Raw blackwater</i>	<i>Anaerobically digested blackwater</i>
tCOD (mg/L)	2325 ± 58	98 ± 3
sCOD (mg/L)	553 ± 3	98 ± 3
DOC (mg/L)	117 ± 12	32 ± 6
DIC (mg/L)	159 ± 10	124 ± 13
TN (mg/L)	115 ± 6	121 ± 5
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N (mg/L)	95 ± 5	120 ± 12
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N (mg/L)	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N (mg/L)	0.3 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1
pH	7.50 ± 0.05	7.25 ± 0.15
Conductivity (mS/cm)	-	1.5 ± 0.2

99 DOC: Dissolved organic carbon; DIC: dissolved inorganic carbon; sCOD: soluble chemical oxygen  
 100 demand; tCOD: total chemical oxygen demand; TN: total nitrogen.

## 101 2.2. Ex-situ specific activity tests in batch mode

102 The ex-situ specific activity tests were performed collecting the biomass from the reactors in  
 103 different operational days and following the corresponding protocol in batch mode. The  
 104 maximum specific anammox activity (SA<sub>AMX</sub>) was determined according to the manometric

105 method described by Dapena-Mora et al. (Dapena-Mora et al., 2007) and employing 70 mg  
106 N/L of both nitrite and ammonium as substrates. The specific heterotrophic denitrification  
107 activity ( $SA_{HDN}$ ) was assessed by the same procedure but using 200 mg COD/L and 25 mg  
108  $NO_3^-$ -N/L as substrates. Respirometric assays were conducted to determine the specific  
109 aerobic heterotrophic activity ( $SA_{aerHET}$ ), as well as specific ammonium- and nitrite-oxidizing  
110 activities ( $SA_{AOB}$  and  $SA_{NOB}$ , respectively) (Lopez-Fiuza et al., 2002) using a biological  
111 oxygen monitor (BOM, Ysi Inc. model 5300) equipped with oxygen selective probes (YSI  
112 5331). In the  $SA_{AOB}$  tests 24  $\mu$ M of sodium azide was added to selectively inhibit the  $SA_{NOB}$   
113 in case it was present (Val del Rio et al., 2019). All these activity tests were performed in  
114 triplicate at 20°C, and for  $SA_{AMX}$  tests also at 30 °C (temperature of reference).

### 115 **2.3. Analytical methods**

116 Influent and effluent streams of the three reactors were periodically sampled to follow the  
117 process performance. All samples were filtered using a 0.45  $\mu$ m pore size filters prior to  
118 analysis. Spectrophotometric methods were applied to determine the ammonium (Bower and  
119 Holm-Hansen, 1980), nitrite and nitrate (APHA et al., 2017) concentrations. Total COD  
120 (tCOD) in raw samples and soluble COD (sCOD) in filtered samples were also determined  
121 according to Standards Methods (APHA et al., 2017). Total dissolved organic and inorganic  
122 carbon concentrations (DOC and DIC, respectively) were measured with a Shimadzu analyzer  
123 (TOC-L-CSN). Total nitrogen (TN) was measured in the same Shimadzu analyzer with a  
124 TNM-L Unit. The DO concentration and temperature in the bulk liquid were on-line  
125 measured using a luminescent DO probe (LDO, Hach Lange). The pH and conductivity  
126 values were determined with electrodes (pH1 and EC5, respectively) connected to a Hach  
127 Sension+ meter. The concentration of the total suspended solids (TSS), volatile suspended  
128 solids (VSS) and sludge volume index (SVI) were determined according to Standard Methods

129 (APHA et al., 2017). The average diameter of the granules and size distribution were  
130 determined (only for SBR-R) utilizing a stereomicroscope (Stemi 2000-C, Zeiss)  
131 incorporating a digital camera (Coolsnap, Roper Scientific Photometrics) for image  
132 acquisition and then these images were processed using the Image ProPlus<sup>®</sup> software. The  
133 separation of both granular and suspended sludge fractions to further characterize the biomass  
134 from the three reactors was performed by means of a 200  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve. The granular biomass  
135 density was determined as the mass of the granule per granule volume using the blue dextran  
136 method (Beun et al., 2002).

#### 137 **2.4. Calculations**

138 Mass balances and calculations were done considering the stoichiometric reactions and  
139 equations described in Supporting Material (Section S1). Statistical analysis was conducted  
140 with the software R (version 3.5.2, R Core Team 2015). First, variance homogeneity was  
141 confirmed by Levene's test and normal distribution by the Shapiro's test. Then, if the data set  
142 met the homogeneity and normal distribution prerequisites, a one-way analysis of variance  
143 (ANOVA) was carried out to determine if the values obtained were significantly different at  
144 the 95 % confidence level ( $p < 0.05$ ). A post hoc analysis (Tukey's HSD) was applied every  
145 time that ANOVA resulted in a significant difference, to find which mean value was  
146 significantly different from each other, considering a level of significance of 0.05. If data  
147 variance homogeneity and/or normal distribution requirements were not fulfilled, the non-  
148 parametric Kruskal-Wallis analysis was applied and then the Wilcoxon post hoc analysis was  
149 used.

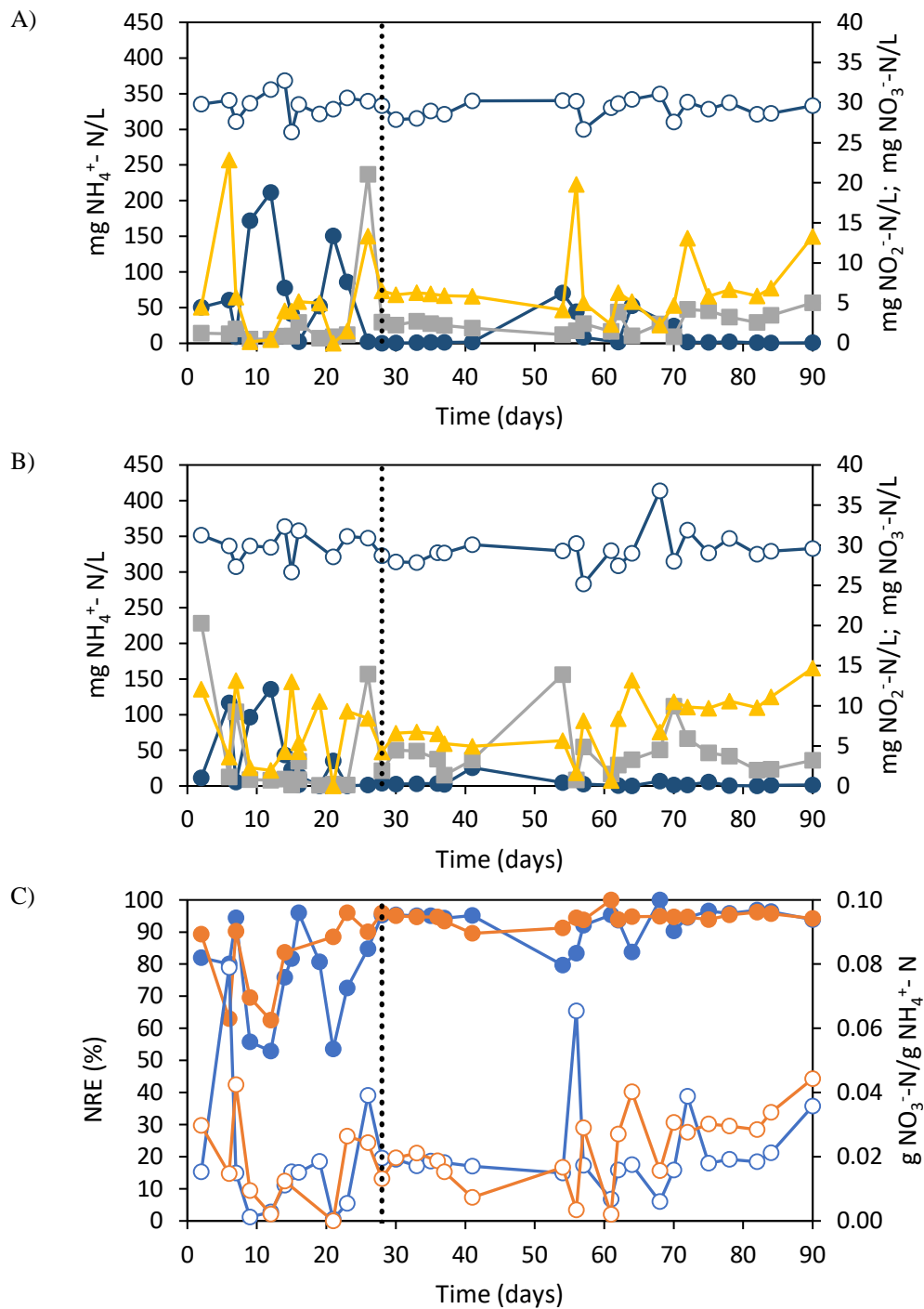
150 **3. Results**

151 **3.1 Comparison between the continuous and the repeated starvation/reactivation modes**  
152 **in the operation of the PN/AMX process**

153 3.1.1 Start-up and performance at the conditions of the digested blackwater

154 Both SBR-C and SBR-D were inoculated with biomass drawn from a full-scale ELAN<sup>®</sup>  
155 reactor treating the supernatant from a sludge anaerobic digester (Morales et al., 2018), which  
156 was acclimated to mesophilic temperatures (around 30 °C), large nitrogen concentrations (>  
157 500 mg TN/L), as well as by lower COD/N ratios (< 0.5 g sCOD/TN). However, from the  
158 start-up, stable PN/AMX process was achieved (Figure 1) by adjusting aeration flow rates  
159 between 1.5 - 2.0 L/min (resulting in a DO concentration of 0.1 - 1.5 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L). In fact, during  
160 the whole experimental period of both reactors, the most influential factor in process  
161 performance was the air flow rate. Difficulties in adjusting it, especially during the start-up  
162 phase, led to fluctuating process performances (wider in SBR-C, more frequent in SBR-D).  
163 However, as air flow rate was properly controlled, process stability was reached and  
164 maintained in both reactors. This problem is mostly related to small-scale systems, and it may  
165 be easily avoided in case of scale-up, since air-flow rates (i.e., DO concentrations) can be  
166 adjusted by using advanced control systems. At the end of start-up (day 28), the observed  
167 NRE was around 80 % in both SBRs, at a nitrogen loading rate (NLR) of 480 mg N/(L·d).

168



169 Figure 1. Time profiles of ammonium (○) in the influent, and effluent nitrogen forms as ammonium (●),  
 170 nitrite (■) and nitrate (▲) in SBR-C (A) and SBR-D (B) whereas C) shows the nitrogen removal efficiency  
 171 (NRE) (filled dot) and the nitrate produced to ammonium consumed ratio (empty dot) for SBR-C (● and ○)  
 172 and SBR-D (● and ○). Black dashed line corresponds to day 28 when the start-up of both reactors was  
 173 completed.

174 Then, from day 28 onwards, scheduled stops were imposed to SBR-D (Table 2) resulting in a  
 175 decrease of the applied NLR to 170 mg N/(L·d). The average NRE was 85 % and 89 % in  
 176 SBR-C and SBR-D, respectively. The overall performance of SBR-D was not significantly  
 177 affected by the different operating strategy applied ( $p=0.84$ ) (Table 4). TN concentration in  
 178 the effluent was  $23 \pm 17$  mg TN/L in SBR-C and  $18 \pm 6$  mg TN/L in SBR-D. The most  
 179 abundant nitrogen form in the effluent was nitrate as, according to the PN/AMX  
 180 stoichiometry, the 11 % of the influent ammonium was expected to be converted to nitrate  
 181 (Burton et al., 2014). However, the observed nitrate produced to ammonium converted ratio  
 182 in both reactors was  $0.02 \pm 0.01$  g  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/g  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N ( $p=0.36$ ), suggesting the presence of  
 183 heterotrophic denitrifying activity (Figure 1.C).

184 Table 4. Average values of the mass balances process performance ( $p<0.05$  indicate statistically differences  
 185 between mean values). Only data from day 28 onwards in both reactors were used for the calculations.

Removal*	SBR-C	SBR-D	p (Kruskal-Wallis)
<b>% TN</b>	$90 \pm 12$	$92 \pm 8$	0.8392
<b>% N anammox</b>	$82 \pm 7$	$85 \pm 5$	0.3577
<b>% N denitrification</b>	$7 \pm 3$	$8 \pm 2$	0.6359
<b>% N assimilated</b>	$11 \pm 8$	$10 \pm 8$	0.4989
<b>% DOC</b>	$82 \pm 11$	$79 \pm 20$	0.8287
<b>% DOC denitrification</b>	$59 \pm 39$	$62 \pm 32$	0.989
<b>% DOC aerobic heterotrophic</b>	$41 \pm 39$	$38 \pm 32$	0.989

186 \* See section S1 in Supporting Material for calculations

187 Although approximately 80 % of the influent DOC was also removed, mass balance  
 188 calculations indicated that the anammox process was the main nitrogen removal pathway in  
 189 both reactors whereas the heterotrophic denitrification accounted for less than 10 % of the TN  
 190 removal ( $p= 0.64$ ) (Table 4). Moreover, an additional 10 % of the nitrogen removed was

191 ascribed to biomass assimilation. Organic matter removal occurred by both aerobic  
192 (mineralization) and anoxic routes (nitrate heterotrophic denitrification). High variations were  
193 observed regarding the predominant DOC removal pathway, with DO concentration as the  
194 key factor. No significant differences between the main DOC removal pathways between  
195 SBR-C and SBR-D reactors were observed (Table 4).

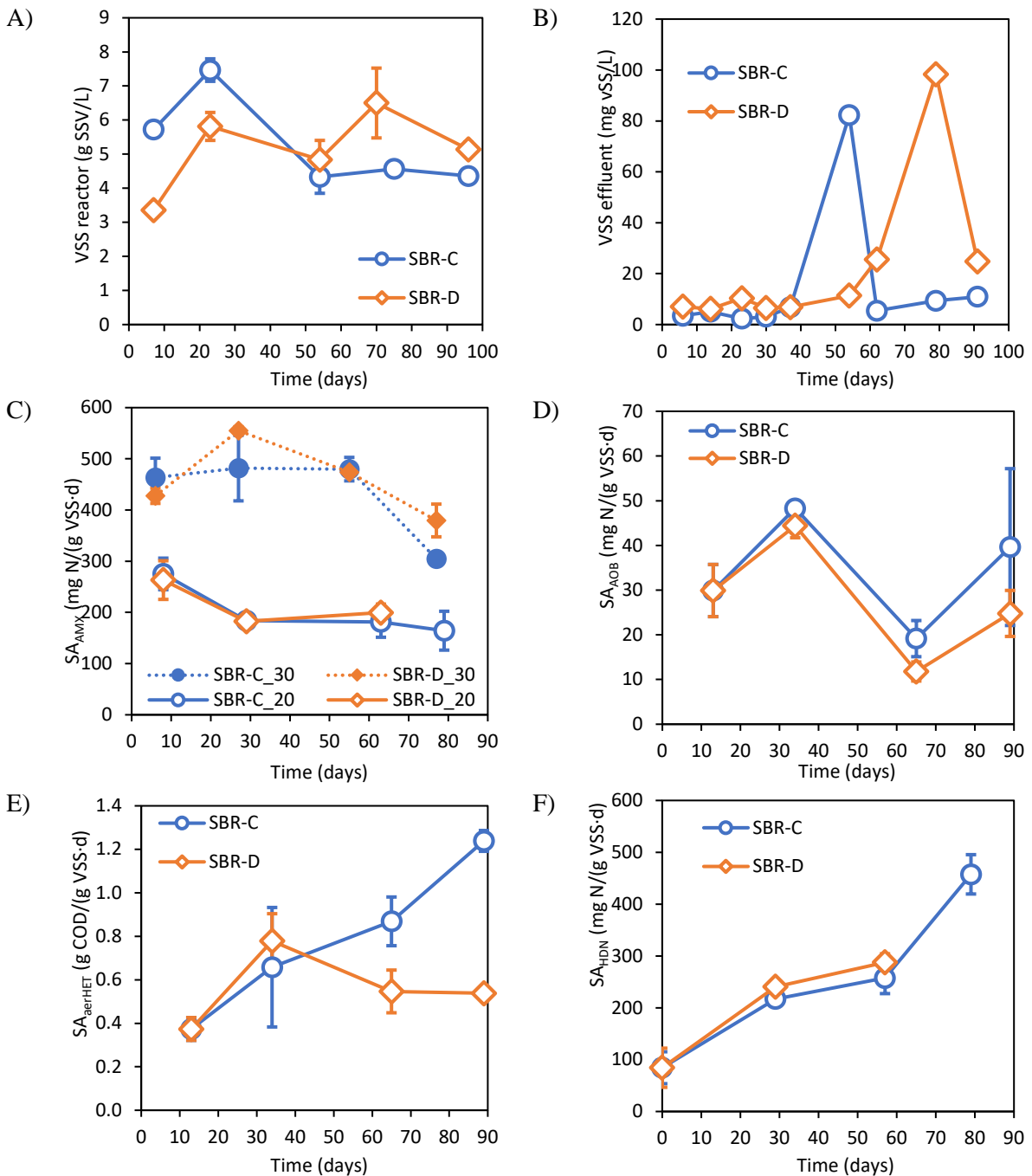
### 196 3.1.2 Solids concentration and settleability

197 The ELAN<sup>®</sup> inoculum consisted of a mixture of granular and suspended biomass. During the  
198 start-up (days 0 – 28) a considerable increase of the biomass concentration was observed in  
199 both reactors (Figure 2.A) indicating a positive effect of the synthetic feeding and controlled  
200 environment counterbalancing the effect of the lower temperature ( $21 \pm 2$  °C, Table 2).  
201 Furthermore, the suspended biomass growth was promoted due to the presence of readily  
202 biodegradable organic matter (200 mg sCOD/L as acetate). Consequently, a progressive  
203 depletion in settling capacity occurred, as confirmed by the increase in SVI values. Compared  
204 with SBR-C, the development of suspended sludge and fast-growing heterotrophic bacteria  
205 was slower in the SBR-D due to the reduced organic load applied (OLR of 110 mg  
206 COD/(L·d)), which resulted in lower SVI values (between 80 to 150 mL/g TSS) along the  
207 operational period (See Table S3 in Supporting Material).

208 Despite the decrease of the settling capacity, VSS concentration in the effluent of both  
209 reactors remained relatively low (Figure 2.B). Eventually, the concentration of VSS in the  
210 effluent of SBR-C increased up to 80 mg VSS/L on day 53 and consequently, sludge was  
211 partially washed out from the reactor decreasing the reactor VSS concentration from 7.5 g  
212 VSS/L (day 23) to 4.3 g VSS/L (day 54). A possible explanation was the deterioration in the  
213 sludge compactness capacity that lead to having the sludge bed close to the level where  
214 effluent was discharged. Then, although the biomass continued to show a poor settling



215 capacity, resulting in a slow and constant increase in the effluent VSS concentration, the VSS  
 216 concentration inside SBR-C was stabilized at  $4.4 \pm 0.1$  g VSS/L (Figure 2). Interestingly,  
 217 effluent VSS concentration in SBR-D showed the same behaviour than in SBR-C, but it was  
 218 shifted forward in time (Figure 2.B). Such behaviour may be likely ascribed to the reduced  
 219 load applied.



220 Figure 2. Evolution of the biomass properties for SBR-C (○) and SBR-D (◇). Evolution profile of the volatile  
221 suspended solids (VSS) concentration inside the reactors (A) and VSS in the effluent (B). Results of ex-situ  
222 maximum specific activity tests: anammox bacteria (C), ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AOB) (D), aerobic  
223 heterotrophic bacteria (aerHET) (E) and heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria (HDN) (F) activities. All the  
224 activities were determined in triplicate at 20 °C except  $SA_{AMX}$  which was also tested at 30 °C.

### 225 226 3.1.3 Specific activities

227 No significant differences between SBRs were found regarding the  $SA_{AMX}$  values (Figure  
228 2.C). During the whole operational period,  $SA_{AMX}$  values of  $432 \pm 86$  and  $460 \pm 74$  mg N/(g  
229 VSS·d) were obtained for SBR-C and SBR-D at 30 °C, respectively ( $p=0.41$ ). The evolution  
230 of  $SA_{AMX}$  profile over time was different at 30 and 20 °C. At the end of the experimental  
231 period, a decreasing trend was observed for  $SA_{AMX}$  at 30 °C whereas at 20 °C the  $SA_{AMX}$   
232 values decreased in the first phase of the experiment, and then they were maintained at  
233 approximately 200 mg N/(g VSS·d), for both reactors ( $p=0.53$ ), along the operational period  
234 (Figure 2.C).

235 The  $SA_{AOB}$  values in SBR-D were always slightly lower than in SBR-C, probably due to the  
236 repeated oxygen starvation (Figure 2.D), although the difference between the average values  
237 was not significant ( $p=0.19$ ). During the whole experimental period, no  $SA_{NOB}$  was detected  
238 in batch tests and, in both reactors, nitrate concentration lower than the stoichiometrically  
239 expected one for the PN/AMX process was measured in the effluent, confirming this data  
240 (Figure 1.C).

241 In the case of heterotrophic bacteria, both aerobic ( $SA_{aerHET}$ ) and anoxic ( $SA_{HDN}$ ) activities  
242 increased in SBR-C, whereas the aerobic activity decreased after day 28 in SBR-D (Figure  
243 2.E), being significantly ( $p=0.01$ ) lower than the one measured in SBR-C. The  $SA_{HDN}$  values  
244 increased in both reactors with a similar trend.

245 Despite the decrease of  $SA_{AOB}$  or  $SA_{aerHET}$  in SBR-D, the theoretical nitrogen and DOC  
246 removal capacities determined on their basis, were higher than the corresponding loads  
247 applied, therefore reactor performance remained stable.  
248 Finally, on days 80 - 85, the specific microbial activities were also determined on the granular  
249 and flocculent biomass fractions (Figure S.1 in Supporting Material). Bacterial segregation  
250 was observed being AOB and heterotrophic (both aerobic and anoxic) bacteria more active on  
251 flocculent biomass, whereas granules were mainly enriched on anammox bacteria. Significant  
252  $SA_{AMX}$  activity was also detected in suspended biomass, probably due to the presence of  
253 highly active small anammox granules ( $< 200 \mu\text{m}$ ) that were difficult to separate from the  
254 suspended biomass. It is worth to note that the  $SA_{AMX}$  in granular fraction was similar in both  
255 reactors, while in the flocculent fraction the  $SA_{AMX}$ ,  $SA_{AOB}$  and  $SA_{aerHET}$  were lower in SBR-  
256 D than in SBR-C. These results confirmed the lower development of activity in the flocculent  
257 biomass in the reactor with repeated starvation/reactivation periods whereas the anammox  
258 activity in the granular fraction was maintained.

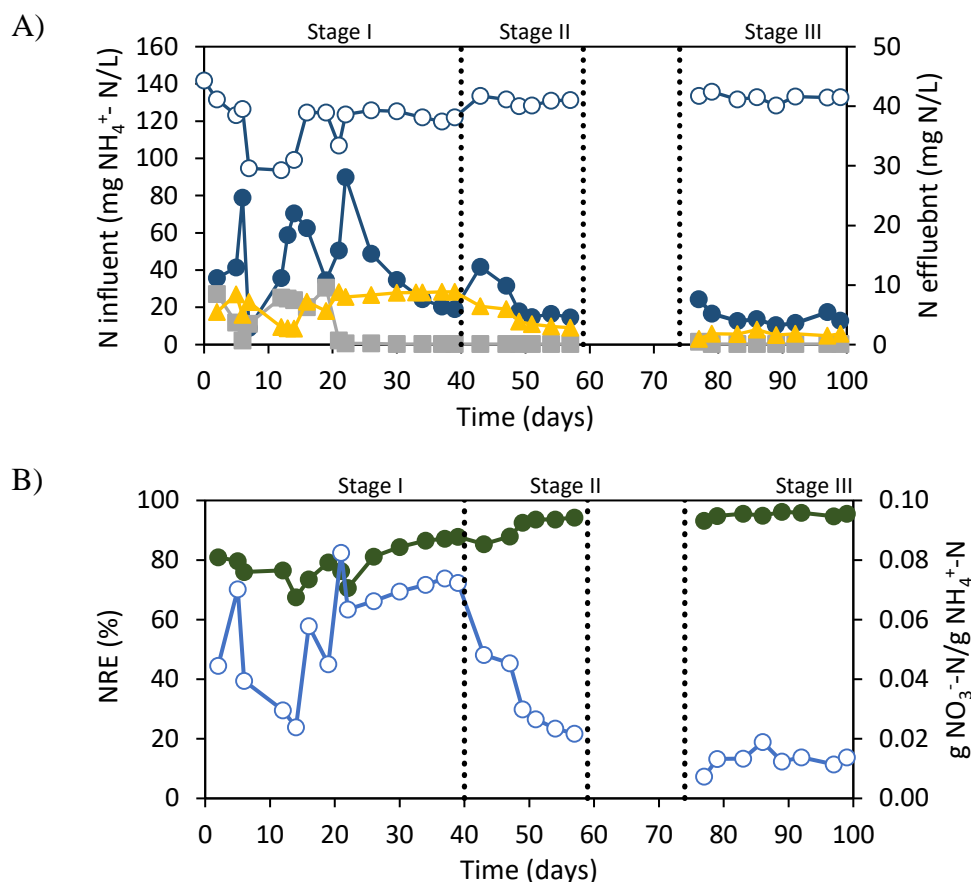
### 259 **3.2 Validation of the blackwater treatment in a PN/AMX system under regular** 260 **starvation and reactivation periods**

261 As the results obtained with the synthetic fed reactors with and without stops showed similar  
262 performances, the test with blackwater was performed in a reactor with repeated stops from  
263 the start-up, without a control reactor.

#### 264 3.2.1 Performance of the PN/AMX process

265 As occurred in the previous operation of SBR-C and SBR-D with synthetic feeding, the  
266 control of the aeration flow rate was revealed as the key parameter influencing the PN/AMX  
267 process with blackwater (SBR-R). Furthermore, the concentrations of DOC and TN in the

268 digested blackwater were lower than the expected and used previously in the synthetic  
269 medium composition making the aeration control even more challenging. During the start-up  
270 of SBR-R difficulties on adjusting the aeration flow rate caused highly fluctuating process  
271 performance, leading to peaks in effluent nitrite concentration up to 10 mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N/L (Figure  
272 4). Then, air flow rate was maintained at around 1 L/min, resulting in a DO concentration of  
273 0.1 - 0.3 mg  $\text{O}_2$ /L, and the SBR-R was operated and maintained stable treating anaerobically  
274 digested blackwater under regular starvation and reactivation periods (Figure 3), despite  
275 temperature fluctuations from 14 to 21 °C ( $18 \pm 3$  °C on average) (Table 2). The lower DO  
276 concentration needed in SBR-R in comparison with synthetic fed reactors (SBR-C and SBR-  
277 D) can be attributed to the lower nitrogen and organic matter concentrations in the feeding.  
278 During Stage I (NLR of  $70 \pm 6$  mg N/(L·d)), the average ammonium removal efficiency was  
279  $88 \pm 6$  % and the NRE was maintained at  $79 \pm 7$  % with effluent TN concentration of  $24 \pm 7$   
280 mg TN/L. The organic matter removal efficiency was approximately 46 % with an effluent  
281 concentration of  $17 \pm 6$  mg DOC/L. From day 20 onward, when stable process was achieved,  
282 nitrite concentration in the effluent was negligible and low ammonium and nitrate  
283 concentrations (close to 10 mg N/L each) were measured (Figure 3). As in the case of SBR-D,  
284 the observed nitrate production to ammonium consumption ratio ( $0.08 \pm 0.01$  g  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/ g  
285  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N, days 20-40) was lower than the expected according to the PN/AMX processes  
286 stoichiometry. Mass balance calculations indicated that 90 % of the nitrogen removed was  
287 due to the anammox process.



288 Figure 3. Time profiles in SBR-R treating anaerobically digested blackwater for: A) ammonium (○) in  
 289 the influent, and effluent nitrogen forms as ammonium (●), nitrite (■) and nitrate (▲) in mg N/L in the  
 290 effluent and B) nitrogen removal efficiency (NRE) in % (●) and the ratio of nitrate produced to  
 291 ammonium consumed (○) observed.

292 Then, with the implementation of the anoxic reaction phase in Stage II, the NRE significantly  
 293 increased up to  $91 \pm 4$  % ( $p < 0.05$ ) due to the occurrence and enhancement of denitrification  
 294 process. The nitrate production to ammonium consumption ratio decreased from  $0.08 \pm 0.01$   
 295 to  $0.02 \pm 0.01$  g  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/ g  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N ( $p = 0.03$ ), and the contribution of denitrification to overall  
 296 nitrogen removal increased from 5 % to 9 % ( $p = 0.015$ ). At the end of this period, the TN  
 297 concentration in the effluent was lower than 10 mg TN/L (discharge limit in the EU for  
 298 sensitive areas).

299 During Stage III, the reactivation after a long starvation period of 15 days (simulating holiday  
300 time) was studied. Once the SBR-R reactor was restarted, the NRE was rapidly recovered and  
301 maintained at  $95 \pm 1$  % and the TN concentration in the effluent was  $6.5 \pm 1.3$  mg TN/L,  
302 showing the robustness of the system. Thus, the long starvation period did not negatively  
303 affect the PN/AMX process performance since the NRE was maintained (if only the last days  
304 of Stage II are considered) or slightly increased comparing the complete Stages II and III  
305 ( $p=0.02$ ).

### 306 3.2.2 Biomass characteristics

307 During the SBR-R operation, both solids concentration and granular biomass size (i.e.  
308 diameter) remained almost constant at 2 g VSS/L and 1 mm (Table 5), respectively. As the  
309 COD in the feeding was lower than in SBR-D, the development of aerobic heterotrophic  
310 bacteria was limited. A reduction in the flocculent biomass fraction was observed at the  
311 beginning of the operation (i.e., from 60 %, day 0, to 45 %, day 30) and then it was  
312 maintained at an average value of  $42 \pm 5$  %.

313 Despite some biomass floatation was observed immediately after the repeated starvation  
314 periods, biomass retention was successfully achieved and biomass concentration inside the  
315 reactor remained stable. In fact, after only one cycle of operation the biomass settled properly  
316 and the VSS concentration in the effluent was 7 - 16 mg VSS/L. The sludge sedimentation  
317 capacity was maintained or slightly improved along the operation with a reduction of the  
318  $SVI_{30}$  from 70 (inoculum) to 57 mL/g TSS (Stage III). This enhancement was also  
319 corroborated by the biomass density (Table 5). Despite SBR-R treated blackwater, in  
320 comparison with SBR-D which operated with synthetic feeding, the biomass settleability was

321 better in SBR-R and it did not change significantly along the operational period presumably  
 322 due to the lower organic matter content.

323 Table 5. Bacterial specific activities and biomass properties along the operational time of SBR-R.

	<b>Inoculum</b>	<b>S-I</b>	<b>S-II</b>	<b>S-III</b>
<b>Biomass concentration (g VSS/L)</b>	1.91 ± 0.26	1.96 ± 0.15	2.05 ± 0.28	2.09 ± 0.19
<b>SVI<sub>30</sub> (mL/g TSS)</b>	70	61	60	57
<b>Density (g VSS/L<sub>granule</sub>)</b>	171 ± 2	169 ± 5	175 ± 8	176 ± 3
<b>SA<sub>AMX</sub> (mg N/(gVSS·d))</b>	210 ± 5	222 ± 8	232 ± 10	230 ± 7
<b>SA<sub>AOB</sub> (mg N/(gVSS·d))</b>	60 ± 4	71 ± 5	75 ± 6	75 ± 7
<b>SA<sub>NOB</sub> (mg N/(gVSS·d))</b>	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
<b>SA<sub>aerHET</sub> (mg COD/(gVSS·d))</b>	60 ± 5	55 ± 6	66 ± 4	60 ± 6
<b>SA<sub>HDN</sub> (mg N/(gVSS·d))</b>	80 ± 8	72 ± 3	81 ± 5	79 ± 8

324 \*n.d: no detected.

### 325 3.2.4 Specific activities

326 Regarding the specific bacterial activities, no significant changes were observed in their  
 327 respective values throughout the operational stages of SBR-R (Table 5) ( $p > 0.45$ ).

328 Despite the higher COD/N ratio observed in SBR-R than in SBR-D (0.81 and 0.67 g COD/g  
 329 TN, respectively), the highest specific bacterial activity measured in SBR-R was the SA<sub>AMX</sub>,  
 330 showing a predominant role of this bacteria, whereas in the case of SBR-D the highest  
 331 potential activity was the SA<sub>HDN</sub> (in batch tests), doubling the SA<sub>AMX</sub>. In SBR-R, the  
 332 maximum heterotrophic bacterial activities were much lower presumably due to the lower  
 333 OLR applied (56 mg COD/(L·d)), in comparison with SBR-D (110 mg COD/(L·d)).

334 Moreover, the start-up period of SBR-D in continuous mode had favored the heterotrophic

335 bacteria development (as fast-growing microorganisms) by applying even higher loads (320  
336 mg COD/(L·d)).

337 As  $SA_{AMX}$  (210 - 230 mg N/(g VSS·d)) were higher than the ones observed inside the reactor  
338 (36 mg N/(g VSS·d)), the NRR of SBR-R might be limited either by the applied NLR or due  
339 to the imposed periodic stops. The biomass has the capacity to treat higher NLR. Moreover,  
340 specific bacterial activities before and after a weekend stop were measured in order to assess  
341 whether the starvation periods affect the bacterial activities or not, and no significant  
342 differences were found ( $p= 0.82$ ; data no shown).

#### 343 **4. Discussion**

##### 344 4.1 Effect of starvation/reactivation over the PN/AMX process

345 Results demonstrated the feasibility of long-term operation of a PN/AMX system under  
346 regular starvation and reactivation periods to treat blackwater at room temperature (14 - 21  
347 °C). To the knowledge of the authors, no previous study investigated all these factors together,  
348 as previous literature was focused only on the anammox activity reactivation after storage  
349 and/or at higher temperatures. In the present study, both nitrification and anammox activities  
350 were re-established immediately after substrate supply was restored as it was also previously  
351 reported for anammox enriched biomass (Ye et al., 2018) and for long-term starvation periods  
352 in a PN/AMX system at 28 °C (Reeve et al., 2016). A recent investigation of repeated short-  
353 term starvation and reactivation cycles was performed by Ye et al. (2018). These authors  
354 stated that repeated starvation periods (1 - 4 days) could increase the recovery rate of  
355 anammox activity, providing a pathway to enhance the resilience of the starved anammox  
356 sludge. They also found that the  $SA_{AMX}$  and tolerance of the anammox sludge were enhanced  
357 when the same starvation pattern was repeated (Ye et al. (2018). Such results are in good



358 agreement with the findings of the present study, as with repetitive anoxic starvation periods  
359 (lasting from 0.5 to 2.5 days) the  $SA_{AMX}$  values did not show significantly different behavior  
360 compared to the non-starved biomass (Figure 2.C) and any detrimental effect over the process  
361 performance was observed during the SBR-R operation (Table 5). These results suggest that  
362 anammox biomass might be quickly adapt to regular repeated anoxic starvation periods.  
363 Contrary to the statement of Ye et al. (2018), in the present study, inhibition due to the  
364 starvation was not aggravated by prolonging the starvation time as no negative effect was  
365 observed after 15 days of stop.

366 In this study, SBR-D was started-up without repeated starvation/reactivation periods, whereas  
367 SBR-R was already started-up under this regime. Despite this fact, in SBR-R high NRE were  
368 achieved and lower heterotrophic growth was observed showing that regular stops had no  
369 adverse effect on the process performance even when the biomass was not previously adapted  
370 to the low operational temperature and blackwater composition.

371 Regarding other microbial activities, in the present study, only significant differences were  
372 found on the  $SA_{aerHET}$  which was noticeably lower in the starved reactor (SBR-D) than in the  
373 not starved one (SBR-C), likely due to the exposure to prolonged oxygen starvation, more  
374 than to the substrate starvation. In the case of the SBR-R, already started-up with starvation  
375 periods, the heterotrophic activity was low during the whole operational period. Furthermore,  
376  $SA_{AOB}$  in SBR-D was also slightly lower than the one observed in SBR-C. Torá et al. (2011)  
377 tested different starvation strategies on an enriched AOB biomass, concluding that fully  
378 anaerobic starvation condition was the best alternative to maintain AOB activity, compared to  
379 anoxic and aerobic conditions. This might explain the lower effect caused by the oxygen  
380 absence over AOB than over the aerobic heterotrophic bacteria.

381

## 382 4.2 Treatment of blackwater with PN/AMX process

383 Scarce information can be found in the literature about the treatment of blackwater in  
384 PN/AMX systems performed in one-stage (Vlaeminck et al., 2009) or two-stages (de Graaff  
385 et al., 2011) configurations. These studies were performed in continuous mode, which would  
386 be infrequent in a decentralized modular treatment system. Moreover, the blackwater used in  
387 the present study (from an office building with regular flushing toilets) was considerably less  
388 concentrated than the one treated in previous studies with anammox based processes (de  
389 Graaff et al., 2011, Vlaemick et al. 2009) as they used blackwater from a demonstration site  
390 with vacuum toilets (de Graaff et al., 2010).

391 Among them, Vlaeminck et al. (2009) treated concentrated blackwater (1 g N/L) achieving  
392 average NRE of 76 %, but at temperatures of 25 °C, higher than in SBR-R. These authors  
393 experienced difficulties in managing nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) suppression, and  
394 NaHCO<sub>3</sub> supply was required to rise the pH and achieve NOB inhibition by free ammonia  
395 (FA) (Vlaeminck et al., 2009). At the present research work, satisfactory NOB activity  
396 suppression was obtained as confirmed by the negligible S<sub>ANOB</sub> (Table 5). During the whole  
397 SBR-R operational period, the pH fluctuated between 6.5 and 7.4, and both FA and free  
398 nitrous acid concentrations were below the NOB inhibition thresholds (Blackburne et al.,  
399 2007). Therefore, the low DO concentration during the operational cycles combined with the  
400 starvation periods could be the responsible factors for the NOB activity suppression. Ye et al.  
401 (2019) found that NOB are much more sensitive to starvation conditions than AOB favoring  
402 its suppression. Nevertheless, to confirm the effect of the starvation periods on the NOB  
403 suppression and on the PN/AMX process performance, the operation of another reactor in the  
404 same conditions than SBR-R but without stops (control) could be of interest.

405 In the study of de Graaff et al. (2011), a two-stage PN/AMX process was applied to promote  
406 the residual organic matter (approximately 400 mg COD/L) oxidation in the partial nitrification  
407 unit, avoiding the possible negative effects over anammox bacteria. They reached NRE up to  
408 89 % in the anammox reactor at 35 °C. In the present study, it was demonstrated that the  
409 residual organic matter in the blackwater can be removed in the single PN/AMX unit without  
410 compromising anammox activity, despite the lower temperature and the repeated  
411 starvation/reactivation regime.

412 The experimental results obtained in this study with SBR-R showed for the first time the  
413 feasibility of applying the PN/AMX process (in this case ELAN<sup>®</sup> technology) to the treatment  
414 of anaerobically digested backwater at low temperature (14 - 21 °C) and under a regime of  
415 repeated starvation/reactivation periods. With respect to the effluent quality, the procuded  
416 effluent contained low COD ( $\leq 30$  mg COD/L), low nitrogen concentration ( $\leq 10$  mg N/L)  
417 and low solids concentration ( $\leq 20$  mg VSS/L) accomplishing the discharge limits set on the  
418 Urban Wastewater Treatment Directive (91/271/EEC) and the minimum quality requirements  
419 for water reuse defined in the European Commission Regulation (TA(2019)0071).

#### 420 **4. Conclusions**

421 Overall, this study demonstrated the technical feasibility of the one-stage PN/AMX process to  
422 treat blackwater originated in a decentralized system and operated at room temperatures.

423 With a synthetic medium simulating blackwater it was proved that the repeated starvation and  
424 reactivation periods (nights and weekends) have not adverse effects on the process  
425 performance: stable nitrogen removal efficiency (90 %) was achieved with no remarkable  
426 difference compared to the process performance from a not starved reactor.

427 The proof of concept of treating real blackwater (120 mg N/L and 100 mg COD/L) at low  
428 temperature ( $17 \pm 2$  °C) in a PN/AMX reactor was also successfully performed, with short

429 (nights and weekends) and long (15 days, holidays) starvation periods, achieving high  
430 nitrogen removal efficiencies up to 95 % and total nitrogen concentration in the effluent lower  
431 than 10 mg TN/L.

432 Measurements of the specific activities (anammox, AOB, NOB and heterotrophic aerobic and  
433 anoxic) demonstrated that the most affected bacteria were the aerobic heterotrophic one,  
434 although their decrease in activity did not compromise the overall removal efficiencies.

435

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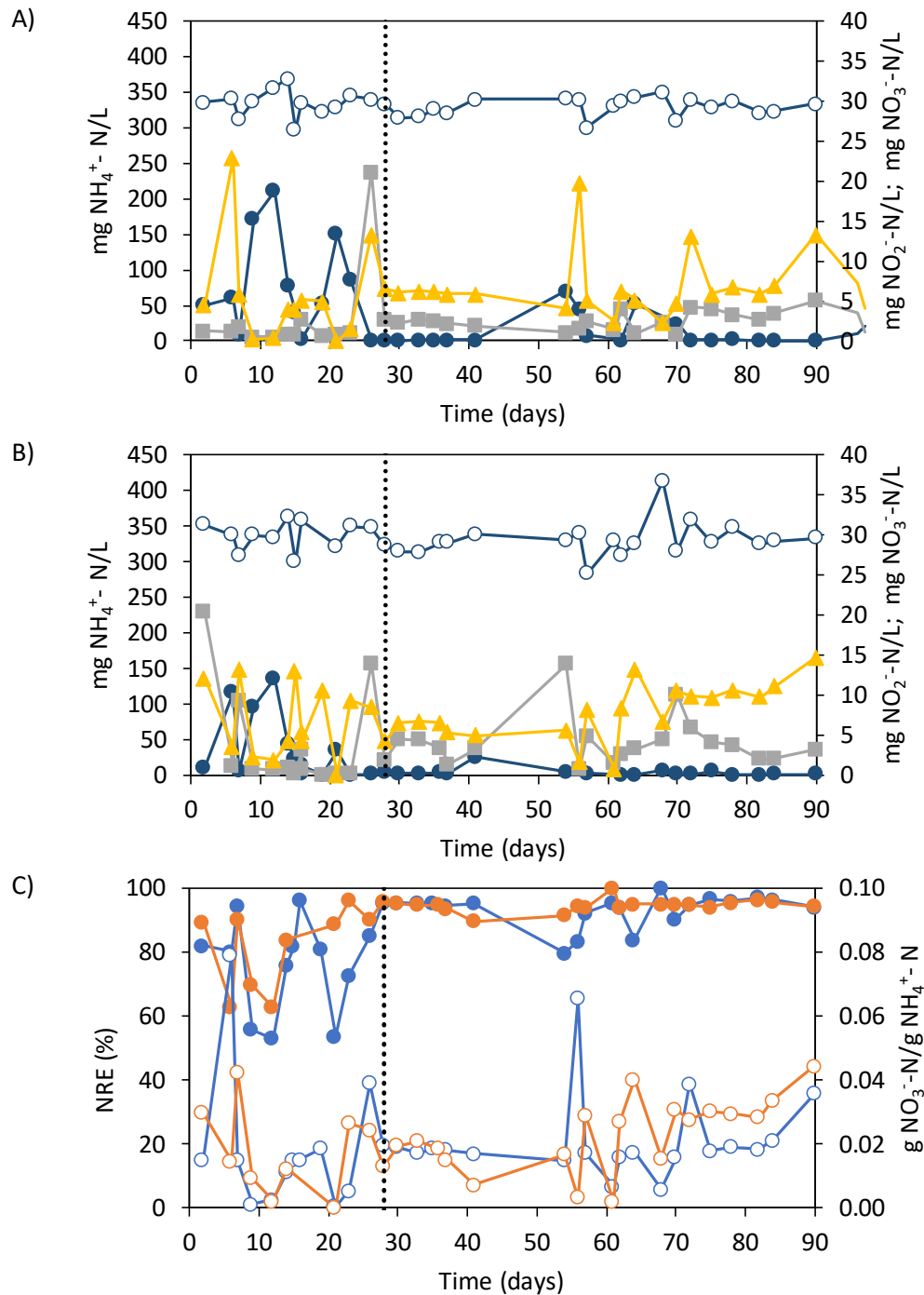


Figure 1. Time profiles of ammonium in the influent (○) and effluent (●), and effluent nitrite (■) and nitrate (▲) concentrations in SBR-C (A) and SBR-D (B) whereas C) shows the nitrogen removal efficiency (NRE) (filled dot) and the nitrate produced to ammonium consumed ratio (empty dot) for SBR-C (● and ○) and SBR-D (● and ○). Black dashed line corresponds to day 28 when the start-up of both reactors was completed.

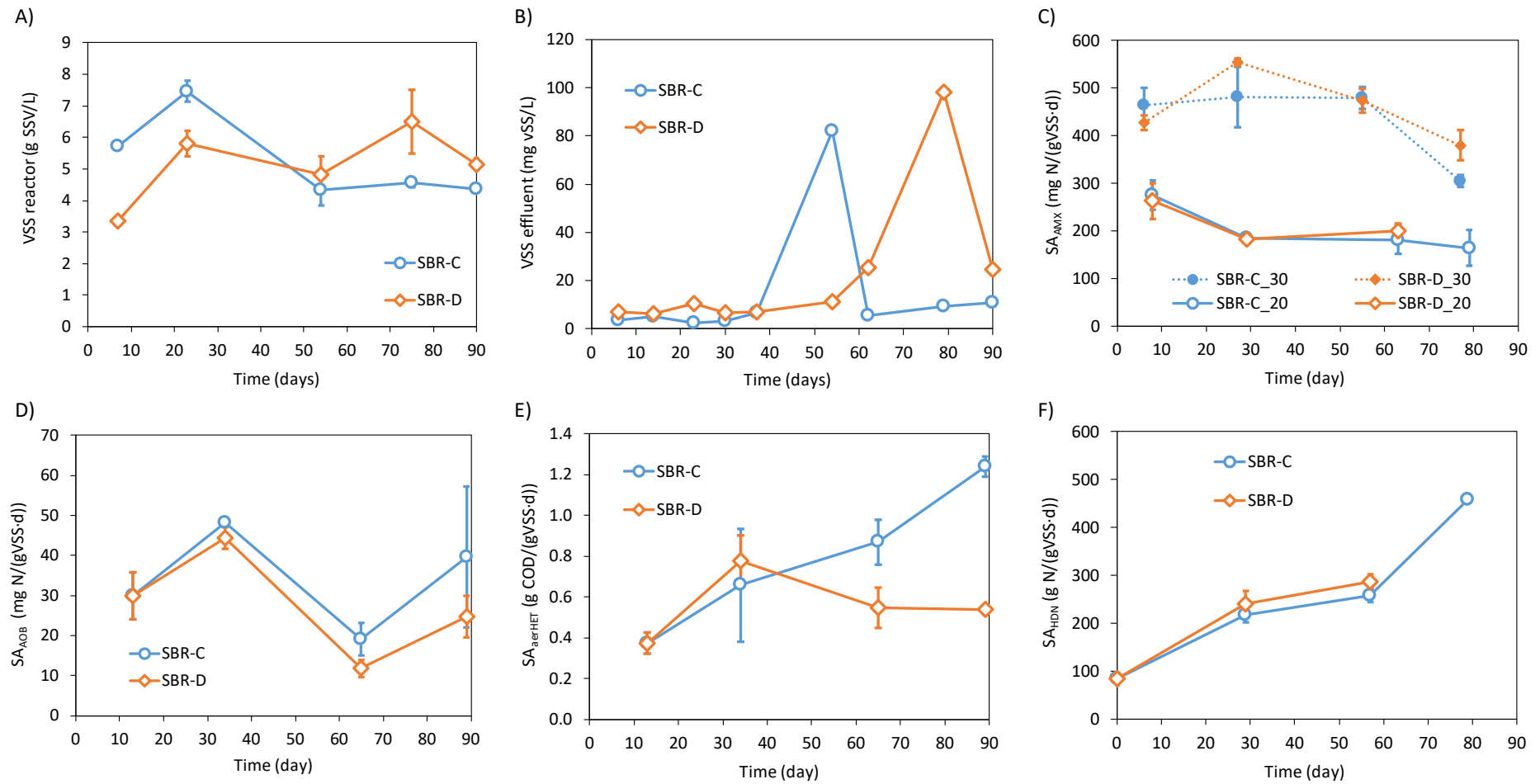


Figure 2. Evolution of the biomass properties for SBR-C (○) and SBR-D (◇). Evolution profile of the volatile suspended solids (VSS) concentration inside the reactors (A) and VSS in the effluent (B). Results of ex-situ maximum specific activity (SA) tests: anammox bacteria (AMX, C), ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AOB, D), aerobic heterotrophic bacteria (aerHET, E) and heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria (HDN, F) activities. SA were determined in triplicate at 20 °C except SA<sub>AMX</sub> which was also tested at 30 °C.

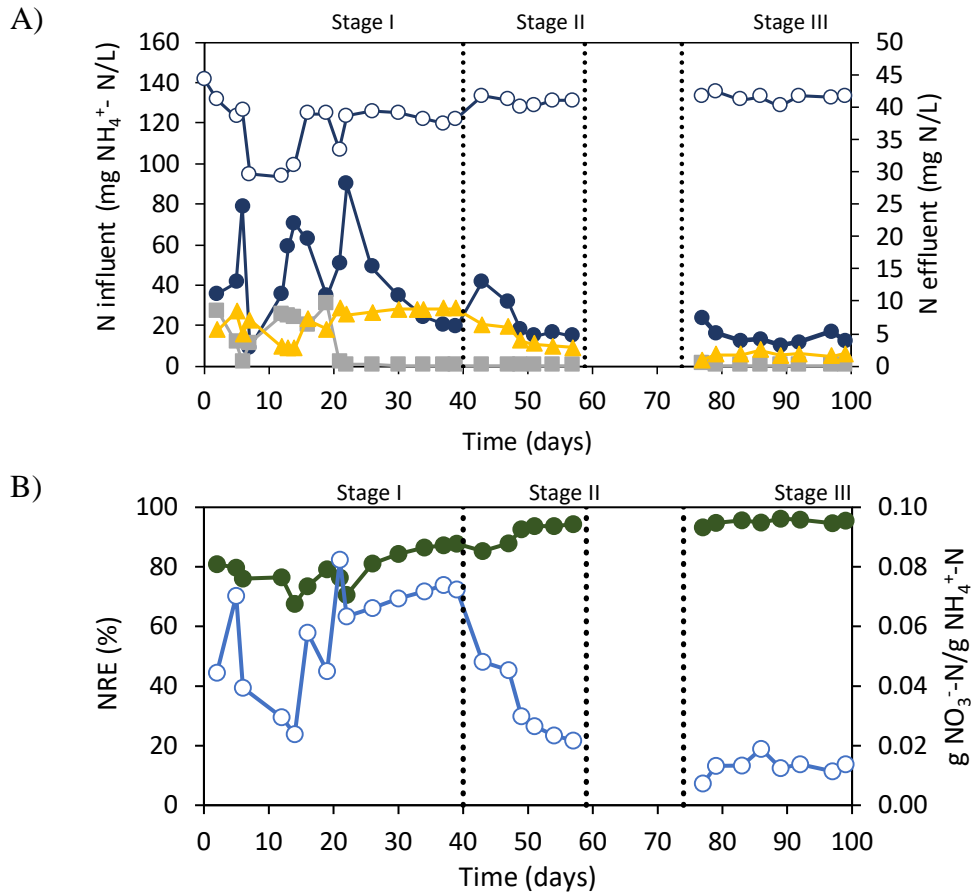


Figure 3. Time profiles in SBR-R treating anaerobically digested blackwater for: A) ammonium (○) in the influent, and effluent nitrogen forms as ammonium (●), nitrite (■) and nitrate (▲) in mg N/L in the effluent and B) nitrogen removal efficiency (NRE) in % (●) and the ratio of nitrate produced to ammonium consumed (○) observed.