

1 **Hydrogen oxidizing bacteria are capable of removing orthophosphate to ultra-low**
2 **concentrations in a fed batch reactor configuration**

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25 **Abstract**

26 This paper proposes the use of hydrogen oxidizing bacteria (HOB) for the
27 removal of orthophosphate from surface water as treatment step to prevent cyanobacterial
28 blooms. To be effective as an orthophosphate removal strategy, an efficient transfer of
29 hydrogen to the HOB is essential. A trickling filter was selected for this purpose. Using
30 this system, a removal rate of 11.32 ± 0.43 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L.d was achieved. The HOB
31 biomass, developed on the trickling filter, is composed of 1.25% phosphorus on dry
32 matter, which suggests that the orthophosphate removal principle is based on HOB
33 growth. Cyanobacterial growth assays of the untreated and treated water showed
34 that *Synechocystis* sp was only able to grow in the untreated water. Orthophosphate was
35 removed to average residual values of 0.008 mg/L. In this proof of principle study, it is
36 shown that HOB are able to remove orthophosphate from water to concentrations that
37 prevent cyanobacterial growth.

38

39 **Keywords**

40 Hydrogen oxidizing bacteria; HOB; phosphate removal; eutrophication

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Eutrophication of natural water bodies has become a global threat (Sinha et al.,
44 2017). The phenomenon – enrichment of water bodies with nutrients – promotes the
45 growth of autotrophic organisms such as algae and cyanobacteria. Algal blooms lead to
46 the fouling of water intakes and waterways and to low-oxygen (hypoxic) or oxygen-free
47 (anoxic) water bodies, resulting in the disruption of food webs and fish death. Also, some
48 cyanobacteria are known to produce potent toxins. Hence, their presence can hinder the
49 supply of irrigation and drinking water, fisheries and recreational amenities and gives rise
50 to substantial economic losses (Dodds et al., 2009). Further expansion and intensification
51 of cyanobacteria blooms are expected, as the combined effect of temperature increase and
52 concentration of humic substances in water has been shown to give cyanobacteria an
53 advantage over other phytoplankton organisms (Paerl and Huisman, 2008).

54 Phosphorus has long been reported to play a key role in eutrophication of surface
55 waters, originating mostly from agriculture and urban run offs and industrial discharges
56 (Carpenter et al., 1998). In Europe, the current treated water discharge regulations require
57 total phosphorus levels to be between 1 and 2 mg/L, depending on the population
58 equivalent (EuropeanCommission, 2017). However, several studies show that
59 concentrations above 0.1 mg P/L can already support algal growth (Carvalho et al., 2013,
60 Lurling and van Oosterhout, 2013, Richardson et al., 2007) even when nitrogen
61 availability is low, due to the presence of nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria (Paerl, 2017,
62 Schindler et al., 2008). Taking this into account, there has been an increasing pressure to
63 actively decrease phosphorus loads into water bodies to levels as low as 0.01 mg P/L
64 (Ashekuzzaman, 2017). Decreasing phosphorus concentrations from effluents of normal

65 sewage treatments plants or water storage basins below 0.01 mg P/L remains a challenge
66 (Gu et al., 2011, USEPA, 2000).

67 The aim of the present study is to provide a proof of concept for the use of
68 hydrogen oxidizing bacteria (HOB) to remove soluble phosphorus (orthophosphate) to
69 levels below 0.010 mg/L. HOB use hydrogen as their electron donor and oxygen as their
70 electron acceptor to fixate carbon dioxide. This reaction yields a substantial amount of
71 energy that has been explored for decades for the production of proteins, for instance for
72 the animal feed industry (Repaske and Mayer, 1976). Their use of CO₂ as carbon source
73 offers an advantage in the treatment of water with insufficient bioavailable organics, such
74 as groundwater, drinking water, and secondary treated wastewater (Karanasios et al.,
75 2010). H₂ is inherently acceptable as an electron donor to be added to surface water, i.e. it
76 does not persist in the treated water, therefore not posing any potential threat to fauna and
77 flora nor to the consumer of the water. Moreover, H₂ can be easily produced from water
78 electrolysis, powered by renewable energy sources (Hosseini and Wahid, 2016, Mohsin
79 et al., 2018). The biological trickling filter was chosen as treatment system as it allows
80 the decoupling of solids retention time (SRT) and hydraulic retention time (HRT) (Naz et
81 al., 2015). In biological trickling filters microorganisms are attached to a fixed surface
82 forming a biofilm while the water to be treated flows downwards in direct contact with
83 the biofilm, and the gas with the electron donor and acceptor is fed from the bottom and
84 flows upward (Nadell et al., 2016, Wik, 2003). This system allows for all nutrients to be
85 directly available to a large surface of biofilm even at low concentrations, a feature which
86 is particularly relevant for biological orthophosphate removal from water bodies as
87 orthophosphate is present in very low concentrations. In addition to the operational
88 simplicity, its size can easily be expanded by providing additional surface area.

89 In this study, a proof of concept for the hydrogenotrophic removal of
90 orthophosphate to ultra-low concentrations is presented. A trickling filter operated in fed
91 batch was used to enrich for hydrogen oxidizing bacteria. Using this system, the lowest
92 residual orthophosphate concentration achievable and the operational conditions in which
93 orthophosphate removal can be maximized were determined.

94

95 **2. Materials and methods**

96 **2.1. Experimental setup**

97 The experiments were carried out in a sealed PVC tube of 1 L containing plastic
98 biofilm carriers (900 m²/m³ specific total surface area, Aqwise). The reactor was
99 continuously flushed with an excess mixture of hydrogen (45%), oxygen (10%) and
100 carbon dioxide (15%) (Matassa et al., 2016). A feed solution, hereafter referred to as the
101 recycling liquid, consisting of tap water enriched with 1 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L (added as
102 KH₂PO₄), 20 mg NH₄/L (added as NH₄Cl), 0.5 mg/L ferric ammonium citrate and 0.2
103 mL/L of trace element solution (0.6 g H₃BO₃, 0.4 g CoCl₂·6H₂O, 0.2 g ZnSO₄·7H₂O,
104 0.06 g NaMoO₄·2H₂O, 0.04 g NiCl₂·6H₂O and 0.02 g CuSO₄·5H₂O) was recirculated
105 through the reactor at a flow of 0.45 L/min (wetting rate of 22 m³/m²·h). Initial soluble
106 orthophosphate concentration in the recycling liquid (10 L) was 1 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L to mimic
107 realistic phosphorus discharge concentration of water treatment plants
108 (EuropeanCommission, 2017). To guarantee phosphorus was the only limiting element,
109 the maximum expected biomass was estimated assuming that all P is converted to
110 biomass and biomass is composed of at least 1% of P. Nitrogen and trace elements
111 required were then calculated based on stoichiometric proportions.

112

113 **2.2. Inoculation and acclimation**

114 Aerobic activated sludge from a municipal wastewater treatment plant
115 (Leeuwarden, The Netherlands) was used to inoculate the trickling filter and acclimated
116 to the process conditions of gas-water contact for a period of 11 days.

117
118 **2.3. Microbial community analysis preparation sequencing**

119 Pellets were obtained by centrifuging liquid samples for 15 min at 13,000 g.
120 Subsequently, total DNA was extracted by using the PowerBiofilm DNA isolation Kit
121 (Quiagen, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The extracted DNA was
122 quantified using the QuantiFluor dsDNA kit and a Quantus™ 2.0 fluorometer
123 (Promega, USA), and DNA purity and quality were confirmed by measuring the
124 absorbance at 260 and 280 nm (Nanodrop 2000, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)
125 and via agarose gel electrophoresis, respectively.

126
127 **2.4. Amplicon sequencing and data processing**

128 The DNA extracts were sent to MrDNA (www.mrdnalab.com, Shallowater, TX,
129 USA) for PCR amplification of the V4-V5 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene
130 was performed using bacterial primers 515F (Parada et al., 2016) and 926R (Quince et
131 al., 2011). Sequence data processing comprised quality control and amplicon sequence
132 variant (ASV) calling using the DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016) implementation in
133 QIIME2 (Bolyen et al., 2019). Taxonomy was assigned to representative sequences of
134 each ASV using a naive Bayesian classifier trained on full 16S sequences of the curated
135 SILVA database v.132 (Bokulich et al., 2018, Pedregosa et al., 2011). Raw sequence data
136 has been deposited in EMBL-EBI under project number PRJEB38088. Bacterial ASVs

137 comprising at least 0.1% of reads in a sample were used to calculate relative abundance at
138 the genus level.

139

140 **2.5. Biostability and re-growth assays**

141 The experiments were performed in 24 well plates. Untreated water and treated
142 water samples were inoculated with *Synechocystis* sp (PCC 6803) and incubated at room
143 temperature under controlled light conditions (100 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$). Prior to inoculation, cells
144 were washed three times with filtered tap water to remove residual orthophosphate. Tap
145 water and BG11 (Stanier et al., 1971) were used as negative and positive controls,
146 respectively. Optical density (680 and 750 nm) was measured every day for a period of
147 one week (Victor3 1420 Multilabel Counter, Perkin Elmer, USA). All samples were
148 tested in triplicate. To confirm that phosphorus was the growth limiting factor, the treated
149 water samples were supplemented with 1 mg $\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ before being inoculated with
150 *Synechocystis* sp (PCC 6803) and cultivated under the conditions described above for
151 five instead of seven days.

152

153 **2.6. Analytical methods**

154 Samples taken from the recycling liquid were filtered (0.20 μm) prior to analysis.
155 Orthophosphate ($\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P}$) was measured with inductive coupled plasma (ICP) (Perkin
156 Elmer Optima 5300 DV equipped with an optical emission spectrometer). Treated water
157 samples that were below the ICP detection limit of 0.020 mg $\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ were analyzed
158 using a continuous flow analyzer (Skalar; Breda; the Netherlands). For this measurement,
159 molybdate and antimony potassium tartrate react with phosphate to give a phosphate-
160 complex. The continuous flow analyzer is an automated flowcell with an optical path

161 length of 50 cm that detects at 660 nm the reduction of the phosphate-complex by
162 ascorbate. For each measurement, a calibration curve that consisted of seven standard
163 solutions was used. In this manner, phosphate is accurately determined in the range of 1
164 to 50 µg/L. Ammonium was determined by ion chromatography (Metrohm Compact IC
165 761 equipped with a conductivity detector, using the pre-column Metrohm Metrosep A
166 Supp 4/5 Guard and the column Metrohm Metrosep A Supp 5, 150/4.0 mm). Gas samples
167 were analyzed with gas chromatography (Varian, CP-4900 equipped with a thermal
168 conductivity detector using a Mol Sieve 5 Å PLOT 10 m column at 80 °C and a PoraPlot
169 U 10 m column at 65 °C, and argon as carrier gas at 1.47 mL/min). To determine the P
170 content of the biomass, 0.5 g were digested at 180 °C for 15 min (Milestone ETHOS 1)
171 using 8 mL HNO₃ (68%). After this digestion, the total P concentration was measured
172 using ICP. The C, H, S and N content of the biomass was measured with an elemental
173 analyzer (EA 1110, ThermoQuest CE Instruments, USA) utilizing a vertical quartz tube
174 (combustion tube) maintained at 1000 °C with a constant flow of helium at 120 mL/min,
175 an oxidation catalyst (WO₃) zone, a copper zone followed by a Porapak PQS column
176 maintained at 60 °C and finally, followed by a TCD detector.

177

178 **2.7. Calculations**

179 Orthophosphate removal (mg PO₄⁻³-P/L.d) rate calculated as a function of the volume of
180 treated water

$$181 \frac{P_i - P_o}{V \times T}$$

182 Orthophosphate removal rate (mgPO₄⁻³-P/m².d) calculated as a function of the available
183 biofilm surface area

184
$$\frac{P_i - P_o}{BSA \times T}$$

185 P_i Initial Orthophosphate concentration (mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L)

186 P_o Final Orthophosphate concentration (mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L)

187 V Volume of treated water (L)

188 T Operational time (d)

189 BSA Biofilm surface area (m^2)

190

191 **3. Results and discussion**

192 **3.1. Proof of concept: reaching ultra-low orthophosphate concentrations**

193 At the start-up of the enrichment process, activated sludge was used to inoculate
194 the tricking filter reactor. This inoculum was chosen for its high microbial diversity
195 (Wang et al., 2019) therefore increasing the probability of selecting and enriching for a
196 robust biofilm community capable of removing orthophosphate under hydrogenotrophic
197 conditions. The reactor was continuously flushed with a mixture of hydrogen, oxygen and
198 carbon dioxide (Matassa et al., 2016). The recycling liquid, i.e. tap water enriched with
199 orthophosphate, ammonium, iron and trace elements, was circulated over the carrier
200 material and refreshed daily to select for hydrogen oxidizing bacteria. The residual PO_4^{-3} -
201 P concentration after the first day of operation decreased to 0.88 mg/L (i.e. removal of
202 13.7%). After three inoculation cycles, a visible biofilm colonized the carrier material. In
203 order to promote the establishment and further expansion of the biofilm, the recycling
204 liquid was refreshed daily for a period of 11 days. This action also allowed for the
205 removal of detached and planktonic biomass and to assure the selection for a HOB
206 community. After 11 days, the desired orthophosphate concentration was achieved
207 (below 0.020 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L; removal of 99.2%) (Fig. 1).

208 **3.2. The orthophosphate removal process depends on hydrogen as sole electron**
209 **donor**

210 To confirm the hydrogenotrophic character of the orthophosphate removal
211 process, the reactor was operated under the same conditions as described in section 3.1
212 for three cycles of 24 h, followed by three cycles of 24 h in which hydrogen was replaced
213 by nitrogen. In the three final cycles, the reactor was flushed with nitrogen (75%), oxygen
214 (10%) and carbon dioxide (15%). As expected, during the first three cycles
215 orthophosphate was removed within 24 h to a concentration below 0.020 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L
216 (Fig. 2) comparable to those reported in section 3.1. In the absence of hydrogen, the
217 orthophosphate concentration of the untreated water (0.950 ± 0.08 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L) and the
218 treated water (0.920 ± 0.011 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L) were very similar. These results confirm that
219 hydrogen is essential for the removal of orthophosphate by the tricking filter.

220

221 **3.3. Orthophosphate removal is biologically driven**

222 Orthophosphate removal in the reactor might be driven by other removal
223 principles than through biological activity. For instance, the iron which is present in the
224 recycling liquid to stimulate hydrogen oxidation has a phosphate adsorbing capacity
225 (Schink and Schlegel, 1978). To further confirm that orthophosphate was biologically
226 removed, the total amount of removed orthophosphate (PO₄⁻³-P) was compared with the
227 total amount of phosphorus present in the HOB biomass. Because the amount of biomass
228 present on the trickling filter cannot be accurately measured, nitrogen consumption was
229 used to predict the amount of produced biomass. Nitrification was not detected, and
230 hence ammonium and nitrate removal can only be explained by cell uptake. Elemental
231 analysis was performed to determine nitrogen (1 mol biomass = 0.177 mol N) and

232 phosphorus (biomass = 1.25% P) present in the biomass. A determined biomass formula
233 was used over other empirical formula to allow for accurate estimations. The relation
234 between the amount of phosphorus that was removed and the estimated amount of
235 phosphorus present in the biomass was investigated. The linear relation between the two
236 parameters supports the hypothesis of a biologically driven removal process. Further
237 evidence that supports this expectation was provided by the observation that without
238 biofilm or with inactivated biofilm on the carrier material, the orthophosphate removal
239 capacity is inevitably hampered (orthophosphate removal below 5%).

240

241 **3.4. Increased biofilm surface /water volume ratio results in faster removal**

242 Based on the assumption that the efficiency of the phosphorus removal process is
243 directly related to the amount of active biofilm – expressed in this section as the available
244 surface area for biofilm growth – a set of experiments was performed to determine the
245 effect of the ratio of biofilm surface area to recycling liquid volume on the
246 orthophosphate removal rate. Fig. 3 shows the average removal of orthophosphate
247 ($\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) by the hydrogenotrophic biofilm for a fed batch water contact volume of 10,
248 5 and 2 L which corresponds to 22, 43 and 108 m^2/m^3 water, respectively. For all tested
249 ratios, a concentration below 0.020 mg $\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ was reached within a period of 24 h,
250 while the set orthophosphate concentration of the untreated water was not changed.
251 Orthophosphate removal rates, however, increased up to a factor 10 from 0.94 ± 0.01 to
252 11.32 ± 0.43 mg $\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L.d}$ as the recycling volume decreased (Table 1). By increasing
253 the ratio of biofilm surface to the treated water volume, the operational time was
254 decreased to two hours whilst the residual orthophosphate concentration was kept below
255 the detection limit. It therefore appears that the ratio of recycling liquid to biofilm surface

256 area is a parameter that can be used for process optimization according the required
257 demands. It could also be that the wetting efficiency of the biomass was not optimal.
258 Under the tested conditions, the lower the volume of liquid the higher was the contact
259 opportunity between the liquid and the biofilm.

260

261 **3.5. Bacterial community composition**

262 For all experiments, the bacterial community composition of the biofilm was
263 determined using Illumina MiSeq sequencing. After sequence data processing, an average
264 (\pm standard deviation) of 40305 ± 4888 reads were obtained per sample distributed across
265 1143 ASVs. The subsequently rarefied dataset filtered to retain bacterial ASVs
266 comprising $> 0.1\%$ in at least one of the samples comprised 330 ASVs across samples,
267 covering 19 phyla, 34 classes, 69 orders, and 98 families. The acquired sequencing depth
268 was sufficient to sample the bacterial diversity in all four samples (Fig. 4). Dominant
269 bacterial families appear enriched from non-dominating members of the activated sludge
270 community. This microbial analysis shows a selection towards a specialized community
271 that evolved to stability as the reactor system continued to be fed batch operated over
272 time. The specialized community is dominated by members of the families
273 Burkholderiaceae, Flavobacteriaceae, Rhodocyclaceae. and Aquaspirillaceae, three of
274 which have been identified as hydrogen oxidizers by (Schink and Schlegel, 1978) in their
275 study on hydrogen metabolism.

276

277 **3.6. Treated water does not support cyanobacterial growth**

278 Experiments were conducted to (1) confirm that the treated water no longer
279 supports cyanobacterial growth and (2) explore whether this inability to grow can be

280 explained by the absence of phosphorus. For this purpose, seven treated water samples
281 that were obtained from independent trickling filter experiments were inoculated with the
282 cyanobacteria *Synechocystis* sp (PCC 6803). As depicted in Fig. 5, all of the tested
283 treated water samples as well as the tap water control samples did not support
284 cyanobacterial growth. Growth was only observed in untreated water samples. The
285 addition of 1 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L to the treated water samples, which restored the
286 orthophosphate concentration to that of the untreated water, did not promote growth
287 either. This observation suggests that besides phosphorus another nutrient or nutrients
288 were removed from the water matrix to levels that prevent algal growth. Indeed, 70% of
289 the available iron and 100% of the available copper were removed during the
290 orthophosphate removal process. Although their importance as a limiting factor of
291 cyanobacterial growth is unclear, there is evidence such metals are used in a wide range
292 of cell processes and thus we hypothesized their removal might explain the absence of
293 cyanobacterial growth even when the treated water was re-spiked with orthophosphate.

294

295 **3.7. Comparison with other orthophosphate removal strategies**

296 Orthophosphate concentrations obtained in this study (in average 0.008 mg PO_4^{-3} -
297 P/L), are comparable to the ones obtained by chemical precipitation. Newcombe et al.
298 (2008) for instance have reported an average concentration of 0.011 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L by co-
299 precipitation with iron. Physical adsorption strategies have also been reported to reach
300 concentrations lower than 0.01 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L (Genz et al., 2004, Luo et al., 2016).
301 hen enhanced biological phosphorus removal (EPBR) (Blackall et al., 2002, Boelee et al.,
302 2011, De Vleeschauwer et al., 2019) is used, residual orthophosphate concentrations of
303 0.500 to 0.100 mg PO_4^{-3} -P/L are reported. These values are at least 10 times higher

304 relative to the residual concentrations reported in this work. Algae base technologies have
305 the potential to reach ultra-low nutrient loading (Gardner-Dale et al., 2017). Submerged
306 aquatic based vegetation wetlands have been shown to reach concentrations as low as
307 0.023 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L (Dierberg et al., 2002, Healy et al., 2007).

308

309 **3.8. Towards circularity: Recovery and reuse of phosphorus**

310 The major driver for the development and implementation of innovative
311 technologies capable of removing phosphorus to extremely low concentrations, such as
312 the one presented in this work, is undoubtedly environmental preservation i.e. preventing
313 eutrophication. As paradoxical as it might seem, phosphorus is also a critical,
314 geographically concentrated and nonrenewable resource crucial to support global food
315 production. Hence, there is an added value in technologies that combine a highly efficient
316 removal process with a recovery step (Mayer et al., 2016). While recovery of the
317 removed phosphorus is not the focus of this research, it is a possibility that requires
318 further investigation. In the proposed system, phosphorus is removed from the recycling
319 liquid and immobilized within the microbial biomass. Since the process is dependent on
320 the presence of active microbial biomass, the outer part of the biofilm is regularly
321 removed by a back-wash treatment procedure. This harvested biomass could, for
322 instance, be used as an organic fertilizer. Indeed, several studies address the use of
323 microbial biomass as an organic slow-release fertilizer (Coppens et al., 2016, Yuan et al.,
324 2012).

325

326 **3.9. Practical implications and outlook**

327 This paper presents a novel biological strategy to remove orthophosphate down to
328 levels below 0.010 mg/L, with the ultimate goal of preventing the regrowth of
329 cyanobacteria in surface water. It should be noted that the scope of this study is limited to
330 the proof-of-concept for the removal of soluble reactive phosphorus (orthophosphate).
331 Phosphorus, however, is not always present in water matrices in the soluble reactive form
332 (eg. 1 mg PO₄⁻³-P /L as used in this proof of concept). Non-reactive forms of phosphorus
333 can indeed be converted to reactive forms leading to new eutrophication events. In
334 addition, scenarios with high process flow rates (e.g., large rivers) and low initial total
335 phosphorus concentrations present a considerable challenge. As such, the practicality of
336 the hydrogenotrophic phosphorus removal should be further explored by monitoring both
337 soluble and total phosphorus and by testing the reactor with decreasing phosphorus
338 concentrations in continuous mode of operation over a long time.

339

340 **4. Conclusions**

341 Hydrogen oxidizing bacteria are shown to have the ability to remove orthophosphate
342 down to levels below 0.01 mg PO₄⁻³-P/L. An orthophosphate removal efficiency of 98 ±
343 2% and an orthophosphate removal rate of 11.32 ± 0.43 mg/L.h were reached for a ratio
344 of biofilm surface area to treated liquid of 108 m²/m³. Treated water is shown not to
345 support algae growth even when re-spiked with orthophosphate. The microbial analysis
346 shows a selection towards a specialized HOB community that evolved to stability.

347

348 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

349 Raquel G. Barbosa: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review
350 & editing. Tom Sleutels: Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing. Willy

351 Verstraete: Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing. Nico Boon:
352 Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing.

353

354 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

355 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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369

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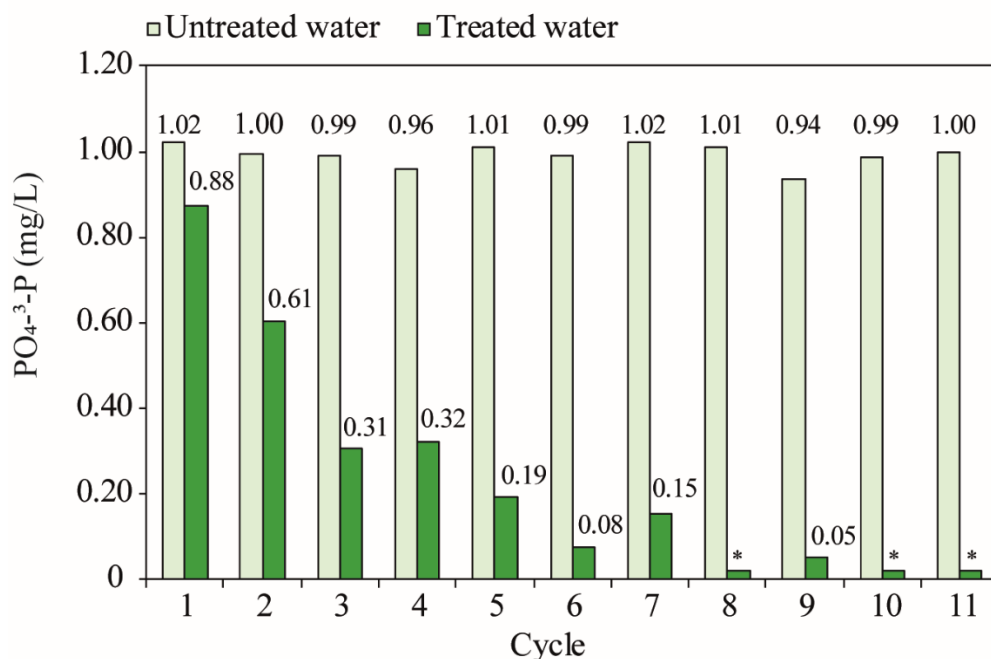
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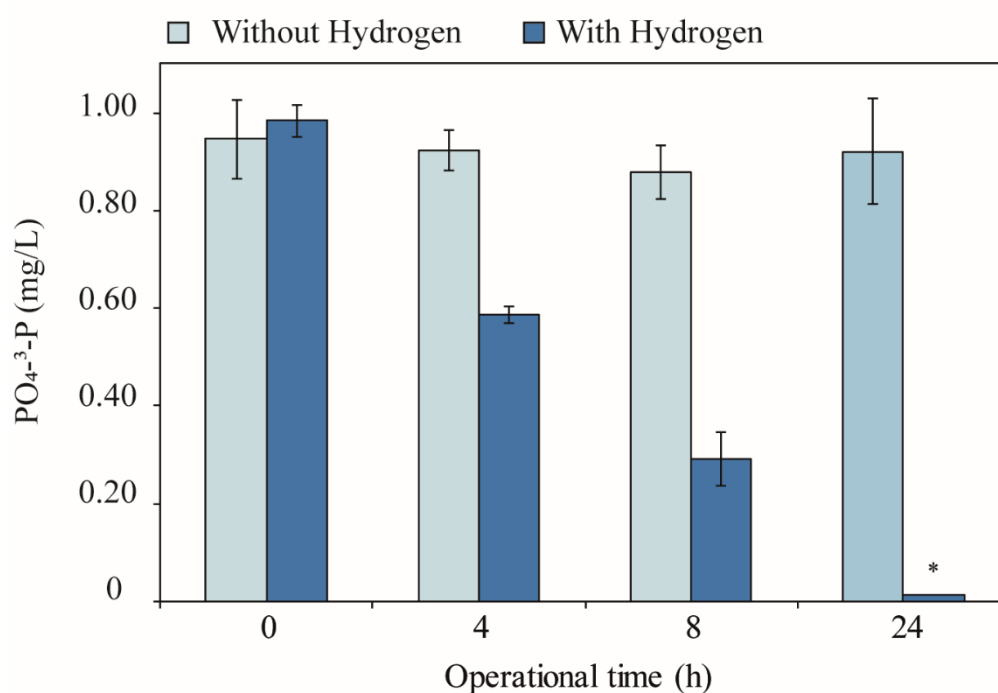
533 **Tables and Figures**



534

535 Figure 1. Establishment of the hydrogen oxidizing biofilm. Untreated water (light
 536 green) and treated water (dark green) orthophosphate concentrations (mg PO₄³⁻-P/L) over
 537 a period of 11 fed batches (1 batch = 1 day). Fresh liquid was prepared daily and subjected
 538 to treatment. orthophosphate concentrations (single measurements) below the normal
 539 detection limit (< 0.020 mg PO₄³⁻-P /L) are marked with asterisks.

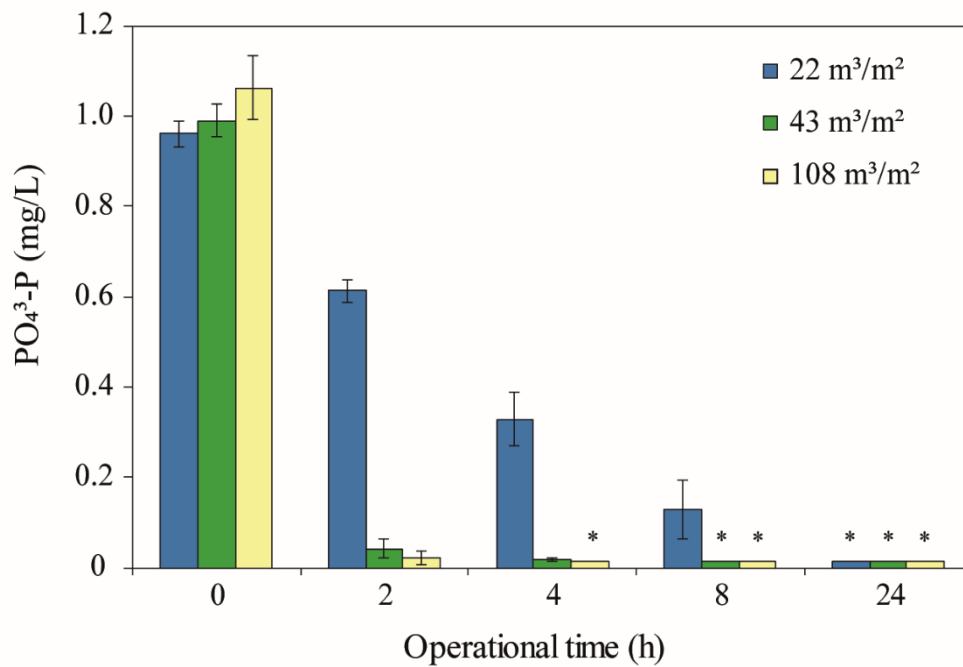
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542 Figure 2. Residual orthophosphate (mg PO₄³⁻-P/L) concentrations in the presence
 543 (dark blue) and absence (light blue) of hydrogen. Assays were performed over a period of
 544 24 h, in triplicate. Orthophosphate concentrations below the normal detection limit (<
 545 0.020 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L) are marked with asterisks. Error bars represent standard deviation.

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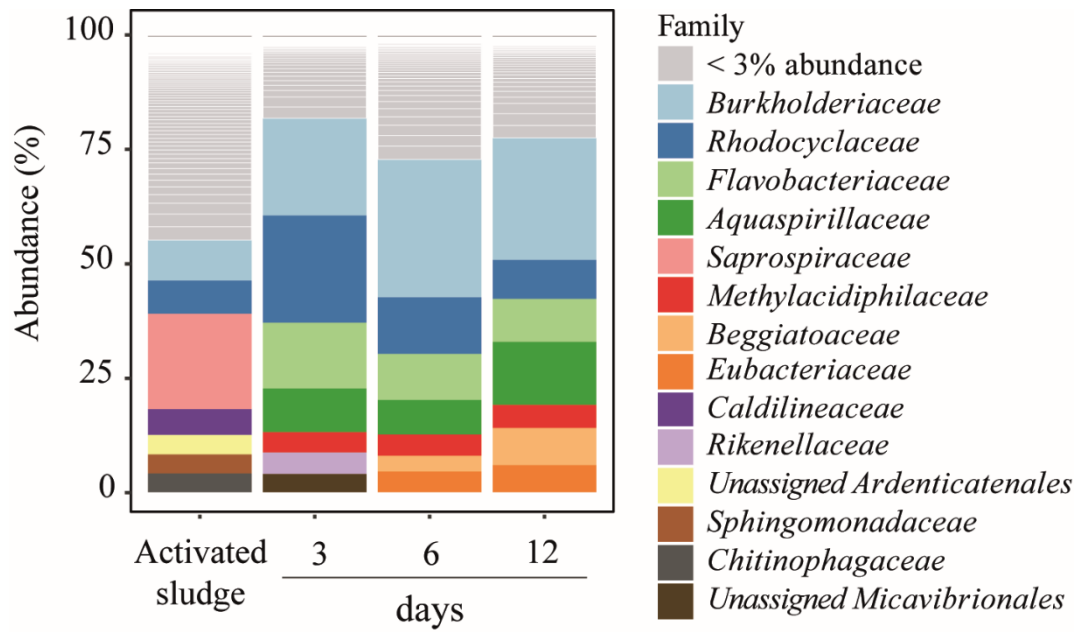
548 Figure 3. Residual orthophosphate concentration (mg PO₄³⁻-P/L) over time.

549 Experiments were performed in fed batch mode for three distinct ratios of biofilm surface
 550 area/ water volume to be treated, 22 (blue), 43 (green) and 108 (yellow) m²/m³ (n= 6).

551 Orthophosphate concentrations below the normal detection limit (< 0.020 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L)

552 are marked with asterisks.

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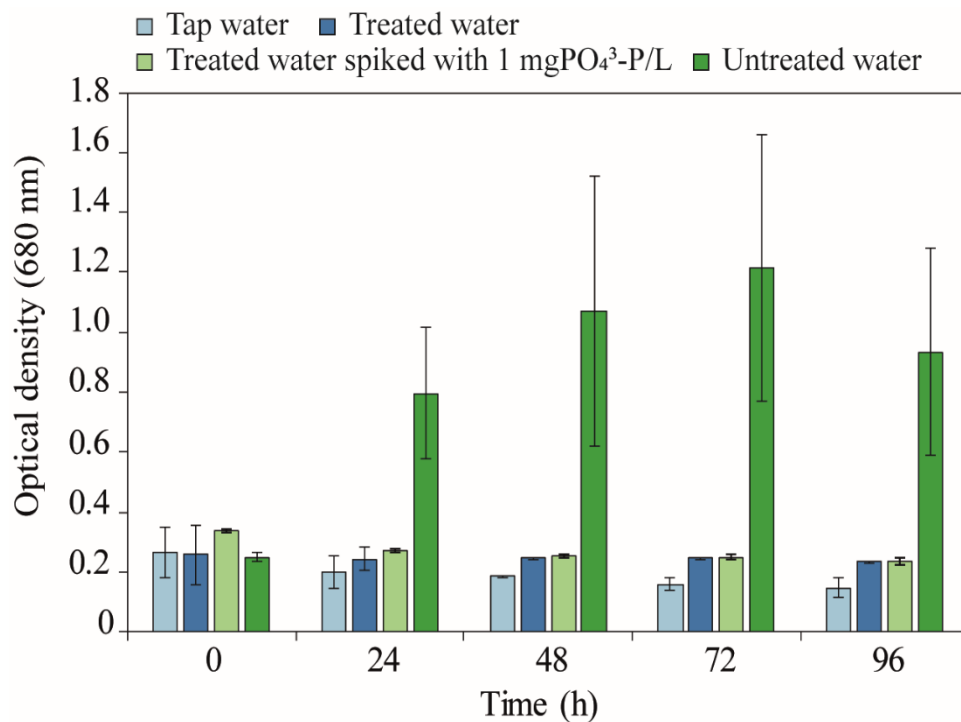
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555 Figure 4. Bacterial community structure. Structure is presented as relative

556 abundance of bacterial families, where families comprising less than 3 % of sequence reads

557 in each sample are pooled and unspecified.

558



559

560 Figure 5. Biostability assay. Tap water (negative control), untreated water (positive
 561 control), treated water and treated water spiked with 1mg PO₄³⁻-P/L were inoculated with
 562 cyanobacteria PCC6803. Growth was evaluated by daily optical density measurements at
 563 680 nm (n= 7).

564 **Table 1** Main parameters for orthophosphate removal using different specific surface areas

Biofilm surface area/ volume of fed batch (m ² /m ³)	22	43	108
Untreated water P (mg PO ₄ ⁻³ -P/L)	0.946 ± 0.012	0.989 ± 0.037	1.06 ± 0.071
Residual orthophosphate (mg PO ₄ ⁻³ -P/L)	0.008 ± 0.009	0.008 ± 0.009	0.008 ± 0.009
Orthophosphate Removal rate (mg PO ₄ ⁻³ -P/L.d)	0.94 ± 0.01	7.20 ± 0.28	11.23 ± 0.43
Orthophosphate Removal rate (mg PO ₄ ⁻³ -P/m ² .d)	42.90 ± 0.56	193.83 ± 29	104.85 ± 20
Untreated water NH ₄ (mg NH ₄ /L)	20 ± 1	17 ± 2	20 ± 3
Residual NH ₄ (mg NH ₄ /L)	10±1	10± 1	11± 2

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