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1 Filamentous and non-filamentous bulking of activated sludge encountered under

2 nutrients limitation or deficiency conditions

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15

17	Abstract: Although the limitation or deficiency of nutrients, such as nitrogen (N) and
18	phosphorus (P), has been one of the frequently reported factors causing filamentous or
19	non-filamentous bulking of activated sludge, the mechanisms are still unclear. In this
20	work, the long-term effects of N and P limitation or deficiency on sludge settleability
21	and bioflocculation characteristics were investigated in six sequencing batch reactors
22	(SBRs) fed with wastewater with different nutrient availability. The sludge volume
23	index (SVI), microbial community structures, intracellular poly- β -hydroxyalkanoates
24	(PHAs) and extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) were characterised over time.
25	Bulking was not observed in SBRs with N limitation or deficiency, in which SVI
26	remained below 150 mL/g. In contrast, bulking was encountered in those reactors
27	with P deficiency. The occurrence of non-filamentous bulking was associated with a
28	higher carbohydrates fraction and a lower proteins fraction in EPS. In the case of
29	filamentous bulking, SVI correlated negatively with the amount of PHAs. Our
30	experimental data support the hypothesis that the occurrence and/or the type of
31	bulking in activated sludge could be affected by the combination of kinetic selection,
32	microbial storage, as well as the EPS composition.

Keywords: sludge settleability; filamentous bulking; non-filamentous bulking;
substrate storage; extracellular polymeric substances (EPS); filamentous bacteria

35

36 **1. Introduction**

The performance of an activated sludge system for biological wastewater treatment isoften deteriorated due to sludge separation problems caused by sludge bulking.

Bulking consists of filamentous bulking due to excess proliferation of filamentous 39 bacteria [1] and non-filamentous bulking (also known as Zoogloeal bulking or viscous 40 bulking) [2], resulting from certain microbes that produce large amounts of 41 biopolymers on their surface [3]. 42 43 The causes for inducing filamentous bulking are complicated [4] and include factors such as low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations [5-7], low organic loading 44 rates [8], low substrate concentration gradients [9], low pH [10], and low 45 temperatures [11]. Nutrient limitation [12] has also been identified as a factor for the 46 proliferation of filamentous bacteria in activated sludge. In order to obtain well-47 settling sludge, the ratio of biological oxygen demand (BOD) to nitrogen (N) to 48 phosphorus (P) in influent should generally satisfy 100:5:1 [1]. Peng et al. [13] 49 50 showed that filamentous bulking was stimulated by the lack of either N or P in the feed. However, the simultaneous absence of both N and P did not induce filamentous 51 bulking [13]. Low nutrient supplies have also been suggested to cause non-52 filamentous bulking. It was reported that activated sludge treatment of nutrient-53 deficient wastewater such as some types of industrial wastewaters led to severe slime 54 formation and consequently biomass separation difficulties due to non-filamentous 55 bulking [2, 14, 15]. Non-filamentous bulking at a full-scale wastewater treatment 56 plant (WWTP), which was hypothetically due to low concentrations of soluble 57 phosphate (0.2 mg/L), was solved by supplying additional soluble phosphate [16]. 58

However, the mechanisms involved in both filamentous and non-filamentous
bulking induced by nutrient limitation/deficiency are not fully understood at present.

There is still controversy about which bulking type would be caused under nutrient 61 limitation. On one hand, it is hypothesised that nutrient deficiency has an effect on the 62 competition between floc-forming and filamentous bacteria, causing filamentous 63 bulking when filamentous bacteria proliferate due to their enhanced ability to uptake 64 substrates under stress conditions [13, 17]. On the other hand, nutrient limitation has 65 also been hypothesised to induce the production of extracellular polymeric substances 66 (EPS) on the surface of microorganisms [18]. The EPS are important for the 67 physicochemical properties of activated sludge flocs and have been implicated to 68 affect sludge settling properties [19], inducing non-filamentous bulking. In addition, 69 when sludge is subject to nutrients limitation or deficiency, more carbon substrate can 70 be used for accumulation of poly-hydroxyalkanoates (PHA) and glycogen [20], which 71 72 would affect the competition between filaments and floc-formers, as well as sludge settleability. 73

The objective of this study was to shed light on the mechanism of filamentous and 74 non-filamentous bulking of activated sludge induced by nutrients limitation or 75 deficiency, through a comprehensive experimental study. Six lab-scale sequencing 76 batch reactors (SBR) were operated for 130-230 days with various nutrients-supplying 77 conditions. The sludge volume index (SVI), PHA storage and EPS composition, Gram 78 79 and Neisser staining, fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) and microscopic observations were used to monitor sludge properties and to track the changes of 80 81 microbial morphology and community structure. These experimental data led to the connections between bulking type and the associated sludge properties, including 82

- sludge settleability, microbial structure, intracellular storage and extracellular
 polymeric substrates under the stress condition of nutrients limitation or deficiency.
- 85

86 2. Materials and Methods

87 2.1 Lab-scale SBR reactors

The experiments were performed in six identical SBRs each with a 12-L working 88 volume. Each reactor was equipped with an air compressor for aeration and a stirrer 89 for mixing. Operation of the SBRs was based on 6 h cycles consisting of a feed phase 90 (10 min) in which 6 L fresh medium was supplied giving rise to a hydraulic retention 91 time of 12 h, an anoxic phase (110 min), an aerobic phase (180 min), a settling phase 92 (50 min) and an effluent withdrawal phase (10 min) in which 5.85 L of reactor 93 94 supernatant were withdrawn. The bulk liquid DO concentration in aerobic periods was controlled at 2.0±0.2 mg/L under aerobic periods. Temperatures in all reactors were 95 controlled at 25±2 °C. pH was recorded but not controlled, and fluctuated between 7.0 96 and 7.5. The biomass concentrations in all reactors were kept in the range of 97 1800~2400 mg/L with sludge wasting that ensured an operation at a sludge age of 20 98 days of each reactor. The surfaces of tube, pumps and reactors were cleaned manually 99 100 weekly in order to prevent biomass attachment.

101 The feed conditions for the SBRs are summarised in Table 1. SBRs 1-4 were 102 operated for 233 days, to investigate the effects of nutrient deficiency on sludge 103 settleability and microbial community structure. With COD/N/P ratios being 104 300:30:10 in the feed, SBR1 was operated as a control. SBR2 (COD/N/P set at

300:0:10), SBR3 (COD/N/P set at 300:30:0) and SBR4 (COD/N/P set at 300:0:0) 105 were operated to investigate the effects of N, P and simultaneous N&P deficiency 106 respectively. In order to investigate the combined effects of sludge cultivation history 107 and influent nutrient ratios, which may affect the types of bulking and the dominant 108 filaments, two additional reactors (SBRs 5-6) were operated for 130 days in three 109 phases. Phase I (days 1-24) was used to collect base line data with normal feed 110 (COD/N/P set at 300:30:15). The effects of N limitation (COD/N/P set at 300:5:15) 111 and P limitation (COD/N/P set at 300:30:1) on sludge proprieties were investigated 112 during Phase II (days 25-66) in SBR5 and SBR6, respectively. The effects of N 113 deficiency and P deficiency on sludge proprieties were further investigated during 114 Phase III (days 67-130). 115

116 **2.2 Synthetic wastewater and seeding sludge**

The medium for the SBRs consisted of a carbon source, a nutrient solution and a trace 117 element solution. The normal synthetic wastewater contained CH₃COONa of 4.69 118 mM (300 mg COD/L), NH₄Cl of 2.14 mM (30 mg N/L), KH₂PO₄ of 0.32 mM (10 mg 119 P/L in SBRs 1-4) or 0.48 mM (15 mg P/L in SBRs 5-6), MgSO₄·7H₂O of 0.37 mM, 120 KCl of 0.48 mM, CaCl₂·2H₂O of 0.10 mM and 1 mL/L of the following trace element 121 122 solution: EDTA 10 g/L, ZnSO₄·7H₂O 0.12 g/L, Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O 0.06 g/L, MnCl₂·4H₂O 0.12 g/L, KI 0.18 g/L, CuSO₄.5H₂O 0.03 g/L, H₃BO₃ 0.15 g/L, 123 FeCl₃·6H₂O 1.5 g/L. Under the conditions of nutrients limitation and deficiency, N 124 125 and/or P concentrations in the synthetic wastewater were modified according to the specific values describe in Table 1. 126

127 Each SBR was inoculated with 2 L seed sludge from the secondary clarifier of the

- 128 GaoBeiDian WWTP (Beijing, China). The seed sludge had a good settling property
- 129 (SVI< 100 mL/g), in which only limited filamentous bacteria (Type 0092 as the
- 130 dominant filament) were present as a floc backbone.
- 131 **2.3 Analytical methods**

The temperature, pH and DO were monitored on line using WTW pH/DO meters 132 (WTW Multi 340i, Germany). Supernatant samples in all reactors were collected 2-3 133 times every week to monitor effluent quality. Cycle studies were performed every 3 134 weeks for all SBRs. Samples were analyzed after filtration through 0.45 µm filter. 135 COD, NH₄⁺-N, NO₂⁻-N, NO₃⁻-N, PO₄³⁻-P, mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS) and 136 mixed liquor volatile suspended solids (MLVSS) were measured according to 137 138 Standard Methods [21]. When conducting cycle studies, PHA and acetate analysis was carried out as described by Oehmen et al. [22]. 139

140 **2.4 Microscopic observation and fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)**

Microscopic observation of mixed liquor samples was performed every week using an 141 OLYMPUS-BX61 (Japan). Filamentous index (FI), a method of subjective scoring of 142 filamentous bacteria abundance suggested by Eikelboom [1], was used to evaluate the 143 144 abundance of filamentous bacteria present in the samples. The dominant filamentous bacteria were identified based on morphology observation, Gram and Neisser staining, 145 and a sulfur deposit test according to Eikelboom [1] and Jenkins [2]. FISH was also 146 147 conducted for further identifying the dominant filamentous bacteria as previously described [23-25]. Table S1 (Supporting Information) shows a list of oligonucleotide 148

149	probes	used	in	this	study.	The	images	of	FISH	samples	were	captured	using	an
150	OLYM	PUS-I	BX	61 fli	loresce	nce n	nicrosco	pe.						

151 **2.5 EPS extraction**

Sludge samples were collected from all reactors every 1-2 weeks for characterisation of the EPS composition over time. The EPS extraction methods were previously described in Guo et al. [26]. Total extractable EPS was defined as the sum of proteins, carbohydrates and DNA. Carbohydrates were determined using the anthrone method with the glucose standard (Aldrich). Proteins were measured with the Lowry procedure using BSA (bovine serum albumin) as standard. DNA was measured in the extracted EPS samples according to the method described in Frolund et al. [27].

159

160 **3. Results**

161 **3.1 Reactor performance**

The COD removal efficiency of SBRs 1, 2 and 5 were consistently above 85%, with 162 the average COD concentration in effluent lower than 50 mg/L. In comparison, COD 163 removal efficiencies were consistently lower for SBRs 3, 4 and 6 (50~65%). The 164 effluent COD concentration was frequently higher than 100 mg/L, particularly when 165 bulking occurred. For the control reactor (SBR1), the average NH₄⁺-N, NO₂⁻-N, NO₃⁻-166 N and PO4³⁻-P concentrations were 0.2, 0.8, 10.3 and 4.3 mg/L, respectively. SBRs 5 167 and 6 in Phase I (with normal feed) showed good nitrification, phosphorus release and 168 uptake performance. However, the deterioration of the P removal was caused by N 169 170 limitation or deficiency, and deterioration of the N removal was caused by P

limitation or deficiency in Phases II and III. Similar phenomenon was observed in 171 other reactors (SBRs 2, 3 and 4) with limited nutrient influent. No nitrification and 172 denitrification were observed in SBRs 2 and 4. No clear phenotype of enhanced 173 biological phosphorus removal was found in SBRs 3 and 4. The phenomenon of 174 phosphorous release and uptake was observed in SBRs 1, 2 and 5, despite with poor P 175 removal efficiency. Phosphorous concentrations in effluent of SBRs 1 and 5 were 176 lower than 5 mg P/L, while the average effluent phosphorous concentration in SBR 2 177 was higher than 9.1 mg P/L. The detailed effluent concentrations can be found in 178 Table S2 (Supporting Information). 179

180 **3.2 Sludge settling properties**

Various influent nutrient ratios led to different sludge settleability, as evidenced by 181 different SVI profiles (Fig. 1). SVIs in SBRs 1-4 slightly increased in the initial 30 182 days but gradually decreased to below 150 mL/g in the following 60 days, which 183 might be associated with the adaptation of microorganisms to laboratory conditions 184 including the synthetic feed. From day 90, sludge settleability expressed in SVI 185 showed different trends. The settling property of the SBR1 sludge with a normal 186 influent nutrient ratio was generally very good with a SVI in the range of 40-130 187 188 mL/g. Good sludge settleability with SVI of 40–125 mL/g was also obtained in SBR2, to which an influent without N was fed (C: N: P as to be 300/0/10). In SBR3 fed with 189 influent without P, SVI was significantly higher than that in SBR1 and was in the 190 191 range of 90-150 mL/g. However, the simultaneous N and P deficiency applied to SBR4 resulted in poor sludge settleability with SVI of 122-355 mL/g from day 90 to 192

day 230, which was higher than that in SBR3 during the corresponding period. The 193 deficiency of P seemed to lead to poorer settleability while the deficiency of N did not. 194 SVI levels of the SBRs 5 and 6 sludges slightly increased to 150 mL/g in the initial 195 10 days and then became below 100 mL/g at the end of Phase I (Fig. 1b). In Phase II, 196 good sludge settleability was maintained in both reactors, with the average SVI being 197 62 and 80 mL/g, respectively, despite of the imposition of N and P limitation, 198 respectively. Subsequently, SBR5 and SBR6 were operated with wastewater without 199 N or P, respectively (Phase III). Distinctly, the SVI of SBR6 (no P in the feed) rose 200 rapidly after Day 100 (up to 500-600 mL/g) due to serious sludge bulking. In 201 comparison, the settleability SBR5 (no N in the feed) remained stable. 202

203 **3.3 Growth of filamentous bacteria**

204 Microscopic observation was conducted to monitor the change of sludge morphology (as shown in Fig. 2) and the growth of filamentous bacteria. The growth of 205 filamentous bacteria (FI of 2-3 in a scale of 0-5, as shown in Table 2) was observed in 206 SBR3 with the deficiency of P. Many filamentous bacteria were present in the sludge 207 (FI of 3-4 in a scale of 0-5) in SBR4 (Fig. 2d), in contrast to other reactors SBRs 1, 2 208 and 5, where much fewer filamentous bacteria were present (FI lower than level 2). 209 210 Interestingly, the microorganisms in the SBR6 sludge were primarily floc-forming bacteria, and few filamentous bacteria (FI below 1) extended from the flocs, although 211 high SVI was observed in this reactor (Fig. 2f). Thus, filamentous bacteria were not 212 213 responsible for the increased SVI and non-filamentous bulking (viscous bulking) occurred in SBR6. In fact, microscopic observation showed a change from normal 214

compact flocs (average diameter ca. 100 µm) to much more open, loose and 215 irregularly shaped flocs, and with many free-swimming bacteria. In comparison, the 216 well-settling sludge (average SVI of 50 mL/g) in SBR5 contained dense and compact 217 flocs (Fig. 2e), in spite of some limited filaments growing out of flocs. 218 Gram and Neisser staining and FISH analysis were employed for identification of 219 the dominant filamentous bacteria in systems with filamentous bulking. Various 220 influent nutrient ratios resulted in different dominant filamentous bacteria (Table 2, 221 Fig. 3). In SBR1 with normal influent nutrient ratios, no distinct filaments extended 222 from the flocs, despite that some Type 0092 and Type 0041 filamentous were found 223 inside the flocs. Although no filamentous bulking occurred in SBR2 fed with influent 224 without N, short and slightly bowed Type 0092 (filament length usually smaller than 225 200 μ m) extended out from the flocs. Compared to SBR2 with lower filament 226 diversity, more types of filaments, including Type 021N, Type 0092 and M. parvicella 227 with very small numbers were detected in SBR5. The dominate filamentous bacteria 228 in SBR3 have a morphology similar to that of the Nostocoida limicola-like filaments 229 as described in [1, 2], but did not bind to the probes of NLIMI91 or NLIMIII301 [28]. 230 Moreover, FISH analysis indicated that T. nivea were present in very small numbers 231 in SBR3. There seemed to be two types of *N. limicola* possibly occurred in SBR3. 232 One type produced relatively long filaments (> 200 μ m). Cells were oval shaped with 233 cell septa clearly observable. This type of filament was not only found with the floc 234 235 structure but also in the bulk solution. The filament staining is Gram positive and Neisser negative (yellow). On the other hand, another type of N. limicola-like was 236

mostly observed in the bulk solution, and sheathed filaments composed of rectangular, 237 also with distinct septa. Gram staining is positive. Specially, Neisser staining is 238 positive (purple). In SBR4, the most dominant filaments, in an excessive abundance 239 level (FI of 3-4), were N. limicola-like. A relatively smaller number of Type 0092 (FI 240 of 1-2) was also found. However, the characteristics of N. limicola-like in SBR4 241 showed some differences from those in SBR3. They are Gram positive and Neisser 242 positive (purple). As reported, N. limicola-like are often found in industrial 243 wastewater with low nutrients [2]. With decreased the influent N concentration in 244 SBR5, a limited number of Type 021N and Type 0092 extended out from the flocs. 245

246 **3.4 PHA storage**

Although it is widely reported that nutrient limitation is favourable for PHA synthesis 247 in microbial cells (Third et al., 2003), the effect of storage phenomena on sludge 248 settleability has not been thoroughly studied [29], in particular under the nutrients 249 limitation or deficiency condition. In this study, sludge samples were collected every 250 3 weeks for the measurement of PHA, including poly- β -hydroxybutyrate (PHB), poly-251 β -hydroxyvalerate (PHV) and poly- β -hydroxy-2-methylvalerate (PH2MV). Table 2 252 compares the average PHA concentration in all reactors and Fig. 4 plots SVI against 253 the stored intracellular PHA, measured in all reactors during the course of the study. 254 PHA storage amounts in N limitation or deficiency systems (SBRs 2 and 5) were 255 clearly higher than in all other reactors including those with P limitation or deficiency 256 257 (SBRs 3 and 6). Our results are consistent with the previous observation that PHA accumulation is favoured under low ammonium concentrations [20]. Surprisingly, 258

however, the limitation or deficiency of P, which is also key element for cell growth, 259 did not stimulate PHA accumulation. SBR4 with simultaneous N and P deficiency had 260 the lowest PHA concentration. SBRs 3 and 6 (Phase III) fed with P-deficient influent, 261 also had low PHA contents. The higher accumulation of PHA in SBR2 and SBR5 262 coincided with the excellent sludge settleability. In comparison, poorer settleability 263 was obtained in SBRs 3, 4 and 6, where lower PHA contents were accumulated in 264 sludge samples. Storage phenomenon in the form of PHA has previously been found 265 to have an important role on sludge settleability [29, 30]. Compared to floc-formers, 266 most of filaments are supposed to have no or lower ability to store substrates [30, 31]. 267 In this case, most of substrates were used for storage under the feast phase and the 268 growth of filaments would be restricted. 269

270 **3.5 Formation of EPS**

Sludge settleability of activated sludge is greatly related to its EPS properties [32, 33]. 271 Therefore, the main components of EPS including carbohydrates, proteins and DNA 272 were quantified in order to identify any correlation between SVI and the amount and 273 274 composition of EPS (Figure 5 and Table S3). There is no significant correlation between the total amount of EPS and sludge settleability (Fig. 5a), which is consistent 275 with the results reported by Liao et al. [34]. However, the carbohydrates fraction of 276 EPS is positively correlated with SVI ($R^2=0.5990$), while the proteins fraction is 277 negatively correlated with SVI ($R^2=0.5073$) (Fig. 5b and 5c, respectively). For SBRs 278 2 and 5, both with N limitation/deficiency and good sludge settleability, the 279 composition of EPS is very similar, despite. In both reactors, 17-19% of the 280 extracellular substances is attributed to carbohydrates and 75-80% to proteins. 281 282 Increases in the carbohydrates contents were observed in all SBRs (3, 4 and 6) with P

deficiency. For SBRs 3 and 4 with filamentous bulking sludge, low proteins (62-76%) and high carbohydrates content (20-30%) were observed in EPS. In contrast, a higher carbohydrates content ($27\pm10\%$) and a lower proteins content ($69\pm9\%$), compared to other reactors, were observed in Phase III in SBR6, where viscous bulking occurred. When serious non-filamentous bulking was encountered at the end of Phase III, the carbohydrates fraction reached 42% and the proteins fraction dropped to a level of 55%.

When SVI was plotted against the carbohydrates or proteins fractions for each 290 reactor (Fig. S1, SI), no significant correlation between SVI and carbohydrates or 291 proteins fractions is observed for SBRs 1, 2 and 5 with sludge of good settleability. 292 However, for reactors with bulking (SBRs 3, 4 and 6), the carbohydrates fraction of 293 EPS has a more positively correlation with SVI (R^2 =0.7850, 0.7821 and 0.9486 for 294 SBR3, 4 and 6, respectively), while the proteins fraction is negatively correlated with 295 SVI (R²=0.7418, 0.7446 and 0.9277 for SBR3, 4 and 6, respectively).. The 296 correlations are much stronger for SBR6 with viscous bulking than for other reactors. 297 This suggests that the observed non-filamentous bulking was possibly caused by the 298 overproduction of extracellular carbohydrates in the biomass. A similar phenomenon 299 was found by Jobbagy et al. [15] in which an exponential correlation between the 300 extracellular carbohydrates contents and SVI values was observed. 301

302

303 4. Discussion

Many hypotheses explaining filamentous bulking such as kinetics selection, diffusion selection and storage selection have been put forward to date [17, 29, 35]. Kinetic selection theory, formulated by Chudoba et al. [36], assumed that floc-formers and filaments have different kinetic parameters $K_{\rm S}$ (half-saturation constant) and $\mu_{\rm max}$

(maximum growth rate) for the substrate. The floc-formers usually dominate over 308 filaments at high substrate concentrations, since they have high μ_{max} and K_S for 309 soluble substrates. In contrast, the filamentous bacteria would be more favoured at 310 low substrate concentrations, since filaments are thought to have lower Ks values. 311 However, Martins et al. [37] proposed that substrate diffusion limitation inside the 312 flocs might be a critical cause for filamentous bulking than kinetics selection. They 313 assumed that floc-formers grow in three dimensions and form the floc matrix, while 314 filaments grow in only one or two dimensions [38]. Thus, the floc-formers would be 315 more affected by diffusion resistance of substrates at low substrate concentrations. 316 The storage selection theory is based on the assumption that floc-formers have higher 317 substrate uptake rates and capacities to store substrates, while most of the filamentous 318 319 microorganisms are supposed to have no or lower ability to store substrates [29]. Therefore, floc-formers are favoured at high substrate concentrations, compared to 320 filamentous bacteria. 321

Two types of bulking, i.e. filamentous bulking and non-filamentous bulking were 322 encountered in this study. In SBRs 2 and 5 with N limitation or deficiency, 323 filamentous bulking did not occur. In comparison, filamentous bulking occurred in 324 325 SBR3 and SBR4 with P deficiency. The correlation between SVI and PHA supports the storage selection hypothesis. In SBRs 2 and 5, part of the substrates were stored as 326 intracellular PHA in the feast phase. In the famine phase, growth would have occurred 327 328 based on the storage product. Such a growth mechanism is known to favour flocformers over filaments as most of filamentous bacteria are known to have a lower 329

ability to produce carbon storage products [30, 31], while several types of filaments 330 (like 331 Microthrix parvicella and Thiothrix nivea) have a similar capacity to store substrates [37, 39-41]. In this case, well-settling 332 sludge was obtained due to the limited proliferation of filaments. Compared to SBRs 333 1, 2 and 5, PHA formation was not stimulated but attenuated in SBRs 3 and 4. 334 Without PHA formation giving advantage to floc-formers, filamentous bacteria 335 probably gained advantage through their competitiveness for nutrients at low 336 concentrations due to their kinetics advantages. Consequently, filamentous bulking 337 was caused in these reactors (i.e. SBRs 3 and 4). 338 In comparison to SBRs 2 and 5 with N limitation/deficiency, SBRs 3, 4 and 6 339 produced more carbohydrates (and less proteins) in EPS as compounds without N or P. 340 341 It is unclear, why PHA formation was stimulated by N limitation/deficiency while carbohydrates formation was stimulated by P limitation/deficiency. The strong 342 positive correlation between SVI and the carbohydrates fraction in EPS suggests the 343 excessive production of carbohydrates in EPS is detrimental to sludge settleability. 344 This supports the observation in [18] that a higher carbohydrates fraction and a lower 345 proteins fraction in EPS would deteriorate sludge settleability. Different from SBR3 346 347 and SBR4, non-filamentous bulking rather than filamentous bulking occurred in SBR6. With P limitation/deficiency, all these reactors had similar levels of PHA, 348 carbohydrates and proteins. It is not clear why filamentous bacteria did not develop in 349 350 SBR6. This could be related to the relatively short operational time of SBR6 after bulking occurred (Day 110 – Day 130). Indeed, the SBR6 sludge, prior to bulking, 351

contained filaments at very low levels (FI was lower than 1). Given the high SVI
observed in SBR6 in the absence of filaments, a possible contribution of viscous
bulking to the high SVIs in SBR3 and SBR4 should not be ruled out.

The dominant filamentous bacteria under nutrient deficiency were seldom 355 documented in the previous studies [17]. Through microscopic observation, staining 356 reactions and FISH analysis, the dominant filaments grew in reactors with filamentous 357 bulking were identified in this study. In SBRs 3 and 4, the proliferation of two typical 358 bacteria, N. limicola-like and T. nivea were identified. These filaments' affinities for 359 nutrient are critical parameters in the competition for the limited nutrients. It is 360 assumed that N. limicola-like and T. nivea have high affinities for nutrients, including 361 N and P. N. limicola-like are usually found in systems where there is low DO or 362 363 septicity, and often found in industrial WWTPs with low nutrients [2]. Similarly, T. nivea are also often detected in industrial WWTPs [33]. The filaments have a high 364 affinity for substrate (e.g. acetate) and nutrients, but a relatively low substrate uptake 365 rate [42]. 366

N and P are the basic elements for the growth of microorganisms. The activated 367 sludge still kept a stable growth phenomenon in the systems fed without N (SBRs 2 368 369 and 5 in Phase III). The MLSS concentrations in these reactors were kept around 2000 370 mg/L, although the growth rate of activated sludge in SBR5 became slower during 371 Phase III, compared to that during Phases I and II. It is assumed that some unknown 372 fixation microorganisms might be capable of supplying the entire N requirements of the system. It is reported that genomic analysis of some polyphosphate accumulating 373 organisms (PAOs) and glycogen accumulating organisms (GAOs) indicates an ability 374

375 to fix nitrogen [43, 44], which might be relevant in these nitrogen-limiting systems, given the FISH analysis suggested the presence of PAOs and GAOs (data not shown). 376 Although P was not supplied in SBR6 during Phase III, microorganisms in the 377 378 reactors might still gain them for their growth, which might be from the sludge decay products. In addition, it is assumed that P was taken up in excess and stored to be re-379 utilized during P limitation or deficiency. It is still not clear what is the mechanism of 380 the microorganism growth in SBRs 3 and 4 without any phosphorus. It is necessary to 381 detect N and P levels in the internal of sludge to clarify why the cells still keep 382 383 growing under no nutrients feeding.

Moreover, from the PHA and EPS data it can be inferred, N limitation or deficiency 384 increased the intracellular PHA and extracellular proteins levels and was associated 385 with good settling in SBRs 2 and 5. However, P limitation or deficiency distinctly did 386 not stimulate the PHA storage, while increased the carbohydrates content of EPS in 387 SBRs 3, 4 and 6, which was associated with poor settleability. Non-filamentous 388 bulking occurred when the carbohydrates fraction was distinctly high in the EPS 389 matrix. It is assumed that the intracellular PHA and the extracellular EPS matrix 390 would change if encountering nutrient unavailability. The occurrence and/or the type 391 of bulking in activated sludge could be affected by the combination of kinetic 392 selection, microbial storage, as well as the EPS composition. 393

This study shows that P limitation seems to stimulate the production of extracellular carbohydrates rather than intracellular carbohydrates (PHA), which deteriorates sludge settleability through filamentous or non-filamentous bulking. P limitation should be avoided in activated sludge systems, especially when treating wastewater with low levels of P. Considering that the requirement of P for the growth of microorganisms is relatively lower compared to N, adding P in influent would not

distinctly increase operation cost, which can be used in practice. But the dosagewarrants further batch tests.

402

403 Conclusions

This study investigated the long-term effects of nutrients (N and P) limitation or 404 deficiency on sludge settleability, EPS, substrate storage and microbial community 405 structure. N limitation or deficiency does not necessarily lead to sludge bulking, likely 406 attributed to its stimulating effect on the formation of intracellular storage products, 407 which gives competitive advantages to floc-formers over filamentous bacteria. In 408 comparison, P deficiency caused sludge bulking. Both filamentous bulking and non-409 filamentous bulking could be induced by P limitation/deficiency, with reasons to be 410 411 further identified. Filamentous bulking was strongly correlated with the excessive growth of N. limicola-like and T. nivea, while non-filamentous bulking is 412 accompanied by a higher carbohydrates fraction and a lower than proteins fraction of 413 414 EPS.

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533 Figure Captions

534 Table 1. Summary of feed conditions in six reactors with different influent nutrient

535 ratios

- 536 **Table 2.** The properties of sludge under different nutrient-supplying conditions
- 537 Figure 1. SVI profiles in six SBRs (a: SVIs of the sludge in SBRs 1-4; b: SVIs of the
- sludge in SBRs 5-6)
- 539 Figure 2. Microscopic observations of activated sludge in all SBRs at the end of the
- 540 study
- 541 Figure 3. Typical FISH, Gram and Neisser staining images of dominant filaments
- from various reactors (Bar= $20 \,\mu$ m.)
- 543 Figure 4. SVI vs. PHA in all reactors. Higher amounts of PHA accumulated in SBRs
- 544 1, 2 and 5 with good settleability, as shown in the right oval; Lower amounts of PHA
- accumulated in SBRs 3 and 4 with filamentous bulking, as shown in the left oval;
- 546 SBR6 with non-filamentous bulking has a moderate amount of PHA, as shown in the

547 middle oval.

Figure 5. Correlation between SVI and EPS, extracellular carbohydrates and proteins
contents of total EPS in the biomass

Reactor	Phase	Time	C/N/P	Remarks
		(days)	(mgCOD:mgN:mgP)	
1		1-233	300/30/10	Control
2		1-233	300/0/10	N deficiency
3		1-233	300/30/0	P deficiency
4		1-233	300/0/0	N&P deficiency
5	Ι	1-24	300/30/15	Control
	II	25-66	300/5/15	N limitation
	III	67-130	300/0/15	N deficiency
6	Ι	1-24	300/30/15	Control
	II	25-66	300/30/1	P limitation
	III	67-130	300/30/0	P deficiency

 Table 1. Summary of feed conditions in six reactors with different influent nutrient ratios

Reactor	Phase	C/N/P ratio	SVI*	PHA*	FI	Detected filaments
			(mL/g)	(mmol	(0-5)	
				C/L)		
SBR1		300/30/15	108±67	7.2±0.7	0-1	Туре 0092, Туре 0041
SBR2		300/0/10	108±63	13.5±0.1	0-1	Type 0092, Type 0041,
SBR3		300/30/0	153±65	4.6 ± 0.5	2-3	N. limicola-like, T. nivea
SBR4		300/0/0	186±60	2.5 ± 0.5	3-4	N. limicola-like, T. nivea, Type 0092
SBR5	Ι	300/30/15	111±15	7.0 ± 0.9	0	No filaments extended from flocs
	II	300/5/15	62±15	14.6±1.3	0-1	Type 021N, Type 0092
	III	300/0/15	49±17	8.9±0.6	1-2	Type 021N, Type 0092
SBR6	Ι	300/30/15	111±17	6.8 ± 0.5	0	No filaments extended from flocs
	II	300/30/1	80±9	4.6 ± 0.4	0	No filaments extended from flocs
	III	300/30/0	150±150	5.6 ± 0.4	0	No filaments extended from flocs

Tabla 2	The pro	nerties of	shudae	under	different	nutrient	supplying	conditions
Table 2.	The pro	perces or	sludge	unuer	umerent	nun em-	supprying	conunions

*: values showed as mean \pm standard deviation (n=58 for SVI calculation; n=8 for



Figure 1. SVI profiles in six SBRs (a: SVIs of the sludge in SBRs 1-4; b: SVIs of the sludge in SBRs 5-6)



(a) SBR1 $(100\times, bar = 200 \,\mu m)$ (b) SBR2

(c) SBR3 (100×, bar =200 μ m) (d) SBR4



(e) SBR 5 (400×, bar =200 μ m) (f) SBR 6 Figure 2. Microscopic observations of activated sludge in all SBRs at the end of the study





(b) SBR2, Neisser staining image



(c) SBR3, Gram staining image

(d) SBR3, Neisser staining image



(e) SBR3, FISH image of *T. nivea* (f) SBR3, FISH image of Eubmix probe



(g) SBR4, Gram staining image

(h) SBR4, Neisser staining image





(k) SBR5, FISH image of Type 021N in Phase II (m) SBR5, FISH image of Type 021N in Phase III

Figure 3. Typical FISH, Gram and Neisser staining images of dominant filaments from various reactors (Bar=20 μ m.)

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Figure 4. SVI vs. PHA in all reactors. Higher amounts of PHA accumulated in SBRs 1, 2 and 5 with good settleability, as shown in the right oval; Lower amounts of PHA accumulated in SBRs 3 and 4 with filamentous bulking, as shown in the left oval; SBR6 with non-filamentous bulking has a moderate amount of PHA, as shown in the middle oval.





Figure 5. Correlation between SVI and EPS, extracellular carbohydrates and proteins contents of total EPS in the biomass

Research Highlights

- Effects of N/P deficiency on SVI, EPS, PHA and microbial community structure were examined.
- ▶ Bulking was not encountered in reactors with nitrogen limitation or deficiency.
- Bulking was encountered in those reactors fed with wastewater deficient in phosphorus.
- N limitation/deficiency stimulates formation of intracellular storage products (PHA).
- ▶ P limitation stimulates formation of carbohydrates.

Graphical abstract

