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Highly Efficient Semi-Continuous Extraction and In-Line Purification of High β -O-4 Butanosolv Lignin

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



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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes the use of hydrogen oxidizing bacteria (HOB) for the removal of orthophosphate from surface water as treatment step to prevent cyanobacterial blooms. To be effective as an orthophosphate removal strategy, an efficient transfer of hydrogen to the HOB is essential. A trickling filter was selected for this purpose. Using this system, a removal rate of $11.32 \pm 0.43 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L.d}$ was achieved. The HOB biomass, developed on the trickling filter, is composed of 1.25% phosphorus on dry matter, which suggests that the orthophosphate removal principle is based on HOB growth. Cyanobacterial growth assays of the untreated and treated water showed that *Synechocystis* sp was only able to grow in the untreated water. Orthophosphate was removed to average residual values of 0.008 mg/L. In this proof of principle study, it is shown that HOB are able to remove orthophosphate from water to concentrations that prevent cyanobacterial growth.

1. Introduction

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

Phosphorus has long been reported to play a key role in eutrophication of surface waters, originating mostly from agriculture and urban run offs and industrial discharges (Carpenter et al., 1998). In Europe, the current treated water discharge regulations require total phosphorus levels to be between 1 and 2 mg/L, depending on the population equivalent (European Commission, 2017). However, several

studies show that concentrations above 0.1 mg P/L can already support algal growth (Carvalho et al., 2013; Lurling and van Oosterhout, 2013; Richardson et al., 2007) even when nitrogen availability is low, due to the presence of nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria (Paerl, 2017; Schindler et al., 2008). Taking this into account, there has been an increasing pressure to actively decrease phosphorus loads into water bodies to levels as low as 0.01 mg P/L (Ashkuzzaman, 2017). Decreasing phosphorus concentrations from effluents of normal sewage treatments plants or water storage basins below 0.01 mg P/L remains a challenge (Gu et al., 2011; USEPA, 2000).

The aim of the present study is to provide a proof of concept for the use of hydrogen oxidizing bacteria (HOB) to remove soluble phosphorus (orthophosphate) to levels below 0.010 mg/L. HOB use hydrogen as their electron donor and oxygen as their electron acceptor to fixate carbon dioxide. This reaction yields a substantial amount of energy that has been explored for decades for the production of proteins, for instance for the animal feed industry (Repaske and Mayer, 1976). Their use of CO₂ as carbon source offers an advantage in the treatment of water with insufficient bioavailable organics, such as groundwater, drinking water, and secondary treated wastewater (Karanasios et al., 2010). H₂ is inherently acceptable as an electron donor to be added to surface water, i.e. it does not persist in the treated water, therefore not

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posing any potential threat to fauna and flora nor to the consumer of the water. Moreover, H_2 can be easily produced from water electrolysis, powered by renewable energy sources (Hosseini and Wahid, 2016; Mohsin et al., 2018). The biological trickling filter was chosen as treatment system as it allows the decoupling of solids retention time (SRT) and hydraulic retention time (HRT) (Naz et al., 2015). In biological trickling filters microorganisms are attached to a fixed surface forming a biofilm while the water to be treated flows downwards in direct contact with the biofilm, and the gas with the electron donor and acceptor is fed from the bottom and flows upward (Nadell et al., 2016; Wik, 2003). This system allows for all nutrients to be directly available to a large surface of biofilm even at low concentrations, a feature which is particularly relevant for biological orthophosphate removal from water bodies as orthophosphate is present in very low concentrations. In addition to the operational simplicity, its size can easily be expanded by providing additional surface area.

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

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental setup

The experiments were carried out in a sealed PVC tube of 1 L containing plastic biofilm carriers ($900\text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ specific total surface area, Aqwise). The reactor was continuously flushed with an excess mixture of hydrogen (45%), oxygen (10%) and carbon dioxide (15%) (Matassa et al., 2016). A feed solution, hereafter referred to as the recycling liquid, consisting of tap water enriched with $1\text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ (added as KH_2PO_4), $20\text{ mg NH}_4/\text{L}$ (added as NH_4Cl), 0.5 mg/L ferric ammonium citrate and 0.2 mL/L of trace element solution ($0.6\text{ g H}_3\text{BO}_3$, $0.4\text{ g CoCl}_2\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $0.2\text{ g ZnSO}_4\cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $0.06\text{ g NaMoO}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $0.04\text{ g NiCl}_2\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $0.02\text{ g CuSO}_4\cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$) was recirculated through the reactor at a flow of 0.45 L/min (wetting rate of $22\text{ m}^3/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{h}$). Initial soluble orthophosphate concentration in the recycling liquid (10 L) was $1\text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ to mimic realistic phosphorus discharge concentration of water treatment plants (European Commission, 2017). To guarantee phosphorus was the only limiting element, the maximum expected biomass was estimated assuming that all P is converted to biomass and biomass is composed of at least 1% of P. Nitrogen and trace elements required were then calculated based on stoichiometric proportions.

2.2. Inoculation and acclimation

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

2.3. Microbial community analysis preparation sequencing

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

2.4. Amplicon sequencing and data processing

The DNA extracts were sent to MrDNA (www.mrdnalab.com, Shallowater, TX, USA) for PCR amplification of the V4-V5 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene was performed using bacterial primers 515F (Parada et al., 2016) and 926R (Quince et al., 2011). Sequence data processing comprised quality control and amplicon sequence variant (ASV) calling using the DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016) implementation in QIIME2 (Bolyen et al., 2019). Taxonomy was assigned to representative sequences of each ASV using a naive Bayesian classifier trained on full 16S sequences of the curated SILVA database v.132 (Bokulich et al., 2018; Pedregosa et al., 2011). Raw sequence data has been deposited in EMBL-EBI under project number PRJEB38088. Bacterial ASVs comprising at least 0.1% of reads in a sample were used to calculate relative abundance at the genus level.

2.5. Biostability and re-growth assays

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

2.6. Analytical methods

Samples taken from the recycling liquid were filtered ($0.20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) prior to analysis. Orthophosphate ($\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P}$) was measured with inductive coupled plasma (ICP) (Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV equipped with an optical emission spectrometer). Treated water samples that were below the ICP detection limit of $0.020\text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ were analyzed using a continuous flow analyzer (Skalar; Breda; the Netherlands). For this measurement, molybdate and antimony potassium tartrate react with phosphate to give a phosphate-complex. The continuous flow analyzer is an automated flowcell with an optical path length of 50 cm that detects at 660 nm the reduction of the phosphate-complex by ascorbate. For each measurement, a calibration curve that consisted of seven standard solutions was used. In this manner, phosphate is accurately determined in the range of 1 to $50\text{ }\mu\text{g/L}$. Ammonium was determined by ion chromatography (Metrohm Compact IC 761 equipped with a conductivity detector, using the pre-column Metrohm Metrosep A Supp 4/5 Guard and the column Metrohm Metrosep A Supp 5, $150/4.0\text{ mm}$). Gas samples were analyzed with gas chromatography (Varian, CP-4900 equipped with a thermal conductivity detector using a Mol Sieve 5 Å PLOT 10 m column at $80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and a Poraplot U 10 m column at $65\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and argon as carrier gas at 1.47 mL/min). To determine the P content of the biomass, 0.5 g were digested at $180\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 15 min (Milestone ETHOS 1) using 8 mL HNO_3 (68%). After this digestion, the total P concentration was measured using ICP. The C, H, S and N content of the biomass was measured with an elemental analyzer (EA 1110, ThermoQuest CE Instruments, USA) utilizing a vertical quartz tube (combustion tube) maintained at $1000\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with a constant flow of helium at 120 mL/min , an oxidation catalyst (WO_3) zone, a copper zone followed by a Porapak PQS column maintained at $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and finally, followed by a TCD detector.

2.7. Calculations

Orthophosphate removal ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L.d}$) rate calculated as a function of the volume of treated water

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

Orthophosphate removal rate ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/m}^2\text{.d}$) calculated as a function of the available biofilm surface area

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

P_i Initial Orthophosphate concentration ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$)

P_o Final Orthophosphate concentration ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$)

V Volume of treated water (L)

T Operational time (d)

BSA Biofilm surface area (m^2)

3. Results and discussion

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

At the start-up of the enrichment process, activated sludge was used to inoculate the tricking filter reactor. This inoculum was chosen for its high microbial diversity (Wang et al., 2019) therefore increasing the probability of selecting and enriching for a robust biofilm community capable of removing orthophosphate under hydrogenotrophic conditions. The reactor was continuously flushed with a mixture of hydrogen, oxygen and carbon dioxide (Matassa et al., 2016). The recycling liquid, i.e. tap water enriched with orthophosphate, ammonium, iron and trace elements, was circulated over the carrier material and refreshed daily to select for hydrogen oxidizing bacteria. The residual $\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P}$ concentration after the first day of operation decreased to 0.88 mg/L (i.e. removal of 13.7%). After three inoculation cycles, a visible biofilm colonized the carrier material. In order to promote the establishment and further expansion of the biofilm, the recycling liquid was refreshed daily for a period of 11 days. This action also allowed for the removal of detached and planktonic biomass and to assure the selection for a HOB community. After 11 days, the desired orthophosphate concentration was achieved (below $0.020 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$; removal of 99.2%) (Fig. 1).

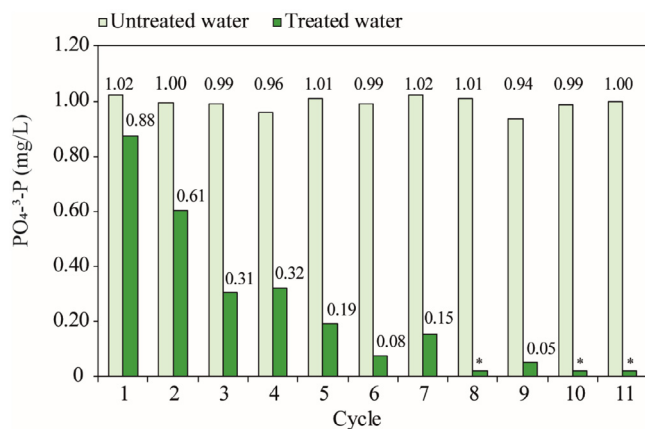


Fig. 1. Establishment of the hydrogen oxidizing biofilm. Untreated water (light green) and treated water (dark green) orthophosphate concentrations ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) over a period of 11 fed batches (1 batch = 1 day). Fresh liquid was prepared daily and subjected to treatment. Orthophosphate concentrations (single measurements) below the normal detection limit ($< 0.020 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) are marked with asterisks. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

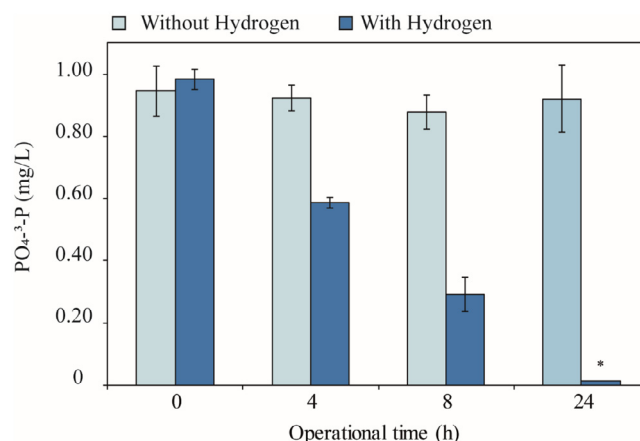


Fig. 2. Residual orthophosphate ($\text{mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) concentrations in the presence (dark blue) and absence (light blue) of hydrogen. Assays were performed over a period of 24 h, in triplicate. Orthophosphate concentrations below the normal detection limit ($< 0.020 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) are marked with asterisks. Error bars represent standard deviation. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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

To confirm the hydrogenotrophic character of the orthophosphate removal process, the reactor was operated under the same conditions as described in section 3.1 for three cycles of 24 h, followed by three cycles of 24 h in which hydrogen was replaced by nitrogen. In the three final cycles, the reactor was flushed with nitrogen (75%), oxygen (10%) and carbon dioxide (15%). As expected, during the first three cycles orthophosphate was removed within 24 h to a concentration below $0.020 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$ (Fig. 2) comparable to those reported in section 3.1. In the absence of hydrogen, the orthophosphate concentration of the untreated water ($0.950 \pm 0.08 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) and the treated water ($0.920 \pm 0.011 \text{ mg PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P/L}$) were very similar. These results confirm that hydrogen is essential for the removal of orthophosphate by the tricking filter.

3.3. Orthophosphate removal is biologically driven

Orthophosphate removal in the reactor might be driven by other removal principles than through biological activity. For instance, the iron which is present in the recycling liquid to stimulate hydrogen oxidation has a phosphate adsorbing capacity (Schink and Schlegel, 1978). To further confirm that orthophosphate was biologically removed, the total amount of removed orthophosphate ($\text{PO}_4^{-3}\text{-P}$) was compared with the total amount of phosphorus present in the HOB biomass. Because the amount of biomass present on the trickling filter cannot be accurately measured, nitrogen consumption was used to predict the amount of produced biomass. Nitrification was not detected, and hence ammonium and nitrate removal can only be explained by cell uptake. Elemental analysis was performed to determine nitrogen ($1 \text{ mol biomass} = 0.177 \text{ mol N}$) and phosphorus ($\text{biomass} = 1.25\% \text{ P}$) present in the biomass. A determined biomass formula was used over other empirical formula to allow for accurate estimations. The relation between the amount of phosphorus that was removed and the estimated amount of phosphorus present in the biomass was investigated. The linear relation between the two parameters supports the hypothesis of a biologically driven removal process. Further evidence that supports this expectation was provided by the observation that without biofilm or with inactivated biofilm on the carrier material, the orthophosphate removal capacity is inevitably hampered (orthophosphate removal below 5%).

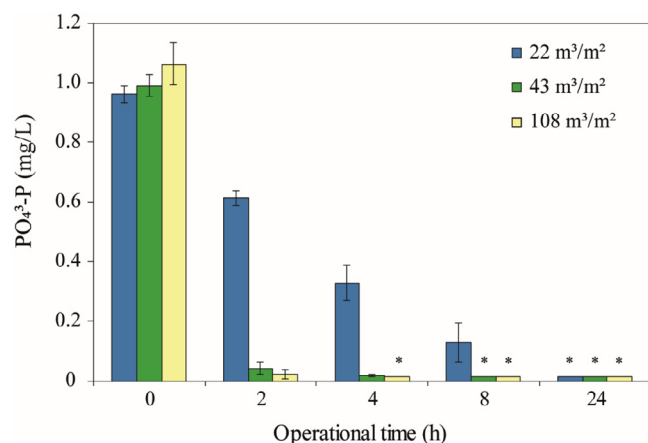


Fig. 3. Residual orthophosphate concentration (mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$) over time. Experiments were performed in fed batch mode for three distinct ratios of biofilm surface area/ water volume to be treated, 22 (blue), 43 (green) and 108 (yellow) m^2/m^3 ($n = 6$). Orthophosphate concentrations below the normal detection limit (< 0.020 mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$) are marked with asterisks. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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

Based on the assumption that the efficiency of the phosphorus removal process is directly related to the amount of active biofilm – expressed in this section as the available surface area for biofilm growth – a set of experiments was performed to determine the effect of the ratio of biofilm surface area to recycling liquid volume on the orthophosphate removal rate. Fig. 3 shows the average removal of orthophosphate ($\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$) by the hydrogenotrophic biofilm for a fed batch water contact volume of 10, 5 and 2 L which corresponds to 22, 43 and 108 m^2/m^3 water, respectively. For all tested ratios, a concentration below 0.020 mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$ was reached within a period of 24 h, while the set orthophosphate concentration of the untreated water was not changed. Orthophosphate removal rates, however, increased up to a factor 10 from 0.94 ± 0.01 to 11.32 ± 0.43 mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L.d}$ as the recycling volume decreased (Table 1). By increasing the ratio of biofilm surface to the treated water volume, the operational time was decreased to two hours whilst the residual orthophosphate concentration was kept below the detection limit. It therefore appears that the ratio of recycling liquid to biofilm surface area is a parameter that can be used for process optimization according the required demands. It could also be that the wetting efficiency of the biomass was not optimal. Under the tested conditions, the lower the volume of liquid the higher was the contact opportunity between the liquid and the biofilm.

3.5. Bacterial community composition

For all experiments, the bacterial community composition of the biofilm was determined using Illumina MiSeq sequencing. After sequence data processing, an average (\pm standard deviation) of 40305 ± 4888 reads were obtained per sample distributed across 1143

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 $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$)	0.946 ± 0.012	0.989 ± 0.037	1.06 ± 0.071
Residual orthophosphate (mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$)	0.008 ± 0.009	0.008 ± 0.009	0.008 ± 0.009
Orthophosphate Removal rate (mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L.d}$)	0.94 ± 0.01	7.20 ± 0.28	11.23 ± 0.43
Orthophosphate Removal rate (mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/m}^2.\text{d}$)	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

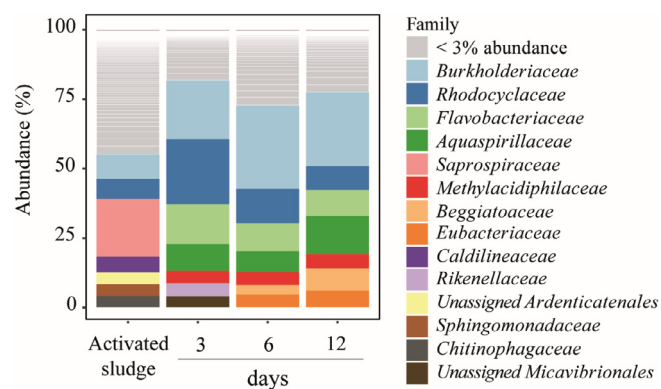


Fig. 4. Bacterial community structure. Structure is presented as relative abundance of bacterial families, where families comprising less than 3% of sequence reads in each sample are pooled and unspecified.

ASVs. The subsequently rarefied dataset filtered to retain bacterial ASVs comprising $> 0.1\%$ in at least one of the samples comprised 330 ASVs across samples, covering 19 phyla, 34 classes, 69 orders, and 98 families. The acquired sequencing depth was sufficient to sample the bacterial diversity in all four samples (Fig. 4). Dominant bacterial families appear enriched from non-dominating members of the activated sludge community. This microbial analysis shows a selection towards a specialized community that evolved to stability as the reactor system continued to be fed batch operated over time. The specialized community is dominated by members of the families *Burkholderiaceae*, *Flavobacteriaceae*, *Rhodocyclaceae*. and *Aquaspirillaceae*, three of which have been identified as hydrogen oxidizers by (Schink and Schlegel, 1978) in their study on hydrogen metabolism.

3.6. Treated water does not support cyanobacterial growth

Experiments were conducted to (1) confirm that the treated water no longer supports cyanobacterial growth and (2) explore whether this inability to grow can be explained by the absence of phosphorus. For this purpose, seven treated water samples that were obtained from independent trickling filter experiments were inoculated with the cyanobacteria *Synechocystis* sp (PCC 6803). As depicted in Fig. 5, all of the tested treated water samples as well as the tap water control samples did not support cyanobacterial growth. Growth was only observed in untreated water samples. The addition of 1 mg $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P/L}$ to the treated water samples, which restored the orthophosphate concentration to that of the untreated water, did not promote growth either. This observation suggests that besides phosphorus another nutrient or nutrients were removed from the water matrix to levels that prevent algal growth. Indeed, 70% of the available iron and 100% of the available copper were removed during the orthophosphate removal process. Although their importance as a limiting factor of cyanobacterial growth is unclear, there is evidence such metals are used in a wide range of cell processes and thus we hypothesized their removal might explain the absence of cyanobacterial growth even when the treated water was resupplied with orthophosphate.

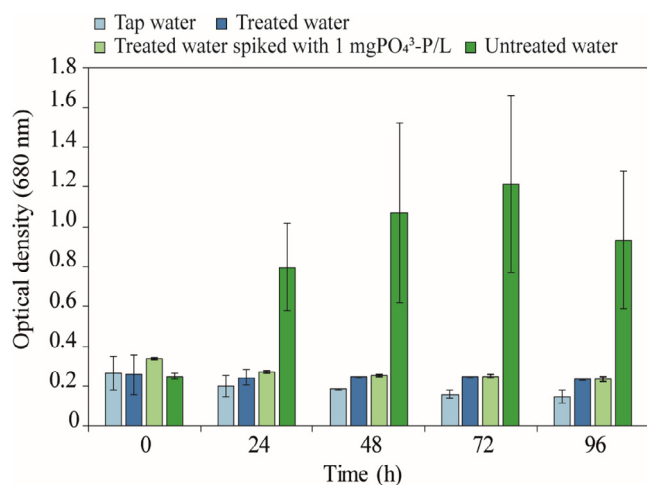


Fig. 5. Biostability assay. Tap water (negative control), untreated water (positive control), treated water and treated water spiked with 1 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L were inoculated with cyanobacteria PCC6803. Growth was evaluated by daily optical density measurements at 680 nm (n = 7).

3.7. Comparison with other orthophosphate removal strategies

Orthophosphate concentrations obtained in this study (in average 0.008 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L), are comparable to the ones obtained by chemical precipitation. Newcombe et al. (2008) for instance have reported an average concentration of 0.011 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L by co-precipitation with iron. Physical adsorption strategies have also been reported to reach concentrations lower than 0.01 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L (Genz et al., 2004; Luo et al., 2016).

When enhanced biological phosphorus removal (EPBR) (Blackall et al., 2002; Boelee et al., 2011; De Vleeschauwer et al., 2019) is used, residual orthophosphate concentrations of 0.500 to 0.100 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L are reported. These values are at least 10 times higher relative to the residual concentrations reported in this work. Algae base technologies have the potential to reach ultra-low nutrient loading (Gardner-Dale et al., 2017). Submerged aquatic based vegetation wetlands have been shown to reach concentrations as low as 0.023 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L (Dierberg et al., 2002; Healy et al., 2007).

3.8. Towards circularity: Recovery and reuse of phosphorus

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

3.9. Practical implications and outlook

This paper presents a novel biological strategy to remove

orthophosphate down to levels below 0.010 mg/L, with the ultimate goal of preventing the regrowth of cyanobacteria in surface water. It should be noted that the scope of this study is limited to the proof-of-concept for the removal of soluble reactive phosphorus (orthophosphate). Phosphorus, however, is not always present in water matrices in the soluble reactive form (eg. 1 mg PO₄³⁻-P /L as used in this proof of concept). Non-reactive forms of phosphorus can indeed be converted to reactive forms leading to new eutrophication events. In addition, scenarios with high process flow rates (e.g., large rivers) and low initial total phosphorus concentrations present a considerable challenge. As such, the practicality of the hydrogenotrophic phosphorus removal should be further explored by monitoring both soluble and total phosphorus and by testing the reactor with decreasing phosphorus concentrations in continuous mode of operation over a long time.

4. Conclusions

Hydrogen oxidizing bacteria are shown to have the ability to remove orthophosphate down to levels below 0.01 mg PO₄³⁻-P/L. An orthophosphate removal efficiency of 98 ± 2% and an orthophosphate removal rate of 11.32 ± 0.43 mg/L.h were reached for a ratio of biofilm surface area to treated liquid of 108 m²/m³. Treated water is shown not to support algae growth even when re-spiked with orthophosphate. The microbial analysis shows a selection towards a specialized HOB community that evolved to stability.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Raquel G. Barbosa: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Tom Sleutels:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing. **Willy Verstraete:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing. **Nico Boon:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2020.123494>.

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