

1 **Pretreatment strategies to enhance the biodegradability of waste activated sludge: Focusing on**
2 **the conversion of refractory substances**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Anaerobic digestion (AD) is a low-cost technology widely used to divert waste activated sludge
25 (WAS) to renewable energy production, but is generally restricted by its poor biodegradability which
26 mainly caused by the endogenous and exogenous refractory substances present in WAS. Several
27 conventional methods such as thermal-, chemical-, and mechanical-based pretreatment have been
28 demonstrated to be effective on organics release, but their functions on refractory substances
29 conversion are overlooked. This paper firstly reviewed the presence and role of endogenous and
30 exogenous refractory substances in anaerobic biodegradability of WAS, especially on their inhibition
31 mechanisms. Then, the pretreatment strategies developed for enhancing WAS biodegradability by
32 facilitating refractory substances conversion were comprehensive reviewed, with the conversion
33 pathways and underlying mechanisms being emphasized. Finally, the future research needs were
34 directed to improve the circular bioeconomy of WAS management from the point of removing the
35 hindering barrier of refractory substances on WAS anaerobic biodegradability.

36

37 **Keywords:** Waste activated sludge; Anaerobic digestion; Biodegradability; Refractory substances;
38 Pretreatment.

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Activated sludge process has been successfully applied to treat municipal and industrial
41 wastewater for over a century. During this process, waste activated sludge (WAS) is generated in
42 large quantities as an unavoidable by-product. The annual production of WAS is reported to reach 70
43 million tons (80% moisture) by 2025, and this value will continue to increase as the population
44 grows, water quality standards improve, and sludge treatment technologies slowly upgrade (Xu et al.,
45 2022). Different from the construction waste, WAS contains huge amounts of organic substances
46 such as protein and carbohydrate. Different from the food waste, WAS also concentrates some
47 hazardous and noxious substances such as antibiotics, heavy metals, pathogenic bacteria, and
48 microplastics. These properties make WAS both resources and pollutants (Xu et al., 2020b;
49 Syafiuddin and Boopathy, 2021). Actually, the organic matter in sludge is not independent and they
50 can interact with each other or with other inorganic compounds, leading to variations in the
51 characteristics of the organic matter and even altering hydrolysis and biogas conversion (Gonzalez et
52 al., 2018; Yan et al., 2022). Considering the goals to recover resources and to reduce carbon
53 footprints during WAS management, cutting-edge research studies on traditional and novel processes
54 driven by circular bioeconomy concept are undergoing (Mannina et al., 2022).

55 Anaerobic digestion (AD), one of the such traditional process can simultaneously transfer organic
56 substances into renewable energy production and weaken the concentration and toxicity of hazardous
57 substances, might play a vital role in circular bioeconomy of WAS management (Liu et al., 2019e;
58 Wang et al., 2018a). It was demonstrated that AD process can synchronously achieve the purposes of
59 energy recovery, pathogen inactivation and pollutant degradation (Ariunbaatar et al., 2014; Chen et
60 al., 2022). Biomass plays an important role as a zero-carbon renewable energy source, and its

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61 utilization by AD will become one of the key strategies to realize the aim of carbon neutralization.

62 For all this, AD process is not driven by the mechanical and chemical energy but by the metabolic
63 activity of hydrolytic microbes, acid-producing bacteria, and CO₂-dependent and/or acetate-
64 dependent methanogens, and is therefore susceptible to adverse factors such as control conditions,
65 functional microbial performance, etc. (Liu et al., 2021a; Zhu et al., 2021). In addition, its poor
66 biodegradability is mainly caused by the presence of endogenous and exogenous refractory
67 substances in WAS, which is particularly affected by the content and property of endogenous and
68 exogenous refractory substances (Xu et al., 2022; Fan et al., 2022).

69 Although several conventional methods such as thermal-, chemical-, and mechanical-based
70 pretreatment have been demonstrated to be effective for organics release, however none of them are
71 targeted (Carrere et al., 2010; Park et al., 2022; Balasundaram et al., 2022). This has led them to
72 become cost-intensive due to high energy and chemical requirements, as well as passive
73 environmental-consequences such as higher-net carbon dioxide emission. For instance, Xue et al.
74 (2015) found that thermal pretreatment promoted sludge solubilization and volatile suspended solids
75 (VSS) reduction greatly, but failed to improve methane production. Wilson and Novak (2009) also
76 observed that thermal treatment increased sludge hydrolysis, but when the temperature exceeds
77 180 °C, the Maillard effect occurred and refractory organic compounds were further produced, which
78 was detrimental to subsequent sludge treatment. In contrast to proteins and polysaccharides, the
79 endogenous and exogenous refractory substances are not only difficult to degrade but also toxic to
80 anaerobic functional microorganisms (Xu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2020). It seems more urgent to
81 target these refractory substances, such as changing their structure to improve their bioavailability
82 and reducing their toxicity to functional microorganisms, which may also be more effective in

83 improving the efficiency of AD.

84 This paper firstly reviewed the presence and role of endogenous and exogenous refractory
85 substances in anaerobic biodegradability of WAS, especially on their inhibition mechanisms. Then,
86 the pretreatment strategies developed for enhancing WAS biodegradability by facilitating refractory
87 substances conversion were comprehensive reviewed, with the conversion pathways and underlying
88 mechanisms being emphasized. Finally, the future research needs were directed to improve the
89 circular bioeconomy of WAS management from the point of removing the hindering barrier of
90 refractory substances on WAS anaerobic biodegradability. The results obtained will provide a deeper
91 understanding of the inhibitory effects and mechanisms derived from the refractory substances in
92 WAS, and are expected to guide the development of effective strategies to mitigate the negative
93 effects of refractory substances in the future.

94 **2. Refractory substances present in WAS**

95 WAS are composed mainly of the cells of various microorganisms, extracellular polymeric
96 substances (EPS), adsorbed inorganic, organic substances and the majority of water (Cao et al.,
97 2021). Due to the complexity of wastewater influent and the diversity of biological treatment
98 processes, WAS generated from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) is of complex composition,
99 usually containing refractory residues of some biochemical and chemical-refractory compounds (Fig.
100 1), which reduce the biodegradability of WAS. Hence, it is vital to understand the refractory
101 substances (including endogenous and exogenous refractory substances) present in WAS, to provide
102 a necessary reference for further research of WAS.

103 **2.1. Main endogenous refractory substances present in WAS**

104 **2.1.1. Lignocellulose**

105 Lignocellulose, which originates from the residuals of exogenous materials (including latrine

106 waste, vegetable leftovers, and leaves) in the wastewater influents, accounts for about 40% at WAS
107 of the total organic matter (Li et al., 2018; Wilen et al., 2003). It mainly consists of lignin (0-40%)
108 and holocellulose (hemicellulose (0-85%) and cellulose (15-99%)) (Li et al., 2018). Among them,
109 both cellulose and hemicellulose have anaerobic biodegradability when they exist independently, and
110 hemicellulose is more easily hydrolyzed, while lignin is the main refractory substance and accounts
111 for about 16% of the total organic matter in WAS (He et al., 2022). These components in WAS are
112 usually interconnected by different kinds of bonds, forming a dense structure of cellulose-
113 hemicellulose-lignin complex, which has extreme resistance to the overall biodegradability of
114 lignocellulose and hinders the energy conversion of biosolids (Chandra et al., 2012; Feng and Lin,
115 2017).

116 Lignin has a very complex amorphous three-dimensional long-chain aromatic polymer composed of
117 p-coumaryl, coniferyl and sinapyl alcohol (three phenyl propane units), which are linked by various
118 bonds (Frommhagen et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2020). Furthermore, as an impermeable/resistant layer,
119 lignin forms the structural support which forms a protective barrier against lignocellulosic biomass
120 and prevents the biodegradation of lignocellulose (Chandra et al., 2012). In general, lignin is more
121 difficult to biodegrade in anaerobic environment than in aerobic environment (Feofilova and
122 Mysyakina, 2016; Mishra and Wimmer, 2017). At present, some studies have reported that lignin
123 can affect the anaerobic biochemical process. For example, Mustafa et al. (2016) found that the
124 methane production was negatively affected by lignin from lignocellulosic biomass.

125 **2.1.2. Humic substances**

126 Humic substances are the highly transformed part of non-living natural organic matter
127 (Lipczynska-Kochany, 2018). Actual humic substances contained in the WAS are commonly

128 described as supramolecular associations of several relatively low molecular weight components,
129 which are connected by hydrophobic interactions and hydrogen bonds (H-bonds), and whose content
130 (15-42% of the total organic matter) depends mainly on the WWTPs (Table 1) (Liang et al., 2021;
131 Lipczynska-Kochany, 2018). More specifically, Lurie and Rebhun (1997) indicated that humic
132 substances are complex mixtures of polyaliphatic and polyaromatic compounds, the main
133 components are alkyl or aromatic unit skeletons cross-linked by oxygen and nitrogen atoms of
134 carboxyl, phenol and alcohol hydroxyl, ketone and quinone functional groups (Lipczynska-Kochany,
135 2018).

136 Based on water solubility, humic substances are classified into humic acids (HA), insoluble at
137 acidic water (pH < 2) but soluble in alkaline conditions; fulvic acids, soluble at any pH levels in
138 water; humin, insoluble at all pH levels in water (Sutton and Sposito, 2005). Humic substances have
139 been identified as inhibitory compounds that critically inhibit the biodegradability or bioavailability
140 of WAS (Azman et al., 2017).

141 2.1.3. Alginate

142 Alginate in EPS is a type of uronic acid, which is a major but often overlooked polymer associated
143 with the difficult hydrolysis of WAS, accounting for approximately 7% w/w of the organic matter in
144 WAS (Geng et al., 2021). Alginate is considered as a complete family of linear copolymers with
145 different chemical structures containing blocks of (1,4)-linked β -d-mannuronate (M) and α -l-
146 guluronate (G) residues (Lee and Mooney, 2012). Recent studies have reported that the gel-like
147 materials in WAS which called structural extracellular polymeric substances (St-EPS) was formed by
148 alginate isomers of glucuronic acid and polygalacturonic acid (Zhang et al., 2021). In addition,
149 exopolysaccharides are considered to be key elements in shaping biofilms and providing structural

150 supports to them, and are highly correlated with the structure of the sludge matrix (Felz et al., 2019).

151 While, hydrolysis of EPS in WAS is a rate-limiting step in AD, mainly depending on the resistance

152 of EPS to degradation (Dai et al., 2020). Thus, alginate-like EPS could be involved in the basic

153 structures of sludge, and closely associated with the biodegradability of sludge.

154 **2.2. Main exogenous refractory substances present in WAS**

155 **2.2.1. Polymer flocculants**

156 Polymer flocculants are widely used in WWTPs to significantly improve the performance of

157 wastewater purification and sludge dewatering (Wei et al., 2018). In these processes, large amounts

158 of flocculants are highly enriched by WAS as exogenous pollutants during biological wastewater

159 treatment (Wang et al., 2018b). For example, cationic polyacrylamide (cPAM) concentrations have

160 been reported to be 2.5-10 g/kg of dry sludge in dewatered sludge due to the heavy use of cPAM in

161 the mechanical dewatering process (Liu et al., 2019d).

162 Among the widely used polymeric flocculants, polymer flocculants (e.g., chitosan and

163 polyacrylamide) can be partially degraded by anaerobic bacteria, but their degradation persistence

164 (the half-life of chitosan was about 61.4 days) is much higher compared to the inherent organic

165 matter (Liu et al., 2021a; Wang et al., 2018b). Consequently, such flocculants concentrated by WAS

166 may affect the series of bio-conversions including lysis, hydrolysis, acidogenesis, and

167 methanogenesis, and thus constitute a potential threat to the AD performance (Appels et al., 2008;

168 Luo et al., 2020). For example, 12 g/kg TSS cationic polyacrylamide reduced the maximum

169 methane production by 37.67% and prolonged the digestion time from 22 to 26 days (Wang et al.

170 (2018b). Poly ferric sulfate showed a similar phenomenon for AD of WAS. As the concentration of

171 poly ferric sulfate increased to 40 g/kg TS, the cumulative methane yield decreased to 56.7% of the

172 control, and the lag time prolonged by 237.0% (Liu et al., 2021c). Furthermore, the inhibition of
173 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis by ferric polymeric sulfate was found to be much more severe
174 than that of acetotrophic methanogenesis. Liu et al. (2021a) found that chitosan at 8, 16 and 32 g/kg
175 TSS decreased methane production from 166.3 to 154.3, 139.5 and 115.8 mL/g VS.

176 **2.2.2. Pharmaceuticals and personal care products**

177 Pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) such as antibiotics and antimicrobials are
178 highly accumulated in WAS due to heavy usage and persistence nature (Huang et al., 2019; Kim et
179 al., 2013). Currently, over half of the world's antibiotics used worldwide are used in livestock,
180 however, these antibiotics inevitably enter into sewage sludge through excretion due to the high
181 dosage concentration and the low absorption and utilization capacity of humans and animals (Le-
182 Minh et al., 2010). For example, Chlortetracycline (CTC), a class of tetracycline antibiotics, was as
183 high as 34.2 mg/kg TSS in WAS (Puicharla et al., 2014). Clarithromycin, a 14-membered ring
184 macrolide antibiotic, accumulated in WAS at concentration levels up to 67 mg/kg dry sludge
185 (Verlicchi and Zambello, 2015). In addition, it has been reported that >90% of triclosan can be
186 removed by adsorption or biodegradation during wastewater treatment, however most of it would
187 enter into the WAS and can be detected at concentrations as high as 0.028-37.189 mg/kg TSS (Butler
188 et al., 2012). Previous studies reported that about 79% of triclocarban (TCC) removed by WWTPs
189 was transferred to solids, and only about 18% of TCC was degraded by nitrification-denitrification
190 processes, leaving a residual of about 4.15 ± 0.77 kg/d in WAS (Lozano et al., 2013). Moreover, due
191 to the low biodegradability, antibiotics and antimicrobials enriched in WAS could affect the
192 reduction and resource recovery of WAS.

193 **2.2.3. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon**

194 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), the representative persistent organic pollutants with
195 two or more aromatic-fused rings, are commonly found in WAS. Typically, PAHs enter into WWTPs
196 with industrial wastewater, and are enriched in WAS after wastewater treatment due to
197 hydrophobicity (Larsen et al., 2009; Siebielska and Sidelko, 2015). Several typical PAHs including
198 naphthalene, acenaphthene, phenanthrene, anthracene, fluorene, and chrysene, were reported to be
199 detected in WAS at concentrations of 22.4, 17.6, 95.3, 6.1, 3.3, and 12.5 mg/kg dry sludge,
200 respectively (Luo et al., 2016).

201 The persistence of PAHs depends on various factors (e.g., concentration, structure, dispersibility,
202 bioavailability), but generally, the environmental persistence of PAHs is positively correlated with
203 their molecular weight, hydrophobicity, and toxicity (Bamforth and Singleton, 2005). Recent studies
204 have shown the potential for biodegradation of PAHs in sludge under anaerobic conditions.
205 Phenanthrene, a representative PAHs, was partially degraded (47.5%) by anaerobic fermentation at a
206 dose of 100 mg/kg dry sludge (Luo et al., 2016). However, the biodegradation of anaerobic PAHs in
207 sewage sludge is usually limited and its degradation rate depends on the active anaerobic bacterial
208 population (Larsen et al., 2009). Chang et al. (2003) found that compared to municipal sludge
209 samples, PAHs degradation rates in petrochemical sludge samples were usually faster, which may be
210 due to the presence of more PAH-degrading autochthonous microorganisms. Moreover, PAHs
211 degradation is also influenced by the conditions of methanogenic, sulfate-reducing and nitrate-
212 reducing (Chang et al., 2003).

213 **3. Adverse effects of refractory substances on anaerobic biodegradability of WAS**

214 AD has been widely used to recover energy from WAS, but the presence of exogenous and
215 endogenous refractory substances in WAS usually limits its application. Therefore, it is essential to

216 evaluate the impacts of these exogenous and endogenous refractory substances on AD of WAS,
217 especially their inhibition mechanisms (Fig. 2), to provide a theoretical basis for strategies to
218 enhance the biodegradation of WAS.

219 **3.1. Lignocellulose**

220 The components of lignocellulose (cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin) have different effects on
221 AD. Li et al. (2018) found that cellulose has a higher biomethane potential than hemicellulose and
222 their co-digestion has a synergistic effect to produce more methane. However, lignin is almost
223 undegradable under anaerobic conditions and also reduces the production of methane from
224 holocellulose. The lignin content of lignocellulose is negatively correlated with methane production
225 from AD. It has been indicated that the methane potential of AD of phytoplankton with lower lignin
226 concentration is high, and lignin above 100 g/kg VS causes a significant decrease in biochemical
227 methane potential (Triolo et al., 2012). He et al. (2022) found that in WAS anaerobic fermentation,
228 lignin inhibited methane production which reduced the consumption of short-chain fatty acids
229 (SCFAs), resulting in the accumulated SCFAs.

230 As mentioned above, although cellulose and hemicellulose are hydrolysable, they tend to be
231 covered by lignin in lignocellulose, forming a stable composite structure that not only prevents from
232 enzymatic attack, but also increases the mass transfer resistance of sludge, which reduces
233 bioconversion efficiency of lignocellulose (Li et al., 2021a). Therefore, understanding the
234 mechanisms of lignin on WAS anaerobic biodegradability becomes essential. Previous studies have
235 found that lignin could inhibit both hydrolysis and methanogenesis processes and that
236 methanogenesis is more vulnerable to the adverse effects of lignin (He et al., 2022). In the anaerobic
237 conditions, lignin inhibits the hydrolysis process by the formation of a protective layer that prevents

238 enzyme entry, and by irreversibly/reversibly binding to the enzyme due to its inherent
239 hydrophobicity, affecting the protein structure of the enzyme (Ju et al., 2013). In addition, since its
240 possesses numerous quinone structures, lignin could receive the remaining electrons in the system,
241 which act as an active terminal electron acceptor, thus preventing the conversion of acetate to
242 methane (Li et al., 2018). In general, as shown in Fig. 2, the inhibition of lignin on WAS anaerobic
243 biodegradability is mainly caused by the pathways of improving mass transfer resistance,
244 ectoenzymes competition, endoenzymes active sites encroachment, and means electrons competition.

245 3.2. Humic substances

246 Humic substances such as HA, are refractory macromolecular organic compounds, and their
247 presence limits the conversion of organics to methane. Humic substances represent a high
248 proportion in WAS and have been shown to inhibit the hydrolysis of organics, for instance, Brons et
249 al. (1985) discovered that adding 250 mg per liter of humate inhibited protein hydrolysis. In
250 addition, several studies have reported that HA is an inhibitory compound for hydrolysis and
251 methanogenic processes in AD. For example, Liu et al. (2015) found that SHHA (a commercially
252 available HA) in WAS anaerobic fermentation at 1.0 g/g-sludge inhibited methane up to 97%, thus
253 the accumulation of SCFAs. Li et al. (2019a) observed in batch digestion experiments that biogas
254 production decreased with increasing HA, and an increase in HA:VSS to 15% resulted in a 35.1%
255 inhibition level of biogas production. Semi-continuous experiments of WAS anaerobic digestion
256 showed that HA could reduce methane production rate and prolong lag phase time (Li et al., 2019b).

257 The combined action of multiple factors led to the influence of HA on WAS anaerobic
258 biodegradation (Fig.2). From the perspective of sludge structure, HA could interact with sludge
259 particles to form a dense structure to enhance the stability of the organic matter structure in sludge,

260 thus increasing the mass transfer resistance of sludge. Moreover, HA could change the spatial
261 configuration of extracellular organic substances, leading to a reduction in the active site of WAS,
262 thus enhancing the ectoenzymes competition (Xu et al., 2020a). From the perspective of enzymes,
263 HA could reduce the activity of key enzymes, such as α -amylase, protease, F₄₂₀ enzyme, thereby
264 promoted competition between other co-cultured bacteria and functional bacteria (including
265 hydrolysis, acidogenesis, methanogenic bacteria) (Li et al., 2019b). In addition, HA has covalent
266 bonds and sweep flocculation interactions with the enzyme, and at high HA levels, the predominant
267 interactions irreversibly turn into covalent bonds, leading to a strong negative effect on hydrolysis
268 (Fernandes et al., 2015). From the perspective of electron transfer system, HA could play as a
269 terminal electron acceptor that receives electrons directly from acetate, thus improving the
270 ectoenzymes competition (Li et al., 2019a). Furthermore, HA could easily cross the outer cell
271 membrane of hydrogenotrophic methanogenic bacteria, destabilizing the cells and leading to cell
272 inactivation (Khadem et al., 2017).

273 3.3. Alginate

274 Alginate, a typical St-EPS component, is an important endogenous refractory substance in WAS.
275 Generally, EPS, the main organics (20%-50%) in WAS, contain carboxyl, hydroxyl and other
276 functional groups, which can combine with bivalent cations (Ca^{2+}) commonly found in wastewater,
277 and form stable EPS structure through aggregating and flocculating, resulting in slow hydrolysis of
278 WAS and low AD efficiency (Li et al., 2012; Qian et al., 2021). Notably, alginate has a GG block
279 (i.e., a dimer of G) that can act as an ionic bridge between divalent cations and other glyoxylates
280 (Geng et al., 2021). Although the effects of alginate on WAS anaerobic digestion has not been
281 systematically studied, it is found that anaerobic alginate hydrolytic bacteria (AHB) are rarely

282 enriched in anaerobic reactors, resulting in difficult conversion of alginate. [Qian et al. \(2021\)](#) found
283 that the enrichment of alginate-degrading microbial consortium (ADC) which could excrete alginate
284 lyase by *Algibacter lectus* and *Bacteroides* sp, can be used for highly selective fermentation of WAS.
285 [Zhang et al. \(2019\)](#) showed that extracted EPS could be used by ADC for methane production with
286 acetate as the main intermediate, resulting in a 115%-185% increase in methane production. It is
287 worth noting that these studies on mixed culture promoting the conversion of alginate and isomer in
288 St-EPS contribute to methane and/or SCFAs production from WAS as valuable biochemical
289 products, but it is seldom reported.

290 **3.4 Polymer flocculants**

291 Flocculants, which are abundant in WAS due to their widespread use in wastewater management
292 and sludge dewatering, but can adversely affect the AD efficiency. For example, cPAM has been
293 found that not only decelerate the AD process, but also about 46% of this is degraded, and the major
294 degradation products, including polyacrylic acid, acrylamide and acrylic acid, inhibit all dissolution,
295 hydrolysis, acidogenesis and methanogenesis processes, thereby reduced methane production ([Wang
296 et al., 2018b](#)).

297 Research has reported that polymeric flocculants could alter sludge particle size and specific
298 surface area, creating a "cage" effect to increase the mass transfer resistance between anaerobic
299 bacteria/hydrolytic enzymes and the sludge matrix ([Lin et al., 2017](#); [Luo et al., 2020](#)). A study on
300 polymeric flocculants showed that chitosan could inhibit EPS secretion and reduce anaerobic
301 bacterial activity by occupation of indigenous carbohydrate linkages sites ([Liu et al., 2021a](#)). The
302 presence of cationic polyacrylamide and poly ferric sulfate significantly reduced the relative
303 activities of protease, acetate kinase and coenzyme F₄₂₀, resulting in the inhibition of methane

304 production (Fig.2) (Liu et al., 2021c; Wang et al., 2018b). In addition, the presence of poly ferric
305 sulfate also increases the production of H₂S, which is toxic to methanogenic bacteria.

306 **3.5 Pharmaceuticals and personal care products**

307 Antibiotics and antimicrobial agents are known to be detrimental to microbial growth and
308 metabolism, and their presence may therefore adversely affect AD. Several studies have shown that
309 macrolide antibiotics could inhibit WAS anaerobic digestion. For example, it has been observed that
310 rhodopsin at 1000 µg/L reduced the maximum cumulative methane yield from AD by 7.7% as well
311 as the methane production rate by 15.7% (Ni et al. (2020). The maximum methane production rate
312 was reduced by 46.2% with an increase in the clarithromycin concentration from 0 to 2000 mg/kg
313 (Huang et al., 2020). And the effect of other antibiotics such as triclosan on methane production
314 showed a dose-dependent effect. Triclosan at low concentrations had little effect on methane
315 production and as concentrations increased to 1000 and 1500 mg/kg TSS accumulated methane
316 production decreased by 8% and 13.2%, respectively (Wang et al., 2020). Although norfloxacin and
317 sulfamethazine had little effect on methane yield, they depressed the methane production rate (Zhao
318 et al., 2019). Methane production was almost completely inhibited by benzalkonium chloride (a
319 non-oxidizing antimicrobial agent) at a level of 100 mg /L (Flores et al., 2015).

320 Among all kinds of microorganisms, methanogenic bacteria are more susceptible to these
321 contaminants. CTC could inhibit methanogenesis by increasing acetate kinase activity to stimulate
322 acidification and decreasing F₄₂₀ activity in WAS anaerobic biochemical reactions (Tang et al.,
323 2021b). Roxithromycin only significantly inhibited acidogenesis and methanogenesis processes in
324 AD of WAS, while clarithromycin and triclosan had negative effects on hydrolysis, acidification,
325 acetic acid production and methanogenic processes (Huang et al., 2020; Ni et al., 2020; Wang et al.,

326 [2020](#)). Roxithromycin may also bind to peptidyl transferase in 23S rRNA, blocking transpeptide
327 action and mRNA translocation, inhibiting protein synthesis, thus affecting the normal growth of
328 microorganisms ([Sibert et al., 1979](#)). Competition between bacteria and methanogenic bacteria is
329 one of the reasons for methane inhibition by clarithromycin. In addition, many antimicrobial agents
330 have hydrophobic/hydrophilic termini similar to those of surfactants ([Luo et al., 2019](#)). The
331 extraordinary hydrophobicity of the cytoplasmic membrane of methanogens leads to their
332 vulnerability to these contaminants ([Luo et al., 2020](#)). The proton motive force for ATP production
333 in methanogenic archaea is also susceptible to negative effects, leading to significant inhibition of
334 methane production. It is worth noting that PPCPs (such as roxithromycin and clarithromycin), have
335 been shown to promote the proliferation of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) in WAS, and
336 environmental risks need to be considered in practice ([Zeng et al., 2021](#)).

337 **3.6 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon**

338 Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) enter the WWTP with industrial wastewater, resulting in large
339 quantities of POPs, including PAHs and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) remained in WAS, which
340 may affect anaerobic bacteria in ([Feng et al., 2015](#)). PAHs were discovered to inhibit the
341 methanogenic process during the anaerobic fermentation of WAS, inhibited the conversion of SCFAs
342 to methane, and promoted acidification, resulting in increased production of SCFAs ([Luo et al.](#)
343 [\(2016\)](#). [Yang et al. \(2019b\)](#) demonstrated that methane production decreased with increasing PCBs,
344 and 100 mg PCB/kg DS significantly decreased methane production by 26.6%. PAHs could enhance
345 the activity of key enzymes involved in acetate production (phosphotransacetylase and acetate
346 kinase) and increase the number of genes encoding them, thereby inhibited the conversion of SCFAs
347 into methane ([Luo et al., 2016](#)). Unfortunately, information on the underlying mechanism of PAHs

348 inhibition of methane yield from AD of WAS is still lacking, further research is needed in the future
349 ([Yang et al., 2019b](#)).

350 **4. Pretreatment strategies for enhancing WAS biodegradability by facilitating refractory** 351 **substances conversion**

352 In the field of sludge treatment, AD has the merits of reducing WAS production and recovering
353 methane as bioenergy, but this process is significantly affected by the poor biodegradability of WAS,
354 which pose a challenge for sludge reduction and stabilization. In recent years, to enhance the WAS
355 biodegradability, various pretreatment strategies for facilitating refractory substances conversion
356 have been previously proposed ([Fig.3](#)) ([Liu et al., 2019a](#); [Akbay et al., 2021](#); [Balasundaram et al.,](#)
357 [2022](#)), which provide insights for improving the efficiency of WAS utilization in practical
358 engineering.

359 **4.1. Physical-based pretreatment**

360 **4.1.1 Microwave pretreatment**

361 Microwave pretreatment can effectively disintegrate sludge flocs and break cells, and achieve
362 higher degradation efficiency of refractory organic matter and excellent biomethane production. For,
363 example, [Liu et al. \(2019a\)](#) utilized a 12-min microwave to treat PAM reactor and found that after 30
364 days, the viscosity decreased significantly (from 6.97 ± 0.30 to 5.40 ± 0.21 mPa/s, 22.5%) and the
365 content of PAM's monomeric acrylamide in digester was only 0.37 ± 0.01 mg/L, which did not lead
366 to the accumulation of acrylamide in the digestion residues. This suggests that microwave
367 irradiation destroys the structure of PAM and makes PAM more easily biodegradable. [Kor-Bicakci](#)
368 [et al. \(2020\)](#) also found that microwave anaerobic digestion can also be used to reduce TCC levels in
369 biosolids.

370 **4.1.2 Ultrasound pretreatment**

371 Ultrasound generates mechanical shear force through cavitation to disrupt cell membranes and
372 release intercellular material in bulk solution. In addition, hydroxyl radicals based on cavitation can
373 decompose many toxic and refractory substances into simpler forms, such as chlorinated
374 hydrocarbons, aromatic compounds, and textile dyes (Chawla et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2021).
375 However, total mineralization of these refractory contaminants is difficult to obtain by ultrasound
376 alone (Vajnhandl and Le Marechal, 2005). Zhang et al. (2022) used 20 kHz for pretreatment of
377 sewage sludge. However, such sonication conditions for sludge pretreatment did not result in
378 polyfluoroalkyl substances degradation. Conversely, the concentrations of perfluorooctanoic acid,
379 perfluoroheptanoic acid, and perfluorohexanoic acid sonication were increased in the liquid phase
380 after long time treatment (> 15 min). It may be that ultrasound reduced the sludge floc binding
381 capacity and promoted the release of these three perfluoroalkyl acids. Therefore, ultrasonication can
382 only improve the biodegradability of sludge by promoting floc breakage, but it does not work on
383 polyfluoroalkyl substances. This conclusion was also confirmed by Zhang and Li (2018).
384 Ultrasound effectively promotes the dissolution of antibiotics, but does not biodegrade the
385 fluoroquinolones that are refractory by themselves. The same is true for the changes of PAHs.
386 Sonication leached PAHs from sludge solids into liquid phase, but the sonication of PAHs was
387 negligible, just a simple phase transition (Oh et al., 2016).

388 **4.1.3 Thermal hydrolysis pretreatment**

389 Thermal hydrolysis (TH) promoted the biodegradation of WAS and released the refractory organic
390 matter carried by the sludge to the WWTP. Slowly biodegradable or non-biodegradable steroids and
391 aromatics are more than 50% dissolved in the digester of the sludge feed after being treated with TH

392 (Lu et al., 2018). It is generally believed that low temperature has little influence on the
393 biodegradability of sludge. Prorot et al. (2011) found biodegradability tests (TH below 100 °C) did
394 not show any improvement of the intrinsic biodegradability after the TH, only the increase of the
395 specific digestion rate was observed. Many researchers have reported optimal temperatures for TH
396 in 160 - 180 °C for max methane production (Jeong et al., 2019). Toutian et al. (2020) found the
397 poorly soluble COD increased with increasing TH temperature. Lu et al. (2018) found that with
398 increasing TH temperature (120 to 172 °C), the concentration of HA was observed to increase
399 significantly. It may be caused by a variety of sources, possibly including the release of HA from
400 sludge disintegration, the conversion of cellulose in the cell wall, the Maillard reaction and
401 polysaccharide hydrolysis. However, the possibility of caramelization of reducing sugars from
402 starch cellulose hydrolysis is very low. This suggests that TH treatment can significantly promote
403 the dissolution of soluble refractory organics in AD effluent, but its improvement biodegradability
404 has not been demonstrated. Generally, TH pretreatment can improve the biodegradability of
405 proteins, carbohydrates, lipids and hemicelluloses during AD, but the biodegradability of cellulose
406 and lignin was negligible because TH treatment cannot destroy cellulose crystal structure and
407 heterogeneity. However, thermal hydrolysis effectively reduced the abundance (> 94%) of almost all
408 subtypes of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) and mobile genetic elements (MGEs). It is a
409 powerful technology for the reduction of tetracyclines, macrolides and lincosamides, which provides
410 the possibility for the transformation of refractory substances and deserves further research (Zhang
411 and Li, 2018).

412 **4.2. Chemical-based pretreatment**

413 **4.2.1 Alkaline pretreatment**

414 Most literature related to alkaline treatment enhances other sludge disintegration technologies
415 by adding alkali to make sludge more susceptible to hydrolysis. Liu et al. (2021b) increased the
416 PAM degradation rate to 80.1% by alkaline pre-fermentation. Alkaline pre-fermentation breaks up
417 the firm "PAM sludge" flocs and reduces the molecular weight of PAM, making it more susceptible
418 to microbial degradation (Fig.3). In addition, the lignin and various uronic acid substitutions can
419 remove by alkaline solution on hemicellulose. The remaining biomass pretreated with 4% alkali for
420 60 minutes showed 46.6% degradation of lignin with 83.2% increase in glucan content (Kaur et al.,
421 2012). However, fluoroquinolones are hardly degraded during AD. The removal rate was lower than
422 42.02%, and the residual fluoroquinolones were mainly adsorbed on the digested sludge. Because
423 the limiting step in reducing fluoroquinolones is biodegradation, desorption of antibiotics does not
424 improve conversion (Zhang and Li, 2018). But it's worth noting that during the alkaline pretreatment
425 of sludge, microorganisms related to anaerobic digestion will deviate from the optimal growth
426 conditions with the increase of system pH, and the structure of EPS will also become unstable with
427 electrostatic action. Hence, the choice of pH for alkaline pretreatment is also critical.

428 4.2.2 Ozonation

429 Ozone, a strong oxidant, can be broken down into free radicals that react directly or indirectly
430 with organics. Refractory substances in sludge can be hydrolyzed by exposing it to highly oxidizing
431 conditions (ozone). As a result, stubborn organic matter will be oxidized to readily biodegradable
432 substances that can be utilized by microorganisms. Li et al. (2021b) observed that ozonation could
433 remove PAHs from sludge. In fact, PAHs adsorbed on the surface of sludge particles were released
434 into the liquid phase during the initial stage of ozonation due to the dissolution of extracellular
435 polymers. Then, the PAHs present in the liquid phase will be degraded again. This suggests that low

436 O₃ concentrations may cause PAHs to be released into wastewater. Thus, the concentration of O₃
437 should be strictly controlled (Lin et al., 2016a). Ozonation can also partially degrade some pollutants
438 (Cheng and Hong, 2013). Wang et al. (2018c) found that ozone pretreatment can lead to efficient
439 degradation of antibiotics in sludge (86.4 - 93.6%), mainly through desorption of the binding part of
440 the sludge and subsequent oxidation of the dissolved part. However, this approach has some
441 drawbacks. For instance, some refractory organic pollutants initially adsorbed on the sludge may be
442 released into the wastewater during the sludge ozonation treatment, resulting in a reduce in effluent
443 quality.

444 4.2.3 Other chemical pretreatment

445 Chemical pretreatment mainly utilizes chemical agents to interact with microorganisms and EPS
446 by various mechanisms. It can not only improve AD performance, but also promote the
447 transformation of refractory pollutants. For example, the addition of calcium peroxide (CaO₂) could
448 break the hydrolysis limit to recover resources such as SCFAs. Wang et al. (2019) found that CaO₂
449 pretreatment promoted the degradation of humus, lignocellulose and other typical refractory
450 organisms (eg, triclocarban, norfloxacin, phenanthrene, diclofenac, and loxazone), which could
451 alleviate the inhibitory effect of recalcitrant organics on anaerobic bacteria. Ping et al. (2018) found
452 that a decrease in non-biodegradable humic substances and an increase in readily biodegradable
453 tryptophan-like proteins after adding CaO₂. Humus-like substances may be oxidized by ·OH or ·O₂⁻
454 produced by CaO₂. Another possible explanation is that the presence of CaO₂ can enhance the
455 biosorption potential since multivalent cations (i.e., Ca) can form bridges with humic acid. Similar
456 phenomena have been observed by many researches using chemical agents. Lu et al. (2022) reduced
457 the content of non-biodegradable substances in total organics using ferric chloride-assisted nitrite

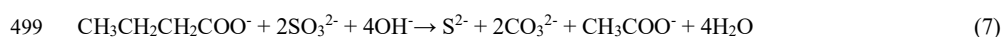
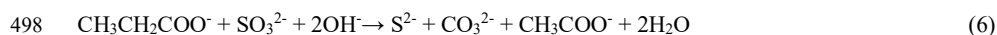
458 pretreatment. [Yuan et al. \(2022\)](#) introduced the reducing/chelating agent ascorbic acid (H₂A) into a
459 conventional zero-valent iron (Fe⁰)/persulfate (PS) process. The generated SO₄^{-•}, O₂^{-•} and •OH were
460 found to degrade refractory organic matter (humus). The formation pathway of SO₄^{-•}, O₂^{-•} and •OH
461 is as follows:



467 [Xu et al. \(2021\)](#) pretreated WAS with KMnO₄ at 0.1 g/g TSS, and SCFAs production was observed
468 to increase 7.4 times from WAS. KMnO₄ reduced the species and concentrations of pollutants,
469 promoted the degradation of lots refractory substances such as humus and lignocellulose, and
470 provided more substances for the production of SCFAs. GC/MS analysis showed that KMnO₄-
471 pretreated humic and lignocellulose produced several small molecular species (such as acids,
472 alkanes, and alcohol organics), some of which were shown to serve as substrates for the production
473 of SCFAs. [Lv et al. \(2021\)](#) found that adding exogenous N-acyl-homoserine lactones (AHLs) can
474 enhance the effectiveness of anaerobic granular sludge by promoting the transformation of refractory
475 organic matter. In addition, emerging organic pollutants (eg, carbamazepine and ibuprofen) often
476 accumulate in sludge. Thermally activated persulfate generated SO₄^{2-•} and •OH, macrolide and
477 tetracycline antibiotics were efficiently decomposed by active radicals (> 80%), while quinolone
478 antibiotics were less efficient ([Tang et al., 2021a](#)). In addition, [Wang et al. \(2022\)](#) added sodium
479 percarbonate (SPC) to pretreat waste activated sludge. The activated SPC promoted the conversion

480 of organic substrates from non-biodegradable to biodegradable, which were further used by
481 functional microorganisms involved in sludge AD for methane production. The pretreatment of SPC
482 oxidation can be completed within 24 h, means that the SPC-based technology has better sludge
483 treatment effect compared with other strategies like CaO₂, KMnO₄, etc. Therefore, economic
484 strategies still need to be considered for practical application, some pretreatment methods can be
485 seen in Table 2.

486 Yang et al. (2019a) used peroxymonosulfate (PMS) as an additive to pretreat WAS, it was found
487 that PMS pretreatment improved the bioavailability of released organics and degraded refractory
488 organics such as cyclopentasiloxane, heptasiloxane and ethylene glycol. Previous studies reported
489 that sulfite pretreatment may destroy the structure of HA in sludge, which mainly through
490 sulfonation reaction. Liu et al. (2020a) used sulfite pretreat WAS, founding that the abundance of
491 some microorganisms associated with refractory substances also increased during pretreatment,
492 which is further conducive to the biodegradation of WAS. In addition, Liu et al. (2020a) found that
493 the reactive derivatives from acidified-sulfite (e.g., H₂SO₃, HSO₃⁻) not only enhanced the abundance
494 of bacteria associated with hydrolysis and acidification (e.g., *Proteiniclasticum* sp., *Alkaliphilus* sp.,
495 *Romboutsia* sp., *Tissierella* sp.), but also induce and stimulate the growth of sulfite reducing bacteria
496 (e.g., *Desulfitispora* sp., *Desulfurivibrio* sp.), which increase the conversion of organics (equations
497 (6) and (7)), and further contributed to the resource utilization of WAS (Fig.3).



500 4.3. Biological-based pretreatment

501 Biological pretreatment is considered as an environmentally friendly technology which is

502 promoted increasingly, providing low-energy input, low-cost disposal and gentler operating
503 conditions. Microbial strains isolated from diverse resources can be applied alone or in combination
504 to break up stubborn polymer structures. For example, the enzymatic treatment of lignocellulosic
505 biomass mainly relies on microbially produced enzymes such as hemicellulase and cellulase. [Yuan
506 et al. \(2016\)](#) pretreated sludge with a microbial consortium (thermophilic microbial consortium
507 MC1), which can effectively improve the biodegradability of cotton stalks. Cellulose, hemicellulose
508 and lignin were significantly degraded by the microbial consortium MC1 after 14 hours. Vitamins
509 and hemicelluloses are converted into sugars. The monomers (sugars) are then converted into
510 volatile organic products. [Zhang et al. \(2019\)](#) enriched the alginate degradation complex (ADC)
511 using alginate as a substrate. Oligomeric alginate lyases were detected in 12 bacterial species by
512 metagenomics and identified to convert alginate to methane. [Larsen et al. \(2009\)](#) applied
513 *Proteiniphilum acetatigenes* for mesophilic anaerobic sludge digestion and observed a positive effect
514 of the introduced strain on the removal of PAHs. [Boruszko \(2017\)](#) supplied the same results in a
515 report. However, the effect of enzymatic reaction alone is limited, so it should be used in
516 combination with other pretreatment methods. The source of the enzyme has a significant impact on
517 the enzyme activity and type, limiting the stability of the enzyme in WAS. An efficient, stable and
518 inexpensive enzyme source needs to be further explored.

519 **4.4. Combined pretreatment**

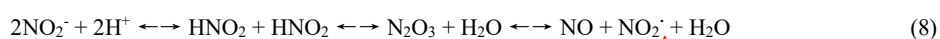
520 **4.4.1 Thermal-chemical combination**

521 The synergistic effect of pyrohydrolysis and alkalinity can achieve better sludge floc disintegration
522 and degradation of complex organic matter. For example, [Liu et al. \(2019c\)](#) pretreated WAS with hot
523 alkali and found that not only the large and hard flocs were broken and the degradation of PAM was

524 improved, but also the accumulation of acrylamide was avoided. Additionally, during TH
525 pretreatment, several reactions between proteins and reducing sugars occur, producing maillard
526 reaction products (MRPs), which resist degradation under both anaerobic and aerobic conditions.
527 Besides, several adverse biological effects are even induced by some compounds of MRPs, including
528 genotoxicity, cytotoxicity, and antimicrobial activity. [Geng and Zhou \(2022\)](#) developed a method to
529 decrease refractory MRP of WAS without affecting solubility. 10 mg/L FeCl₃ increased the
530 solubility of WAS after TH pretreatment, and the refractory residues decreased. FeCl₃ enhanced the
531 biodegradability and methane production of WAS after TH pretreatment (10.4 ± 0.8% increase in
532 yield). The specific analysis is mainly attributed to Fe³⁺ triggering the Fenton-like reaction, leading
533 to the enhanced biodegradability of TH pretreatment solution, and the enrichment of microbial
534 communities related to protein degradation and methane production.

535 In addition to the high temperature, freezing has also been recently reported to improve sludge
536 flocs biodegradation performance. [Liu et al. \(2020b\)](#) found that the degradation of humic acid-like
537 substrates could be significantly promoted by nitrite-based freezing pretreatment. It supposed that
538 EPS and cells were destroyed though the formation of ice crystals during this nitrite-based freezing
539 process. Simultaneously, the “excess” protons in acidic sludge mixture and extra nitrite would be
540 removed from ice crystals and concentrated into liquid-like ice grain boundaries (i.e., freeze
541 concentration effect), causing a dramatic decrease in pH and increase in nitrite concentration, under
542 which conditions a large number of reactive derivatives of nitrite (e.g., free nitrous acid (FNA),
543 NO₂⁻, NO, N₂O₃) was produced (Equation 8). And those reactive derivatives could as oxidizing
544 species to facilitate the degradation of refractory compounds such as humic substrates,
545 pharmaceuticals, and PPCPs, thus the bio-degradability of solubilized substrates were improved [Liu](#)

et al. (2020b).



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4.4.2 Ultrasonic-chemical Combination

The ultrasonic-chemical treatment has been shown to be effective in interfering with the chemical structure of organic toxic contaminants and converting them into soluble substrates. For example, Zhao et al. (2020) investigated the influence of ultrasound irradiation combined with ozone (US/O₃) for oxidative pretreatment on the levofloxacin-pressured AD digesters. US/O₃ provides ·OH that facilitates oxidative ring opening of levofloxacin and oxidation of other bio-macromolecules in WAS. Sufficient ·OH will promote oxidative ring opening, resulting in the formation of large amounts of short-chain acids, and the conversion of N-containing groups to NH₄⁺. This reaction illustrates the enhanced biodegradability after US/O₃ pretreatment. Ultrasonic treatment in combination with FNA has also been found to provide a positive synergistic effect on sludge breakdown and enhancement of the transformation of the released organic matter from non-biodegradable to biodegradable (Niu et al., 2019). Lin et al. (2016b) found that the ultrasonic-Fenton method could not only degrade the PAHs on the sludge surface, but also degrade the cavities and intracellular substances of the sludge. In addition, Shao et al. (2018) used ultrasound combined with linear alkyl benzene sulfonate (LAS) to control the re-flocculation of flocs for the treatment of digested sludge rich in refractory organics. The surfactant linear alkyl benzene sulfonate (LAS) was added immediately after sonication to avoid re-flocculation of dispersed flocs. The SCOD of sonication was found to be higher than that of pristine digested sludge due to the release of a large amount of refractory organics and the degradation of VS. However, this experiment only proves the dissolution of refractory chemical substances, and whether the conversion is not discussed.

568 **5. Challenges and feature perspectives**

569 AD as a method to realize safe disposal and resource recovery of WAS, a by-product of activated
570 sludge processes, contributes significantly to the goal of global carbon neutrality. Compared to other
571 treatment methods (including landfills, composting and incineration), AD is a welcome and stable
572 method, due to its low energy footprint, low cost, and moderate performance (Deena et al., 2022;
573 Kunatsa and Xia, 2022). However, the application of AD is often limited by low biodegradability
574 due to the presence of endogenous and exogenous refractory substances in WAS. It has been
575 reported that these refractory substances at the environmentally relevant concentrations have
576 adversely affected the anaerobic degradability of sludge. The reasons for these influences can be
577 summarized as follows: ① improved mass transfer resistance, ② enhanced ectoenzymes
578 competition, ③ endoenzymes active sites encroachment, ④ electrons competition, ⑤ cytotoxicity.
579 Corresponding, some strategies to improve the performance of AD have been developed. For
580 example, microwave pretreatment could improve the degradability of refractory pollutants, and thus
581 improving the performance of sludge AD. The sulfite pretreatment could enhance the conversion of
582 refractory substances and reduce the toxicity of anaerobic functional microorganisms. These studies
583 investigated the influence behavior and mechanism of these refractory substances on sludge AD and
584 provided an insight into the improvement of sludge degradability.

585 To improve the biodegradability of WAS which restricted by endogenous and exogenous
586 refractory substances, a significant number of strategies have been developed. However, some
587 improvements and measures are still required to be further explored to pave the way for efficient,
588 economic and environmental large-scale application of AD for WAS treatment:

589 1). The quantitative methods of typical refractory substances in sludge are relatively mature, but

590 the basic data of their existence forms in sludge, which are closely related to their effect on sludge
591 anaerobic degradability and anaerobic functional microorganisms, is still limited. At present, most of
592 the studies on their anaerobic degradability and the role of anaerobic functional microorganisms are
593 mostly based on model compounds, which may be different from actual situations. Therefore, the
594 following research should pay more attention to their form of existence and structure.

595 2). Previous studies on the anaerobic degradability of refractory substances and their effects on
596 anaerobic functional microorganisms are mostly based on a single model compound. However, there
597 are many co-existing refractory substances in the actual system, such as the co-existence of HA and
598 organic flocculants, antibiotics and organic flocculants. Thus, the results obtained previously are not
599 representative and cannot reflect the real situation. Therefore, the follow-up work should pay
600 attention to the co-existing environmental pollutants.

601 3). At present, characterization methods of sludge anaerobic degradability all rely on biochemical
602 methanogenic potential (BMP) test, which has been used for more than 30 years and has fundamental
603 problems such as long experimental period, large experimental error and strict experimental
604 conditions. In recent years, a series of methods, such as UV-vis spectral method and the three-
605 dimensional excitation-emission matrix fluorescence combined with fluorescence regional
606 integration method, have been used to reflect the biodegradability of dissolved substances. However,
607 these studies have some limitations, such as whether the anaerobic degradation can be truly reflected.
608 Therefore, it is urgent to develop more efficient characterization methods of sludge anaerobic
609 degradability. While, the combination of BMP and fluorescence methods may be a research
610 direction.

611 4). Although some approaches for refractory substances have been developed, most of them are

612 not specific. In addition to promoting the conversion of refractory substances in sludge, these
613 methods also have influence on the original organic or inorganic substances, such as proteins and
614 polysaccharides. As a result, the efficiency of these preprocessing methods has been affected,
615 resulting in most of them are cost-intensive because of the high-energy and chemical-requirements,
616 and passive environmental-consequences such as higher-net carbon dioxide emission. Therefore, it
617 is necessary to develop more targeted pretreatment methods based on in-depth analysis of the action
618 mechanism of these refractory substances, so as to enhance the AD performance of sludge, as well as
619 improve the circular bio-economy of WAS management.

620 **6. Conclusion**

621 This paper reviews several pretreatment methods and process control technologies to enhance the
622 AD of WAS from the perspective of promoting refractory substances or pollutants conversion. The
623 main mechanisms include: 1) Improving the transformation of sludge substrates by physicochemical
624 method, to provide more available substrates for anaerobic microorganisms, and mitigate the toxicity
625 of refractory substances or pollutants on anaerobic microorganisms; 2) Improving the abundance of
626 functional microorganism, to enhance the biotransformation of refractory substances or pollutants.
627 This study provides a new insight into the development of sludge treatment technology for sludge
628 reduction and stabilization.

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