

**PHA and EPS production from industrial wastewater by conventional activated sludge,
membrane bioreactor and aerobic granular sludge technologies: a comprehensive comparison**

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27 **Abstract**

28 The present study has focused on the mainstream integration of polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA)
29 production with industrial wastewater treatment by exploiting three different technologies all
30 operating in sequencing batch reactors (SBR): conventional activated sludge (AS-SBR), membrane
31 bioreactor (AS-MBR) and aerobic granular sludge (AGS). A full aerobic feast/famine strategy was
32 adopted to obtain enrichment of biomass with PHA-storing bacteria. All the systems were operated
33 at different organic loading (OLR) rate equal to 1-2-3 kgCOD/m³·d in three respective experimental
34 periods. The AS-MBR showed the better and stable carbon removal performance, whereas the
35 effluent quality of the AS-SBR and AGS deteriorated at high OLR. Biomass enrichment with PHA-
36 storing bacteria was successfully obtained in all the systems. The AS-MBR improved the PHA
37 productivity with increasing OLR (max 35% w/w), whereas the AS-SBR reduced the PHA content
38 (max 20% w/w) above an OLR threshold of 2 kgCOD/m³·d. In contrast, in the AGS the increase of
39 OLR resulted in a significant decrease in PHA productivity (max 14% w/w) and a concomitant
40 increase of extracellular polymers (EPS) production (max 75% w/w). Results demonstrated that
41 organic carbon was mainly driven towards the intracellular storage pathway in the AS-SBR (max
42 yield 51%) and MBR (max yield 61%), whereas additional stressors in AGS (e.g., hydraulic selection
43 pressure, shear forces) induced bacteria to channel the COD into extracellular storage compounds
44 (max yield 50%) necessary to maintain the granule's structure. The results of the present study
45 indicated that full-aerobic feast/famine strategy was more suitable for flocculent sludge-based
46 technologies, although biofilm-like systems could open new scenarios for other biopolymers recovery
47 (e.g., EPS). Moreover, the AS-MBR resulted the most suitable technology for the integration of PHA
48 production in a mainstream industrial wastewater treatment plant, considering the greater process
49 stability and the potential reclamation of the treated wastewater.

50

51 **Keywords:** activated sludge; aerobic granular sludge; industrial wastewater; membrane bioreactor;
52 mixed microbial culture; polyhydroxyalkanoate.

53 **1. Introduction**

54 In recent years, the current paradigm according to which wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) must
55 solely comply the discharge limits imposed by environmental regulations is transposing to the
56 biorefinery concept. Indeed, organic and inorganic matters present in the wastewater can be recovered
57 and value-added products could be produced, thereby ensuring an innovative approach that
58 guarantees the environmental sustainability of water purification processes (Shah, 2023). Among
59 these materials, microbial-origin polymers have gained increasing attention in recent years due to
60 their biodegradability, non-toxicity, and eco-friendly production, which could partially replace the
61 non-linear production model of petroleum-based plastics (Amorim de Carvalho et al., 2021).

62 Biopolymers are synthesized by different types of bacteria capable of converting organic substrates
63 into polymers outside the cells, such as extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) and alginates-like
64 polymers, or in the form of intracellular granules such as polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHA) (Burniol-
65 Figols et al., 2020). These polymers play a crucial role in bacterial metabolism as they serve as a
66 carbon and energy source for bacteria during periods of substrate scarcity. The microbial synthesis of
67 these products occurs under stressful conditions induced by a strong surplus of carbon and a nitrogen
68 deficiency (Rojas-Zamora et al., 2023). The most used system for PHA production from wastewater
69 is mixed microbial culture (MMC) because it does not require sterile conditions as in the case of pure
70 microbial cultures. It consists of three phases: 1) acidogenic fermentation, in which complex substrate
71 are transformed into volatile fatty acids (VFAs), 2) selection of PHA-accumulating bacteria, and 3)
72 PHA accumulation by the selected cultures (Matos et al., 2021). The main challenge of this PHA
73 production system is the selection of an MMC with high PHA accumulation potential. The strategy
74 typically employed for this purpose involves alternating phases of abundance (feast) and scarcity
75 (famine) of organic substrates, which induce microorganisms to drive organic matter towards
76 metabolic pathways for storage rather than its direct utilization for synthesis processes (Valentino et
77 al., 2017).

78 In recent years, researchers made significant efforts to develop new strategies to optimize the MMC
79 enrichment in order to increase PHA production rates. Among these strategies, nitrogen limitation
80 during the feast phase (double growth limitation) was proven to prevent the growth of non-PHA-
81 accumulating bacteria during the famine phase, allowing for more efficient MMC selection (Argiz et
82 al., 2022). Similarly, the introduction of a settling phase following the feast phase promoted the
83 washout of non-accumulating bacteria (Argiz et al., 2020). In all studies reported in the literature,
84 these strategies were applied in sequencing batch reactors (SBR) operating with activated sludge
85 (AS). However, conventional processes using AS are susceptible to process dysfunctions (e.g.,
86 bulking, foaming), especially under unbalanced growth conditions (e.g., high carbon-to-nitrogen
87 ratio, high organic loads), which are required for a successful enrichment of the MMC (Corsino et
88 al., 2022). Furthermore, the low biomass retention capacity of this system reduced the achievable
89 PHA productivity (Burniol-Figols et al., 2020).

90 Another issue in MMC selection is that the operational conditions imposed in the enrichment stage
91 do not ensure the necessary purification performance to meet the regulatory discharge limits into
92 receiving water bodies. For this reason, the enrichment process is carried out in reactors placed in the
93 side-stream to the main wastewater treatment line (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2015). This clearly
94 impacts on the system's footprint and complexity.

95 Some recent studies in the literature explored the use of other biotechnologies to produce PHA.
96 Among these, aerobic granular sludge (AGS) was successfully applied for PHA production, thanks
97 to its higher biomass retention capacity, which ensures higher productivity compared to conventional
98 flocculent sludge-based systems (Amorim de Carvalho et al., 2021). Additionally, some preliminary
99 experiences reported promising results using membrane bioreactors (MBR) technology (Burniol-
100 Figols et al., 2020; Corsino et al., 2021). Both AGS and MBR systems are well-suited for operating
101 under more challenging process conditions than conventional activated sludge systems, as they
102 overcome issues related to sludge settling and can tolerate higher organic loads.

103 However, a comparison of these technologies for PHA production purposes is currently lacking in the
104 literature, especially when dealing with industrial wastewater. Within this context, wastewater
105 generated from citrus processing is an eligible organic feedstock in the production of PHA because
106 of the high carbon/nitrogen ratio. Moreover, because of the high availability of soluble organic matter,
107 the preliminary fermentation step commonly adopted in the PHA production process could be
108 avoided, leading to a significant simplification of the plant layout (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2015).
109 For this reason, this study aimed to compare the performance of three biological systems:
110 conventional activated sludge, activated sludge with ultrafiltration membrane (AS-MBR), and
111 aerobic granular sludge, for PHA production. Specifically, their integration into the mainstream of an
112 industrial wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) was assessed to simulate the wastewater treatment
113 process and the MMC enrichment phase, simultaneously. An in-depth analysis was conducted on
114 concurrent PHA-accumulation processes related to metabolic pathways of EPS production.

115

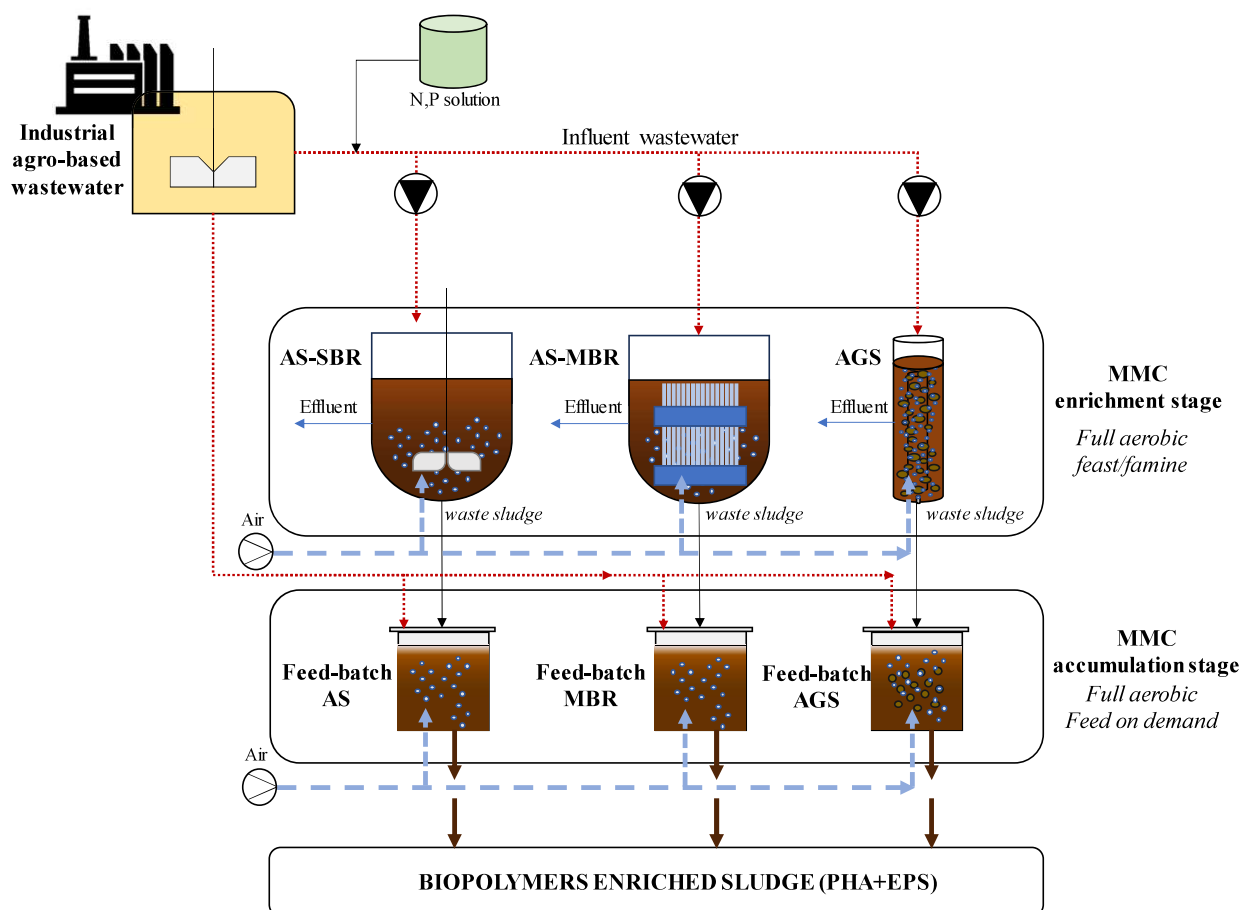
116 **2. Materials and methods**

117 *2.1 Experimental setup*

118 Three laboratory-scale SBR plants were operated in parallel to evaluate the PHA accumulation in AS,
119 AS-MBR and AGS systems treating wastewater from a citrus processing industry.

120 A schematic layout of the plant is shown in Figure 1.

121



122

123 Figure 1: Layout of the plant for the comparison of the AS-SBR, AS-MBR and AGS enrichment
124 systems

125

126 Each of the systems was configured according to a “two stage” process that consisted of an
127 enrichment reactor and a dedicated accumulation reactor, both operating in batch mode. The
128 fermentation step was not included in the process as high concentrations of readily biodegradable
129 organic carbon was already present in the raw wastewater (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2015).

130 The AS-SBR was constituted by an acrylic tank with a working volume of 20 L. The AS-MBR
131 consisted of a fiberglass tank (working volume 40 L) in which an ultrafiltration membrane (0.03 μm
132 of porosity, 1.4 m^2 of surface, PURON[®] triple bundle Demo) was installed in submerged
133 configuration. The AGS was a column-type acrylic reactor having an operating volume of 4 L.

134 All the enrichment reactors operated under the feast/famine regime in full aerobic conditions. The
135 operating cycle was set to 12 h consisting of 30 minutes of feeding under static not-aerated conditions,

common to all the reactors, followed by a period of aeration, solid/liquid separation and effluent discharge that was different based on the specificity of the system. In more detail, the aeration in the AS-SBR lasted 540 minutes and it was followed by 60 minutes of settling and 30 minutes of effluent discharge. In the AS-MBR, the aerobic reaction was set to 640 minutes and the last 90 minutes of the cycle were for permeate extraction and membrane relaxation. Finally, the AGS operated with 690 minutes of aeration, 5 minutes of settling and 15 minutes for effluent discharge and idle. The effluent discharge from the AS-SBR and the AGS reactors was performed with dedicated peristaltic pumps, whereas the permeate extraction from the AS-MBR was carried out by two peristaltic pumps that alternated 5 minutes of permeate extraction and 1 minute of backwashing to prevent membrane fouling. Aeration was supplied by three different air blowers through porous stone diffusers located at the bottom of the reactors. A programmable logic controller handled the phases' alternation. The temperature was not controlled, and reactors operated at room temperature. All the reactors were equipped with dissolved oxygen (DO) and pH sensors for online monitoring.

The waste sludge from each of the enrichment reactor was accumulated within a dedicated reactor operating under a fed-batch mode to perform PHA accumulation assays. This consisted in a 1.5 L jacketed glass reactor, maintained at temperature of 20 °C by means of a thermostatic bath. The aeration of these reactors was provided by a blower.

153

154 *2.2 Operational conditions*

155 All the reactors were inoculated with the activated sludge collected from the citrus processing
156 industry and fed with the same wastewater.

157 The wastewater was collected from a citrus processing industry that processed mandarins, oranges
158 and lemons. The main operations included juices and essential oils extraction as well as peels
159 processing. In this process, the most wastewater volume is generated from fruit and machineries
160 washing, and cooling operations. Such water is characterized by a low carbon content. In contrast,

161 juice and essential oils extraction operations, produce low wastewater volume with significantly
162 higher organic carbon content (Lucia et al., 2022).

163 Because the raw wastewater lacked nitrogen and phosphorous, a concentrated nutrient solution
164 containing urea and potassium phosphate was supplied to obtain a ratio between chemical oxygen
165 demand (COD), total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorous (TP) equal to 200: 5: 1.

166 The enrichment reactors were operated with the same organic loading rate (OLR). In more detail,
167 three different OLRs were tested in respective experimental periods: 1 kgCOD/m³·d in Period 1, 2
168 kgCOD/m³·d in Period 2 and 3 kgCOD/m³·d in Period 3. Considering that the volume of the
169 enrichment reactors was not equal in each of the systems, the volume of wastewater treated in a day
170 was different. Specifically, the AS-SBR treated 5, 10, 15 L/d, the AS-MBR 10, 20, 30 L/d and the
171 AGS 1,2, 3 L/d in Period 1, Period 2 and Period 3, respectively. Accordingly, volumetric exchange
172 ratio ranged between 0.125-0.375 during the experiment. Process conditions were changed once
173 steady performances were observed in each system, but not before a time higher to three times the
174 sludge retention time (SRT) lasted. Overall, the AS-SBR, the AS-MBR and the AGS enrichment
175 reactors were operated for 172, 150 and 204 days, respectively. The different duration of the
176 observation period was due to the different times each system took to reach steady-state conditions.
177 Specifically, the achievement of steady state was assumed once the duration of the feast/famine cycle
178 was below 0.20 and this was maintained at least three times the sludge retention time (Conca et al.,
179 2020). The enrichment reactors operated with different biomass concentration, according to the
180 specificity of the technology. In table 1 the average TSS concentration in the enrichment reactors
181 during the experiment are summarized. A regular sludge withdrawn was performed to maintain a
182 constant TSS concentration in the enrichment reactors according to the biomass growth yield.
183 Consequently, the SRT was not controlled but calculated by means of a mass balance on TSS.
184 Specifically, the SRT was determined by mass balance between the amount of biomass (as TSS) into
185 the reactor and those discharged daily (as waste sludge, effluent TSS and samples for analysis).

186 A detailed summary of the above information is reported in Table 1.

187

188 Table 1: Summary of the main operating conditions for the AS-SBR, AS-MBR and AGS systems

		Duration [d]	Flow rate [L/d]	Biomass [gTSS/L]	SRT [d]
Period 1:					
OLR 1 [kgCOD /m ³]	AS-SBR	78	5	4.56 ± 0.12	14 ± 3
COD 4.5 ± 0.1 [g/L]	MBR	65	10	8.1 ± 0.2	14 ± 2
VER 0.125	AGS	126	1	4.89 ± 0.21	23 ± 1
Period 2:					
OLR 2 [kgCOD /m ³]	AS-SBR	32	10	4.42 ± 0.09	7 ± 2
COD 4.46 ± 0.09 [g/L]	MBR	42	20	6.3 ± 0.1	11 ± 2
VER 0.25	AGS	37	2	5.11 ± 0.09	10 ± 3
Period 3:					
OLR 3 [kgCOD /m ³]	AS-SBR	62	15	4.46 ± 0.09	5 ± 1
COD 4.38 ± 0.16 [g/L]	MBR	43	30	6.3 ± 0.2	9 ± 1
VER 0.375	AGS	41	3	5.06 ± 0.11	9 ± 2

189

190

191 The dissolved oxygen concentration, the chemical oxygen demand, the PHA and EPS content during
 192 the enrichment cycle were periodically monitored. Specifically, samples at regular intervals were
 193 withdrawn from the enrichment reactors and subjected to EPS and PHA extraction procedures.

194 The achievement of steady state was assumed once the duration of the feast/famine ratio was below
 195 0.2, which indicated that MMC was successfully enriched in PHA-accumulating organisms (Conca
 196 et al., 2020).

197 At this stage, accumulation assays were performed in each experimental period. These assays were
 198 carried out in an accumulation reactor, named fed-batch reactor, one dedicated for each line, in which
 199 the excess sludge produced in the respective enrichment reactor (1.5 L) was used to produce PHA.
 200 The accumulation fed-batch reactor was aerated continuously, maintaining the DO concentration
 201 above 4 mg/L. The raw wastewater was used as feedstock without the addition of nutrients to prevent
 202 bacterial growth and promote PHA accumulation. The wastewater was supplied adopting the “feed
 203 on demand” strategy according to the literature (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2014). Each accumulation
 204 assay lasted at least 8 hours. At the end of the accumulation assay, the sludge was separated from the
 205 supernatant through centrifugation and PHA was extracted from the sludge pellet.

206

207 *2.3 Characteristics of wastewater*

208 The wastewater collected from the citrus processing industry was characterized by a COD close to
209 4.5 g/L, on average. Respirometric techniques were used to address the amount of soluble readily and
210 slowly biodegradable organic content in the citrus wastewater (Capodici et al., 2016). The organic
211 content of the citrus wastewater was mainly in the soluble form (>75%), of which about 45% was
212 acetate. The amount of the inert organic matter and that of the slowly biodegradable accounted for
213 approximately 20% of the total COD. The pH of the raw wastewater was close to 5.1 and it was
214 adjusted to neutral by adding NaOH (0.1 M) before it was fed to the enrichment and accumulation
215 reactors. Total nitrogen and total phosphorous concentrations in raw wastewater were on average 43
216 mg/L and 13 mg/L, respectively. Hence, the C/N ratio in the raw wastewater was about 100. For this
217 reason, additional nitrogen and phosphorous sources were provided to the enrichment reactors only.

218

219 *2.4 Analytical procedures*

220 Mixed liquor total and volatile suspended solid (TSS and VSS, respectively), total COD, TN and TP
221 were measured by the standard methods (APHA, 2012). The COD fractions, including the soluble
222 biodegradable (SB), particulate biodegradable (PB) and particulate inert (PI) were determined
223 according to the literature (Capodici et al., 2016). All the samples for determination of soluble
224 substrates were filtered through a 0.45 µm filter paper. The DO concentration was monitored online
225 with a probe (model FDO[®] 915, WTW), equipped with a digital thermometer, whereas the pH was
226 measured by a pH-meter (model SenTix 940-3, WTW). Sudan black stain was performed to assess
227 the presence of PHA within the bacterial cells (Jenkins et al., 2003). Microscopic observations were
228 carried out by a phase contrast optical microscope (Olympus).

229

230 *2.5 PHA and EPS extraction and characterization*

PHA was extracted from wet biomass samples according to the literature using 1-2 propylene-carbonate as a solvent (Fiorese et al., 2009). The main extraction steps were as follows. First, 50 mL of sludge samples from the enrichment or the accumulation reactors were centrifuged (4000 rpm for 5 minutes). After freeze-drying the centrifuged samples, this was placed in a borosilicate glass beaker containing 50 mL of 1-2 propylene-carbonate at 140 °C for 30 minutes, to allow PHA solubilization. Hereafter, the sample was filtered, and the solvent let to evaporate in a controlled environment at room temperature. The PHA content in the sample was first weighted and further analyzed through a spectrophotometric method utilizing a crotonic acid solution as a standard (ranging from 10 to 40 µg). The PHA extracted from the biomass samples was expressed in dry weight as a percentage of the measured VSS (% w/w).

The heating method was used to extract the EPS from sludge samples (Le-Clech et al., 2006). The protein and carbohydrate concentrations were then measured using bovine serum albumin (Lowry et al., 1951) and glucose (DuBois et al., 1956) as standards, respectively. The total EPS content was calculated as sum of the protein and carbohydrate concentrations and referred to the measured VSS (% w/w).

Organic carbon mass balance (as total COD) was carried out in the accumulation reactor to assess the amount of COD converted into intracellular (PHA) and extracellular (EPS) biopolymers. To this aim, the following stoichiometric coefficients were assumed for referring PHA mass as COD: 1.67 gCOD per gram of polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) and 1.92 gCOD per gram of polyhydroxyvalerate (PHV) (Conca et al., 2020). Referring to EPS, the stoichiometric coefficients for proteins and carbohydrates were 1.40 gCOD/gPN and 1.36 gCOD/gPS, respectively (Corsino et al., 2022).

252

253 **3. Results and discussion**

254 *3.1 Organic carbon removal*

255 Enrichment of the MMC requires high OLR in order to channel the organic carbon towards PHA
256 production rather than growth (Oliveira et al., 2017). However, such condition is not always suitable

for the achievement of high purification efficiency of wastewater. To this purpose, COD removal performances were monitored in the three enrichment reactors. Figure 2 shows the average COD concentration in the effluents and removal efficiencies obtained at steady state in each period, and its COD fractions resulting from the fractionation assays.

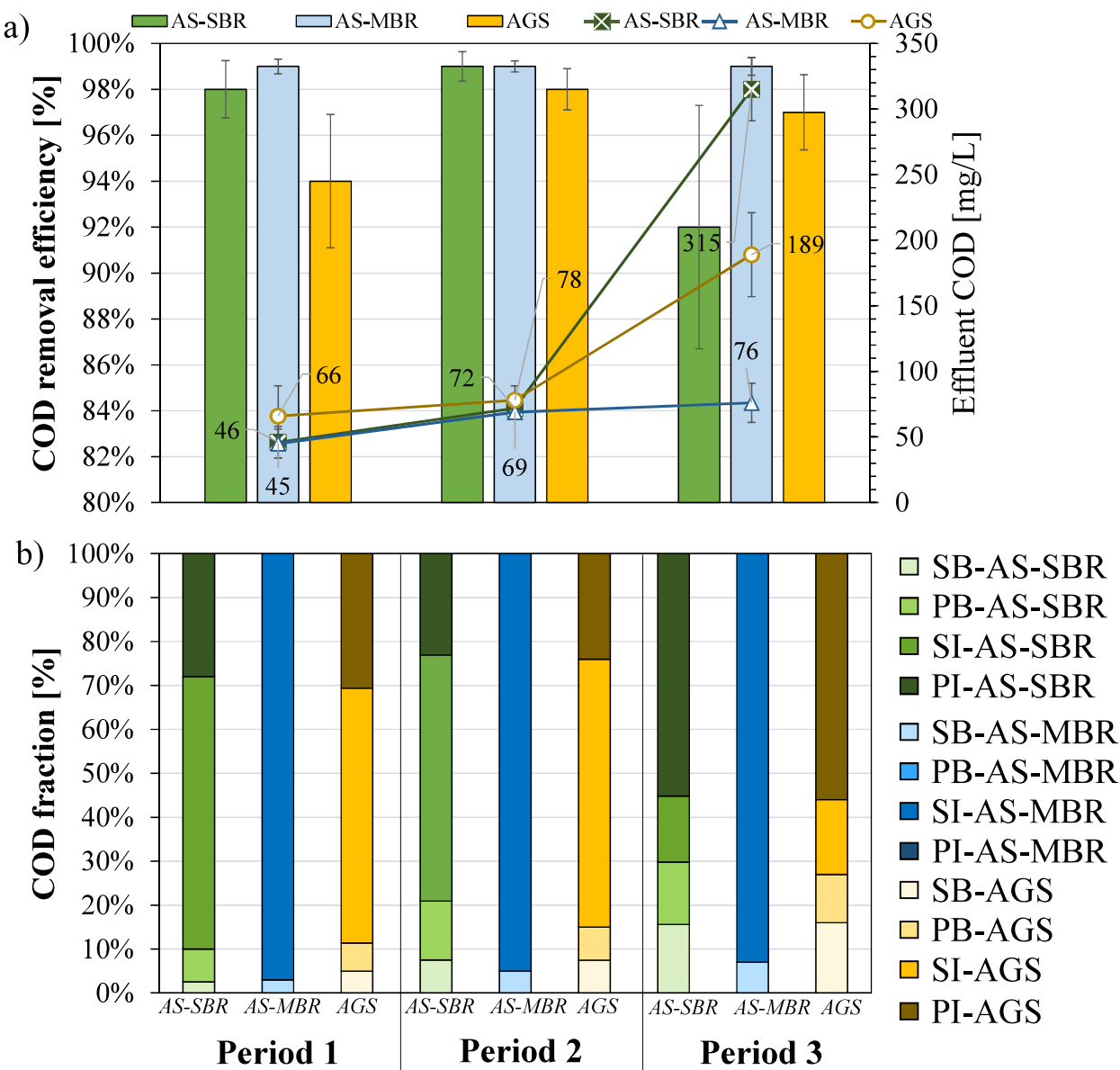


Figure legend: SB: Soluble Biodegradable carbon; PB: Particulate Biodegradable carbon; SI: Soluble Inert carbon; PI; Particulate Inert carbon.

265 Figure 2: Average COD concentrations in the effluent (lines) and removal efficiencies (histograms)
266 at steady state in the enrichment reactors (a); COD fractions in the effluent of the enrichment reactors
267 (b). Bars in figure a) indicate the standard deviations.

268

269 COD removal efficiency was higher than 90% in all the reactors in Period 1, resulting in an effluent
270 concentration between 50-75 mg/L (Fig. 2a). The AS-SBR and the AS-MBR exhibited better
271 performances and a greater stability in this period than the AGS, whose COD removal efficiency
272 showed a slightly higher variability as indicated by the standard error. Granulation process occurred
273 in Period 1 in the AGS system and granules stability was obtained by reducing the settling time to 5
274 minutes to prevent the accumulation of flocculent sludge. Therefore, it was assumed that washout of
275 small and poor settling flocs caused a slightly COD increase in the effluent of the AGS system in this
276 period. When increasing the OLR in Period 2, all the reactors showed high COD removal capacity,
277 which resulted close to 99%. The effluent COD concentration was below 75 mg/L in all the reactors.
278 A noticeable decrease in COD removal was noted referring to the AS-SBR in Period 3 when operating
279 at 3 kgCOD/m³·d. The average COD removal efficiency was 90% approximately, although the
280 effluent concentration rose to 300 mg/L. Similarly, the AGS showed a slight worsening of COD
281 removal compared with the previous periods, although the effluent concentration was below 200
282 mg/L. In contrast, the AS-MBR demonstrated a greater stability for COD removal within the OLR
283 range investigated. Indeed, the effluent COD concentrations in the permeate of the MBR were always
284 below 100 mg/L, thereby enabling removal efficiencies of 99% during the entire experiment. As
285 reported in Fig. 2b, when increasing the OLR, the fraction of the soluble COD in the effluent increased
286 in the AS-SBR and AGS, more significantly than the AS-MBR, suggesting a not efficient utilization
287 of the readily biodegradable organic matter by PHA-accumulating organisms. The lower
288 concentration of soluble COD in the AS-MBR was also confirmed in the supernatant beside on the
289 permeate. Similarly, the incidence of the particulate fractions (e.g., inert and biodegradable) were
290 greater in the AS-SBR and AGS systems at high OLR, indicating a gradual loss of the sludge

291 flocculation capacity. Contextually, occurrence of flocs and granules deflocculation was noted in
 292 those reactors especially during Period 3, mainly due to the overgrowth of filamentous bacteria. This
 293 resulted in a noticeable worsening of sludge settling properties and a consequently deterioration of
 294 the effluent quality (supplementary data).

295

296 Table S1: Average data of the effluent TSS concentration, sludge volume index (SVI) and
 297 flocs/granules size for the AS-SBR and AGS

	AS-SBR			AGS		
	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3
Effluent TSS [mg/L]	10±7	12±9	135±27	28±12	51±17	236±44
SVI* [mL/gTSS]	51±9	48±18	250±76	25±8	32±6	56±31
Size [mm]	0.139±0.015	0.207±0.021	0.069±0.032	1.8±0.2	1.7±0.1	2.2±0.4

298 * SVI was calculated at 30 minutes for AS-SBR and 5 minutes for AGS

299 Note that data referred to AS-MBR are not reported as effluent TSS was always 0 mg/L and SVI was not measured.

300

301 In the AS-MBR the particulate fraction of the COD was entirely trapped within the reactor as the
 302 porosity of the ultrafiltration membrane was lower than 0.45 μm . It should be considered that at the
 303 same OLR, the AS-MBR operated under a lower food to microorganisms' ratio (F/M) than the other
 304 enrichment reactors due to the higher biomass concentration. As an excess of organic load could
 305 overcome the metabolic need of bacteria, operating under lower carbon availability allowed for a
 306 better substrate utilization that resulted in lower COD effluent concentrations. Overall, the AS-SBR
 307 and the AGS systems showed a higher process instability when the OLR was increased over 2
 308 $\text{kgCOD/m}^3\cdot\text{d}$, indicating that higher values would result in a probable collapse of process
 309 performances. On the other hand, the higher biomass retention capacity of the MBR enabled higher
 310 and more stable COD removal while operating at higher OLR. In previous literature it was
 311 emphasized that high OLR is desirable as a means to enhance PHA productivity (Oliveira et al., 2017).
 312 Different optimum values of OLR for an efficient MMC enrichment were reported in the literature.
 313 Oliveira et al. (Oliveira et al., 2017) found an optimal OLR of 2 $\text{kgCOD/m}^3\cdot\text{d}$ using fermented cheese-

way. Lorini et al. (Lorini et al., 2020) and Crognale et al. (Crognale et al., 2022) achieved a stable selection of MMC at 8 kgCOD/m³·d although operating with a synthetic mixture. More recently, Isern-Cazorla et al. (Isern-Cazorla et al., 2023) found that an increase in the OLR applied in the enrichment reactor up to 1.8 kgCOD/m³·d improved the MMC selection while reducing the purification performances. The wide range of OLR reported probably indicated that the ideal OLR likely depends on the characteristics of the wastewater used as feedstock. Nevertheless, the literature findings suggested that optimum OLR should be greater than 2-3 kgCOD/m³·d when dealing with industrial wastewaters (Valentino et al., 2017). Hence, AS-SBR and AGS could be susceptible to process instability when operating at OLR above this threshold. If on the one hand high PHA productivity could be achieved when operating at OLR higher than 2 kgCOD/m³·d, on the other the poor purification performances would limit the implementation of MMC-enrichment in the mainstream of a WWTP. In this context, membrane bioreactors could have a greater potential for this purpose, as it was proven to be effective to provide high purification efficiency at OLR higher than the suggested threshold.

328

3.2 Dynamics of PHA and EPS storage in the enrichment reactors

The enrichment reactors were seeded with the same activated sludge and operated under the feast/famine strategy to enrich the biomass in microorganisms with storage capacity. The coupled feeding strategy, involving the simultaneous supply of nutrients with carbon, was adopted to prevent the occurrence of process dysfunctions (e.g., viscous bulking and foaming). Typical feast/famine profiles were observed in all the enrichment reactors after few operational cycles. The operation of the reactors became stable after the 50th day and 37th day in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR, respectively, whereas a longer time was observed in the AGS (98 days) as the granulation process was completed later.

The effects of OLR on the profiles of DO concentration, PHA and EPS contents during a representative enrichment cycle at steady state are depicted in Figure 3.

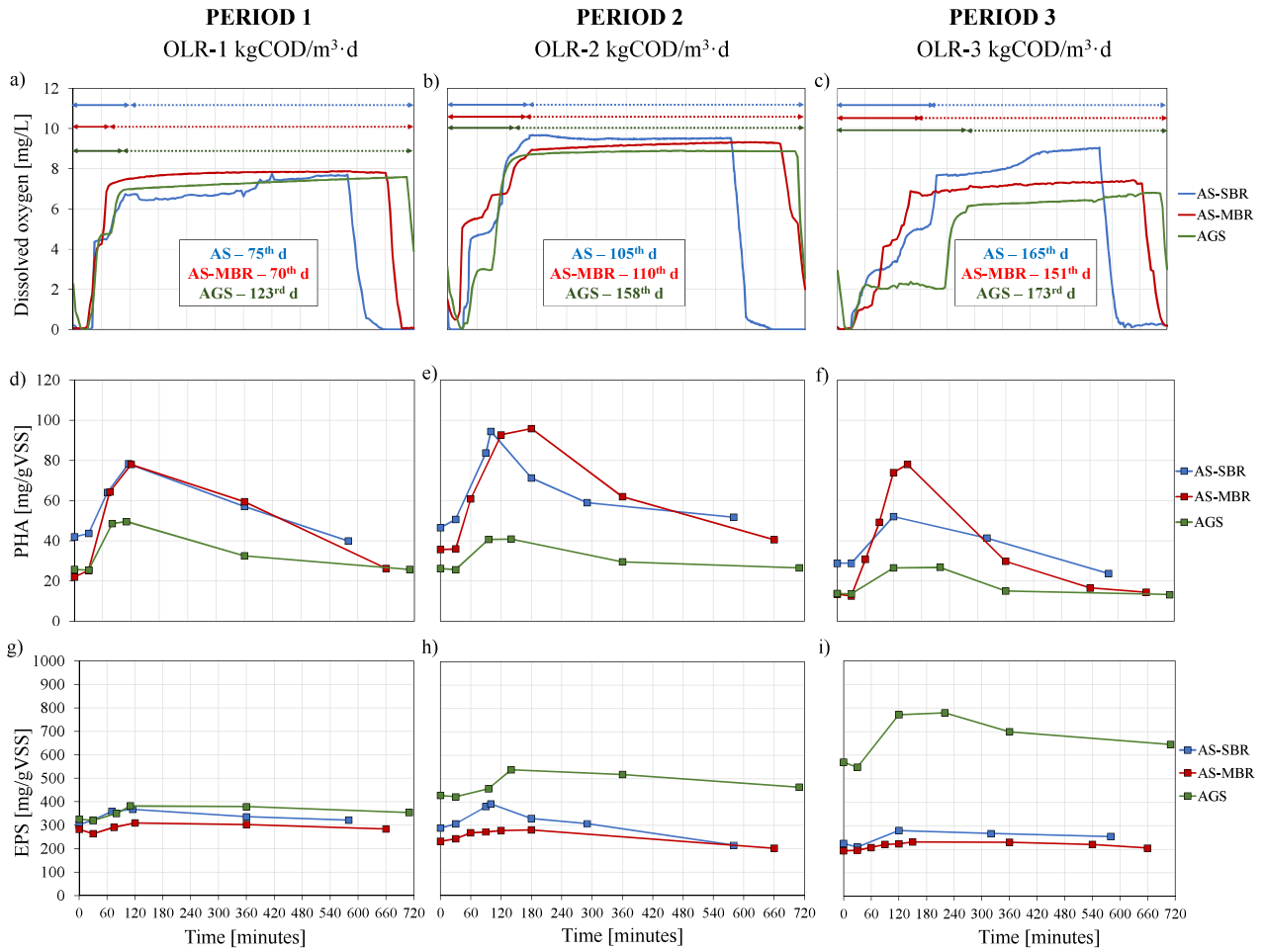


Figure 3: Characterization of a typical enrichment cycle in the AS-SBR, AS-MBR and AGS, at steady state during Period 1 (a,d,g), Period 2 (b,e,h) and Period 3 (c,f,i), showing the profile of DO, feast (↔) and famine (↔) (a-c), PHA (d-f) and EPS (g-i). Data within the caption box indicate the day to which the DO, PHA and EPS profiles are referred (Period 1: AS-SBR 75th day, AS-MBR 70th day, AGS 123rd day; Period 2: AS-SBR 105th day, AS-MBR 110th day, AGS 158th day; Period 3: AS-SBR 165th day, AS-MBR 151st day, AGS 173rd day).

In Period 1 the length of the feast phase presented a low variability among the three systems. The ratio between the feast and famine lengths was on average 0.13, although the AS-MBR showed a slightly lower value (0.11). This result indicated that microorganisms developed a high storage capacity and MMC was successfully enriched in PHA storing bacteria (Conca et al., 2020). Indeed, during the feast phase, PHA (Fig. 3d) and EPS (Fig. 3g) increased in all the enrichment reactors,

353 indicating that bacteria converted the external carbon source into extracellular and intracellular
354 storage compounds. During the famine phase, the content of both PHA and EPS decreased, suggesting
355 the occurrence of biomass growth on storage compounds. Overall, the enriched biomass of AS-SBR
356 and AS-MBR exhibited a similar PHA production capacity that was higher of that in AGS, which
357 instead showed a greater EPS productivity. In Period 2, the length of the feast phase slightly increased
358 in all the reactors, although maintaining the feast/famine ratio below 0.20. A noticeable improvement
359 of PHA production was observed in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR, in which the maximum PHA content
360 at the end of the feast phase was 94 mg/gVSS and 95 mg/gVSS, respectively, whereas a slight
361 decrease of PHA in the AGS was observed. Contrarily, a significant increase of EPS content was
362 noted in the biomass of the AGS, which suggested alterations in the cellular metabolism as the OLR
363 was increased. Any significant variation of the EPS content in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR biomasses
364 was noted. The further increase of OLR in Period 3 caused an extension of the feast phase duration
365 in all the enrichment reactors. The feast/famine ratio was still lower than 0.20 in the AS-MBR only,
366 whereas in the AS-SBR and AGS it resulted higher than 0.30. As previously reported, residual organic
367 carbon in soluble form was measured in the effluent of the AS-SBR and AGS in Period 3. This
368 suggested that soluble COD was not entirely depleted during the feast phase in those reactors, and it
369 remained available during the famine phase. Therefore, this reduced the selective pressure on not-
370 accumulating organisms that could be outcompeted for substrate with PHA-storing bacteria.
371 Consequently, this reduced the use of the organic carbon for accumulation purposes, favouring also
372 metabolic pathways that required longer time (e.g., cellular synthesis) (Huang et al., 2018). If on a
373 side the PHA content in the AS-MBR slightly decreased compared with the previous period, on the
374 other in the AS-SBR and the AGS it noticeably reduced. A different behaviour was noted referring to
375 EPS. Indeed, the EPS content decreased in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR, consistently with the decrease
376 of the storage capacity above highlighted referring to PHA. In contrast, the EPS content in the aerobic
377 granules at the end of the feast phase further increased to over 780 mg/gVSS, showing an increment

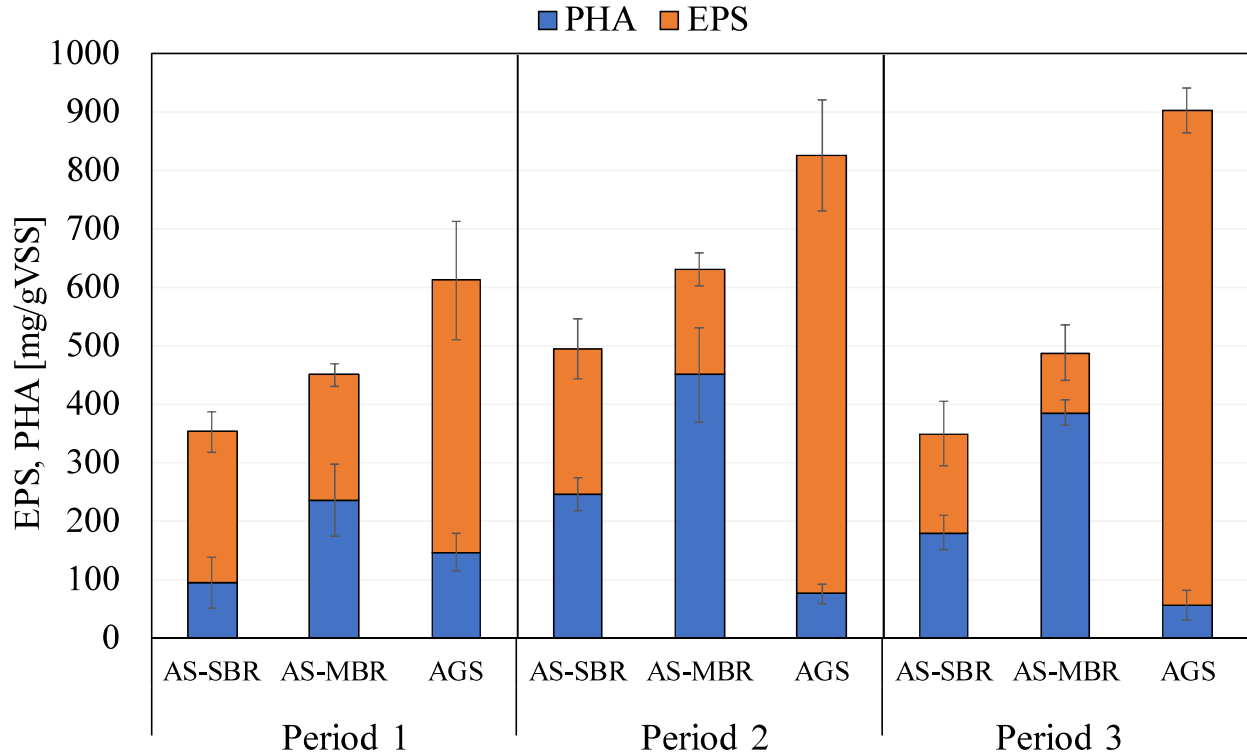
378 of approximately 50% respect to Period 2. It should be observed that the EPS production in the AGS
379 occurred in the early of the feast phase, indicating a high activity of EPS storing bacteria.
380 Comparing the overall production of PHA and EPS in the enrichment cycle of the three systems, a
381 greater production of EPS was observed. This result was in good agreement with previous literature
382 in which is reported that organic carbon was channelled towards extracellular polymeric substances
383 when operating with low C/N ratio (20) (Zhao et al., 2021).
384 The above results indicated also that the OLR increase caused a reduction of PHA accumulation
385 capacity in all the enrichment reactors, although of different magnitude, especially when the OLR
386 threshold of 2 kgCOD/m³·d was exceeded. Nevertheless, the AS-MBR maintained a good PHA
387 accumulation capacity during the entire experiment. Biomass washout and the availability of soluble
388 organic substrate during the famine phase were assumed as the main reasons for the decrease in PHA
389 accumulation in the AS-SBR and AGS at high OLR. This result confirmed what stated in previous
390 literature referring to the existence of an OLR threshold in the enrichment stage, above which the
391 culture selection was more difficult to achieve (Crognale et al., 2022; Valentino et al., 2017). In
392 contrast, the higher biomass concentration, and the membrane retention ability towards poor settling
393 flocs in the AS-MBR, allowed to completely deplete the organic substrate during the feast phase and
394 avoided the washout of sludge enriched in PHA storing bacteria.

395

396 *3.3 Assessment of maximum PHA accumulation*

397 Accumulation assays were carried out on the enriched cultures once steady performances in the
398 respective enrichment reactors were achieved. Figure 4 shows the overall biopolymers content, as
399 sum of PHA and EPS, accumulated by the enriched cultures during each experimental period.

400



401

402 Figure 4: Maximum polymers storage and composition in the three MMC cultures enriched at
403 different OLRs.

404

405 In Period 1, the maximum biopolymers accumulation capacity was observed in the enriched biomass
406 from the AGS system (61.2% w/w), followed by the AS-MBR (45% w/w) and the AS-SBR (35%).
407 The same tendency was observed in the other periods. In more detail, while in Period 2 the overall
408 biopolymer content in all the enriched cultures increased (49% in the AS-SBR, 63% in the AS-MBR,
409 and 82% in the AGS), in Period 3 the maximum accumulation capacity decreased in the AS-SBR
410 (34.9% w/w) and AS-MBR (48.8% w/w) and still increased in the AGS (90.3% w/w). Based on the
411 above, the biopolymer accumulation capacity resulted the highest in the AGS system, while showing
412 a positive correlation with the OLR applied in the enrichment stage. Biofilm systems are recognised
413 to have higher biopolymer content than conventional flocculent activated sludge, especially as EPS,
414 since the secretion of such compounds is the basic principle of biofilm formation (Wang et al., 2020).

415 A significant difference was noted in terms of biopolymer composition. While the EPS was prevalent
416 in the AGS system, PHA prevailed in the flocculent-based systems, especially in the MBR. More
417 precisely, PHA content in AGS decreased with the OLR, whereas that of EPS showed an opposite
418 trend. The maximum PHA content was observed in Period 1, while resulting lower than 15% (w/w),
419 whereas the minimum was obtained in Period 3 (5.5% w/w). This suggested that when increasing the
420 OLR, organic carbon was mainly channelled towards the extracellular accumulation pathway. An
421 opposite trend was noted in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR. Indeed, the PHA content showed an overall
422 increasing trend with the OLR, reaching a maximum of 45% w/w in the AS-MBR and 24.5% in the
423 AS-SBR. These values were significantly higher than those obtained in the enrichment reactors, since
424 in the accumulation fed-batch reactors the C/N was higher than 80, thus promoting formation of
425 internal storage compounds (Silva et al., 2017). The EPS content decreased with the OLR revealing
426 an opposite trend to that observed in the AGS. Decrement in EPS production was reported in previous
427 studies and it was attributed to substrate inhibition at high concentrations of organic carbon (Zhao et
428 al., 2021) and to overgrowth of filamentous bacteria (Li et al., 2020) as occurred in Period 3 in the
429 present study.

430 Based on the obtained results, the AS-SBR and AS-MBR systems exhibited a better capacity of PHA
431 accumulation than the AGS, in which EPS were the main biopolymers produced by the enriched
432 culture. In a previous study, activated sludge floc size was found inversely correlated with PHA
433 accumulation capacity (Li et al., 2019). This finding was confirmed by the present study, while
434 extending the results also to biofilm-like systems (AGS). The growth in sludge floc size resulted in a
435 reduction in specific surface area and mass transfer rate, causing adverse impacts on microbial life
436 activities. In this sense, the smaller flocs size that characterize activated sludge in MBR systems could
437 have been beneficial in promoting culture selection with high PHA accumulation capacity.
438 Nevertheless, in larger bio-aggregates as aerobic granules, EPS play a key role in their formation and
439 stability in the long term (Corsino et al., 2016). According to the literature, as external stressors
440 increase (e.g., OLR), the EPS secretion is stimulated, especially if a full aerobic cultivation strategy

is applied. Indeed, as reported in previous studies, anaerobic feeding is favourable to the enrichment of microorganisms that could take up organic matter and convert it to internal carbon source during the anaerobic phase (Carrera et al., 2019; Corsino et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2024). In contrast, aerobic feeding led to the development of fast-growing microorganisms and promoted more production of more EPS (Li et al., 2021). Moreover, increase in OLR was often associated with larger size granules (Di Bella and Torregrossa, 2013), which could further hamper the PHA accumulation capacity. Overall, the PHA productivity from the AS-SBR and AS-MBR aligned with previous researches (Argiz et al., 2022; Isern-Cazorla et al., 2023; Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2020; Valentino et al., 2017). However, the results from the AGS system indicated a significant gap from the average results reported in the literature, although at low OLR results were comparable with other studies (Amorim de Carvalho et al., 2021; Rojas-Zamora et al., 2023). Therefore, it is necessary to optimize the enrichment stage in the AGS system to enhance culture selection and maximize the content of PHA.

3.4 Assessment of carbon channelling towards PHA and EPS

As previously discussed, two organic carbon accumulation pathways mainly outcompeted in the accumulation reactors, involving formation of intracellular storage compounds (PHA) or extracellular (EPS). To evaluate the percentage of COD directed towards PHA and EPS production, mass balances in the fed-batch reactors were performed. Figure 5 shows the results obtained in the accumulation assays performed at the end of each experimental period at steady state.

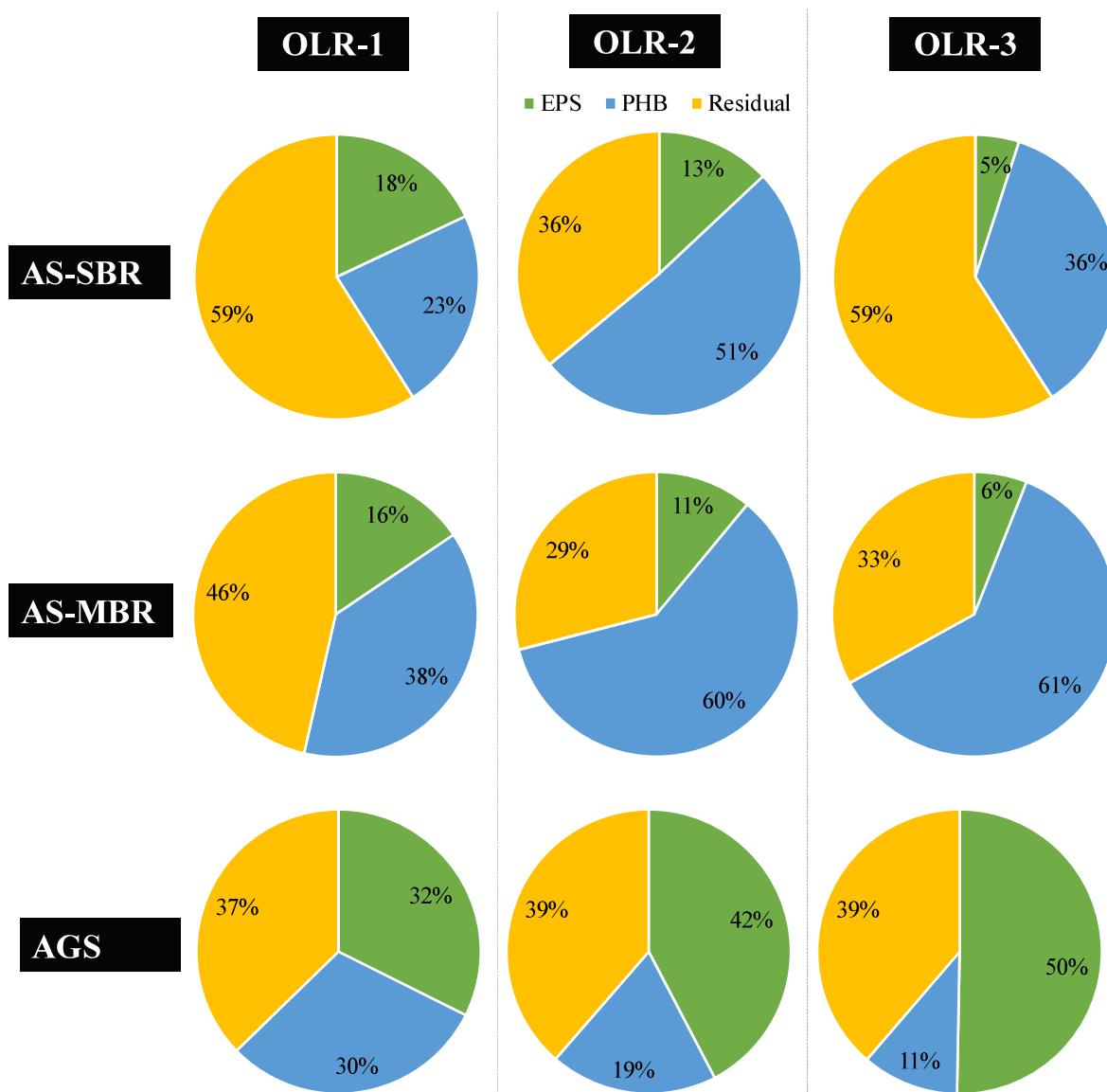


Figure 5: Percentage of COD converted into PHA and EPS during the accumulation assays.

In Period 1, the highest fraction of the COD converted into intracellular storage compounds was found in the AS-MBR (38% w/w), while lower values were obtained in the AGS (30% w/w) and the AS-SBR (23% w/w). In contrast, the AGS showed the highest percentage of COD conversion towards EPS (32% w/w), whereas the AS-MBR (16% w/w) the lowest. When increasing the OLR in the enrichment reactors at OLR of 2 kgCOD/m³·d, the COD channelled towards PHA significantly rose in the AS-SBR (51% w/w) and the AS-MBR (60% w/w), consistently with the results previously

discussed. Indeed, as the PHA was mainly constituted by hydroxybutyrate monomers (PHB), the COD conversion yield to PHA reflected the yields (as gPHA/gVSS) reported in the previous sections. It is worth noticing that at high OLR in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR, the organic carbon was mainly directed towards PHA storage pathways at the expense of the EPS. Indeed, the COD converted into EPS significantly decreased at high OLR, standing at about 5% (w/w), indicating that MMC in the AS-SBR and AS-MBR were mainly enriched in PHA-accumulating organisms. Therefore, increasing the OLR in the enrichment reactors of the flocculent sludge-based systems was found a suitable solution to tackle biopolymers accumulation via the extracellular pathway. These results clearly reflected the findings previously presented about the biopolymers production observed in the three systems. This suggested that the enrichment MMC strategies applied did not produce the same results in terms of MMC speciation when dealing with flocculent sludge-based systems and AGS. Theoretically, in AGS the higher bacterial diversity could sustain both the production of EPS and PHA. In this respect, a previous study reported that simultaneous PHA and EPS production was obtained in AGS system, although EPS was the main component (3.92 g/L vs 2.62 g/L) (Kopperi et al., 2021). The same authors found that EPS production increased when operating at high OLR, at the expense of PHA. Moreover, it was hypothesized that EPS hydrolysis products were used by other bacteria to support PHA production, thus indicating that EPS production was a priority process in AGS systems. Substrate competition for EPS and PHA accumulation was reported in previous studies (Koller and Rodríguez-Contreras, 2015; Oliveira et al., 2021; Rojas-Zamora et al., 2023). Specifically, the authors reported that competition for organic matter in AGS was intensified with the increase of environmental stressors that induced microorganisms to produce more EPS to maintain the granule structure. Previous literature studies reported that overstressed OLR induced more EPS production in full aerobic granular sludge reactors (Liu and Tay, 2015). Moreover, compared with the other systems, the higher hydraulic selection pressure induced by the low settling time, is known to be a key stressor that induced bacteria to produce more EPS to sustain the granule structure (Adav et al., 2009, 2008; McSwain et al., 2004). In this sense, previous literature

demonstrated that the hydraulic selection pressure (or the minimum settling velocity) resulted in granular sludge having a higher EPS content (McSwain et al., 2004).

In the present study, a full-aerobic strategy was implemented to achieve aerobic granulation instead of the up-flow anaerobic. The former is used when a fast granulation is required and involve the growth of fast-forming microorganisms able to secrete larges EPS amount. Contrarily, up-flow anaerobic feeding is helpful to selection of slow-growing microorganisms able to convert easily biodegradable carbon into storage polymers (Iorhemen and Liu, 2021). Therefore, based on the findings of the present study, feast/famine selection strategy performed under full aerobic conditions resulted more suitable to enrich the MMC with PHA-accumulating organisms in the AS-based systems rather than biofilm-like. In this respect, previous literature studies suggested that such conditions in AGS system are favourable for the growth of fast-growing microorganisms and promoted production of more EPS (Li et al., 2021). Full aerobic conditions and high OLR are beneficial to formation of large granules (Di Bella and Torregrossa, 2013), which are reported to present lower PHA yields since the scarcity of substrate inside the granules would prevent the bacteria located in that region to produce PHA (Amorim de Carvalho et al., 2021). Nevertheless, further studies are required to clarify this aspect.

Overall, tackling extracellular pathways for carbon storage was easier to achieve in the MBR system. Furthermore, minimize the EPS content in the sludge represents a significant advantage for MBR systems as membrane fouling is mitigated. On the other hand, minimize the EPS content in biological system in which the solid-liquid separation is gravity-driven could be detrimental to process performance, especially if a mainstream PHA-enrichment stage is implemented. Indeed, if on the one hand EPS are essential for AGS formation and stability in the long term, they are even fundamental to form activated sludge flocs with high settling properties (Tian et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that EPS extraction from AGS has been recently recognized as a new frontier on biopolymers recovery from AGS (Campo et al., 2022). Indeed, EPS showed promising applications as flame retardants, bio-flocculants and other environmental applications. In this sense,

522 given the great potential of AGS to produce EPS, carbon channelling towards extracellular storage
523 pathways should not be seen as a competitive reaction to PHA production rather an alternative to
524 diversify the biopolymers recovery from waste sludge.

525

526 *3.5 Implementation of PHA production in the mainstream of an industrial WWTP: challenges and* 527 *perspectives*

528 Integration of PHA production within existing WWTP infrastructure was a concept already
529 introduced in previous literature (Anterrieu et al., 2014). These authors exploited the treatment of a
530 sugar factory wastewater to produce biomass enriched in PHA accumulating organisms while still
531 meeting the effluent water quality goal. More recently, this concept was applied to a WWTP treating
532 municipal wastewater (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2015). The authors successfully obtained activated
533 sludge with PHA accumulation potential, while obtaining average removals of 70% COD. An
534 innovative process named SCEPPHAR (ShortCut Enhanced Phosphorous and PHA Recovery) was
535 proposed within a EUH2020 project (Smart-Plant), implementing a novel plant in which
536 simultaneous recovery of PHA and phosphorous was obtained (Conca et al., 2020). These schemes
537 involve a noticeable modification of the original plant layout, mainly attributable to the production
538 of volatile fatty acids (VFA). When dealing with certain types of industrial wastewaters, the aerobic
539 feast-famine strategy on the readily biodegradable COD is sufficient to select a PHA-storing biomass,
540 thus avoiding a VFA production step (Morgan-Sagastume et al., 2015). If on the one hand this
541 constituted a definite advantage, on the other, industrial wastewaters are characterized by seasonal,
542 weekly or daily variations in their composition. Certainly, this could have a remarkable impact on
543 effluent water quality and PHA productivity (Corsino et al., 2022; Larriba et al., 2020). Therefore,
544 technologies able to provide stable performances even under sudden variability of the wastewater
545 quality is essential to ensure high reliability to the entire process. Moreover, it should be bearing in
546 mind that industrial facilities often require treatment technologies with low footprint. In this scenario,
547 MBR is a compact technology that was proven to be effective in obtaining high PHA-production

548 potential, not entailing the carbon removal efficiency. Indeed, it enabled to meet effluent quality
549 standards within a wide range of OLRs, allowing to overcome operational challenges highlighted by
550 other systems. Although both the AS-SBR and AGS systems showed a good potential for
551 implementation in a mainstream process for PHA production, their stability was limited within a small
552 range of OLR. It is worth to be reminded that instability in such systems occurred in terms of
553 worsening of settling properties (AS-SBR) and granules breakage (AGS). From a practical
554 perspective, this could involve not only the overcome of the effluent discharge limits, but also the
555 washout of the PHA-accumulating biomass. This would imply the occurrence of transitional periods
556 during which the PHA potential would significantly decrease. Considering the noticeable load
557 variations typical of industrial wastewaters, nor the conventional activated sludge neither the granular
558 sludge systems ensure, so far, a sufficient robustness and resilience to be considered as suitable
559 technologies for mainstream implementation within an industrial WWTP. Form this point of view,
560 membrane retention in AS-MBR systems would ensure a greater guarantee towards the washout of
561 PHA-accumulating organisms' occurrence. Also, the higher biomass retention capacity, just because
562 it does not affect the solid-liquid separation phase, allows better withstand the effect of high OLRs,
563 thereby enabling a higher process resilience and shorter response time to load variations. In addition,
564 it should be bearing in mind that MBR provides the potential possibility to recover the treated
565 wastewater for reuse purposes (Di Trapani et al., 2019). This is of a matter importance, with a view
566 to implement environmentally friendly technologies that allow maximizing resource recovery from
567 wastewater treatment, thus coping with circular economy requirements. Therefore, MBR could be
568 considered a real and practical opportunity to integrate PHA production in the mainstream of an
569 industrial WWTP.

570 Nonetheless, further studies are still needed to clarify several aspects. First, the eventual variation of
571 the extracted PHA quality should be analyzed and put in relationship with the variability of the
572 wastewater used as feedstock or other operating parameters. In addition, economic assessment
573 including the potential recovery of other resources (e.g., wastewater for reuse, EPS, etc) should be

574 encouraged. In this context, while the technical feasibility of implementing a process to produce
575 PHA-enriched sludge within a WWTP for the treatment of industrial wastewater is achievable with
576 various technologies, the implementation of the extraction and purification processes is far from
577 straightforward. The processes used for PHA extraction entail high management costs. On one hand,
578 the application of high temperatures, and on the other hand, the use of chemicals, involves substantial
579 expenses, not mentioning those required for the disposal of waste resulting from the extraction
580 process. In light of these aspects, additional efforts are needed to make the production of PHA from
581 wastewater technically and economically sustainable. The establishment of centralized facilities
582 where PHA-enriched sludge from different WWTPs can be deposited, and within which biopolymers
583 can be extracted, could certainly reduce specific costs and make the entire process economically
584 viable.

585

586 **Conclusions**

587 The present investigation has found that the conventional full aerobic feast-famine feeding strategy
588 for enrichment of MMC can be used to produce biomass with high biopolymers producing potential
589 in AS, MBR and AGS systems, while meeting the water effluent quality standards. Flocculent sludge-
590 based systems (AS, MBR) were found to have higher PHA productivity, whereas in the AGS, the
591 organic carbon was mainly driven towards EPS pathways accumulations. Integration of PHA
592 production in the mainstream of an industrial WWTP resulted limited when using the AS-SBR and
593 AGS, since at certain OLR a simultaneous drop of purification performances and PHA accumulation
594 potential was observed. On the other hand, the results demonstrated the full potential of membrane
595 bioreactor technology that was proven to exhibit a greater robustness in terms of PHA productivity
596 and process performances.

597

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604

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