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1	Comparison of typical nitrite oxidizing bacteria suppression strategies
2	and the effect on nitrous oxide emissions in a biofilm reactor
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10	Abstract:
11	In mainstream partial nitritation/anammox (PN/A), suppression of nitrite oxidizing
12	bacteria (NOB) and mitigation of N_2O emissions are two essential operational goals.
13	The N ₂ O emissions linked to three typical NOB suppression strategies were tested in

14 a covered rotating biological contactor biofilm system at 21°C: (i) low dissolved oxygen 15 (DO) concentrations, and treatments with (ii) free ammonia (FA), and (iii) free nitrous 16 acids (FNA). Low emerged DO levels effectively minimized NOB activity and decreased 17 N₂O emissions, but NOB adaptation appeared after 200 days of operation. Further 18 NOB suppression was successfully achieved by periodic (3 hours per week) treatments with FA (29.3 ± 2.6 mg NH₃-N L⁻¹) or FNA (3.1 ± 0.3 mg HNO₂-N L⁻¹). FA treatment, 19 20 however, promoted N₂O emissions, while FNA did not affect these. Hence, biofilm PN/A should be operated at relatively low DO levels with periodic FNA treatment to 21 22 maximize nitrogen removal efficiency while avoiding high greenhouse gas emissions. Keywords: Deammonification; Nitrous oxide; Carbon footprint; Sewage; Biological 23

24 nutrient removal; Nitrification

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Partial nitritation/anammox (PN/A), a cost-effective and energy-efficient nitrogen 27 removal process based on anoxic ammonium oxidation (anammox), has attracted 28 increasing attention (Agrawal et al., 2018). Several successful PN/A applications have 29 been reported in the side stream (sludge line) (Lackner et al., 2014). For mainstream 30 PN/A, i.e. application to the sewage water line, it is more challenging to achieve long-31 term stability than for the side stream process, which is mainly attributed to the lower temperature in temperate climates (10-15°C versus >30°C) and lower nitrogen 32 33 concentrations making nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) suppression difficult (Laureni et al., 2016; Peng et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2022). The key goal is that the activities of 34 35 the 'functional' anoxic- ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AnAOB) and aerobic 36 ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AerAOB) can be maintained while unwanted NOB are 37 effectively inhibited. Till now, strategies that relied on the physiological characteristics 38 of these three groups of bacteria have been tested. Specifically for NOB, the observed 39 growth rate (dX_{NOB}/dt) was shown in Eq. 1 (Laureni et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021), 40 indicating that NOB suppression can be obtained using three main strategies, e.g., 41 reducing bacterial growth rate ($\mu_{NOB,max}$), promoting biomass decay rate (b_{NOB}), and 42 increasing NOB's washout (sludge retention time (SRT) decrease).

43
$$\frac{\mathrm{dX}_{NOB}}{\mathrm{X}_{NOB} \cdot \mathrm{dt}} = \left(\mu_{NOB,max} - \mathrm{b}_{NOB} - \frac{1}{\mathrm{SRT}}\right)$$
(Eq. 1)

44 To reduce $\mu_{NOB,max}$, low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations (Hausherr et al., 2022; 45 Ma et al., 2011) or intermittent aeration (Gu et al., 2022; Peng et al, 2020) are

commonly used in the reaction system because NOB has a higher half-saturation 46 constant of O₂ compared to AerAOB, which means that NOB lose more activity as the 47 48 DO level decreases (Blackburne et al., 2008). To promote b_{NOB}, free ammonia (FA, the 49 un-ionized form of ammonium) treatment (Wang et al., 2017), free nitrous acid (FNA, the protonated form of nitrite) treatment (Peng et al., 2020), or alternating FA/FNA 50 51 shocks (Duan et al., 2019) have been successfully applied. The low FA and FNA levels 52 in the mainstream (due to the low nitrogen concentrations and temperature) limit the 53 possibility to directly suppress NOB, but this could be tackled by return-sludge 54 treatment (high FA and FNA conditions could be achieved in the side stream) (Peng et 55 al., 2020). To increase the value of 1/SRT, 'SRT control' was applied to remove NOB (e.g., flocs) while maintaining AnAOB (e.g., biofilm) (Agrawal et al., 2018). An 56 57 integrated fixed-film activated sludge reactor (IFAS), where AnAOB grow on carriers 58 (long-biofilm) and NOB commonly on flocs (short-floc), or a two-stage PN/A process, 59 where the 'partial nitritation' and 'anammox' processes were separated into two 60 reactors, has been used (Peng et al., 2020; Seuntjens et al., 2018).

61 The strategies described above are usually accompanied by high ammonium (potentially during FA treatment) and high nitrite concentrations (potentially during 62 63 FNA treatment), and the strategies can be potentially powerful inducers of nitrous 64 oxide (N₂O) production and emission (Laureni et al, 2016; Peng et al., 2014). That led to variations in N_2O emissions (3.0 – 6.4% of the influent nitrogen loading) from 65 mainstream PN/A systems (Ali et al., 2016; Connan et al., 2018; De Clippeleir et al., 66 2013). N₂O is a potent greenhouse gas (~265-fold stronger in global warming potential 67 68 than carbon dioxide (CO₂)) and a strong ozone-depleting substance (Peng et al., 2020; 69 Ravishankara et al., 2009). There are two main routes for AerAOB to produce N₂O, i.e.,

the nitrifier denitrification route ($NO_2^- \rightarrow NO \rightarrow N_2O$) (Kampschreur et al., 2008) and the NH₂OH oxidation route (a side product of the incomplete oxidation process: NH_4^+ $\rightarrow NH_2OH \rightarrow NO_2^-$) (Peng et al., 2014). Nitrite and DO levels are thus critical factors affecting N₂O production. In addition, there is a third N₂O production route when organic carbon is present (Ma et al., 2017), i.e., heterotrophic denitrification (anoxic reduction of NO_2^- or $NO_3^- \rightarrow N_2O$).

76 Only by studying the influences of different NOB suppression strategies on N₂O 77 emissions, the optimal strategy that suppresses NOB activity while limiting N₂O 78 emissions and carbon footprint, can be identified. Although multiple NOB suppression 79 strategies have been employed in various studies, as well as the linked N₂O emissions, 80 there is a lack of research that compares these distinct methods within a single system. 81 This is crucial to ensure a fair comparison, as the results can be influenced by factors 82 such as microbial community composition and types of sludge. Furthermore, there is 83 also a dearth of knowledge regarding the dynamic characteristics of N₂O emissions 84 during the treatment process and between different treatment approaches. Thus, 85 there is a need to further investigate and understand these aspects.

The present research's overall objective was to test the effectiveness of typical NOB suppression strategies and quantify the accompanying N₂O emissions. To achieve that, the N₂O emissions linked to three common NOB strategies, i.e., low DO levels control, periodic FA treatment, and periodic FNA treatment, were characterized.

90 2. Materials and methods

91 **2.1. Rotating biological contactor (RBC)**

92 An RBC with mature PN/A biofilm was operated at 21 ± 0.6 °C for 550 days (Figure 1).

93 Detailed information on this reactor was presented by Van Tendeloo et al. (2021). The discs' submersion level was fixed at 50%, corresponding to an effective volume of 51 94 95 L. With a disc rotation speed of 1.8 rpm, a consecutive exposure of 17 s emerged and 96 submerged condition was achieved. The RBC was covered by an airtight overhead 97 cover, creating a controlled headspace. The O₂ concentration in this headspace (i.e., the emerged DO level) was controlled by the inlet flow rates of N₂ and compressed air 98 99 to the headspace. Except for days 401 to 450 when the effect of different emerged DO levels was assessed, the conditions were fixed at 0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$ (the values were 100 ranging between $0.19 - 1.84 \text{ mg } O_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ during days 401 to 450). 101

102 The emerged DO levels meant the O₂ concentration in the liquid around the biofilm, 103 which was estimated from the gas phase measurement in the present research (the 104 corresponding O_2 level, which could be dissolved in the liquid film, linked to O_2 in the 105 gas phase). Microorganisms always take up the O₂ from the liquid film. According to 106 previous research, 85–89% of the O₂ input was directly absorbed during the air 107 exposure of the discs (air phase) (Courtens et al., 2014). The off-gas was actively 108 pumped out by a gas analyzer at 330 L h⁻¹, which equalled to the inlet gas flow rate (the total inlet flow rate of N₂ and compressed air). 109

The synthetic mainstream wastewater was made from tap water supplemented with $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (47.6 ± 2.3 mg N L⁻¹), NaHCO₃ (5 mg HCO₃⁻ mg⁻¹ N), KH₂PO₄ (7.5 mg P L⁻¹), and trace elements solutions A/B (0.01 ml L⁻¹) (de Graaf et al., 1995). The influent flow rate was kept at ~120 L d⁻¹ in a continuous mode (Watson-Marlow 323, United Kingdom), resulting in a nitrogen loading rate of 105.2 ± 5.2 mg N L⁻¹ d⁻¹.

115 **2.2 Overall Experimental Plan**

116 The experiment was divided into four phases.

117 **2.2.1** Phase – I: Long-term operation at low emerged DO level

In Phase – I (from days 0 to 400), the long-term stability of mainstream PN/A under low emerged DO level was studied. Because of the high initial NOB activity, the emerged DO level was reduced from $0.80 O_2 L^{-1}$ to $0.60 mg O_2 L^{-1}$ on day 26 to suppress NOB activity. This value (0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$) was selected since the reactivation of NOB was observed in the biofilm after the DO increased to values higher than 0.65 mg O_2 L^{-1} (Wang et al., 2018). Afterward, a period of up to 374 days was used to verify the stability of NOB inhibition by a low emerged DO level.

125

2.2.2 Phase – II: Effect of different emerged DO levels on the N₂O emission

In Phase - II (from days 401 to 450), the effect of emerged DO levels on the 126 performance of the PN/A process and N₂O emission was investigated. The DO set 127 128 point was manipulated within the range of 0.2-1.8 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$, with increments of 0.4 129 mg O₂ L⁻¹ (average experimental value: 0.19, 0.60, 0.91, 1.43, and 1.84 mg O₂ L⁻¹). This adjustment was made by modifying the influent flow rates of N₂ (ranging from 8.8 L h⁻ 130 ¹ to 11.4 L h⁻¹) and compressed air (ranging from 0.2 L h⁻¹ to 2.8 L h⁻¹) into the 131 headspace. Each DO level was tested for only 2 days to avoid a strong (irreversible) 132 133 increase in NOB activity at higher emerged DO conditions. Subsequently, the emerged 134 DO level was returned to ~0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$. When the NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ conversion rates 135 were recovered to the benchmark, the next emerged DO level was tested.

136

2.2.3 Phase – III: Effect of FA treatment on the N₂O emission

137 In Phase – III (from days 451 to 497), FA was used as a stressor for NOB suppression.

In total, three FA treatments (3 hours per treatment) were performed with a 138 treatment interval of 7 days (days 453, 460, and 467). The FA treatment condition 139 $(29.3 \pm 2.6 \text{ mg NH}_3\text{-N L}^{-1} \text{ achieved at a pH of ~8.0, temperature of ~21°C, and }$ 140 ammonium concentration of ~735 mg N L⁻¹) was chosen based on the previous 141 research (Van Tendeloo et al., 2021). After the RBC recovered from the FA treatment, 142 the isolated effect of high pH (8.0, 3h) and high ammonium concentration (735 mg N 143 144 L^{-1} , 3h) shock was tested on days 487 – 490 and days 480 – 484, respectively, to verify the effect of these two factors on the N₂O emissions. The emerged DO level was stable 145 at 0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$ throughout the phase. 146

147

2.2.4 Phase – IV: Effect of FNA treatment on the N₂O emission

148 The NOB activity was positively correlated to the FNA treatment frequency (Duan et 149 al., 2018; Peng et al., 2020). However, the higher treatment frequency and FNA levels would lead to a significant reduction in AerAOB and AnAOB activity. The FA and FNA 150 151 levels selected in this research were based on the previous research based on realistic 152 values in STP. In Phase – IV (from days 498 to 550), three FNA biofilm treatments were applied. The FNA treatments lasted for 3 hours and were performed with a treatment 153 154 interval of 7 days (days 498, 505, and 512). The FNA treatment condition (3.1 ± 0.3 mg 155 HNO₂-N L^{-1} achieved at a pH of ~6.0, temperature of ~21°C, and nitrite concentration of ~1205 mg N L⁻¹) was chosen according to Peng et al. (2020). After the RBC recovered 156 157 from the FNA treatment, the isolated effect of low pH (6.0, 3h) and high nitrite concentration (1205 mg N L^{-1} , 3h) shock was tested on days 531 – 536 and 540 – 547, 158 respectively, to verify the effect of these two factors on the N_2O emissions. During the 159 160 whole period, the emerged DO level was again stable at 0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$.

161 **2.3 Online N₂O emission monitoring**

The off-gas was dehumidified with a gas cooler (Bühler Technologies, Germany) and 162 analyzed with an online N₂O gas analyzer (Emerson Rosemount CT5800 Quantum 163 164 Cascade Laser Gas Analyzer, United States, United States) with a range of 0 - 500 ppm (the lowest detection (LOD) was 2 ppm). The data was logged every 30 seconds. Zero 165 and span calibration were accomplished by calibrating the N₂O analyzer 166 167 measurements against N₂ of instrument gas purity and N₂O reference gas. The sampling flow rate was set at 330 L h⁻¹ by a vacuum pump (KNF Laboport, the 168 Netherlands) which equalled the inlet flow rate (N₂ and compressed air) to maintain 169 170 the gas balance.

171 The N₂O emission factor (%) was calculated according to the following equations:

172
$$N_2O$$
 emission factor = N_2O emitted \div NH_4^+ converted (Eq. 2)

173
$$N_2 0 \text{ emitted} = \sum (C_{N_2 0 \text{ gas}} \times Q_{\text{sampling pump}} \times \Delta t)$$
 (Eq. 3)

174
$$NH_4^+$$
 converted = NH_4^+ conversion rate $\times Q_{influent} \times \Delta t$ (Eq. 4)

175 where N_2O emitted represents the released N_2O over a certain amount of time [mg N_2O-N]; NH_4^+ converted represents the converted NH_4^+ over a certain amount of time 176 [mg NH₄⁺-N]; C_{N_2Ogas} represents the point N₂O concentration in the off-gas [mg N₂O-177 178 N L⁻¹]; $Q_{\text{sampling pump}}$ represents the flow rate of the gas sampling pump [330 L h⁻¹]; Δt represents the time interval by which the off-gas N_2O concentration was recorded [h]; 179 180 NH₄⁺ conversion rate is measured by daily sampling [mg N L⁻¹ d⁻¹]; Q_{influent} represents the flow rate of the influent (L h⁻¹). The N₂O concentration in the off-gas in ppm was 181 converted to mg N₂O-N L⁻¹ based on the volume occupied by 1 mole of an ideal gas at 182 standard temperature and pressure (0°C and 101.3 kPa), which is 22.4 L and corrected 183 184 for temperature of the gas sample (24°C).

The N₂O emission factor is calculated based on the average N₂O emitted within one day (continuous N₂O measurement (per 30 seconds) and daily water samples (for NH₄⁺ converted measurement)). The data were averaged over the entire period (from the moment the DO value changed to the moment it returned to 0.6 mg O₂ L⁻¹) in the tests at different DO levels. The background values for the indoor N₂O were also measured, which was almost negligible (the average N₂O emission factor was <0.2%).

191

2.4. Analytical procedures

192 Liquid samples were taken periodically from the influent and effluent to determine the PN/A performance. After filtering through a 0.2 μm syringe filter (CHROMAFIL Xtra 193 PVDF, Germany) and storing at 4°C, ammonium, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations 194 195 were measured with a San⁺⁺ Automated Wet Chemistry Analyzer (SKALAR, the 196 Netherlands) and Ion Chromatograph with a Metrosep A Supp 5- 150/4.0 column (Metrohm – Eco IC, Switzerland). The pH and DO values were measured using 197 handheld meters (Hach HQ30d, United States). The microbial community analysis 198 199 followed the procedure described in Zhu et al. (2022): 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were determined using the V4 region. The data have been 200 201 deposited with links to BioProject accession number PRJNA797575 in the NCBI 202 BioProject database.

The p-value obtained from the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was compared with a significance level of 0.05 to assess the level of variation. A p-value below 0.05 was considered acceptable evidence of a significant difference. The FA and FNA concentrations were calculated according to Anthonisen et al. (1976).

207 **2.5 Calculations: The relative NO**² **consumption by AnAOB and NOB**

215 P (AnAOB) =
$$\frac{NO_2^- \text{ consumed by AnAOB}}{\text{Influent } NO_2^- + NO_2^- \text{ produced by AerAOB}}$$
 (Eq. 5)

216
$$P(\text{excess}) = \frac{\text{Remained NO}_2^-}{\text{Influent NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_2^- \text{ produced by AerAOB}}$$
 (Eq. 6)

217
$$P(NOB) = 1 - P(AnAOB) - P(excess)$$
 (Eq. 7)

218 NO_2^- produced by AerAOB = NH_4^+ removed - NH_4^+ consumed by AnAOB (Eq. 8)

219
$$NO_2^-$$
 consumed by AnAOB = $\frac{1.23}{1 + 1.23 - 0.21} \times TN$ removed (Eq. 9)

220 NH₄⁺ consumed by AnAOB =
$$\frac{1}{1 + 1.23 - 0.21}$$
 × TN removed (Eq. 10)

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Long-term operation at low emerged DO levels

223 **3.1.1 Decrease the emerged DO level suppressed NOB**

Long-term stability is essential for successfully implementing mainstream PN/A at full
 scale. To assess the potential for this, the performance of the RBC was evaluated for
 400 days at a low emerged DO level. Initially, the emerged DO level was set at 0.80 mg
 O₂ L⁻¹. This, however, boosted NOB activity, resulting in a gradual increase in produced
 NO₃⁻ and a NO₂⁻ consumption by NOB of more than 50% (Figure 2). To suppress NOB,

the emerged DO level was decreased to 0.60 ± 0.02 mg O₂ L⁻¹ by changing the ratio 229 between the inlet flow rates of N₂ (from 8.8 L h⁻¹ to 11.4 L h⁻¹) and compressed air 230 (from 0.2 L h⁻¹ to 2.8 L h⁻¹) on day 26. Between days 26 and 200, the NO₃⁻ production 231 rate (from 33.8 to 5.8 mg N L^{-1} d⁻¹) and the percentage of NO₂⁻-N consumed by NOB 232 233 (from about 52% to about 0%) gradually decreased (Figure 2), indicating that NOB 234 activity was effectively reduced by the decrease of emerged DO levels. This is in line 235 with Zhu et al. (2023) and Van Tendeloo et al. (2021) who demonstrated that strict O₂ 236 control could achieve complete NOB suppression.

The NH₄⁺ removal rate remained stable between days 26 and 200 (71.7 \pm 5.7 mg 237 NH_4^+ -N L⁻¹ d⁻¹) (Figure 2A), indicating that decreasing the DO level from 0.8 mg O₂ L⁻¹ 238 to 0.60 mg O₂ L⁻¹ could effectively suppress NOB activity as well as maintain AerAOB 239 and AnAOB activities. In previous studies, DO levels in a biofilm PN/A system were 240 241 controlled below 0.20 mg O₂ L⁻¹ (to maintain enough AnAOB) to suppress NOB. Still, 242 this strategy lowered AerAOB activity, limiting the overall nitrogen removal rate 243 (Wang et al., 2021). The biofilm in the RBC faced an intermittent aeration mode, 244 switching between anoxic (i.e., submerged DO level of 0 mg O₂ L⁻¹) and low DO (i.e., emerged DO level of 0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$) every 17 seconds (i.e., transient anoxia). This 245 might balance the regular supply of O₂ for AerAOB to produce NO₂, followed by the 246 247 removal of the produced NO₂⁻ during the anoxic period by AnAOB while suppressing NOB activity. 248

After 200 days of operation at an emerged DO level of 0.60 mg O₂ L⁻¹, the NO₂⁻ consumption by NOB started to increase (e.g., 0% at day 204 versus 30% at day 392) (Figure 2). This might be due to the adaptation of the suppressed NOB to the low DO conditions (i.e., NOB became more efficient in competing with AerAOB for O₂ and with 11 253 AnAOB for NO₂⁻) (Cao et al., 2018). Microbial community analysis revealed that the 254 enrichment in K-strategists Nitrospira (from 0.8% before the DO change on day 26 to 255 4.7% on day 402), a NOB genus with a higher affinity to O_2 than others (e.g., Nitrobacter and Nitrotoga) (Wang et al., 2021), in the PN/A biofilm (see 256 supplementary material). The enrichment of *Nitrospira* would eventually result in the 257 258 failure of the nitrite shunt, which led to the deterioration of the PN/A system (Duan 259 et al., 2019). Cao et al. (2018) also revealed the enrichment of *Nitrospira* during the 260 process of NOB adaptation to low DO level. At the same time, NOB are also likely to 261 maintain structural and genetic integrity by repairing and minimizing damage to the 262 cellular infrastructure at low DO levels (Duan et al., 2019). The adaptation of NOB to low DO levels after the long-term operation (> 200 days) has also been reported by 263 Cao et al. (2018). Even though reducing the emerged DO level from 0.8 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$ to 264 265 0.6 mg O_2 L⁻¹ could inhibit NOB activity, the adaptation of NOB to the low DO 266 conditions occurred in the long-term run. Thus, to achieve a successful and stable PN/A system, the combined treatment built upon the low DO control to suppress NOB 267 268 is worthy of further investigation.

269

3.1.2 Decreasing the emerged DO levels reduced the N_2O emission

To investigate the effect of DO control on N₂O emissions from the RBC, the emerged DO levels varied from 0.19 to 1.84 mg O₂ L⁻¹ between days 401 and 450. At an emerged DO level of 0.60 mg O₂ L⁻¹, the average N₂O emission factor was 1.92 \pm 0.47% which is within the typical range for a PN/A system (0.1 – 2.4% reviewed by Ali et al. (2016)). As shown in Figure 3, the N₂O emission factor increased with the increase of the emerged DO levels. At a DO of 0.19 mg O₂ L⁻¹, the N₂O emission factor was 1.59 \pm

0.05%, while at a DO of 1.84 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$, it was 2.48 ± 0.20%. One-way ANOVA analysis 276 showed a significant positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.9994$, p < 0.05) between the emerged 277 DO level and N₂O emission factor at the DO level lower than 0.91 mg O₂ L⁻¹. At higher 278 emerged DO levels, the correlation was no longer significant ($R^2 = 0.9224$, p > 0.05). 279 Since the nitrifier denitrification N₂O production route is linked to the nitrite 280 concentration (Ma et al., 2017), it possibly had only limited contribution to the N_2O 281 282 emission in this study because of the low nitrite concentration (0.6 ± 0.8 mg N L⁻¹) in 283 the system. Furthermore, heterotrophic denitrification was likely negligible since it 284 could only dominate when heterotrophy was stimulated in the presence of COD 285 (whereas the feed in the present study did not contain COD) (Ma et al., 2017). Therefore, N₂O emission might be mainly attributed to the NH₂OH oxidation pathway. 286 287 The positive correlation between the DO level and the N₂O emission via the NH₂OH 288 oxidation route was also demonstrated in the nitrifier community of previous research 289 (Domingo-Félez et al., 2014; Wunderlin et al., 2013). Hence, a low DO level is 290 recommended to decrease N_2O emissions from PN/A systems.

291 The emission of N₂O was dynamic (the average values were used when calculating 292 the N_2O emission factor) and was, amongst others, influenced by changes in operating 293 conditions in the reactor. A shift in emerged DO level caused an immediate change in 294 the emitted N_2O rate. Even when the DO level was not changed, the N_2O 295 concentration in the headspace varied. This might be caused by accumulation of NO_2^- , light, small differences in temperature (± 1°C) and microbial respiration, variable gas 296 pressure, or carbon fixation rate (Lotti et al., 2014). These findings are in line with Qiu 297 298 et al. (2021), who also found that the observed rate of N₂O production was dynamic even at a constant nitritation activity. 299

300

3.2 FA treatment on PN/A biofilm

301 **3.2.1 NOB suppression was further improved by FA treatment**

Long-term operation can trigger adaptation of NOB to low emerged DO conditions 302 (Section 3.1). In Phase – III (from days 451 to 497), FA treatment (29.3 \pm 2.6 mg NH₃-303 304 N L⁻¹) was therefore implemented in combination with the low emerged DO level 305 (~0.60 mg O₂ L⁻¹) to suppress NOB activity (Figure 4). Before the first FA treatment, an 306 average of 17.5 \pm 9.3% of the NO₂⁻ was consumed by NOB. This value decreased to 0% 307 on day 455 (two days after the first FA treatment), indicating that the activity of NOB was completely suppressed by FA treatment. The following two FA treatments kept 308 the NOB activity low between days 453 and 473 (e.g., 1.9% on day 470). The 309 310 effectiveness of FA treatment is consistent with Van Tendeloo et al. (2021). After the 311 last FA treatment, the inhibited NOB activity was gradually restored (e.g., 22.7% of the NO2⁻ was consumed by the NOB on day 480, 12 days after the last FA treatment), 312 313 which is also in line with Duan et al. (2019) who reported that stopping FA treatment 314 disrupted the established NO_2^- shunt. In conclusion, FA treatment successfully suppressed low DO-adapted NOB activity, but periodic treatments (3 hours per week) 315 316 were required to maintain the suppression.

There is no unified conclusion regarding the mechanism of FA on NOB suppression. One possibility is that FA directly exhibits inhibitory effects on enzymes involved in nitrite oxidation reactions in NOB (Vadivelu et al., 2006). This hindrance makes electron transfer during the respiration process more challenging for NOB, ultimately reducing their activity. Another possibility suggests that FA may have an inhibitory effect on the synthesis of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) in NOB, which significantly

hampers their anabolism (Yuan, 2007). The precise mechanisms and interactions between FA and NOB are still subjects of ongoing research, and further studies are necessary to comprehensively understand the inhibition mechanisms of FA on various NOB species.

During FA treatment, the NH₄⁺ removal rate decreased (68.2 \pm 6.1 versus 76.9 \pm 4.6 327 mg N L⁻¹ d⁻¹), indicating that AerAOB activity was also influenced by the FA treatment 328 329 (30 mg NH₃-N L^{-1}). The residual nitrite concentration was increased (9.1 ± 6.7% versus 330 <5% before FA treatment), suggesting that the inhibitory effect of FA treatment on 331 NOB might be stronger than that on AerAOB. A more selective inhibition on NOB 332 guaranteed a stable operation of the PN/A system. Seuntjens et al. (2018) also used a similar FA level (30 mg NH₃-N L⁻¹, 3 hours) to suppress NOB and reported that FA 333 334 treatment as the sole strategy could not inhibit NOB (increase in relative activity ratio 335 between AerAOB and NOB). This suggests that the combination of FA treatment with 336 a low DO level control is critical to obtain NOB suppression.

337

3.2.2 FA treatment increased the N₂O emission

N₂O concentrations in the air-phase of the RBC system were measured to assess the 338 339 effect of FA treatment on the N₂O emissions. Before the FA treatment (benchmark, days 350 to 400), the N₂O emission factor was $1.65 \pm 0.10\%$. It rapidly increased to 340 2.33 ± 0.36%, 2.40 ± 0.45%, and 2.15 ± 0.30% after each FA treatment (days 453, 460, 341 342 and 467), respectively (Figure 5), revealing that FA treatment promoted N₂O emission from the RBC system. After the final FA treatment, the N₂O emission factor gradually 343 decreased back to the benchmark within a week. To distinguish the effect of the FA 344 345 treatment from the influence of the higher ammonium concentration and pH level,

separated high pH (\sim 8.0, 3h) and high ammonium concentration (\sim 735 mg N L⁻¹, 3h) 346 shocks were tested on days 488 – 490 and days 480 – 484. Results showed that the 347 348 high pH level did not affect the N₂O emission factor (1.68 \pm 0.08%), whereas the NH₄⁺ 349 shock promoted the emission of N₂O ($2.27 \pm 0.13\%$ versus $1.65 \pm 0.10\%$ from the benchmark), suggesting that the high ammonium concentration might be the main 350 contributor to the high N₂O emission of FA treatment. Kampschreur et al. (2009) also 351 352 reported that the N₂O emission increased with increasing ammonium concentration 353 in a full-scale STP.

354 DO and NO_2^{-} levels are two other essential factors affecting N₂O production by 355 AerAOB (Peng et al., 2014; Wunderlin et al., 2013). The DO levels were always constant 356 during the tests that the residual NO_2^{-} levels were likely the main influencing factor 357 since it was positively correlated with the N_2O (Peng et al., 2015). After the FA 358 treatment, due to the residual NO₂⁻ increase (10.7 \pm 6.7% versus 4.2 \pm 1.7%), the 359 nitrifier denitrification N₂O production pathway might also play a role. The nitrifier denitrification route is nitrite-sensitive because the expression of copper-containing 360 361 NO₂⁻ reductase (NirK) is regulated by a nitrite-sensitive transcription repressor protein (Beaumont et al., 2004). The lower residual NO2⁻ after the third FA treatment 362 363 corresponded to the lower N₂O emission factor, which confirmed the role of residual 364 NO₂⁻. Due to the operation being kept constant after the FA treatment (e.g., influent 365 ammonium concentrations and the emerged DO levels), the N_2O produced through 366 the NH₂OH oxidation route was likely the same as before. Thus, the N₂O emission 367 increased after the FA treatment might be attributed to the rate increase of nitrifier 368 denitrification route in the present research.

369 The N₂O emission was also dynamic during the FA treatments. At the beginning of 16

370 the FA treatment, the N₂O concentration in the air phase rapidly increased (e.g., from 371 1.03 to 4.23 ppm within 30 minutes during the first FA treatment). Subsequently, the 372 N₂O production gradually decreased (e.g., from 4.23 to 2.31 ppm). A peak was 373 observed after 3 hours of FA treatment, followed by a decrease in N₂O production. Even after 8 hours, the N₂O emission was still higher than the N₂O emission before the 374 375 FA treatment. The high residual ammonium concentration might have increased the 376 NH4⁺ oxidation rate, which probably yielded more intermediates (e.g., HNO, a 377 byproduct during the oxidation process: $NH_2OH \rightarrow N_2O$) (Law et al., 2012). The NH_4^+ 378 shock caused a rapid increase in N_2O concentration (e.g., from 4.02 to 24.06 ppm in 379 the first shock). Although the value gradually decreased to 16.15 ppm after 3 hours, 380 probably due to the decrease in ammonium concentration, it was still more than 10 381 times higher than the baseline. At high NH4⁺ levels, not only the NH2OH oxidation 382 route in AerAOB was promoted, but also N₂O emissions from AnAOB were reported 383 to be enhanced (Jin et al., 2016).

The high pH (8.0) shock had a limited influence on N_2O emission (the drop during 384 385 the shock can be attributed to the cessation of influent). The effect of pH on N₂O emissions was likely directly related to the influence on the bacterial enzymes and 386 387 nitrogen compounds rather than corresponding to a shift in bacterial communities 388 (not long enough for a change). A pH range of 6.0 - 8.0 is not expected to affect the 389 ammonia oxidation rate, and was therefore not expected to affect N_2O emissions. It 390 was agreed by Ribera-Guardia and Pijuan (2017) that the N₂O emission was not 391 influenced by a pH decrease (8.0 \rightarrow 6.5).

392 **3.3**

3.3 FNA treatment on PN/A biofilm

393

3.3.1 NOB suppression was further improved by FNA treatment

394 After stopping the FA treatment, the percentage of NO_2^- consumed by NOB increased to 13.5 ± 5.6 %, showing the recovery of NOB activity. In Phase – IV (from days 498 – 395 396 550), FNA treatment ($3.1 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg HNO}_2$ -N L⁻¹) was applied in combination with low 397 emerged DO levels (~0.60 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$) (Figure 4) to suppress NOB activity. The FNA 398 treatment rapidly inhibited the NOB activity, decreasing the percentage of nitrite 399 consumed by NOB (0%). Wang et al. (2014) also found that FNA treatment (0.24 - 1.35400 mg HNO₂⁻-N L⁻¹) had a significantly higher biocidal effect on NOB than AerAOB. After 401 the last FNA treatment on day 512, the inhibited NOB activity was suppressed for the 402 following 15 days (e.g., only 4.1% of NO₂⁻ was consumed by the NOB on day 527). That was different from FA treatment in which the activity of NOB was rapidly recovered 403 after the treatment (~6 days versus ~15 days). To conclude, low-DO adapted NOB 404 405 were successfully suppressed by FNA treatment, but periodic treatment is also 406 required to sustain the suppression. Wang et al. (2016a) also reported that low DO conditions (0.30 – 0.80 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$) combined with the FNA treatment successfully 407 408 suppressed NOB in the mainstream PN/A system. This finding is contradicting results of Van Tendeloo et al. (2021) who showed that FNA treatments with similar 409 concentrations failed to suppress NOB activity, which might be attributed to the 410 411 difference in reactor setup (RBC without overhead cover), operating conditions 412 (higher emerged and submerged DO levels), and the community composition (e.g., dominant NOB genus was *Nitrotoga* versus *Nitrospira* in the present research). 413

414 FNA has the ability to enhance the permeability of the cell membrane, facilitating 415 the entry of nitrite into the cells. This change in the intracellular environment can 416 disrupt the functioning of enzymes involved in electron transfer and proton 18 translocation processes (Philips et al., 2002). Additionally, FNA can inhibit the enzymes
responsible for electron transfer and proton translocation in NOB, subsequently
impeding ATP synthesis and affecting reactions catalyzed by ATPases. As a result, the
activity of NOB is diminished (Frison et al., 2013).

After the FNA treatment, the NH₄⁺ removal rate did not differ from the value before treatment (77.9 \pm 5.5 versus 76.9 \pm 4.6 mg N L⁻¹ d⁻¹). In addition, almost no residual NO₂⁻ (0.8 \pm 0.6 mg N L⁻¹) was present in the RBC system. Both results indicated that AnAOB and AerAOB activities were not affected by FNA treatment. In contrast, Peng et al. (2020) reported that FNA treatment exerted an inhibitory impact on both AerAOB and NOB, while the inhibition on NOB was stronger than AerAOB. This difference might be attributed to the higher stability of the biofilm structure in RBC.

428

3.3.2 FNA treatment did not affect N₂O emission

The N₂O emission factor after FNA treatment (based on the low-DO conditions) was 429 430 also evaluated. The values were 1.73 \pm 0.27%, 1.64 \pm 0.24%, and 1.64 \pm 0.34% after 431 each FNA treatment, respectively (Figure 6). There was no difference compared to the benchmark (1.72 ± 0.16%) before the first FNA treatment. That differed from the FA 432 433 treatment, which promoted the N₂O emissions in the RBC system. To distinguish the effect of FNA treatment on the N₂O emission from the effect of a nitrite concentration 434 and pH level, low pH value (\sim 6.0, 3h) and high nitrite concentration (\sim 1205 mg N L⁻¹, 435 436 3h) shocks were tested on days 531 - 536 and days 540 - 547. Both the low pH (1.68 \pm 0.23%) and high nitrite concentration (1.70 \pm 0.16%) did not affect the N₂O emission 437 factor $(1.65 \pm 0.10\%)$ in the benchmark), corresponding to the fact that FNA treatment 438 439 does not affect N₂O emissions.

Even if the high NO₂⁻ during the FNA treatment (3h) promoted the N₂O emission, 440 the nitrite concentration was reduced to < 1.0 mg N L⁻¹ within two hours. After the 441 FNA treatment, there is no change in the residual NO_2^{-1} (2.6 ± 2.2% versus 4.2 ± 1.7%), 442 443 suggesting the nitrifier denitrification N₂O production pathway likely still did not play a role, which is again in contrast to the results after the FA treatment (increased 444 residual NO2⁻ promoted N2O emission). In addition, the operation was also constant 445 446 with that before the treatment, indicating similar N₂O emitted from the PN/A system. 447 As mentioned above, the N₂O emissions were always dynamic, including during the 448 FNA treatment process. During the FNA treatment, the N₂O production gradually 449 decreased (e.g., from 4.15 to 3.27 ppm within 3 hours in the first FNA treatment). Due to the presence of high NO₂⁻, the nitrifier denitrification was likely the primary N₂O 450 451 production pathway during FNA treatment (Peng et al., 2015). According to previous 452 research, the nitrifier denitrification process is stimulated at moderate NO2⁻ range (0 453 – 50 mg N L⁻¹) (Peng et al., 2015), whereas inhibition appeared at high concentrations 454 $(500 - 1000 \text{ mg N L}^{-1})$ (Law et al., 2013). The NO₂⁻ level used in the present research 455 (1205 mg N L⁻¹) was already beyond the reported suppression range, which might change the detoxification mechanism of NirK (copper-containing nitrite reductase), 456 altering the stimulation threshold of NO₂⁻ to N₂O emissions (Wang et al., 2016b). That 457 458 could explain the limited influence of FNA treatment on the N₂O emission. After 3 459 hours of FNA treatment, the production gradually returned to the benchmark. Due to 460 the sensitivity of the N_2O emission to high nitrite concentration being relatively large (Tallec et al., 2006), the N₂O production rapidly increased at the beginning of the NO₂⁻ 461 462 shock (e.g., from 3.91 to 6.33 ppm within 10 minutes in the first NO_2^- shock). Subsequently, the N_2O production gradually increased (e.g., from 6.33 to 10.91 ppm). 463 20

That might be explained by the previous findings (Ma et al., 2017) that the nitrite concentration increase could promote the AerAOB denitrification rate (effectively reducing NO_2^- to N_2O). Regarding the low pH (6.0) shock, its impact on N_2O emissions was also limited, similar to the high pH (8.0) shock.

468

3.4 Implication and outlook

Regarding the suppression of NOB activity in mainstream PN/A systems, scientists 469 470 have conducted different types of research, but studies of N₂O emissions from this 471 process are still lacking. Strategies to suppress NOB are always accompanied by changes in operating parameters (e.g., pH, ammonium or nitrite concentration, 472 temperature, etc.), leading to dynamic conditions that probably promote N_2O 473 474 emissions (Kampschreur et al., 2009). Decreasing emerged DO level could suppress 475 NOB activity in the short run while mitigating N₂O emissions. However, NOB adaptation occurred at low DO levels during long-term operation (>200 days). 476 Therefore, in addition to controlling low DO levels, FNA treatment should be 477 478 performed periodically, since it stabilizes N₂O emissions while suppressing NOB activity. The findings in the present study are a beneficial supplement to the 479 480 application of PN/A in the mainstream. While some breakthroughs have been made, there are still several issues that still merit further research. First, the correlation 481 between periodical treatment and the levels of FNA is still unclear. Understanding the 482 483 relationship between the two can provide a basis for selecting the most cost-effective frequency and level of FNA treatment. Second, the stability of the successful strategy 484 proved in the present research, periodical FNA treatment combined with low DO 485 486 control, should also be tested in the long-term run (> 200 days).

RBC is a type of biofilm-only system, which has higher biomass density and 487 operational stability than the other reactors, such as suspended cell reactors (Soares 488 489 et al., 2019). Yet, RBC is probably not a preferred system to apply in mainstream 490 anammox. But if use them, several units that are coupled in series or parallel can be applied to treat the large flow wastewater. It would be at least technologically feasible 491 or durable to cover them, mainly to protect the biofilm from weather events and lower 492 493 the O₂ levels in the headspace (even gas control is economically not feasible). Even 494 though the biomass growth configuration was different from the floccular and 495 granular system (attached growth versus suspended growth), the findings of the 496 present research are generic, and it can be extrapolated to several types of biofilmbased systems (e.g., integrated fixed-film activated sludge (IFAS), moving bed biofilm 497 498 reactor (MBBR), etc.) (Van Tendeloo et al., 2021). At the level of N₂O emissions, the 499 type of system or the type of growth may not matter too much since it is mainly 500 determined by the nitrite accumulation, O₂ level, and operational parameters.

501 **4. Conclusion**

502 A balance between NOB suppression and N₂O mitigation will be key to achieving a sustainable mainstream PN/A. Decrease emerged DO level suppressed NOB activity 503 504 while mitigating N_2O emissions. Yet, an adaptation of NOB occurred after 200 days 505 operation. Periodic FA or FNA treatment further suppressed the low DO-adapted NOB. Characterizing the N₂O emissions linked, FNA treatment did not affect (~1.67% versus 506 507 1.72% of removed NH_4^+-N and was, hence, more advantageous than FA treatment (~2.29% versus ~1.65% of removed NH₄+-N). Thus, low DO conditions with periodic 508 FNA treatment could effectively suppress NOB activity while emitting less N₂O than 509

511 E-supplementary data for this work can be found in e-version of this paper online.

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Table and Figure Captions

Figure 1



679 Figure 1. Schematic of the rotating biological contactor (with overhead cover).



683 Figure 2. Reactor performance in Phase – I (days 0 to 400) and Phase – II (days 401

to 450). A, volumetric NH_4^+ removal and NO_3^- production rate; B, relative NO_2^-

685 consumption by AnAOB and NOB, and residual NO_2^- (in the effluent).





688 Figure 3. The average N₂O emission factor under different emerged DO levels. The

689 error bars depict the standard deviations (n = 3). Significant differences are marked

690 with a letter (*p* < 0.05).

691 **Figure 4**



498 to 551). A, volumetric NH_4^+ removal and NO_3^- production rate; B, relative $NO_2^$ consumption by AnAOB and NOB, and residual NO_2^- (in the effluent). The black dashed lines indicate FA treatment (30 mg NH_3 - NL^{-1} , 3h), whereas FNA treatments (3.0 mg HNO₂- NL^{-1} , 3h) are indicated with a green solid line.



701



702 Figure 5. Changes in N₂O emission factors under FA treatment (30 mg NH₃-N L⁻¹, 3h,

703 black dashed lines) and associated NH4⁺ (~735 mg N L⁻¹, 3h, black triangles) or pH

704 shock (~8.0, 3h, blue triangles).



706



707 Figure 6. Changes in N₂O emission factors under FNA treatment (3 mg HNO₂-N L⁻¹,

3h, green solid lines) and associated NO₂⁻ (~1205 mg N L⁻¹, 3h, purple triangles) or pH

709 shock (~6.0, 3h, grey triangles).