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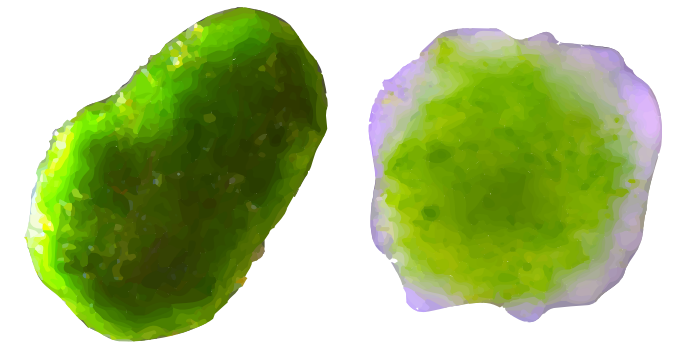
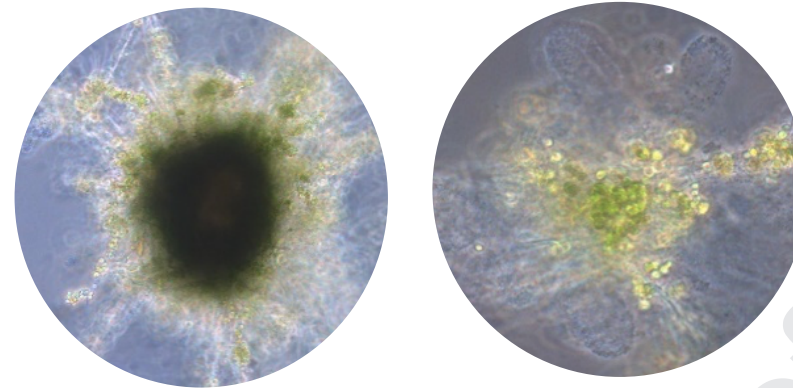
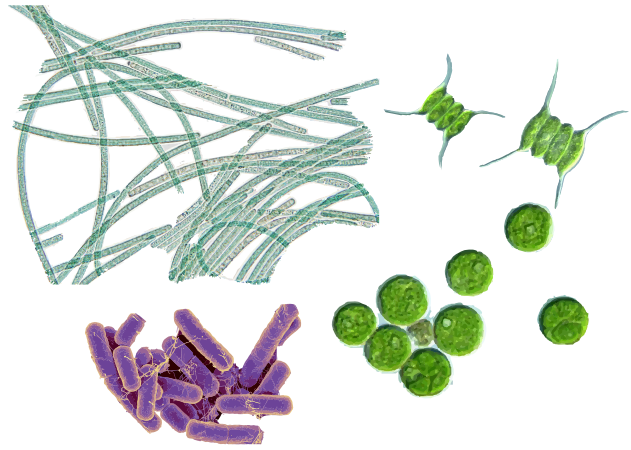
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# Community assembly and structure of photogranules

Free suspended cells

Floccular aggregation

Photogranulation



Cyanobacteria

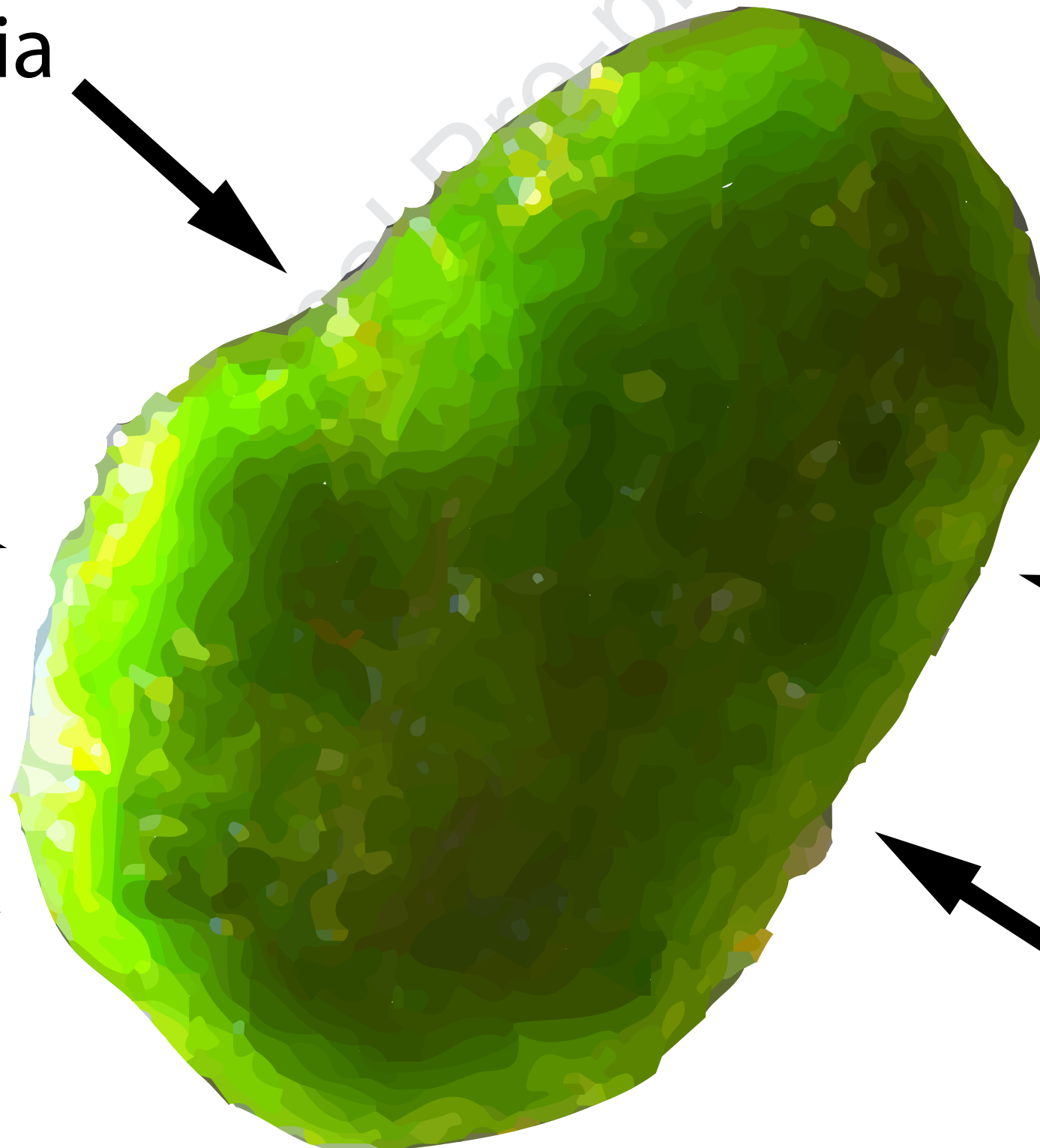
Microalgae

Nitrifiers

PAOs

Denitrifiers

Biofilm formers



# **Impact of hydraulic retention time on community assembly and function of photogranules for wastewater treatment**

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## 1. Abstract

Photogranules are dense, spherical agglomerates of cyanobacteria, microalgae and non-phototrophic microorganisms that have considerable advantages in terms of harvesting and nutrient removal rates for light driven wastewater treatment processes. This ecosystem is poorly understood in terms of the microbial community structure and the response of the community to changing abiotic conditions. To get a better understanding, we investigated the effect of hydraulic retention time (HRT) on photogranule formation and community assembly over a period of 148 days. Three laboratory bioreactors were inoculated with field samples from various locations in the Netherlands and operated in sequencing batch mode. The bioreactors were operated at four different HRTs (2.00, 1.00, 0.67, 0.33 days), while retaining the same solid retention time of 7 days. A microbial community with excellent settling characteristics (95-99% separation efficiency) was established within 2 to 5 weeks. The observed nutrient uptake rates ranged from 24 to 90 mgN L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and from 3.1 to 5.4 mgP L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> depending on the applied HRT. The transition from single-cell suspension culture to floccular agglomeration to granular sludge was monitored by microscopy and 16S/18S sequencing. In particular, two important variables for driving aggregation and granulation, and for the structural integrity of photogranules were identified: 1. Extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) with high protein to polysaccharide ratio and 2. specific microorganisms. The key players were found to be the cyanobacteria *Limnothrix* and *Cephalothrix*, the colony forming photosynthetic eukaryotes within *Chlamydomonadaceae*, and the biofilm producing bacteria *Zoogloea* and *Thauera*. Knowing the makeup of the microbial community and the operational conditions influencing granulation and bioreactor function is crucial for successful operation of photogranular systems.

**Keywords:** *Microalgae and cyanobacteria; phototrophic granulation; extracellular polymeric substances; metagenomics; microbial ecology; functional network*



## 2. Introduction

Biological wastewater treatment systems are ubiquitous and essential for maintaining high water quality and prevent excess discharge of nutrients and pollutants into the environment (Henze, 2008). However, wastewater treatment also comes at a cost as it is an energy intensive process (McCarty et al., 2011) and contributes to greenhouse gas emissions (Cakir and Stenstrom, 2005). Hence, improving the efficacy and sustainability of these systems through technological innovation may have broad scale impacts on global sustainability. The incorporation of phototrophic organisms, such as microalgae and cyanobacteria, shows great potential in improving the sustainability of treatment processes by mitigating greenhouse gasses (Smith et al., 2010), closing nutrient cycles (Fernandes et al., 2015), matching wastewater N:P ratio for effective treatment by using phototrophic consortia (Fernandes et al., 2017), and providing oxygen to drive processes such as nitrification and polyphosphate accumulation (Oyserman et al., 2017). While promising, one of the current bottlenecks in the wider application of phototrophic communities in wastewater treatment is the harvesting of the biomass.

A principal operational parameter which ensures the effectiveness and economic feasibility of treatment is to retain the microbial community as dense biomass within the treatment system (Arden and Lockett, 1914; Milferstedt et al., 2017a). This requires operational parameters which steer the microbial community to form natural and well settling aggregates. These aggregates may be described as either flocs or granules, depending on their structure, density, and settleability. In general, granules are discrete well-defined microbial aggregates formed by cell-to-cell attraction with regular dense and strong structure, and excellent settleability. Although the first granules were discovered over 50 years ago (Lettinga et al., 1980), the biological mechanisms driving granule formation and the operational parameters that select for their formation are still relatively unknown (Wilén et al., 2018). This complex microbial function is far from being fully understood and bears many ecological questions that need to be answered.

Merging granule technology with other biochemical processes such as photosynthesis holds the promise of producing well settling photoautotrophic systems in so called photogranules. In general, photogranules can be described as spherical biofilm systems of phototrophic and heterotrophic

microorganism. Photogranules were already obtained from different seeding cultures: (1) hydrostatically incubated activated sludge (Abouhend et al., 2018), (2) activated granular sludge mixed with unicellular green algae (Liu et al., 2017), and have demonstrated to work at lab-scale in airlift reactors as well as in aeration-free mechanically stirred reactors (Meng et al., 2019; Tiron et al., 2017). Photogranules are commonly cultivated in sequencing batch operation to provide cyclic wash-out conditions, assure selection of well-settling biomass and prevent growth of individual cells in suspension. This operation strategy is similar to the one applied in aerobic granular sludge technology and assures a selection pressure for granular morphology (de Kreuk, 2006).

Motile filamentous cyanobacteria showed to be an important constituent of photogranule formation and vital under static incubation and mixed operation conditions (Abouhend et al., 2018; Milferstedt et al., 2017b). In green algae dominated photogranules, *Zoogloea* was shown to be involved in the granulation process due to EPS production (Huang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Few studies also addressed other functional groups such as nitrifiers (Abouhend et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2015; Tiron et al., 2015), denitrifiers (Stauch-White et al., 2017) or polyphosphate accumulating organisms (PAOs) (Cai et al., 2019) in photogranules. However, successful implementation of photogranular technology will require a deeper biological understanding of the processes and the microbial community that drive granular structure and function so that this knowledge may be parameterized both under static and hydrodynamic conditions. Integrating systems biology and community-based approaches can provide significant insight into the physiology and role of specific organisms in community function (Oyserman et al., 2016) which can help identify additional operational strategies to steer biomass characteristics towards a particular ecosystem function. Therefore, in order to fully exploit photogranule technology, a first step is linking information about the microbial ecology of phototrophic granulation with properties of the granules.

In this study we examined the effect of hydraulic retention time (HRT) on the function and assembly of a photogranular community. By using amplicon sequencing, microscopic observation, characterization of the EPS matrix and general acquisition of reactor performance, key organisms and factors can be identified. We compared taxonomical & functional groups correlation with chemical

93 and physical data from the bioreactor system to identify potential biological drivers of key functional  
94 properties. This will enhance the understanding of photogranular systems and help to further improve  
95 the operational strategies.

## Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Algal-bacterial community

The reactors were inoculated with biomass from nutrient rich sources at equal proportions by mass. The inoculum comprised out of field samples from various locations in the Netherlands and sludge from an upflow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) reactor operated 35°C and 8 days HRT at the Netherlands Institute of Ecology (NIOO-KNAW), The Netherlands. The field samples were taken in selected places with high temperature and nutrient loading. They originate from a tropical (35°C) fish breeding aquarium, a eutrophic small pond at a farm and a clarifier of the wastewater treatment plant of the paper industry PARENCO B.V. (Renkum, The Netherlands). In addition, two microalgal laboratory strains used in previous research on wastewater at NIOO-KNAW (Fernandes et al., 2015), *Chlorella sorokiniana* and *Chlorococcum* sp. from the culture collection at NIOO-KNAW were added. The final mixture of algae and bacteria was inoculated with equal proportions in terms of biomass concentration with a final density of 0.025 g L<sup>-1</sup>. After 10 days of cultivation in batch biomass reached a concentration of approximately 2 g L<sup>-1</sup>.

### 2.2. Experimental set-up

Three 1.7 L bubble column bioreactors were operated for 116 days as sequencing batch reactors with HRTs of 2.00, 1.00 and 0.67 days. From day 116 to the end of the experiment (day 148), the 2.00 d HRT bioreactor was changed to 0.67 d and the 1.00 d HRT bioreactor was changed to 0.33 d. The third bioreactor was kept at the same condition (HRT of 0.67 d). The operation procedure of each 12h (2.00, 1.00, 0.67 d HRT) or 6h (0.33 d HRT) cycle was: 30 min of settling, 15 min of decanting, 15 min of filling and 660 min (12h cycle) and 300 min (6h cycle) reaction time. After decanting, synthetic wastewater (modified BG-11 medium) was added with following composition: 472.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 56.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 75.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 420 mg L<sup>-1</sup> sodium acetate trihydrate, 36.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 8.4 mg L<sup>-1</sup> EDTA ferric sodium salt, 1.8 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 2.86 mg L<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 1.81 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MnCl<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.44 mg L<sup>-1</sup> ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.079 mg L<sup>-1</sup> CuSO<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.22 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.05 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Co(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.12 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Vitamin B<sub>1</sub> and 0.0012 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>.

The final concentrations of the major constituents are:  $100 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ L}^{-1}$ ,  $10 \text{ mg}_\text{P} \text{ L}^{-1}$ ,  $200 \text{ mg}_{\text{COD}} \text{ L}^{-1}$ . The nutrient load per day for each HRT are summarized in **Table A1** in the supplemental material. For each reactor, a solid retention time of 7 days was achieved by decanting the settled biomass twice a week to lower the biomass concentration to  $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ . The biomass concentration within the bioreactor before harvesting the biomass was usually between  $2\text{-}3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ .

Each glass bioreactor had an inner diameter of 0.10 m and a conical bottom part and was illuminated from one side with two warm-white LED flood lights providing an incident light intensity of  $500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (PAR range) at the reactor surface. Illumination followed a 12:12 (light:dark) cycle which resulted in an total light input of  $0.68 \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ reactor}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , or  $0.4 \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , considering the reactor geometry. The bioreactors were aerated with  $400 \text{ mL.min}^{-1}$  of 5%  $\text{CO}_2$  enriched air (regulated by mass flow controllers) to ensure non-limiting inorganic carbon conditions and mixing of the culture. Temperature was controlled at  $35^\circ\text{C}$  by water baths and pH was controlled at  $6.7\pm 0.1$  by automatic addition of 1M HCl and 1M NaOH by pH controllers.

### 2.3. Analytical Methods

Daily samples for  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ , and  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  analysis were filtered through a  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  cellulose acetate filter (VWR) and measured in a Seal QuAAtro39 AutoAnalyzer (SEAL Analytical Ltd., Southampton, UK) according to standard protocols (APHA/AWWA/WEF, 2012). Total inorganic nitrogen is the sum of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ , and  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  measured in liquid. Biomass dry weight (DW), elemental composition and sludge volume index (SVI) of the algal-bacterial biomass was determined according to standard methods (APHA/AWWA/WEF, 2012). The separation efficiency (SE) of the biomass was calculated from the biomass concentration of the total reactor content and effluent (equation A1 in supplemental information). The elemental composition of homogenized freeze-dried biomass was measured. For C and N analyses a subsample (about 2mg) was folded into a tin cup and analysed with an organic elemental analyzer (Flash 2000, Interscience Breda). Cellular P was analysed by combusting a subsample (about 2mg) for 30min at  $550^\circ\text{C}$  in Pyrex glass tubes, followed by a digestion step with 10 mL persulfate (2.5%) for 30 min at  $121^\circ\text{C}$ . The digested solution was measured for  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  on a Seal QuAAtro39 AutoAnalyzer (SEAL Analytical Ltd.,

Southampton, UK). Extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) were extracted with the formamide-sodium hydroxide method according to Adav and Lee (2008). Total polysaccharides were measured with the phenol-sulfuric method (DuBois et al., 1956), and total proteins with the modified Lowry method using Modified Lowry Protein Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, USA) (Lowry et al., 1951). The results are given in polysaccharide and protein content of EPS, which are abbreviated with EPS-PS and EPS-PN. Both, EPS extractions and measurements of total polysaccharides and proteins were performed in triplicates. Microscopic observations were performed with a fluorescence microscope (Leica DMI4000 B, Germany) and a stereo microscope (Leica M2015C). Pictures were obtained with the software Cell\* (Soft Imaging Systems GmbH, Germany) and Leica Application Suite (LAS version 4.7).

#### 2.4. Statistical analysis

The acquired physical, chemical and biological data of all applied HRTs were summarized and quasi-steady state conditions were statistically compared by one factor ANOVA with Tukey's HSD as a post hoc test (**table A2**). In the case of HRT 0.67d, the dataset of two bioreactors (R1 & R3) operated at the same HRT were combined to one.

#### 2.5. Metagenomics/High-throughput sequencing

From each reactor, biomass was sampled at nine time points. The initial inoculum, after 10 days batch phase and start of experiment (referred to as day 0), and days 11, 25, 32, 60, 82, 119 and 140 respectively. DNA extraction from each time point was conducted in triplicate. In addition, the starting inoculum was also extracted in triplicate. Specifically, 15 mL of harvested sludge was centrifuged at 5500 rpm and the supernatant discarded. The cell pellets were immediately frozen at -80 °C until further processing. DNA was extracted by using the DNeasy PowerSoil Isolation Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany). The quantity and quality of DNA were spectrophotometrically determined with a NanoDrop (ThermoFisher Scientific, USA). The 75 genomic DNA samples were submitted for sequencing to Génome Québec (MacGill University, Montreal, CA). The 16S rRNA gene V3/V4 variable region was amplified using primer pair 341F (CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG) and 805R

(GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC) (Herlemann et al., 2011). The 18S rRNA gene V4 variable region was amplified using the primer pair 616\*F (TTAAARVGYTCGTAGTYG) and 1132R (CCGTCAATTHCTTYAART) (Hugerth et al., 2014). Both sets of primers were modified to add Illumina adapter overhang nucleotides sequences to the gene-specific sequences. Sequencing was performed using an Illumina MiSeq system (Illumina MiSeq, USA) with 300-bp reads (v3 chemistry). The obtained sequences were processed with the Hydra pipeline version 1.3.3 (Hollander, 2018) implemented in Snakemake (Köster and Rahmann, 2012). Taxonomic alignment of the sequences was done to the SILVA database (release 132) using SINA (<https://www.arb-silva.de>). The analysis of the microbiome data was performed with the R-package phyloseq (version 1.26.1) (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). All high-throughput sequencing data are deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information database and can be found under the accession number SAMN12373400-SAMN12373549 and under the SRA bioproject PRJNA556418.

## 2.6. Raw read processing

A total of 7.869.303 16S and 8.723.187 18S raw reads were generated. After quality trimming, adapter trimming and length filtering using cutadapt version 1.18 (Martin, 2013), the Hydra pipeline version 1.3.3 (Hollander, 2018) implemented in Snakemake (Köster and Rahmann, 2012) was used to merge paired end reads and cluster OTUs. A total of 3.748.927 16S and 2.306.332 18S contigs remained that were further processed using the R package phyloseq version 1.26.1 (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). In the downstream process the 16S and 18S data set was normalized using the cumulative sums scaling (CSS) function of the R package metagenomSeq version 1.24.1 (Paulson et al., 2013). The community structure and the change through time of the 16S and 18S dataset were analysed by Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix. For clustering the 16S and 18S dataset were subsetted to the top 20 OTUs and known functional groups based on the MIDAS database (McIlroy et al., 2015) and Milferstedt et al. (2017b) (table A4 in supplemental information)

## 2.7. Correlation network analysis



200 Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) between microbial data and functional parameter (table A5 in  
201 supplemental materials) obtained from the reactor operations were determined with the R function *cor*  
202 in the R package *stats* version 3.5.2. A threshold of  $> 0.5$  and  $< -0.5$  for the PCC was used to filter  
203 OTUs only correlating strongly with functional parameters. This threshold was greater than 2 standard  
204 deviations from the mean PCC. The software Cytoscape 3 was used to analyse the correlation network  
205 and to visually represent the network (Su et al., 2014).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Photogranule formation

The development of a well settling algal-bacterial community was strongly influenced by the applied HRT. With decreasing HRT, and therefore increasing hydraulic pressure, the microbial community was driven more rapidly towards floccular aggregates. Specifically, at an HRT 0.67 d the assembly time was reduced to 11 days compared to 32 days at HRT 2.00. The hydraulic pressure dictated the SE as well, which resulted in better separation at lower HRTs. When changing the HRT at day 116 from 2.00 d to 0.67 d and from 1.00 d to 0.33 d the settling properties increased significantly and the microbial community shifted to be dominated by photogranules.

In **Figure 1**, the separation efficiency (SE) of biomass from the liquid is displayed as a percentage (%) of the total amount of biomass in the system. As HRT decreased, the separation efficiency of the biomass increased. Specifically, a SE higher than 90% in phase 1 was achieved for the reactor with an HRT of 0.67 d in 10 days. The reactor with an HRT of 1.00 d achieved this SE in 24 days of operation, whereas the reactor operated at an HRT of 2.00 d required 32 days. These results show that a lower HRT accelerated the assembly of flocs and granules by rapid selecting for well-settling biomass. The higher hydraulic pressure experienced by the microbial community at HRT 1.00 d, and below, drives a SE greater than 90%. Furthermore, in the case of HRT 0.67 d and HRT 0.33 d in phase 2 the SE increased to 99%. In **Figure 2A** the long-term effect of HRT on SE and SVI is depicted. A lower HRT drives a higher SE and lower SVI. The variability in SE and SVI was also lower with lower HRT, suggesting that low HRT increased the functional stability. This implies that it promotes a more stable settling and therefore improves biomass retention in the system. The increased SE was accompanied by a decrease in SVI. While the microalgal-bacterial community exhibited an SVI of  $>300 \text{ mL g}^{-1}$  at the start of operation it was reduced to an average of  $57 \pm 9 \text{ mL.g}^{-1}$  when it began to show granular biomass structure.

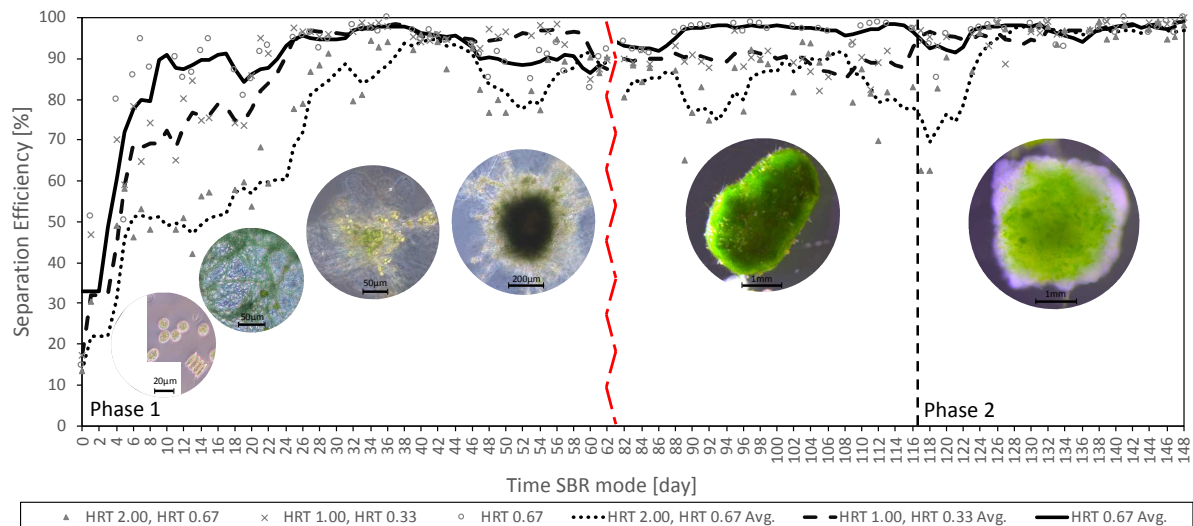


Figure 1. SE (%) of biomass of the 3 bioreactors over the course of the experiment. The first month is characterized by the assembly of the microbial community to well-settling biomass, while the following two months feature first photogranule appearance and further maturation. At day 116 (phase 2) a shift in the HRT was performed. The red dashed line at day 62 symbolizes a two-week period of not stringent monitoring. The microscopic images provided along the timeline are taken at following timepoints (from left to right): first 2 of eukaryotic green algae and motile filamentous cyanobacteria from the inoculum; next 2 at  $t=32$  and  $t=60$  of floccular aggregates; last 2 at  $t=82$  and  $t=140$  of photogranules. A scale bar is included in each picture.

The morphological changes of the photogranules during the operation were followed by microscopic observation with selected pictures shown in **Figure 1**. The inoculum consisted of free organisms such as green algae, cyanobacteria and bacteria. Motile filamentous cyanobacteria present in the inoculum started to entangle and form early aggregates as flocs in the first weeks of operation and started to incorporate other prokaryotes and colony-forming photosynthetic eukaryotes. After about 3 month of operation the first granular structures appeared as shown by the microscopic images of  $t=82$  and 140 days in **Figure 1**.

It has been shown that EPS may act like a glue that promotes the spatial alignment of both algae and bacteria to agglomerates (Flemming et al., 2007). Characterisation of the EPS matrix in terms of proteins (EPS-PN) and polysaccharides (EPS-PS) showed that EPS is a substantial part of the floccular and granular biomass ranging from 8-34% (**Figure A4**). In **Figure 2B** the average EPS is depicted for the applied HRT. There is no significant difference in constituent (EPS-PN and EPS-PS), however there is a significant increase in PN/PS ratio with lower HRT. While being a substantial part from the first appearance of floccular structure there was a change from mostly EPS-PS to a majority of EPS-PN content. This is reflected in a shift from the PN/PS ratio in EPS from 1.0 to 6.6 at HRT 0.67. The

makeup of EPS in the photogranules in the last month of operation at HRT 0.67 was found to be  $239 \pm 42 \text{ mg}_{\text{EPS}} \text{ g}_{\text{VSS}}^{-1}$  with a PN/PS ratio of about 6.6.

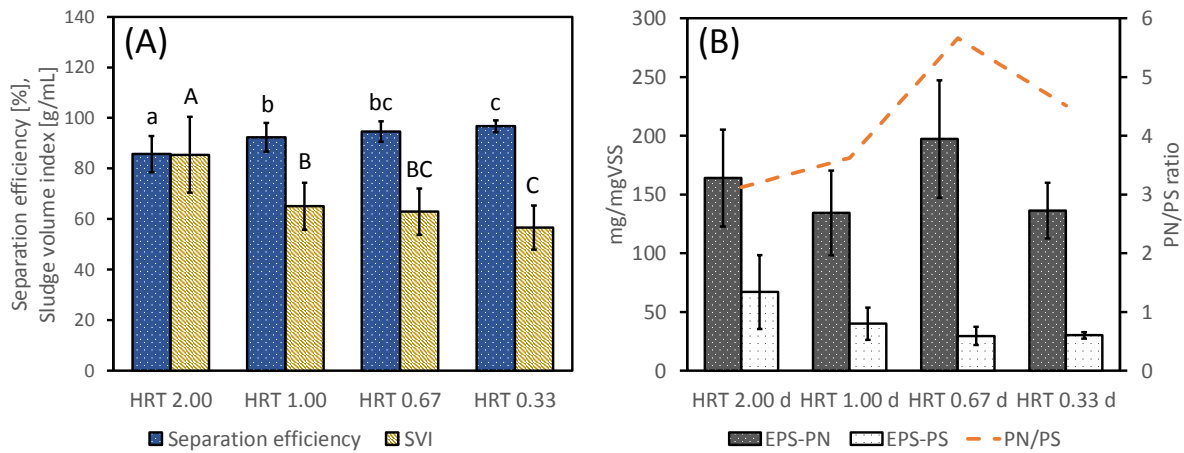


Figure 2. (A) Relation between HRT, separation efficiency (SE) and sludge volume index (SVI) over applied HRT. The standard deviation of the measured values is displayed as error bars. The letters (a, b, c, d, A, B, C, D) above the bars indicate the significant difference between observations. (B) The EPS composition in terms of EPS-PN, EPS-PS and PN/PS ratio (orange line) for each applied HRT.

### 3.2. Nutrient removal performance

The initial phase of reactor operation was characterized by a rapid assembly of a well-settling floccular microbial community with stable nitrogen and phosphorus removal after 2-4 weeks. In **Figure 3A** the average volumetric nutrient removal rates across the applied HRT are shown. With decreasing HRT, the volumetric removal rate for nitrogen increased significantly from 24 to  $90 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  with the maximum at HRT 0.33. After 40 days of operation nitrification started to occur in all three reactors, but no stable nitrification rate was obtained until the end of operation (**Figure A1**). Since the increase in nitrogen removal could not be explained with nitrogen assimilation in the biomass, the potential denitrification was assessed. Therefore, a mass balance over nitrogen using in and out coming nitrogen of the bioreactor, the biomass productivity and the elemental composition of the biomass was performed. In that way it was shown that for HRT 0.67 denitrification accounted for 23% of the nitrogen removal and for HRT 0.33 for 26% (**Figure A7**). The volumetric removal rate of phosphorus increased with decreasing HRT from 3.1 to  $5.4 \text{ mg}_\text{P} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , however not significantly. COD in the form of acetate was fully consumed in all applied HRTs, which translates in a volumetric removal rate of 97 to  $580 \text{ mg}_{\text{COD}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  (**Figure A2**). With decreasing HRT, the biomass productivity increased

as well (**Figure 3B**). While there is no significantly difference in biomass productivity between HRT 2.00, 1.00 and 0.67, there was a significant increase at HRT 0.33. This can be explained due to the increased COD load per day and the larger contribution of heterotrophic growth in the bioreactor (**Figure A5**).

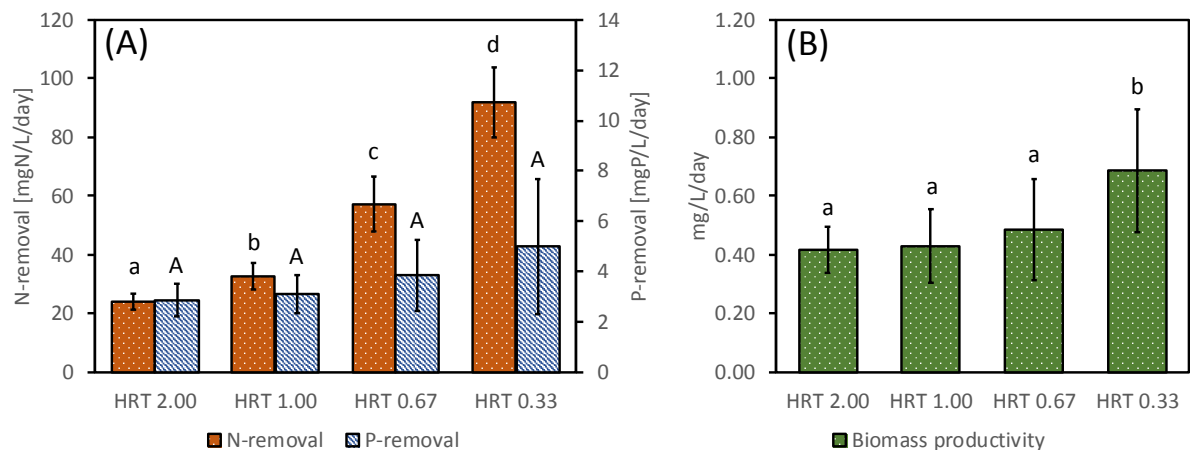


Figure 3. (A): Volumetric nutrient removal rates per mol of photons of each applied HRT. All values shown are averaged over the quasi-steady state conditions measurements. (B) Biomass productivity at the different HRTs applied. The error bars are the standard deviation in the observed time frame. The letters (a, b, c, d, A) above the bars indicate the significant difference between observations.

In phototrophic systems the removal rates per mol of photon supplied are important to know next to the volumetric removal rates. Considering a volumetric photon supply of  $0.4 \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  the removal rate per mol of photons range from 59 to  $226 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ day}^{-1}$  nitrogen and 7.1 to  $12.2 \text{ mg}_\text{P} \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ day}^{-1}$  for phosphorus depending on the applied HRT. The biomass yield is ranging from  $1.0\text{-}1.7 \text{ g}_\text{x} \text{ mol}_{\text{ph}} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , which is higher than observed values for phototrophic growth due to the heterotrophic growth that gets an increased importance at lower HRT.

### 3.3. 16S and 18S rRNA-Gene-Based Microbial Community Assembly

The principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) demonstrated tight clustering of triplicate samples for both the 16S and 18S data sets (**Figure 4**). Thus, all downstream analysis on relative abundance for each date was conducted using the average OTU read abundance from triplicates. The PCoA revealed a clear and recurring trajectory of the prokaryotic and eukaryotic community from planktonic organisms to the assembly of photogranules. Reactor 1 and 2 followed a similar trajectory, however, reactor 3, which was operated at the lowest initial HRT of 0.67 days, diverged from the other two reactors at day

32, but then re-converged reaching the same general community structure by day 140. Interestingly, all three reactors showed a similar 16S microbial community at day 140 regardless of the history of the community and applied HRT. The 18S community showed more dynamic and did not reach a stable community as the 16S one. In both PCoA plots a “horseshoe effect” is visible. This phenomenon is often observed in microbiome studies that sample along an environmental gradients in which multiple different niches are present and differentially represented (Morton et al., 2017). Here we show that this horseshoe effect was also observed through time as microbiomes adapt to novel conditions from their seed environment.

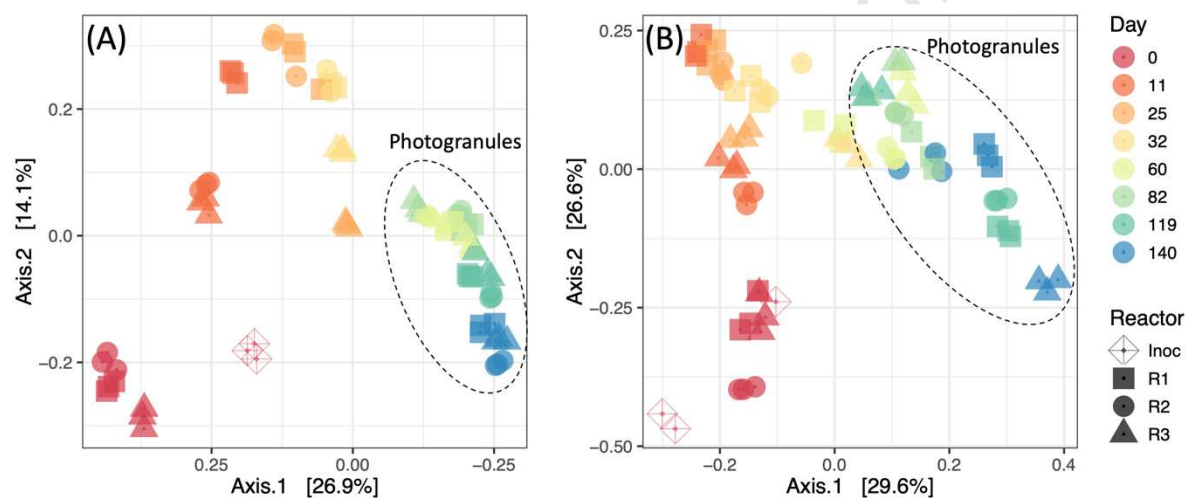


Figure 4. Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was performed on the 16S (A) and 18S (B) gene sequences to explore the similarities in between the set of triplicate measurements of each sampling day. This analysis demonstrates the overlap of triplicate measurements and the trajectory of the microbial community to photogranules.

### 3.3.1. Prokaryotic community (16S)

For the clustering analysis 61 OTUs were included related to functional groups in correspondence with the MIDAS database (McIlroy et al., 2017) and Milferstedt et al. (2017b) (table A4). In addition, any of the top 20 OTUs that were not assigned a functional group were also included giving a final total of 54. The functional groups included: phototrophs (19 taxa), biofilm former (3 taxa), filamentous organism (13 taxa), nitrifiers (2 taxa), denitrifiers (6 taxa), polyphosphate accumulating organisms (PAOs, 9 taxa) and methanotrophs (6 taxa). The analysis revealed four distinct bacterial communities in the time series. Initially, the prokaryotic photosynthetic community was characterized by an abundance of *Rhodobacter* (OTU\_16), *Oscillatoria PCC-6304* (OTU\_103), *Pseudanabaena PCC-*

7429 (OTU\_385), *Tychonema* CCAP\_1459-11B (OTU\_401), *Cyanobium* PCC-6307 (OTU\_819), *Planktothricoides* SR001 (OTU\_1279) and *Phormidium* ETS-05 (OTU\_1374). This diverse community of cyanobacteria decreased through time and was replaced in all reactors by a simplified cyanobacterial community dominated by *Limnothrix* (OTU\_4) (10%) and *Cephalothrix* SAG 75.79 (OTU\_5) (11%). Other cyanobacterial OTUs such as *Leptolyngbya* ANT-L52.2 (OTU\_291), *Leptolyngbya* PCC-6306 (OTU\_2) and *Alkalinema* CENA528 (OTU\_15) showed no distinct pattern over the course of the experiment and exhibit a similar abundance at the beginning and the end of the experiment.

Concomitant to the increase of the simplified photosynthetic community, the non-photosynthetic prokaryotic reference taxa for biofilm formation, *Zoogloea* (OTU\_12), *Thauera* (OTU\_24) and *Meiothermus* (OTU\_7) increased. In all treatments *Zoogloea* became the most abundant organism at the end of the time series with 13-18% relative abundance. In contrast, *Meiothermus* showed its highest abundance (18%) at day 32 at HRT 1.00 d and then decreased in all reactors.

The nitrifying bacterial community was composed of only a single identified OTU, *Nitrosomonas* (OTU\_68) within the *Nitrosomonadaceae* family, which saw a general increase over time from the inoculum. Several heterotrophic nitrifiers and aerobic denitrifiers were present in considerable abundance such as *Comamonas* (OTU\_23), *Zoogloea* (OTU\_12), *Pseudomonas* (OTU\_385), *Diaphorobacter* (OTU\_10), *Thauera* (OTU\_24) and *Pelomonas* (OTU\_202).

The functional group of PAOs showed a general increase over time except for *Gemmatimonas* (OTU\_313), which initially increased at HRT 1.00 and 0.67 with a sudden decrease most likely due to washout. The most prominent representatives that increased were *Pseudomonas* (OTU\_3), *Acinetobacter* (OTU\_18) and the novel cyanobacterial lineage *Obscuribacterales* (OTU\_80), a putative PAO enriched in a photo-EBPR system (Oyserman et al., 2017).

### 3.3.2. Eukaryotic community (18S)

In the majority of the sampling points, known photosynthetic organisms represented over 90% of the eukaryotic community based on relative abundance. Initially, the photosynthetic fraction of the



eukaryotes was dominated by only three green algae *Chlorella sorokiniana* (OTU\_1) (13%), *Chlorococcum vacuolatum* (OTU\_4) (32%) and *Desmodesmus sp. HSJ717* (OTU\_43) (20%). Both *Chlorella sorokiniana* (OTU\_1) and *Chlorococcum vacuolatum* (OTU\_4) were present in the initial inoculum, but showed divergent patterns through time. In all reactors, *Chlorella sorokiniana* (OTU\_1) showed a steep increase until day 25, whereas, *Chlorococcum vacuolatum* (OTU\_4) decreased in relative abundance. Despite these divergent early trajectories, both populations eventually rebounded and returned to similar relative abundances as in the beginning. In contrast, *Desmodesmus sp. HSJ717* (OTU\_43) generally showed a decrease in all reactors. In the final photosynthetic eukaryotic community, a more diverse assemblage was found. Next to *Chlorella sorokiniana* (OTU\_1) (23-29%) and *Chlorococcum vacuolatum* (OTU\_4) (8-19%), the community was enriched with *Scenedesmaceae sp. A2\_2* (OTU\_78) (2-9%), *Chlamydomonadaceae sp. KMMCC\_FC-97* (OTU\_20) (5-7%) and *Chlamydomonadales* (OTU\_3) (14-16%).

The non-photosynthetic eukaryotic community was characterized by predatory eukaryotic organisms such as rotifers, ciliates, amoeba and fungi. Amongst the predatory eukaryotic community, we detected *Echinamoeba exundans* (OTU\_119), *Spirotrichea* (OTU\_29), *Bilateria* (OTU\_69), *Vermamoeba* (OTU\_56), *Ascomycota* (OTU\_168) and *Basidiomycota* (OTU\_30). These taxa were present in all sample points at very low levels except on day 140, when a sudden increase was observed in all three reactors.

### 3.4. Correlation network of microbial community, biomass characteristics and reactor function

A correlation network using Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) was carried out to assess the relation between operational conditions, functional parameters and microbial community. In **figure 5** the correlation network for all taxa, both prokaryotic and eukaryotic, show a positive correlation with biomass characteristics (EPS, CNP content, SVI) and reactor performance (SE, nutrient removal). The most connected nodes in the network are attributed to motile filamentous cyanobacteria, colony forming photosynthetic eukaryotes, biofilm producing denitrifiers and organism involved in the removal and conversion of nitrogen. SE, SVI and EPS content are strongly correlated to the cyanobacteria *Limnothrix* (OTU\_4) and *Cephalothrix SAG\_75.79* (OTU\_5) while EPS is correlated

with *Zoogloea* (OTU\_12), *Thauera* (OTU\_24), *Limnothrix* (OTU\_4) and *Cephalothrix* SAG\_75.79 (OTU\_5). The node for EPS-PS is isolated from the rest of the network and is mostly correlated with eukaryote *Desmodesmus* sp. *HSJ717* (OTU\_43). From the network analysis it was shown that the total nitrogen removal rate is mainly attributed to the phototrophic eukaryotes *Chlamydomonadaceae* sp. *KMMCC\_FC-97* (OTU\_20) and *Chlamydomonadales* (OTU\_3), and the non-phototrophic prokaryote *Thauera* (OTU\_24). Partial nitrification is largely correlated with *Comamonas* (OTU\_23), *Alicyclophilus* (OTU\_9), *Pseudomonas* (OTU\_3), *Nitrosomonas* (OTU\_68) and *Diaphorobacter* (OTU\_10), while nitrification is correlated with *Diaphorobacter* (OTU\_10) and an OTU from the family *A4b* (OTU\_137). In this network one taxa from the order of *Obscuribacterales* (OTU\_80) is present and is the only node connected to P removal. A significant correlation of three taxa from the family *Microscillaceae* (OTU\_76), *mle\_1-27* (OTU\_25) and the genus *Pelomonas* (OTU\_202) with phosphorus content of the biomass is observed. These organisms belong to the family of *Comamonadaceae* that is often observed in wastewater treatment systems and show many putative PAOs. Interestingly, *Leptolyngbya* PCC-6306 (OTU\_2) and other OTUs that were abundant throughout such as *Acidovorax* (OTU\_149), *Chlorella sorokiniana* (OTU\_1) and *Chlorococcum vacuolatum* (OTU\_4) did not correlate with function, likely because they did not vary in relative abundance through time as they were in high abundance in the inoculant and maintained this status as abundant organisms.

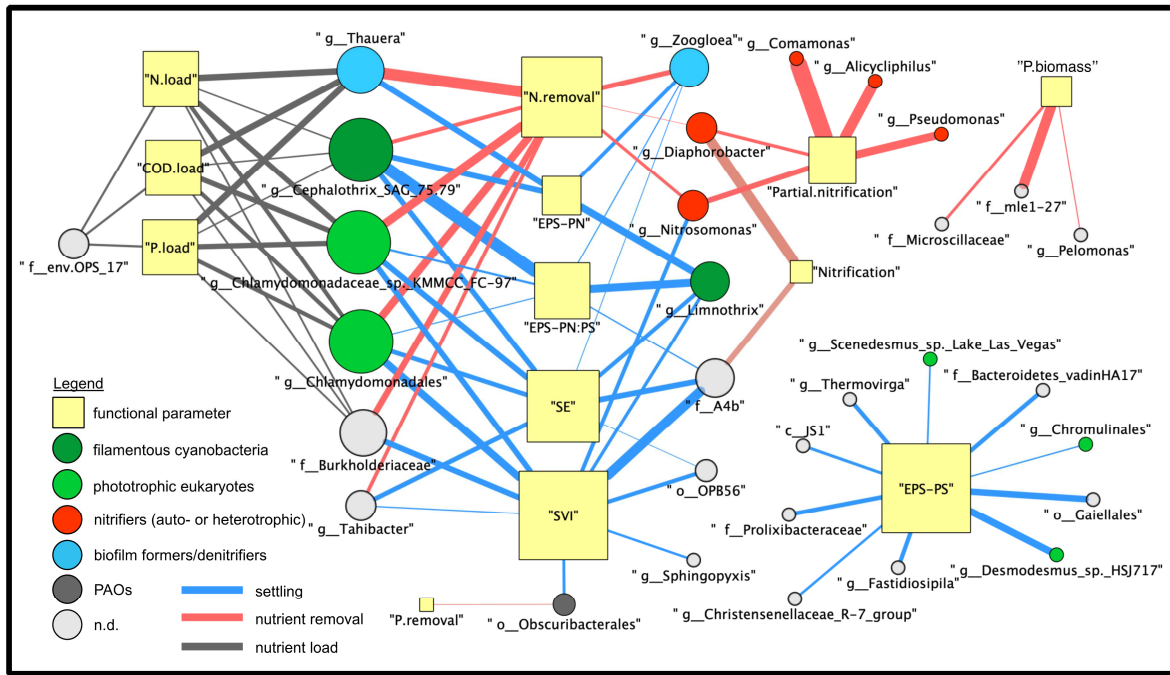


Figure 5. Network analysis of 16S/18S metagenomics and functional data on biomass characteristics and reactor function. The functional network consists of taxa that strongly positively correlate with the attributed function. Functions of taxa and kind of interaction is colour coded. The size of the nodes represents the connectivity of the taxa or reactor function. Edge colour indicates the kind of relation and the thickness the correlation between two nodes.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Photogranule formation

One of the most fundamental selection criteria for biomass in bioreactors is sedimentation. Effective settling and retention within the system is generally achieved through the formation of aggregates such as floc and granules. Organisms that do not participate in granule formation do not settle and therefore are washed out of the system. Here we show that applying lower HRT increases the rate at which granule formation is achieved. In all HRTs the EPS matrix makes a substantial part of the total photogranular biomass with no significant difference among them. The EPS obtained from photogranules at the end of the experiment showed an average EPS content of  $239 \pm 42 \text{ mg}_{\text{EPS}} \text{ g}_{\text{VSS}}^{-1}$  with a PN/PS ratio of about 6.6. This is lower than values found for aerobic granules (311 to 418  $\text{mg}_{\text{EPS}} \text{ g}_{\text{VSS}}^{-1}$ ) however with a higher PN/PS ratio (3.4 to 6.2) (Adav and Lee, 2008). Our observation fall within the range of recent studies on photogranules that reported EPS values from 35.1 to 252.3  $\text{mg}_{\text{EPS}} \text{ g}_{\text{VSS}}^{-1}$  with an PN/PS ratio from 1.2 to 6.9 (Ansari, Abouhend and Park, 2019; Cai *et al.*, 2019, Kuo-Dahab *et al.*, 2018;).

The HRT had no consistent effect on the overall EPS-PN content, but generally lead to increasing PN/PS ratio at lower HRT. With increasing PN/PS ratio the SE increases while the SVI decreases (Figure 2A, **Figure A4**). These findings are in agreement with previous research on aerobic granules highlighted the importance of high PN/PS ratio for successful granulation (Adav *et al.*, 2008; Pronk *et al.*, 2017; Seviour *et al.*, 2012). The high EPS-PN and low EPS-PS observed is attributed to increased hydrophobicity by decreasing the negative surface charge and excess Gibbs energy of the surface (Ding *et al.*, 2015; Wilén *et al.*, 2018). Activated sludge with floccular structure has usually a PN/PS ratio of around 0.9 that indicates low hydrophobicity (Adav and Lee, 2008). Polysaccharides contribute to the formation of cross-network structure with cells (Seviour *et al.*, 2009). However, a higher polysaccharide compared to protein content is associated with floccular structures with loose morphology and slime properties (Flemming *et al.*, 2007). The increase of the PN/PS from flocs (0.7) to photogranules (7.4) is in accordance with the change in surface properties of the biomass to photogranules (**Figure A3**).

## 4.2. Nutrient removal of a photogranular bioreactor

The maximum removal rate of  $90 \text{ mg}_N \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  and  $5.4 \text{ mg}_P \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  was three times higher than similar photo-heterotrophic treatment systems (Liu et al., 2017; Van Den Hende et al., 2014, 2011; Wang et al., 2015). The ammonical nitrogen removal, in particular, was improved through time due to nitrification/denitrification which correlated with the change of the microbial community from flocs to granules. Nitrification/denitrification are generally described as an additional nitrogen removal path in the use of algal-bacterial communities (Arashiro et al., 2017; Oyserman et al., 2017; Rada-Ariza et al., 2017; Van Der Steen et al., 2015). The consensus is that the assembly of microbes to flocs and granules increases the stratification over the biomass and hence creates anoxic/anaerobic conditions in the core, which would allow denitrifiers to convert nitrate into nitrogen gas (Adav et al., 2010).

An overall increase in volumetric nitrogen removal rate was observed with decreasing HRT from 2.00 to 0.33 days that was not proportional to the N assimilation in the biomass. This suggests that the higher ammonium and COD loading at lower HRT had a positive effect on the nitrifying/denitrifying community in the photogranules as shown by Princic *et al.*, (1998) for aerobic granules. The higher nutrient loading could lead to a deeper penetration of nutrients in the granular structure and increased denitrification (Alpkvist et al., 2006). The high abundance of *Zoogloea* and *Thauera*, both known denitrifiers, could have influenced the N removal at HRT 0.67 and 0.33 days (**Figure A8**).

The main removal mechanism for P is via assimilation in biomass that matches with the biomass productivity and P content (about 1%). Although the presence of several putative PAOs was detected by 16S analysis, only *Obscuribacteriales* correlated with P removal, a finding in agreement with Oyserman et al. (2017) which also saw the enrichment of this lineage under non-granular photosynthetic feast-famine conditions. Carvalho et al. (2018) demonstrated as well the successful implementation of photosynthetic cultures enriched in PAOs under feast famine conditions. In our study, the enrichment of PAOs was not selected for directly. Incorporating the feast famine regime that selects for PAO could increase the P removal of granular sludge while maintaining the benefits of well-settling granular sludge.

### 4.3. Community assembly of planktonic organisms to photogranules

The two most abundant photosynthetic prokaryotic taxa, *Limnothrix* (OTU\_4), *Cephalothrix* SAG\_75.79 (OTU\_5), are both motile filamentous cyanobacteria from the order of *Limnotrichales* and *Nostocales*. These taxa are ubiquitous in nature but have not been reported previously to play an important role in the formation of photogranules. They show great functional and morphological similarities with the genus *Microcoleus*, a motile filamentous cyanobacteria previously found in photogranules by Milferstedt et al. (2017b) and Stauch-White et al. (2017). In their research they hypothesize that at least one motile filamentous cyanobacteria in high abundance is necessary to form photogranules. Our results support these findings.

Our and previous reported findings confirm that these filamentous cyanobacteria have an important role in the initiation of photogranulation. Interestingly, filamentous bacteria such as *Thiothrix* in aerobic granules are generally unwanted since they lead to outgrowth and bulking sludge (de Kreuk, 2006). However, in the formation of anaerobic granular sludge the filamentous *Methanosaeta* is thought to be crucial in granulation. This was proposed as the “Spaghetti theory” by Wiegant (1988). In photogranulation a similar concept could be developed where filamentous organisms may become entangled in microscopic knots which become the nucleus (a niche) for other organisms to attach and form agglomerates that mature to granules.

With the assembly of photogranules, known biofilm producing prokaryotes such as *Zoogloea* (OTU\_12), *Thauera* (OTU\_24) and *Meiothermus* (OTU\_7) were enriched as granule formation progressed. These organisms were previously reported as important for the assemblage of aerobic granules by Weissbrodt et al., (2013), and found to be a vital part of the microbial community in aerobic granules incubated under photosynthetic conditions (Cai et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). As known biofilm and therefore EPS producers it is very likely that that they substantially contribute to the granular matrix. However, it is not possible to state which organisms contributed to what extend to the EPS matrix.

Interestingly, we saw that the washout conditions of decreasing HRT only dictated the time for photogranule assembly, despite ending with similar microbial community structure (**Figure 4**). This suggests that while HRT might not drive differences in final community structure of a granule, it does increase the rate at which granule formation is achieved based on other functional parameters such as SE, SVI and EPS. SRT could have a larger effect on the final algal-bacterial community as Bradley et al., (2019) recently showed. Other operational choices such as settling time, feeding regime, nutrient limitation, aeration or mechanical mixing would be interesting to test and evaluate the determining effect on the community structure of photogranules.

#### **4.4. Network analysis of microbial community structure and reactor function – finding biological drivers of physical and chemical properties in photogranules**

The network analysis showed that only a few organisms drive a wide array of functional parameters. Microbes with the highest connectivity included the cyanobacteria *Limnothrix* (OTU\_4), *Cephalothrix* SAG\_75.79 (OTU\_5) and the photosynthetic eukaryote *Chlamydomonadales* (OTU\_3), suggesting they may be key players in granule formation and community structure. Their strong correlation with SVI, SE and PN/PS ratio indicates their structural importance in the photogranular makeup. Additionally, they are related to nitrogen removal, which could be simply explained by their high relative abundance. Interestingly, OTU 137 from the family of *A4b* showed a strong positive correlation with SVI, SE and the PN/PS ratio of EPS as well. These taxa usually make up the core microbial community of anaerobic digesters (Xia et al., 2016). Their presence could be an indicator for dense granular structures that provide an anaerobic niche despite a highly aerated system. This is especially seen in the relationship with SVI and *A4b*, which has the strongest correlation of all organisms in the microbial community.

Conversely, the network analysis also showed that one parameter or function can be influenced by many different organisms of the community in various degrees. Functions associated with the EPS matrix are influenced by various organisms. *Zoogloea* (OTU\_12), which was expected to strongly correlate with EPS related functions only weakly correlates with EPS-PN. However, a strong correlation with N content in the biomass and nitrogen removal rate was observed. *Thauera*



(OTU\_24), another known EPS producer and prominent denitrifier, exhibits a much stronger correlation to nitrogen removal than to EPS related functions (Adav et al., 2010). Although less abundant it suggests that this taxon has a stronger influence on the functional parameters. The most prominent being SVI, SE, EPS-PS and nitrogen removal. But also, other more conserved reactor functions such as partial nitrification and nitrification are connected to many organisms of the community especially of the genus *Nitrosomonas*, *Comamonas*, *Pseudomonas*, *Diaphorobacter*, *Thauera* and *Pelomonas*.

As shown here, when starting with a suspended diverse microbial community and by applying the right operational criteria such as phototrophic conditions, sedimentation and hydrodynamic, a photogranular community can be formed. However, the question how to stir the microbial community of the photogranule to improve desired traits such as nitrogen or phosphorus removal. Ideally photogranule has excellent sedimentation, incorporates high nutrient removal rates and requires minimum external input such as aeration. The photogranules obtained in this study show three times higher (up to  $90 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) removal performance in comparison to other phototrophic systems, but are still lower than other conventional treatment systems. For aerobic granular sludge operated at full scale maximum volumetric removal rates are reported from  $170 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and  $240 \text{ mg}_\text{P} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  (Pronk et al., 2015). This is 2 (for N) and 50 (for P) times higher than the volumetric removal rates obtained here. To improve the nutrient removal rate of N and P the focus could be to improve the conditions for higher nitrification rates and Enhanced Biological Phosphorus Removal (EBPR) by PAOs. This would require additional operation strategies, which amongst others would include a sophisticated feeding strategy, for example with providing feast/famine conditions of the primary nutrient (N, P, COD) as in Oyserman et al. (2017). In this way another selection on nutrient limitation would be applied on the microbial community that would promote organisms that produce storage compounds such as EPS, lipids, polyhydroxyalkanoate, polyP. Due to the density of these polymers, it might be beneficial for the overall treatment process by promoting settleability and nutrient removal, but might also be interesting for later applications of the photogranular biomass. In addition, microalgae would fuel the

525 whole process by converting photonic energy into chemical energy, potentially excluding external  
526 oxygen supply and reduce greenhouse gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2013).

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## 5. Conclusion

- Low HRTs provide cyclic wash-out conditions in the bioreactors with a strong selective pressure for well-settling biomass. Decreasing HRT improved settling, with a critical HRT threshold of 1 day. Below this threshold, settling efficiency was above 95%, but above this threshold separation efficiency stayed below 90%. Despite the differences between reactors in HRT, after one month of operation all three reactors showed a similar microbial community with floccular structure and good separation efficiencies.
- After three months of operation photogranules were obtained in all bioreactors. Decreased HRT provides a 'shortcut' to produce well settling biomass (Figure 1), alters reactor community structure more rapidly (Figure 4), and maintain high nutrient removal and reactor function (Figure 2 & 3). Future research should be aimed to understand additional factors related to granule formation such as SRT and nutrient feeding strategies, and parametrizing them in combination with low HRT.
- The network analysis identified the key bacterial and eukaryotic taxa driving reactor functions. The settling properties of the granules were most linked to motile filamentous cyanobacteria (*Limnothrix*, *Cephalothrix* SAG\_75.79), photosynthetic eukaryote *Chlamydomonadales* in combination with EPS producers (*Zoogloea*, *Thauera*). The nutrient removal properties were most linked to nitrifiers/denitrifiers (*Nitrosomonas*, *Comamonas*, *Thauera*, *Pseudomonas*, *Diaphorobacter* and *Pelomonas*) and putative PAOs (*Obscuribacterales*).
- Compared to other photogranular system a different microbial assemblage was found but with similar functional redundancy. Therefore, it might not be about specific strains but about having (a) representative(s) from a function group with many potential strains. Further research is needed to find out if the final community structure and function is decoupled and depend mostly on the operation conditions rather than on the inoculum.

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## Highlights

- Lower HRT provides a 'shortcut' to well settling biomass and photogranules
- Motile filamentous cyanobacteria and EPS producer are important in photogranulation
- Correlation network analysis revealed key players in photogranulation
- Lower HRT increases overall volumetric removal rates
- Nitrification/denitrification is an important removal pathway in photogranules

**Declaration of interests**

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

☐ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: