

**Fast development of purple nonsulfur bacteria (PNSB) in a bubble column
photobioreactor: influence of carbon source and dissolved O₂ availability on
wastewater treatment performance**

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Abstract

Photobioreactors with purple nonsulfur bacteria (PNSB) constitute a promising technology for wastewater treatment, gas purification, and high value-added bioproducts. In this work, different operational strategies were tested to investigate their impacts on photobioreactor performance, biomass properties, and microbial community. It showed that the operational conditions significantly influence the performance and microbial composition of PNSB photobioreactors. Anaerobic conditions favored the dominance of *Rhodopseudomonas* spp. and moderate COD removal efficiency (36.7%), while aerobic conditions significantly enhanced COD removal efficiency (91.7%) but altered the microbial community composition from PNSB to aerobic heterotrophic microorganisms, such as *Delftia* sp. and *Microbacterium* sp.. The removal ratio of chemical oxygen demand (COD):N:P was 100:10:2 under anaerobic conditions with continuous CO₂ supply, while it was 100:1:1 under aerobic conditions with continuous supply of a CO₂/O₂ mixture. Net CO₂ removal efficiencies of 2.8% and 5.4% were recorded under anaerobic conditions with and without the addition of organic carbon, respectively. The outlet CO₂ concentration showed that CO₂ uptake occurred under dark and anaerobic conditions without organic carbon. The reduced production of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) was observed after COD was removed from the influent, preventing granule formation.

Keywords: Anaerobic condition, CO₂ uptake, COD removal, Microbial community, Wastewater treatment.

1. Introduction

The global rise in wastewater production and the environmental challenges associated with its management require sustainable and effective treatment methods. Traditional physio-chemical treatment processes, although effective, often come with high operational costs, chemical usage, and secondary pollution [1, 2]. Purple nonsulfur bacteria (PNSB) offer a biological alternative that could address some of these challenges, due to their versatile metabolic capabilities and ability to thrive in various environmental conditions [3].

PNSB have been applied in photobioreactors for wastewater treatment and gas purifying by their ability to thrive in anaerobic conditions and utilize a wide range of carbon sources and nutrients, which will be converted into bioenergy and useful bioresources [4-6]. A complex interaction of metabolisms can be deployed by PNSB, including photoheterotroph, photoautotroph, respiration, fermentation, and nitrogen fixation, depending on light/dark conditions, carbon source, and O₂ availability [7]. In aerobic conditions, PNSB can grow by respiration, while in anaerobic conditions with light, they grow as photoautotrophs with CO₂ as the sole carbon source or grow as photoheterotrophs with organic carbon sources, such as organic acids, sugars, and volatile fatty acids. Various configurations of PNSB photobioreactors were applied and evaluated, including batch reactor and continuous column reactor [6], to treat municipal wastewater, soybean wastewater, agricultural wastewater, etc. Most of PNSB wastewater treatment systems were reported with a strong ability on chemical oxygen demand (COD) removal, with over 70% removal efficiency [8, 9]. Previous research showed that in anaerobic membrane bioreactors (AnMBR) treating domestic wastewater, total N and total P removal efficiencies could reach up to 92% and 98%, respectively [10].

However, in natural environments, PNSB always coexist with various microorganisms. Compared with other bacteria, PNSB have a lower growth rate [11]. The slow growth rate makes it challenging for PNSB to outcompete with other microorganisms for nutrients and spaces, preventing its enrichment from the initial inoculum containing a mixed microbial community. PNSB can assimilate carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) from wastewater with the COD:N:P ratio of 100:6.4:1.1 [12]. Due to the complicated factors and requirements, the bubble column photobioreactor is a promising system for the efficient cultivation of PNSB due to its high mass transfer rate and, uniform mixing, and adjustable light and gas availability [13].

It was reported that *Rhodobacter* could be enriched under high acetate concentrations (5-20 mmol/L), while *Rhodopseudomonas* was enriched at lower concentrations (0.5-1 mmol/L) [14]. The optimum temperature of PNSB was 25 °C-30 °C [15]. The pH of 7-8 was preferred for PNSB growth. The highest organic carbon removal and lowest inorganic carbon removal were observed at pH 8.0, while pH 5.0 showed the highest inorganic carbon removal [16]. In addition, the highest maximum specific growth rate of *Rhodopseudomonas palustris* was achieved at a light intensity of around 1800 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ [17]. PNSB granules were successfully enriched out of activated sludge in a sequencing batch reactor (SBR) with acetate-based synthetic water and achieved promising COD and nutrient removal efficiencies of 95% and over 70%, respectively [18]. However, it took five months to inoculate the biomass in batch mode before switching to SBR mode. Most other studies focusing on reactor performance, bioproducts, or growth kinetics of PNSB, used enriched PNSB culture instead of mixed inoculum, which was easier to gain [19, 20]. Therefore, methods for the fast enrichment of PNSB to promote the development of PNSB

applications are needed.

Moreover, PNSB granules are desired to facilitate biomass harvesting due to their enhanced settling ability. Biomass granulation can also improve the reactor performance by increasing the solid retention time (SRT), resistance to environmental stresses, and microbial activity. Aeration plays a vital role in the biomass granulation process to maintain the microbial structure and the metabolism pathways. Prior research showed that high air velocity can provide shear force to stimulate the production of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), which are critical for the formation and maintenance of granules [21, 22]. In contrast, *Rb. capsulatus* might produce a heat-labile metabolites inducing disaggregation. Higher COD/N ratios could also lead to disaggregation because of the overgrowth of filamentous bacteria [23].

This study aimed to approach strategies for the fast development of PNSB in a simple bioreactor configuration. For this purpose, a bubble column photobioreactor that was continuously supplied with different ratios of CO₂ and O₂ was implemented. The reactor was inoculated with activated sludge due to its wide availability in bulk amounts. Different operational strategies were applied to investigate their impacts on the reactor performance (COD, nitrogen and phosphorous removal), biomass properties (chlorophyll, carotenoids, and exopolysaccharide content), and the resulting microbial community.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Synthetic wastewater and inoculum

Medium-strength synthetic wastewater with a COD of 475.5±10.4 mg/L modified according to García et al. was fed to the reactor [24]. NaHCO₃ and CaCl₂ at

3 and 0.005 g/L, respectively were added to keep the pH above 7 and to promote biomass granulation. The composition of the medium-strength synthetic wastewater was (g/L): CH₃COONa (0.6), NH₄Cl (0.31), K₂HPO₄ (0.073), NaHCO₃ (3), and CaCl₂ (0.005). In addition, 10 mL trace element stock solution was added to 1 L of media with the following composition (g/L): EDTA-C₁₀H₁₆N₂O₈ (0.5), FeSO₄·7H₂O (0.2), ZnSO₄·7H₂O (0.01), MnCl₂·4H₂O (0.003), H₃BO₃ (0.03), CoCl₂ (0.011), CuCl₂·2H₂O (0.162), NiCl₂·6H₂O (0.002), NaMoO₄·2H₂O (0.003), and MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.02). Secondary activated sludge from a wastewater treatment plant performing nitrification-denitrification was used as the inoculum (Querétaro, Mexico). The reactor was inoculated with 10% (v/v) activated sludge relative to the working volume of the reactor (3.6 L), reaching an initial total suspended solids (TSS) concentration of 0.32 g TSS/L.

2.2. Reactor setup and operation

As shown in Figure 1, a laboratory-scale cylindrical column (62.5 cm height, 8.7 cm inner diameter, total volume of 3.7 L) was operated at a working volume of 3.6 L. Magnetic stirring (150 rpm) was provided at the bottom to keep the biomass suspension. The reactor was operated with 12/12 h light/dark photoperiods at room temperature (Figure. 1). An average light intensity of ~200 μmol/m²/s was provided by a dual strip LED light (Model MNSL, Lithonia Lighting, Mexico), which was measured inside the reactor at the bottom, middle and top of the column. The 12/12 h photoperiod was controlled by a digital control unit connected to a Lab-Quest data acquisition card (Venier, Beaverton, OR, USA). To control the concentration of CO₂ flowing into the reactor, CO₂ and air or O₂ were supplied at desired flow rates via mass flow controllers (Model GFC, Aalborg Instruments, New York, USA) and mixed in a gas chamber before entering the column. The mixed gas was introduced to

the bottom of the column by a stone diffuser at a total flow rate of 0.2 L/min. A settler of 0.9 L was implemented to avoid biomass washing out in the column. Since the CO₂ supply could lead to acidification of the culture medium, which was detrimental to the cultivated organisms, 3 g/L of NaHCO₃ was added to the influent to keep the pH above 7. The column was equipped with dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, and temperature sensors, as well as a gas sensor to monitor the CO₂ concentration at the gas outlet. DO, pH, temperature and CO₂ concentration data were acquired every hour throughout the experiment.

The liquid phase of the photobioreactor was operated in batch mode for 11 days, while the gas phase was supplied continuously at a gas retention time (GRT) of 18 min, determined as follows:

$$GRT = V/F \quad (1)$$

where V and F stand for the working volume of the reactor and the gas flow rate, respectively. Thereafter, the reactor was also operated in continuous mode. For this purpose, the liquid influent, effluent, and biomass recirculation were controlled by three automated peristaltic pumps (model 77200-50, Cole-Parmer, USA), with flow rates of 1, 2, and 1 mL/min, respectively, resulting in a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 2.5 days. Table 1 summarizes the COD concentrations in wastewater and gas compositions tested. In phase I, II, and III, a mixture of CO₂ and N₂ was supplied to keep the reactor in anaerobic condition, while in phase IV, a mixture of CO₂ and air was supplied to keep the reactor in aerobic condition. A DO sensor was used to monitor the anaerobic/aerobic condition throughout the experiment. In phase III, COD in the form of acetate was not supplied to evaluate the impact of carbon source on the metabolism pathways of the microorganisms.

2.3. Molecular biology analysis

Mixed liquor samples (50 mL) from the reactor were periodically drawn on days 0, 28, 41, and 57, and stored at -20°C for microbial analysis. Genomic DNA was extracted with PowerSoil[®] DNA isolation kit (MOBIO, USA). The extracted DNA samples were submitted to the Research and Testing Laboratory (RTL, Lubbock, USA) for Illumina MiSeq sequencing analysis of microalgal (18S rRNA, primers: EukA7F 5'-AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGT-3', EUK555R 5'-GCTGCTGGCACCAGACT-3') and bacterial cells (16S rRNA, primers: 28F 5'-GAGTTTGATCNTGGCTCAG-3', 388R 5'-TGCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT-3') [25]. The resultant sequences were processed utilizing DADA2 v1.26 within the R environment. Forward and reverse reads were filtered and truncated to 200 and 250 nucleotides, respectively, chimera sequences were removed, and an amplified sequence variant table was obtained. Taxonomic classifications were assigned to representative sequences through the application of a Naïve Bayesian classifier, and two different dataset references, SILVA 132 and PR2 5.0, were used for 16S and 18S, respectively [26].

2.4. Analytical methods

The liquid samples were filtered through 0.22 μm nylon membranes before the chemical analysis. The soluble COD and NH_4^+ concentrations were determined by USEPA reactor digestion method (Hach 8000) and salicylate method (Hach 10031) respectively. Concentrations of NO_2^- , NO_3^- , and PO_4^{3-} were measured by ion chromatography (IC) system (model ICS 1500, Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). TSS and volatile suspended solids (VSS) were determined according to Standard Methods [27].

Chlorophyll and carotenoids were determined according to Osório et al. with 100% methanol [28]. Briefly, 10 mL mixed liquor was centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10

min. The supernatant was discarded and 100% methanol was added to the final volume of 10 mL. The mixture was resuspended by a vortex. For sufficient extraction, the mixture was kept at 4 °C in dark for over 12 h. Then, the mixture was centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10 min to obtain a clear supernatant. The absorbance of the supernatant was measured in a 1-cm cuvette at the wavelengths of 480 nm, 632 nm, 652 nm, 665 nm, 696 nm, and 750 nm in duplicate by a spectrophotometer (model VE-5600UV, Velab). The calculations of chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, chlorophyll c, chlorophyll d, and carotenoids concentrations can be found in Osório et al 2020 [28].

EPS was extracted by a modified heating method [29]. Briefly, 10mL mixed liquor sample was centrifuged at 5000g for 15 min. The supernatant was filtered through 0.22 µm nylon membrane, and the filtrate was collected to represent the loosely bound EPS (LB-EPS) fraction. The supernatant was discarded, and the residual biomass was resuspended with 0.9% (w/v) NaCl solution to the original volume (10 mL). The mixture was heated at 70 °C for 30 min. The extracted solution was centrifuged at 10,000g for 20 min under 4 °C, and the supernatant was filtered through 0.22 µm nylon membrane. The filtrate was collected to represent the tightly bound EPS (TB-EPS) fraction. The EPS samples are stored at -20 °C prior to analysis. Extracellular polysaccharides (PS) and proteins (PN) are measured by the colorimetric method and the Lowry-Folin method, respectively [30, 31].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. COD and nutrients removal performance

COD removal performance is shown in Figure 2a. During batch operation in the experimental phase I, with continuous CO₂ and N₂ supply, the COD concentration was reduced from 551.5 mg/L to 353.5 mg/L within 11 days (corresponding to a removal efficiency of 35.9%). During phase II, under HRT of 2.5 days and continuous

supply of CO₂ and N₂ gas, the COD removal was stable with an average removal efficiency of 36.7%, corresponding to an average removal rate of 68.8 g COD/m³·d (Table 2). In the experimental phase II, CO₂ and N₂ were continuously supplied, which stripped the O₂ potentially produced via photosynthesis. Since no DO was available (Figure. 2C), COD removal was attributed to photoheterotrophic metabolism during the light period and respiration during dark period (Figure 3). A clear increase of biomass concentration (TSS) in the photobioreactor was observed, passing from 0.5 g/L at the end of experimental phase I to 0.7 mg/L at the end of experimental phase II. An average biomass specific growth rate of 0.10/day was recorded under the experimental conditions set in experimental phase II (Table 2).

Previous research showed that when using purple phototrophic bioreactors to treat raw domestic wastewater in membrane systems, above 90% COD removal was achieved [12]. In those cases, the soluble COD concentrations of the influent were 245 mg/L and 138 mg/L, respectively, which were much lower than that of this research. A recent study using purple phototropic bacteria in an anaerobic membrane bioreactor (PAnMBR) for refinery water treatment achieved a maximum soluble COD removal of 75% [32]. COD/Biomass ratio in this study was 0.8 g COD/g VSS, which was lower than most prior studies (1-4 g COD/g VSS) which showed over 50% removal of COD with HRT of 1.5-4 days [4, 33, 34]. The COD:N:P removal ratio in this study was consistent with previous research on PNSB (will be discussed later in this section), indicating that the main metabolisms during the process were acted by PNSB in this study. However, in other studies, the bioreactors were operated longer than this study, which ensured that the biomass adjusted well to the environment. Note that the reactor in this study was seeded with activated sludge. The shift of microbial community resulting from different operational conditions can cause

different COD removal performances.

In order to compare the impact of carbon source on the reactor performance, organic carbon source was eliminated during the experimental phase III, and the COD concentration was progressively decreased from 223 mg/L to 42.5 mg/L in the effluent. The higher COD values recorded in the first days of experimental phase III were probably attributed to the biomass decay and the carryover of COD from phase II (Figure 2b). Sudden changes in COD have may trigger biomass decay in photobioreactors [24]. The SRT of the system was 6.4 days. It is expected to take around 10 days to decay more than half of biomass.

During phase IV, a mixture of air and CO₂ was fed to the reactor continuously, while organic carbon was reinstated in the influent. A COD removal efficiency of up to 91.7% was achieved in phase IV due to the presence of O₂ in the system. This oxygen promoted the proliferation of aerobic heterotrophic microorganisms that use organic matter as carbon and energy sources, and employ more efficient metabolism pathways to break down organic compounds. This results in a higher COD removal efficiency compared to anaerobic conditions. An average removal rate of 175.8 g COD/m³·d and an average specific COD removal rate of 311.8 g COD/kg VSS·d indicated that the reactor reached a high COD removal performance with the presence of O₂. The presence of O₂ promoted the respiration of heterotrophs, which used COD as the carbon source. In the algal photobioreactor with intermittent illumination, COD removal could reach around 70% [35], which was lower than the photobioreactor in this study. As it will be discussed in detail in Section 3.5, changes in COD and O₂ availability indeed produced profound changes in the predominant microbial communities in each experimental phase tested.

The experimental conditions in experimental phases II and IV allowed for

COD removal in the photobioreactor with the best performance observed in phase IV due to O₂ availability, which promoted the heterotrophic metabolism. If a CO₂-rich gas stream is intended for use as an inorganic carbon source in photobioreactors for wastewater treatment, it is recommended to mix this stream with air to ensure an adequate supply of O₂ and facilitate high COD removal. Additionally, the conditions established during experimental phase II also accomplished the removal of organic matter at a rate of 68.8 g/m³·d. Moreover, switching to aerobic conditions (as in phase IV) for a brief period can be used as a polishing strategy for COD removal if required.

As for the nutrient removal, NH₄⁺-N was reduced from 72.3 mg/L to 43.6 mg/L, and PO₄³⁻-P was reduced from 20.9 mg/L to 11.5 mg/L for the batch operation of the reactor with during phase I (Figure 3). The removal ratio of COD:N:P was 100:15:5. During phase II, the removal efficiencies of NH₄⁺-N and PO₄³⁻-P were 26.6% and 11.9%, respectively. The removal ratio of COD:N:P was 100:10:2, which was consistent with previous research on purple bacteria in photo anaerobic membrane bioreactor (100:6.4:1.1) [12]. Since the uptake of PO₄³⁻-P by purple bacteria under anaerobic condition was lower than that under aerobic condition and the uptake of PO₄³⁻-P by phosphate-accumulating organisms (PAOs) required both anaerobic and aerobic conditions. While only anaerobic condition was provided during phase II, a limited PO₄³⁻-P removal efficiency was observed.

During phase III, the average NH₄⁺-N removal performance was similar to phase II. The PO₄³⁻-P average removal efficiency improved to 27.1% due to the growth of biomass (VSS) compared with phase II, since the average specific removal rate did not improve.

During phase IV, the NH₄⁺-N removal decreased, with an average removal efficiency of 10.0%. The removal ratio of COD:N:P was 100:1:1. The PO₄³⁻-P

removal performance increased because O_2 in the gas inlet provided an aerobic condition, and anaerobic condition was provided inside the biomass granular. So that the two processes (P release and P accumulation) for PO_4^{3-} -P removal can be completed.

Previous research showed that in a continuous PNSB photobioreactor, NH_4^+ -N and PO_4^{3-} -P removal rates reached up to $113\text{ g N/m}^3\cdot\text{d}$ and $15\text{ g P/m}^3\cdot\text{d}$, respectively [18]. In other studies with PNSB wastewater treatment, the removal efficiencies of NH_4^+ -N and PO_4^{3-} -P were more than 60% and 55%, respectively [8, 34, 36]. These were much higher than the results in this study. However, the previous research applied a higher SRT (11 days) and a higher biomass concentration of up to 4 g VSS/L , over 4 times more than this study [18].

3.2. CO_2 uptake and the impact of carbon source

The average CO_2 removal efficiency was 2.8% in phase II (Figure 4a). The average removal efficiency of CO_2 increased to 5.4% in phase III. The CO_2 removal rates in phases II and III were 0.11 g/(L day) and 0.22 g/(L day) , respectively. CO_2 was the only carbon source of the reactor in phase III, and purple bacteria could utilize CO_2 for photosynthesis when there was no other carbon source or oxygen. During phase IV, there was almost no CO_2 removal from the system, due to the aerobic respiration of bacteria with the presence of organic carbon. O_2 and organic carbon were used by biomass in the reactor, including purple bacteria for aerobic respiration and CO_2 was generated as a byproduct. In general, the conditions tested in this study did not support effective CO_2 removal in the photobioreactor. However, the outlet CO_2 concentration had a periodical change within each operation cycle (1 day), where there were obvious peak in the light phase and valley values in the dark phase during each day (Figure. 4b). It meant negative removal of CO_2 with light and

positive removal of CO₂ in dark. Therefore, for practical applications, a potential strategy is to intermittently introduce CO₂ during the dark phase to prevent negative removal during the light phase. This approach optimizes the gas purification performance, carbon utilization, and energy costs associated with the gas supply for the system.

Under anaerobic conditions with light, purple bacteria can utilize CO₂ as a carbon source for photosynthesis in the absence of organic carbon. During phase III, with CO₂ being the sole carbon source for photosynthesis, PNSB was able to consume more CO₂. This led to an improvement in CO₂ removal efficiency, which was nearly double that of phase II. Moreover, when both organic carbon and CO₂ are present, the bacteria prioritize using organic carbon as their primary carbon source. However, in the presence of O₂, purple bacteria will undergo aerobic respiration rather than photosynthesis, consuming organic carbon instead of CO₂.

Meanwhile, in aerobic conditions, heterotrophic bacteria will also perform respiration and produce CO₂. Therefore, CO₂ removal efficiency in photobioreactors depends on their consumption by photosynthesis and their production by respiration. In an anaerobic/aerobic photobioreactor treating textile wastewater, a negative removal efficiency of inorganic carbon was reported for the entire experimental period due to the CO₂ produced from the anaerobic degradation of the organic matter. The CO₂ produced was consumed in the following aerobic photobioreactor by algae [37], while positive CO₂ production was observed during the anaerobic phase. It showed that the highest inorganic carbon removal efficiency was observed at pH 5.0, while the lowest removal efficiency was found at pH 8.0 because of the bicarbonate degradation at the lower pH [16]. This might be one of the reasons for the low CO₂ removal in this study. The CO₂ fixation rate was reported in the range of 0.1-1.5

g/Lday in photobioreactors with different illumination durations each day [38-40]. A prior study demonstrated that CO₂ removal rate by PNSB was 0.56 g/(L· day) with 12h-12h light-dark cycle [38], which is significantly higher than the rates observed in this study. However, the biomass concentration in that study was 2 g/L, considerably higher than this study (< 1 g/L). The lower biomass concentration in the reactor resulted in low CO₂ removal efficiency. Moreover, their calculations of CO₂ fixation rate were based on the production of biomass instead of the CO₂ removal in gas phase, and organic carbon uptake was not counted. This study presented a direct measurement of CO₂ removal based on the change of CO₂ concentration in gas phase.

3.3. Biomass properties

It showed that the biomass had a high chlorophyll b content and a small carotenoid content, which are the main pigments of purple bacteria (Figure. 5a). For some algal species, the content of chlorophyll a is higher than chlorophyll b (which would be explained in Section 3.5) [41], so the low chlorophyll a content indicated that algae was not dominant in the reactor. Since the values of chlorophyll a, c, and d were close to 0, the total chlorophyll was mainly contributed by chlorophyll b. The total chlorophyll content increased from 2 mg/g VSS to 14 mg/g VSS during phase II and phase III due to the benefit of anaerobic conditions for purple bacteria. It decreased significantly to the initial value (2 mg/g VSS) in phase IV because the aerobic condition promoted the growth of other bacteria. The pigment contents revealed the switch of microbial community composition, indicating that anaerobic conditions could promote the growth of purple bacteria by reducing competition with other microorganisms.

Prior research has shown that EPS played an important role in the formation and maintenance of granules derived from activated sludge granular (AGS). EPS can

364 increase the hydrophobicity of the cells' surface, and increasing the ratio of protein to
365 polysaccharide can reduce the negative surface charge of cells, resulting in the
366 decrease of their electrostatic repulsion. The changes of hydrophobicity and surface
367 charge can promote the granulation process [42]. EPS could also protect biomass from
368 harsh conditions such as extreme temperatures, pH fluctuations, and toxic substances
369 [43]. However, high EPS production may reduce microbial growth rates, as more
370 energy is expended in synthesizing EPS rather than biomass [44]. Excessive EPS can
371 also cause clogging in the bioreactor, hinder mass transfer, and increase operational
372 costs due to more frequent cleaning and maintenance requirements [45]. The initial
373 sludge had the highest EPS content (Figure 5b). It decreased rapidly because of
374 limited COD in batch mode throughout the time. In phase II, the biomass had a higher
375 EPS content during the first week (day 18) and decreased later. The EPS content
376 remained consistent with the end of phase II throughout phase III. In contrast, the
377 chlorophyll content peaked during this phase, indicating the highest distribution of
378 purple bacteria in the biomass. With organic carbon and O₂ provided in phase IV, EPS
379 production and PN/PS ratio increased, indicating an appropriate granular formation
380 condition. The initial activated sludge and the biomass in phase IV had higher EPS
381 contents, consistent with that aerobic condition and organic carbon can promote EPS
382 production. However, during the experiment, no mature granules were observed. The
383 reactor was operated under a continuous flow mode, lacking settling time and
384 selection pressure that promotes granule formation. In phase III, the limited organic
385 carbon source led to a decrease in EPS production, which prevented the further
386 granulation process. Besides, the lack of filamentous microorganisms might be
387 another reason for the lack of mature granules. Although the system produced more
388 EPS than conventional activated sludge system [46, 47], indicating the potential for

granule formation, it still produced much less EPS than other PNSB granule systems (over 200 g EPS/g VSS) operated more than 200 days [48]. The short duration of anaerobic phase with organic carbon in this study might be another factor causing the low EPS production and lack of granular formation.

The changes in COD and O₂ availability induced changes in the microbial communities, which could be observed via drastic color changes in each experimental phase (Figure. 6). In phase II, the color changed from yellow to brown, kept in brown during the whole phase III, and became much lighter at the end of phase IV, indicating that purple bacteria were the dominant taxa in phases II and III and decayed in phase IV, which can be confirmed by microbial analysis in section 3.5.

3.4. Microbial community characterization

16S rRNA analysis indicated that there was almost no overlap between the dominant species of sludge used as inoculum and in the later phases (Figure 7a). The most dominant species in the sludge inoculum were *Candidatus Competibacter sp.* and *Caldilinea sp.*, with relative abundances of 9.2% and 9.0%, respectively. In phase II and phase III in anaerobic conditions, *Rhodopseudomonas spp.*, a PNSB, became the dominant species with relative abundances of 92.8% and 94.6%, respectively. The relative abundances of the second dominant species, *Thiobaca sp.*, which is a purple sulfur bacterium (PSB), were 2.6% and 1.2%, respectively. The relative abundances of *Thiobaca sp.* were much lower than *Rhodopseudomonas spp.* since there was limited sulfur source. In phase IV with aerobic condition, the relative abundance of *Rhodopseudomonas spp.* decreased to 36.6%. *Delftia sp.* and *Microbacterium sp.* became the other two dominant species with relative abundances of 18.5% and 13.6%, respectively, which contributed to the organic matter removal and nitrogen removal [49, 50]. The aerobic condition did not help the recovery of microorganisms to the

initial composition but helped develop some aerobic bacteria species. 18S rRNA analysis showed the relative abundances of algae species (Figure 7b). It showed almost no algae in the sludge used as inoculum (0.13%). In phase II and phase III, algae became the dominant Eukaryote. The relative abundances of *Chlorella sorokiniana*, which was the main algae species, were 84.5% and 75.6%, respectively, while it dropped to 6.2% in phase IV. The main pigment of *Chlorella sorokiniana* was chlorophyll a [51]. As it was mentioned in Section 3.4, there was almost no chlorophyll a content in the biomass. Thus, PNSB was the main dominant taxa in the reactor instead of algae.

Rhodopseudomonas spp. could perform photosynthesis under anaerobic conditions with light and various carbon sources, while most other microorganisms require O₂ and organic carbon to grow, which allowed *Rhodopseudomonas* spp. to outcompete with other microorganisms and became the dominant species. Since *Rhodopseudomonas* spp. can fix nitrogen, conversing N₂ to NH₄⁺ under anaerobic conditions [52], which might be the reason for the low NH₄⁺ removal during the experiment. Under aerobic conditions, PNSB are unable to grow through the photosynthetic process [53, 54], leading to a general decline in biomass concentrations, (Figure. 2b) and the decrease of relative abundance of *Rhodopseudomonas* spp.. The photobioreactor with PNSB could perform different metabolic pathways depending on light availability and the presence of CO₂ and O₂ (Table 3). In anaerobic conditions with light and the existence of both CO₂ and organic carbon source (acetate acid), PNSB prefers to use organic carbon as the carbon source and grows photoheterotrophically. When CO₂ is the sole carbon source, PNSB undergoes the photoautotrophic pathway. While under aerobic conditions, PNSB can consume organic carbon by respiration, and CO₂ will not be consumed.

However, their growth rate under aerobic conditions was significantly lower than under anaerobic conditions [53], which is consistent with this study. This slower growth also stemmed from the competition between PNSB and other heterotrophs, such as *Delftia sp.* and *Microbacterium sp.*, which were better adapted to cope with oxidative stress, giving them a survival advantage under high oxygen conditions. Fig. 8 shows the metabolic pathways of COD removal PNSB under different aeration and light conditions. Aerobic respiration is the main catabolic pathway for organic matter degradation under aerobic conditions, involving three key steps: glycolysis (EMP) or Entner–Doudoroff (ED) pathway, the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, and the electron transport chain. Under light-anaerobic conditions, energy is generated through photophosphorylation as the main process and substrate-level phosphorylation. The primary catabolic pathways for organic carbon degradation are the EMP/ED pathway, followed by fermentation [55].

4. Conclusions

This work confirmed that PNSB can be quickly enriched under anaerobic conditions and the continuous supply of CO₂. PNSB became predominant within 28 days of operation, even under a light intensity of 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. *Rhodopseudomonas* spp. was the dominant PNSB species, with a relative abundance of over 90%. The photobioreactor achieved a removal ratio of COD:N:P of 100:10:2 when no O₂ was supplied. However, when 20.4% O₂ was provided, the removal ratio of COD:N:P was 100:1:1, which highlighted the relevance of the gas mixture fed to the photobioreactor. The continuous supply of O₂ also impacted the abundance of microalgae in the culture, promoting the growth of aerobic heterotrophic bacteria. Removing organic carbon from the synthetic wastewater and keeping CO₂ as a carbon

source in anaerobic conditions did not change the microbial distribution in the reactor. The removal efficiency of NH_4^+ did not change a lot (26.6% versus 23.7%) with the absence of organic carbon from phase II to phase III. In comparison, the removal efficiency of PO_4^{3-} increased from 11.9% to 27.1%, and the removal efficiency of CO_2 increased from 2.8% to 5.4%. The photobioreactor did not achieve a net CO_2 removal regardless of the experimental conditions tested. A potential strategy to increase CO_2 removal can be an intermittent CO_2 supply in the anaerobic condition during the dark phase without organic carbon. As for the granulation performance, high EPS production was observed, indicating the biomass had the potential to form granules. However, no mature granules formed in the reactor, potentially because of the lack of organic carbon in phase III and the lack of settling time during the whole experiment. Therefore, the operational strategies tested in phase II and phase III in this study could be used to quickly develop PNSB cultures from activated sludge.

For long-term reactor performance, a higher HRT is recommended in the earlier stage to ensure nutrient and COD removal performance. A longer light phase might be helpful for PNSB growth. After the biomass is enriched to a proper concentration, the loading could be increased step by step by reducing HRT. A settling period or other operational conditions could be developed depending on specific research goals, including specific wastewater treatment processes, bioproducts production, and biomass utilization. In this study, each condition was operated for a short period to establish PNSB communities. Further research should assess the impact of various operational factors, such as light conditions, concentrations of CO_2 source, and the influent quality. Additionally, the long-term operation of the system and its stability, as well as the enzymes involved in the metabolism pathways under

different conditions, should be thoroughly investigated.

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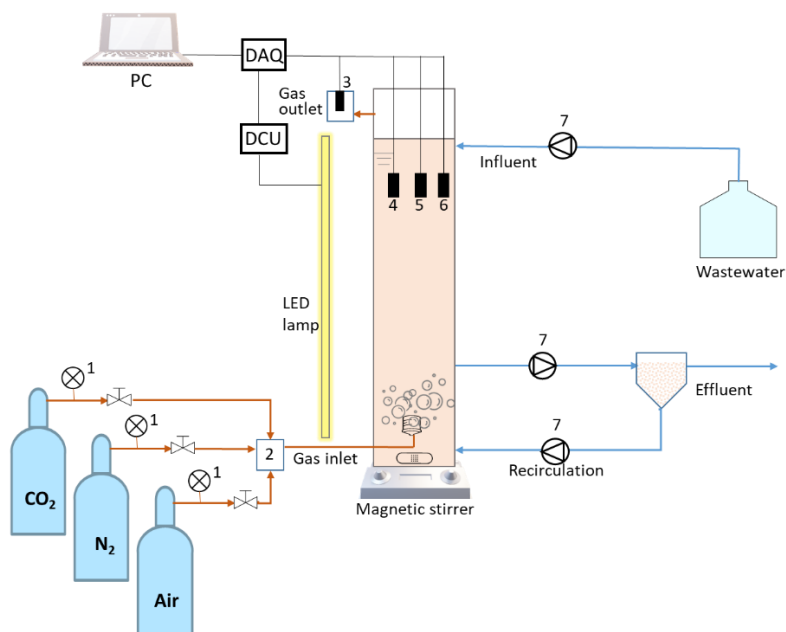
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713

714 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the experimental setup. DAQ and DCU stand
 715 for data acquisition card and digital control unit, respectively; (1) mass flow
 716 controller, (2) gas mixing chamber, (3) CO₂ gas sensor, (4) pH sensor, (5) DO sensor,
 717 (6) temperature sensor, (7) peristaltic pump

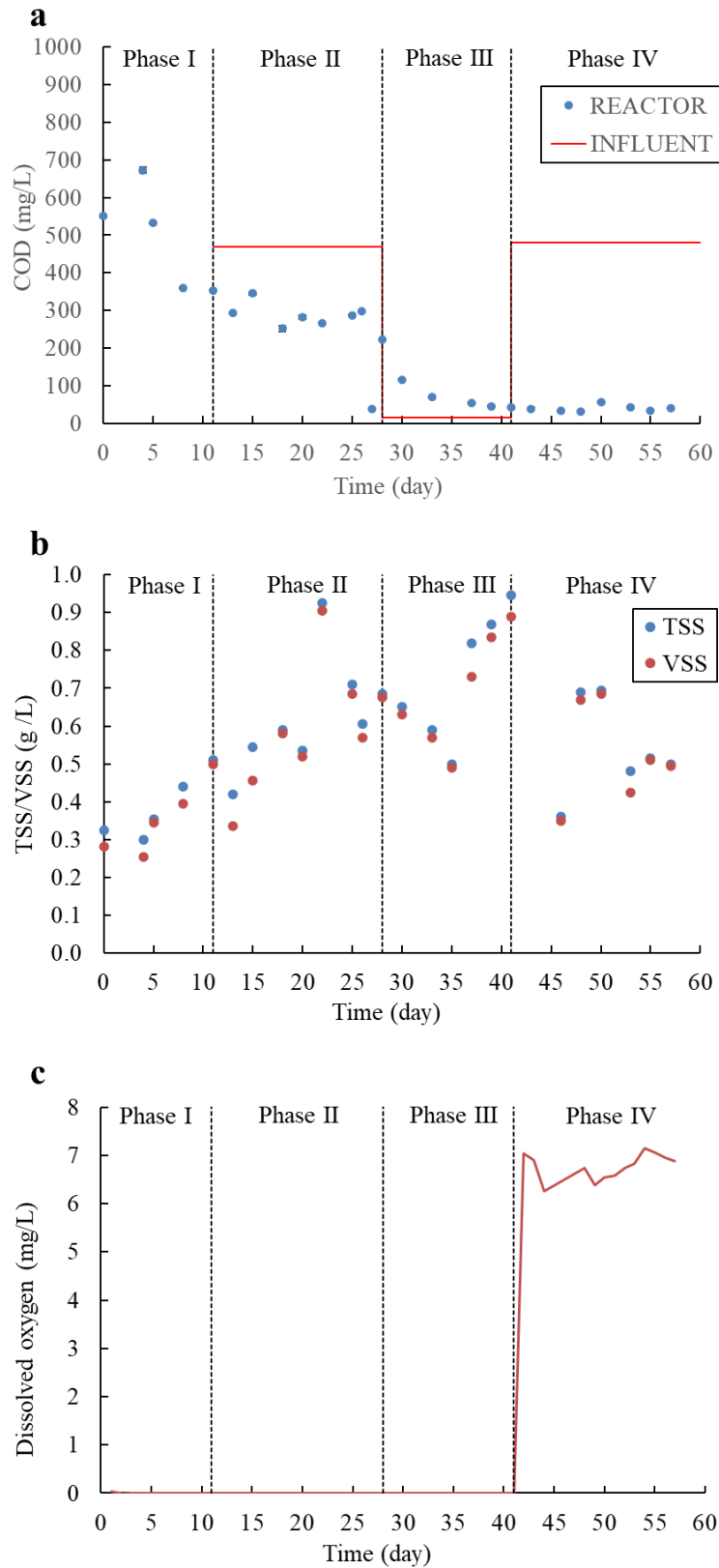


Figure 2. Time course of (a) COD, (b) TSS and VSS, and (c) dissolved oxygen concentrations in the four experimental phases tested in the photobioreactor

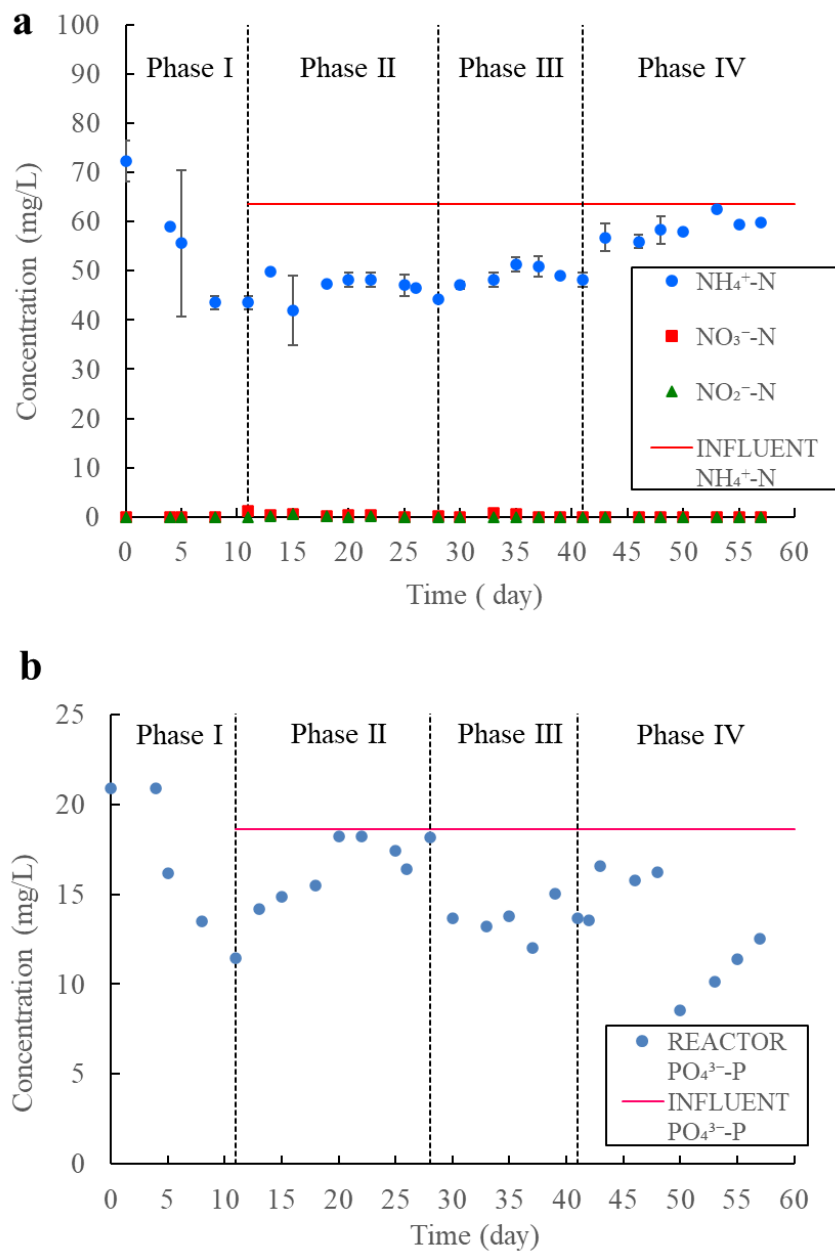


Figure 3. Time course of (a) inorganic nitrogen species, and (b) $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ concentration in the experimental phases tested in the photobioreactor

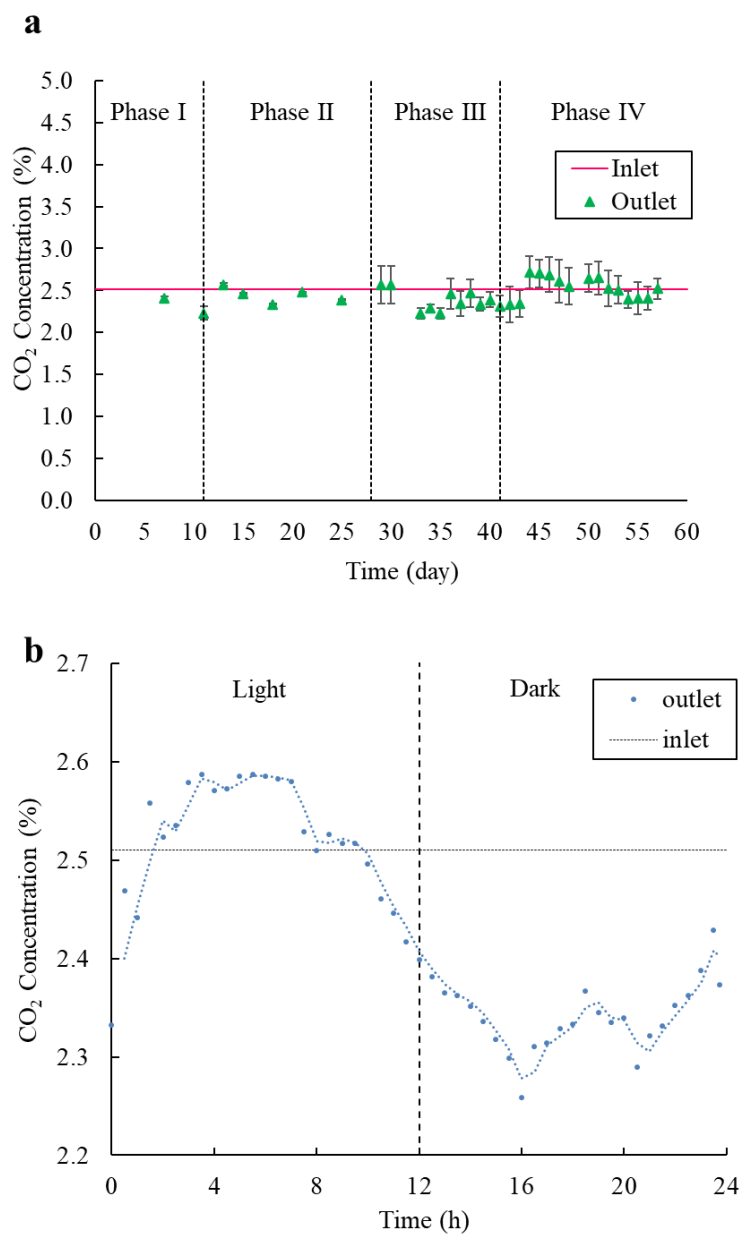


Figure 4. (a) Time course of CO₂ concentration in gas phase in the experimental phases tested in the photobioreactor; (b) One-day dynamics of the CO₂ concentration of experimental phase III (average)

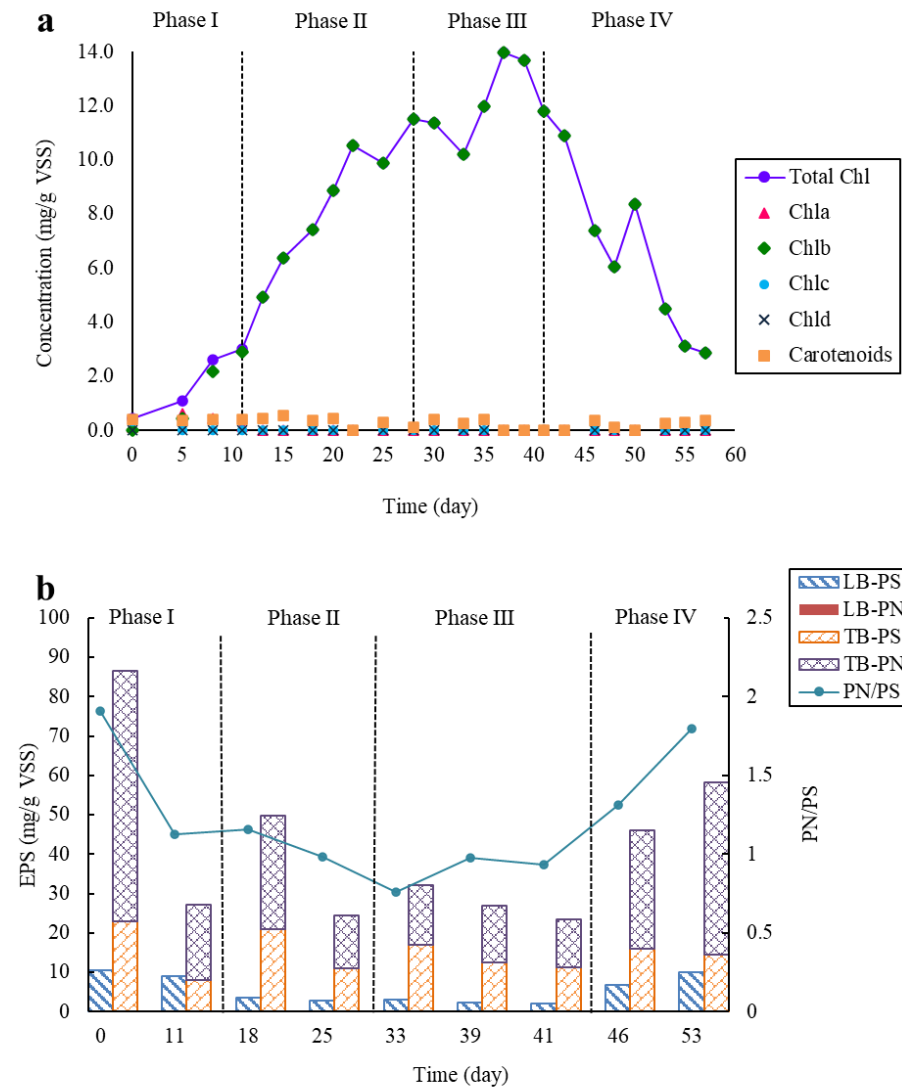


Figure 5. Biomass content of (a) chlorophyll and carotenoids, as well as (b) EPS determined in the experimental phases tested

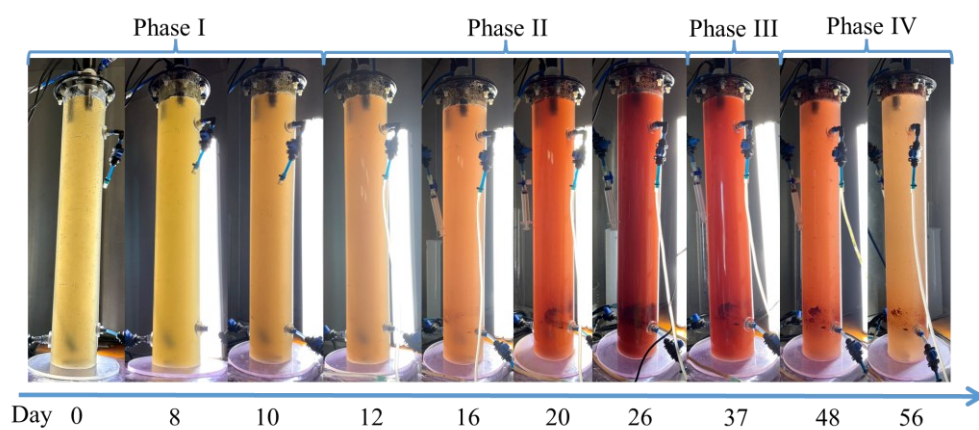


Figure 6. Color changes of the bioreactor in each experimental phase

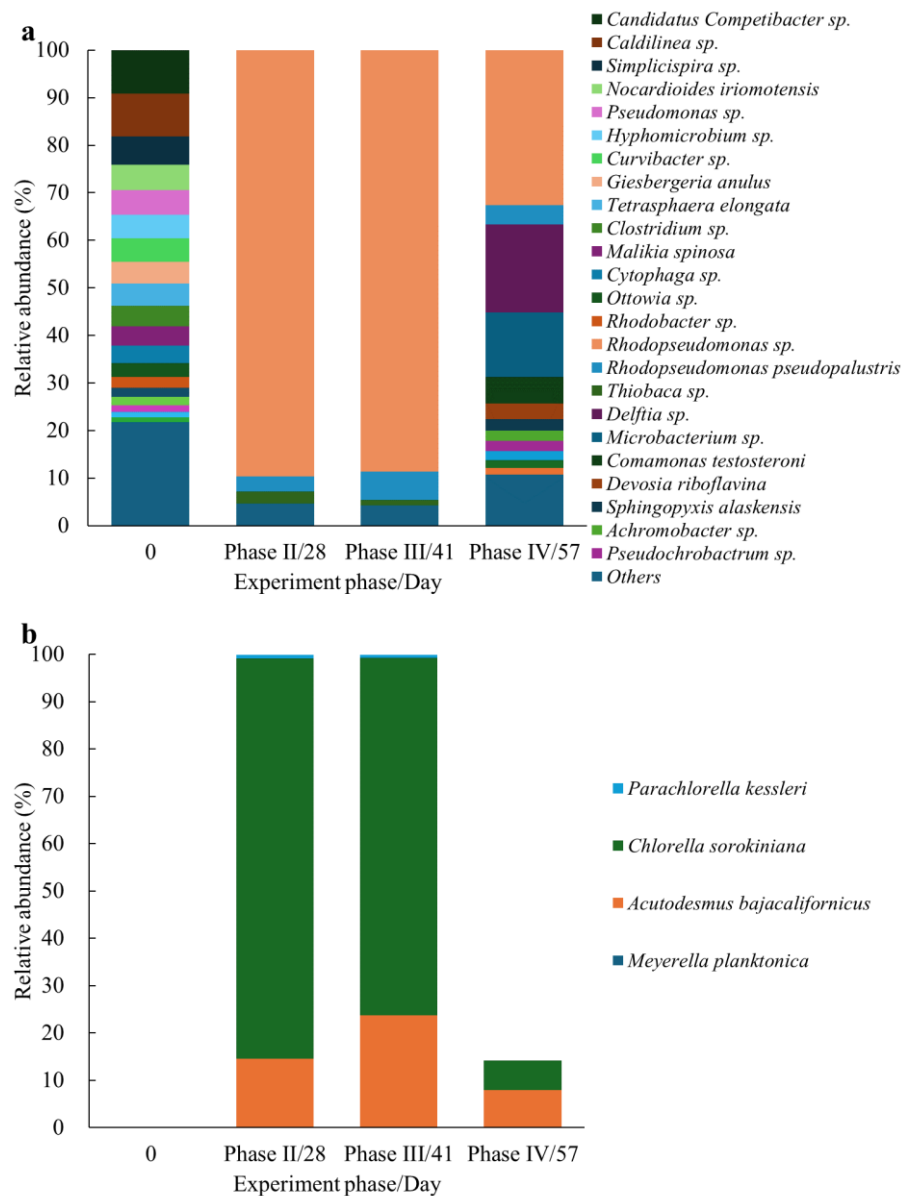


Figure 7. Microbial community composition at the species level as determined by (a) 16S RNA sequencing of biomass; (b) 18S RNA sequencing of biomass (microalgae)

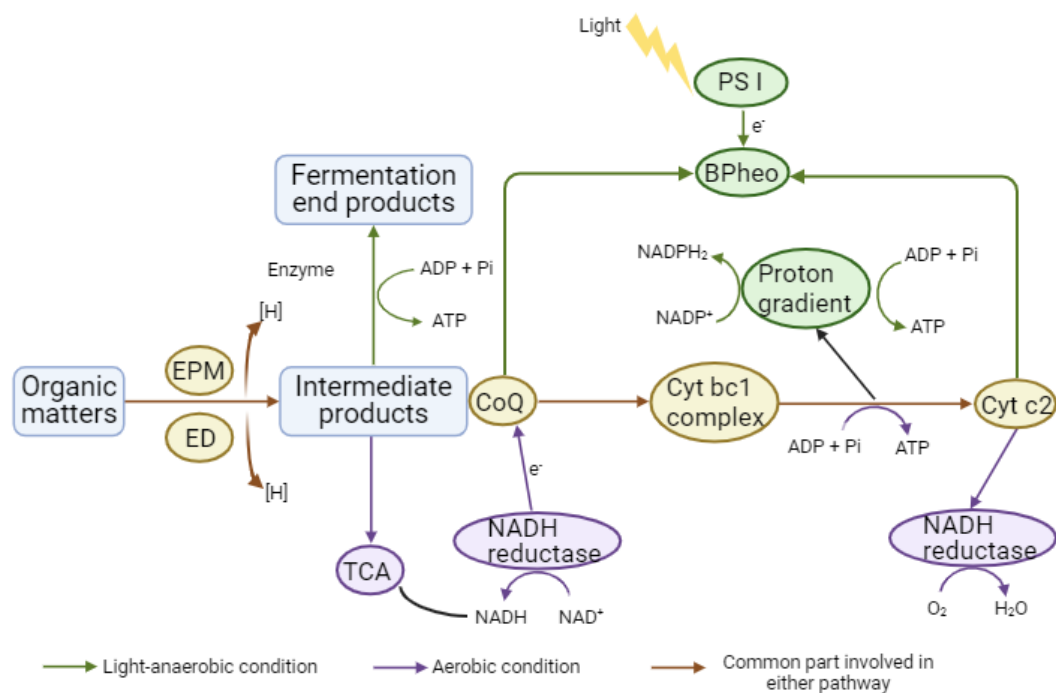


Figure 8. Mechanisms of COD removal in the bioreactor in each condition. Figure was adapted from Lu et al. [55].

761 **Table 1.** Influent COD concentration and composition of the gas fed in each
 762 experimental phase.

Experimental phase	Days	HRT (day)	Influent COD (mg/L)	O ₂ in gas phase (%)	CO ₂ in gas phase (%)	N ₂ in gas phase (%)
I	0-11	Batch for liquid phase	469.3±10.3	0	2.5	97.5
II	12-28	2.5	469.3±10.3	0	2.5	97.5
III	29-41	2.5	16±2.8	0	2.5	97.5
IV	42-57	2.5	479.7±10.0	20.4	2.5	76.0

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764 **Table 2.** Average COD, N, and P removal performance achieved in each experimental phase.

Experimental phase	COD			NH ₄ ⁺ -N			PO ₄ ³⁻ -P			Removal ratio COD:N:P	Biomass specific growth rate (day ⁻¹)
	Removal efficiency (%)	Removal rate (g COD/(m ³ ·d))	Specific removal rate (g COD/(kg VSS·d))	Removal efficiency (%)	Removal rate (g N/(m ³ ·d))	Specific removal rate (g N/(kg VSS·d))	Removal efficiency (%)	Removal rate (g P/(m ³ ·d))	Specific removal rate (g P/(kg VSS·d))		
I	35.9	18	56.4	39.8	2.62	8.2	20.4	0.9	2.7	100:15:5	0.06
II	36.7±7.5	68.8±15.3	128.7±42.9	26.6±4.4	6.8±1.1	12.9±4.3	11.9±13.2	1.2±1.0	2.5±2.3	100:10:2	0.10
III	NA ^a	NA ^a	NA ^a	23.7±4.1	6.0±1.0	9.4±2.0	27.1±11.4	1.7±0.9	2.7±1.5	-	0.09
IV	91.7±1.6	175.8±3.2	311.8±116.9	10.0±6.7	2.4±1.7	3.9±2.5	29.9±15	2.2±1.2	4.0±2.5	100:1:1	0.07

765 a. NA: COD was not supplied in this experimental phase.

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770 **Table 3.** Suggested PNSB metabolic pathway in each experimental phase based on the
 771 CO₂ and COD metabolism recorded in the present work.

Experimental phase	Carbon source	Condition of O ₂	Main metabolic pathway	
			Light	Dark
II	Organic carbon & CO ₂	Anaerobic	Photoheterotrophic	Fermentation/ anaerobic respiration
III	Sole CO ₂	Anaerobic	Photoautotrophic	Reductive tricarboxylic acid (rTCA) cycle
IV	Organic carbon & CO ₂	Aerobic	Aerobic respiration	Aerobic respiration

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