



An ultraviolet/biological (UV/B) reactor for the removal of nitrogenous compounds from the secondary effluent of wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs)

Journal:	<i>RSC Advances</i>
Manuscript ID:	RA-ART-01-2015-001896.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	12-Mar-2015
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1 **An ultraviolet/biological (UV/B) reactor for the removal of nitrogenous compounds from the**
2 **secondary effluent of wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs)**

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6 Abstract: An ultraviolet/biological (UV/B) reactor was used to treat the secondary effluent of
7 wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). A continuous flow experiment proved that the UV/B reactor
8 could significantly reduce nitrogenous compounds, and the UV/B reactor had a higher removal rate
9 of total nitrogen (TN), nitrate nitrogen (NO_3^- -N), ammonia nitrogen (NH_4^+ -N), Chemical Oxygen
10 Demand (COD), Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) at an UV/biological degradation stage than a
11 biological degradation stage. The effect of hydraulic retention time (HRT), water temperature, pH,
12 and dissolved oxygen (DO) on NO_3^- -N removal in the UV/B reactor was discussed, and it was
13 found that the HRT and water temperature significantly influenced the NO_3^- -N removal efficiency,
14 but the effect of pH and DO on NO_3^- -N removal was not significant.

15 Key words: secondary effluent; nitrogenous compound removal; ultraviolet/biological (UV/B)
16 reactor; biological reactor; denitrification

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18

19 **1. Introduction**

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20 The rapid development of industry and urbanization as well as population growth in China has
21 resulted in increasingly serious water shortages and water pollution.^{1,2} Secondary treatment is a
22 significant process undertaken in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) in China.³ The concept of
23 secondary treatment was that the wastewater was treated by an activated sludge process after some
24 physical treatment processes (e.g. sediment, sand setting), the activated sludge process include A²/O
25 process, A²/O² process, oxidation ditch and SBR. The secondary treatment process has a good
26 removal efficiency for organic matter that is readily degraded and ammonia nitrogen (NH₄⁺-N).
27 Refractory organic matter is residual and NH₄⁺-N is converted into nitrate nitrogen (NO₃⁻-N),
28 resulting in the secondary effluents of WWTPs being characterized by high concentrations of
29 NO₃⁻-N and total nitrogen (TN), as well as a low chemical oxygen demand (COD).^{1,4,5} Moreover,
30 some secondary effluent from WWTPs cannot meet the grade I (A) Discharge Standard of
31 Pollutants for Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plant in China (GB 18918-2002) due to technical
32 and management reasons (GB18918-2002 was showed in table 1). the secondary effluent was an
33 effluent from secondary treatment system, e.g. the effluent from A²/O, A²/O², oxidation ditch and
34 SBR, the A²/O, A²/O², oxidation ditch and SBR were presently main treatment processes of
35 WWTPs in China. Such secondary effluents lead to eutrophication and water quality deterioration,
36 as well as the ecological disturbance of receiving water bodies. In addition, secondary effluent from
37 WWTPs contains materials that could be reused, and therefore the advanced treatment of the
38 secondary effluent from WWTPs is urgent and necessary.

39

40

41 Table1 The highest discharged concentrations of relative basic control project (day mean value)(mg/L)

	Basic control project	Grade 1		Grade 2	Grade 3
		A	B		
1	Chemical oxygen demand (COD)	50	60	100	120
2	Biological oxygen demand(BOD ₅)	10	20	30	60
3	Total nitrogen (TN)	15	20	-	-
4	Ammounia nitrogen (NH ₄ ⁺ -N) ①	5 (8)	8 (15)	25 (30)	-

42 Note: The number outside of brackets is concentration control when water temperature is higher than 12 °C, the
 43 number inside of brackets is concentration control when water temperature is not higher than 12 °C

44 Many methods have been used to further treat nitrogenous compounds from the secondary
 45 effluents of WWTPs for the purpose of reuse or reduction of pollution. The most commonly used
 46 methods are based on physico-chemical techniques, such as advanced oxidation processes,
 47 adsorption, and filtration; ^{6,7} however, nitrogenous compounds cannot be removed effectively from
 48 the secondary effluent of WWTPs by physico-chemical methods. The high energy and monetary
 49 costs, as well as low removal efficiency for nitrogenous compounds are serious drawbacks of the
 50 physical-chemical methods.

51 In recent years, some novel biological technologies have been developed for the removal of
 52 nitrogenous compounds from the secondary effluent of WWTPs. Biological methods for the
 53 removal of nitrogenous compounds should be able to overcome the deficiencies of the
 54 physico-chemical methods, because they can avoid the high energy costs. ^{2,4} Zhao et al. developed
 55 a compound natural treatment system (Primary Subsurface Vertical Flow Wetland (PSVFW) +

56 Submerged Macrophyte Oxidation Ponds (SMOPs) + Secondary Subsurface Vertical Flow Wetland
57 (SSVFW)) for nitrogen removal from WWTP secondary effluent that resulted in a TN reduction of
58 75.8%.⁸ He and Xue applied an algal-based immobilization process to treat the effluent from a
59 secondary WWTP and achieved a TN and COD average removal rate of 36% and 32%, respectively.
60 ⁹ The above technologies also have shortcomings including a relatively low nitrogenous compound
61 removal rate due to limited assimilation by macrophytes or microalgae, as well as large amounts of
62 sunshine and an appropriate water temperature.¹⁰

63 The removal of nitrogenous compounds by microorganisms (nitrifying bacteria and
64 denitrifying bacteria) via nitrification and de-nitrification processes is the most effective and
65 economic biological treatment process.¹¹ However, the de-nitrification process requires a carbon
66 source as an electron donor. The endogenous carbon (residual organic matter) in the secondary
67 effluent of WWTPs is difficult to biologically degrade and the quantities of endogenous carbon are
68 also very limited, resulting in insufficient levels of available carbon for de-nitrification.⁴ However,
69 there are disadvantages associated with liquor carbon sources such as methyl alcohol,¹² alcohol,¹³
70 and acetic acid,¹⁴ related to the need for sophisticated process control, which is necessary for the
71 avoidance of overdosing risks, with a resulting deterioration in effluent water quality.¹⁵ To solve the
72 problem, many carbon based biodegradable polymers and biofilm carriers have been used to
73 remove nitrate and TN from water,^{1, 4, 16, 17} utilized biodegradable matter (polyhydroxyalkanoates
74 (PHA) and wheat straw) as biofilm carriers and carbon sources to remove the TN from the
75 secondary effluent of WWTPs. Cao used filamentous bamboo as a biofilm carrier and carbon source
76 to remove the TN,¹ and although the TN removal rate was greatly improved, the bioavailability of
77 the decomposed products of the biodegradable matter, especially the wheat straw and filamentous

78 bamboo, requires further study. In addition, it is feasible that the residual organic matter in the
79 secondary effluent of WWTPs could act as a carbon source. However, residual organic matter is
80 also difficult to biologically degrade using traditional biological treatment processes. Moreover, the
81 discharge of residual organic matter has two shortcomings: (1) excessive changes in the COD or
82 BOD₅ concentrations and (2) organic matter is not reused. The biodegradability of the residual
83 organic matter in the secondary effluent of WWTPs must be enhanced to improve the sequential
84 biochemical utilization. Consequently, to increase the treatment efficiency of the secondary
85 effluents from WWTPs, it is important to enhance the bioavailability of residual organic matter and
86 products containing bio-degradable matter (PHA, wheat straw, filamentous bamboo, and rice
87 straw).

88 Many studies have used ultraviolet (UV) irradiation in photocatalysis, ultrasonic degradation,
89 and ozone pre-oxidation technologies to convert complex chemical structures into simpler
90 intermediates that are more bioavailable and can be biodegraded more readily by microorganisms.
91 ¹⁸⁻²¹ UV irradiation technologies are the simplest and most traditional treatment processes available
92 to engineers.

93 The focus of most previous studies has been the removal of one or more complex chemicals
94 (e.g. pyridine, phenol, and 2,4,6-trichlorophenol) using an integrated ultraviolet/biological (UV/B)
95 reactor, ^{18,20,22} but in this study we developed a UV/B bioreactor with filamentous bamboo as a
96 biocarrier for treating secondary effluents. The objectives of this study are outlined below.

97 (1) To compare the removal efficiency of nitrogenous compounds (particularly NO₃⁻-N) and
98 organic matter from secondary effluent from WWTPs in terms of efficacy and performance, when

99 using a UV/B reactor with filamentous bamboo to enhance removal, and to study the structural
100 changes of filamentous bamboo during the experiment.

101 (2) To determine the characteristics of NO_3^- -N removal with changes in water temperature,
102 pH, dissolved oxygen (DO) and influent concentration.

103 **2. Materials and methods**

104 **2.1 Filamentous bamboo**

105 Samples of filamentous bamboo were obtained, by cutting $20 \times 5 \times 1$ mm pieces. The
106 measured physical characteristics of the filamentous bamboo were as follows: porosity,
107 80.4%; specific surface area, $118.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ (Autosorb IQ, USA); and bulk density, 1.1 kg/L.

108 **2.2 Bioreactor and Biofilm formation**

109 An internal-circulation baffled biofilm reactor (ICBBR) was used to treat secondary effluent
110 from WWTPs, as shown in Figure 1. The reactor, which had a total liquid volume of 40 L, had the
111 following components: (1) upflow and downflow sections (separated by a segregation board), both
112 with a volume of 15 L, (2) top and bottom sections comprising an upper settling section with a
113 volume of 7 L, and (3) a lower dilution section with a volume of 3 L for the inflow of air.

114

115 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the internal circulation of a baffled biofilm reactor (ICBBR)

116 Filamentous bamboo was installed in both the upflow and downflow sections of the reactor.
117 Raw water (untreated secondary effluent samples), obtained from the secondary effluent of a

118 WWTP in Xuzhou, China, was poured into a tank, from which it was pumped into the dilution
119 section of the reactor. The flow rate was regulated using a peristaltic pump, and the column was
120 operated in internal circulation mode. In addition, air was supplied to the bottom section of the
121 reactor. The DO concentration in the top section of the ICBBR was 3.5-4.5 mg/L. The experiment
122 was conducted at a water temperature of 13-28°C.

123 Seed sludge was collected from a WWTP (the secondary treatment process of this WWTP was
124 oxidation ditch method) and fed into the reactor together with 2,552–3,621 mg/L of mixed liquor
125 suspended solids (MLSS). This culture was maintained until a steady-state biomass loading on the
126 filamentous bamboo was achieved. Microorganisms that did not adhere to filamentous bamboo
127 were discarded from the valve at the bottom of the reactor.

128 To facilitate the photolysis of residual organic matter and products from the decomposition of
129 bamboo, a UV light was located 10 cm above the water surface (wavelength: 253.7 nm (UV-C),
130 power: 50 W, light intensity: 1.2 mW/cm²).

131 **2.3 Assessing the treatment of the effluents from an urban secondary wastewater treatment** 132 **plant**

133 The reactor, in which a steady-state biofilm was placed over the filamentous bamboo, was fed
134 with secondary effluent from the WWTP with the following characteristics: COD, 85–145 mg/L;
135 BOD, 17–42 mg/L; NH₄⁺-N, 11.4–14.9 mg/L; NO₃⁻-N, 6.7–10.7 mg/L; nitrite nitrogen (NO₂⁻-N),
136 0.67–1.09 mg/L; TN, 22.4–26.8 mg/L; suspended solids (SS), 72.5–144.5 mg/L; pH, 6.8–8.3; and
137 DO, 2.5-3.4 mg/L. The hydraulic retention time (HRT) of the continuous flow reactor was 5 h. The
138 experiment was separated into two stages. (1) A biological degradation stage (B stage), in which the

139 main aim was to investigate the removal efficiency of nitrogenous compounds and organic matter
140 using only a biofilm reactor, which utilized filamentous bamboo as a biocarrier. The experimental
141 conditions were as follows: pH, 6.8-8.3; HRT, 5 h; and water temperature, 20-28°C. (2) A
142 UV/biological degradation stage (UV/B stage), in which the aim was to study the integrated UV
143 irradiation/biological degradation of nitrogenous compounds and organic matter based on the
144 experimental stage described above. The experimental conditions were as follows: pH, 7.0-8.2;
145 HRT, 5 h, and water temperature, 13-22°C. In addition, the effect of water temperature, DO, HRT,
146 and pH on NO_3^- -N removal characteristics was considered.

147 **2.5 Analytical methods**

148 Samples were collected at regular intervals and tested within 2 h of collection. All data
149 generated in the study were obtained from three replicate trials. Samples were filtered through a
150 0.45- μm pore size membrane filter prior to analysis. The N content (including NH_4^+ -N, NO_3^- -N,
151 and NO_2^- -N) was determined using an ion chromatograph analyzer (model PIC-10A: Puren
152 Instrument Co., Ltd., Qingdao, China). The TN and COD were assayed according to Chinese SEPA
153 Standard Methods,²³ and the water temperature, pH, DO, and water temperature values were
154 measured with a pH and oxygen meter (model, Oxi300i, WTW GmbH, Germany).

155 The carriers with biofilm were observed under a scanning electron microscope (model
156 6380LV: JEOL, Japan) at 20kV and the micro-structure of the filamentous bamboo were observed
157 under a different scanning electron microscope (model, XL-30: ESEM, Holland) at 20kV. Changes
158 in the surface structures of filamentous bamboo were observed under a stereomicroscope (model,
159 K700: Motic, China). These samples were filtered through a 0.45 μm pore size membrane filter

160 before measurement.

161 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

162 Treatment methods were compared using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the
163 least significant difference (LSD) procedure was used for the purpose of mean comparisons, using a
164 significance level of $p = 0.05$. Statistical analyses were performed with SPSS Base 19.0 statistical
165 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

166 **3 Results**

167 **3.3 Removal efficacy of nitrogenous compounds**

168 Figure 2 shows that the initial TN concentration was in the range of 22.4–26.8 mg/L. In the
169 UV/B stage, the final TN concentration was in the range of 4.20–6.51 mg/L and the TN removal
170 rates were 73.3%–83.2% with a mean value of 77.9%. In the B stage, the final TN concentration
171 was in the range of 5.87–7.95 mg/L and the TN removal rates were 66.6%–75.2% with a mean value
172 of 68.8%.

173

174

175

176 Figure 2. Removal efficiency of TN, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, and $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$

177 The initial concentrations of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, and $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$ were in the range of 11.4–14.9,
178 7.1–10.7, and 0.67–1.09 mg/L, respectively. In the UV/B stage, the final concentrations of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$,

179 NO_3^- -N, and NO_2^- -N were in the range of 3.04-5.26, 0.76-1.78, and 0-0.20 mg/L, respectively, and
180 the NH_4^+ -N, and NO_3^- -N removal rates were 60.5-78.1% and 81.1-92.2%, with mean values of 68.0
181 and 86.5%, respectively. In the B stage, the final concentrations of NH_4^+ -N, NO_3^- -N, and NO_2^- -N
182 were in the range of 4.23-5.91, 1.14-1.69, and 0.09-0.139 mg/L, respectively, and the NH_4^+ -N and
183 NO_3^- -N removal rates were 51.0-63.6%, 78.3-85.6% with mean values of 53.8 and 80.6%.
184 Compared to the UV/B stage, the average NO_2^- -N accumulation was more than 0.04 mg/L in the B
185 stage. There were statistically significant differences of the TN, NH_4^+ -N, NO_3^- -N removal
186 efficiency between UV/B stage and B stage ($P < 0.05$).

187 In both the B and UV/B stages, the initial TN and NH_4^+ -N concentrations did not meet the
188 Class-I (A) standard, in terms of the emission standards for pollutants from urban sewage treatment
189 plants (GB18918-2002), but the final TN and NH_4^+ -N concentrations were much lower than those
190 of the maximum contaminant levels (15 and 8 mg/L, respectively) required to meet the Class-I (A)
191 emission standard. The final NO_3^- -N concentration was much lower than the maximum allowable
192 contaminant content (10 mg/L) in the “Standards for Drinking Water (GB5749-2006)” of China.

193 A change in the filamentous bamboo before and after usage is indicated in Figure 3 and a
194 change in the surface micro-structures of bamboo is shown in Figure 3.

195

196

197 Figure 3 Changes in filamentous bamboo before (b, 20 \times) and after usage (a, 8 \times)

198 Figure 3 indicates that the surface of the filamentous bamboo was bio-eroded and contained
199 many irregular holes (maximum length of about 850 μm) after six months usage (Figure (a)). Most
200 holes ranged in size from 50-550 μm , but the surface of the raw filamentous bamboo was smooth

201 and dense (Figure (b)). The surface of the filamentous bamboo was decomposed by microorganisms,
202 with the decomposed product of the filamentous bamboo becoming a carbon source. The holes on
203 the surface of the filamentous bamboo also improved the specific surface area and increased the
204 biomass of filamentous bamboo.

205

206 **Figure 4 Changes in the surface micro-structures of bamboo**

207 (Note: figure (a) shows the surface micro-structures of raw bamboo, figure (b) shows the surface
208 micro-structures of bamboo used in the experiments)

209 Figure 4 shows that the fibers of the bamboo used in the experiment were already decomposed
210 compared to the raw bamboo, which showed that the bamboo fiber can be decomposed by the
211 microorganisms on the filamentous bamboo. The decomposed products of bamboo are chemical
212 compounds with a complex structure, which can be carbon sources for denitrification after UV
213 irradiation.

214 Higher removal rates of nitrogenous compounds were achieved during the UV/B stage than the
215 B stage, which indicated that the quantity and quality of the carbon source was improved due to UV
216 irradiation. The residual organic matter and decomposition products of bamboo can be sources of
217 carbon and these materials were repeatedly UV irradiated and denatured due to the
218 internal-circulation in the reactor. Both the residual organic matter and decomposition products of
219 bamboo have a complex chemical structure and bio-refractory performance. The UV irradiation
220 converts complex chemical compounds into much simpler intermediates or simple chemical
221 compounds,^{18, 22} which can then be biodegraded more readily by microorganisms, including
222 denitrifying bacteria.

223 **2 Removal efficacy of COD and BOD**

224 The initial COD and BOD₅ were in the range of 85–145 and 17–42 mg/L, respectively. In the
225 B stage, the corresponding COD and BOD₅ removal rates were in the range of 78.9–88.9% (mean
226 value 84.2%) and 29.7–55.0% (mean value 43.7%), respectively. In the UV/B stage, the
227 corresponding COD and BOD₅ removal rates were in the range of 80.0–91.3% (mean value 87.2%)
228 and 40.9–81.0% (mean value 61.6%), respectively. The initial COD and BOD₅ concentrations did
229 not comply with the emission standards for pollutants from an urban sewage treatment plant
230 (GB18919-2002). However, the COD and BOD₅ concentrations in the effluent in the B and UV/B
231 stages met the Class-I (A) emission standards for pollutants from an urban sewage treatment plant
232 (GB18919-2002). There were statistically significant differences of the BOD₅ removal efficiency
233 between UV/B stage and B stage ($P < 0.05$) but no significant difference of the COD removal
234 efficiency ($P > 0.05$).

235

236

237 Compared with the B stage, the UV/B stage achieved more than 3.0% removal of COD and
238 17.9% removal of BOD₅, which suggested that UV irradiation can enhance the removal of COD
239 and BOD₅. The biofilm (Figure 5) adhered on the filamentous bamboo proliferated and degraded the
240 organic matter. The residual organic matter and decomposition products from the bamboo
241 transferred into the reactor, and were repeatedly irradiated because of the internal circulation in the
242 reactor.

243

244 Figure 5. The biofilm adhered on the filamentous bamboos

245 **3. The effect of operational conditions on the NO₃⁻-N removal efficiency**

246 Many studies have shown that the denitrification process (NO₃⁻-N removal) is a limiting factor

247 during TN removal via nitrification and denitrification. The denitrification efficiency would
248 substantially influence the TN removal characteristics. The effect of HRT, water temperature, pH,
249 and DO on NO_3^- -N removal in the UV/B reactor is shown in Figure 6.

250 The effect of HRT on NO_3^- -N removal was obvious (Figure 6(a)). When the HRT was 1.5 and
251 3 h, the NO_3^- -N removal rate was 45.4 and 52.2%, respectively, but when the HRT lasted for more
252 than 5 h, the NO_3^- -N removal rate exceeded 85.2%, and the effluent NO_3^- -N concentration was
253 lower than 1.4 mg/L. In addition, the effluent NO_2^- -N concentration was constantly lower than 0.12
254 mg/L.

255 The effect of water temperature on NO_3^- -N removal was also obvious (Figure 6(b)). When the
256 water temperature increased from 10 and 25 °C, the effluent NO_3^- -N concentrations were
257 substantially decreased because the denitrifying bacteria were stimulated when the water
258 temperature increased. When the water temperature was more than 25 °C, the NO_3^- -N removal rate
259 was reduced. In addition, the effluent NO_2^- -N concentration was constantly lower than 0.12 mg/L.

260 The effect of both pH and DO on NO_3^- -N removal was not significant, the effluent NO_3^- -N
261 concentrations did not change significantly when the pH value ranged from 6.0-9.0 and the DO
262 ranged from 2.3-6.5 mg/L (Figures 6(c) and (d)).

263

264 Figure 6. The effect of pH, DO, water temperature, and influent NO_3^- -N concentration on NO_3^- -N
265 removal

266 **4. Discussion**

267 The key finding of this experiment was that the chemicals with a complex structure were
268 continuously decomposed due to the internal circulation of the reactor, and both denitrification and
269 bio-degradation of organic matter were increased due to UV irradiation, but the biofilm on the
270 filamentous bamboo was reproduced at a relatively steady rate without being influenced by the UV
271 radiation. The biofilm was maintained in a steady state and a carbon source was circulated in the
272 UV/B reactor, with simple chemical compounds supplied continuously for de-nitrification and
273 bio-degradation.

274 In addition, an UV/B bioreactor with filamentous bamboo as a biocarrier has an ampler
275 biomass, cheaper biocarrier cost and less aeration as well as lower excess activated sludge based on
276 the previous experiments results. Consequently, the UV/B bioreactor with filamentous bamboo as a
277 biocarrier would be feasible economically in practice, and the power of UV lamp was 50W, the
278 consume of electricity was also low.

279 Lastly, the proposed method has good environmental sustainability. Firstly, the proposed
280 method is a biological treatment method, which has less secondary pollutants and less energy
281 consume. Then, filamentous bamboo was natural and biodegradable material, its different processes
282 including manufacturing process, utilized process and post-utilized process have not pollution
283 compared to others biocarriers. Finally, the radiation pollution of UV lamp can be easily prevented
284 by using partition.

285 **4. Conclusions**

286 A UV/B reactor was proposed to treat secondary effluent from a WWTP in this study, and the
287 results obtained can be summarized as follows:

288 1. Compared with the B stage, the UV/B stage achieved a higher removal efficiency for TN,
289 NO_3^- -N, NH_4^+ -N, COD, and BOD_5 , and accumulated lower quantities of NO_2^- -N. The carbon
290 source was the decomposed products of bamboo and the residual organic matter of the secondary
291 effluent.

292 2. The NO_3^- -N removal efficiency was significantly influenced by HRT and water temperature,
293 but changes in DO and pH did not have an obvious effect on NO_3^- -N removal.

294

295 **Acknowledgements**

296 This study was supported by Province Key Laboratory of Environmental Materials and
297 Environmental Engineering Foundation (NO. K11027), Six Talent Summit of Jiangsu Province (No.
298 JNHB-005), Qinglan Project of Jiangsu Province, Fund of Xuzhou Institute of Technology
299 (XKY2011606) and National Spark Program of China (2013GA690421)

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343 **Captions of Figures**

344 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the internal circulation of a baffled biofilm reactor (ICBBR)

345 Figure 2. Removal efficiency of TN, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$

346 Figure 3. Changes in filamentous bamboo before (b, 20 \times) and after usage (a, 8 \times)

347 Figure 4. Changes in the surface micro-structures of bamboo

348 Figure 5. The biofilm adhered on the filamentous bamboos

349 Figure 6. The effect of pH, DO, water temperature, and influent $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ concentration on $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$

350 removal

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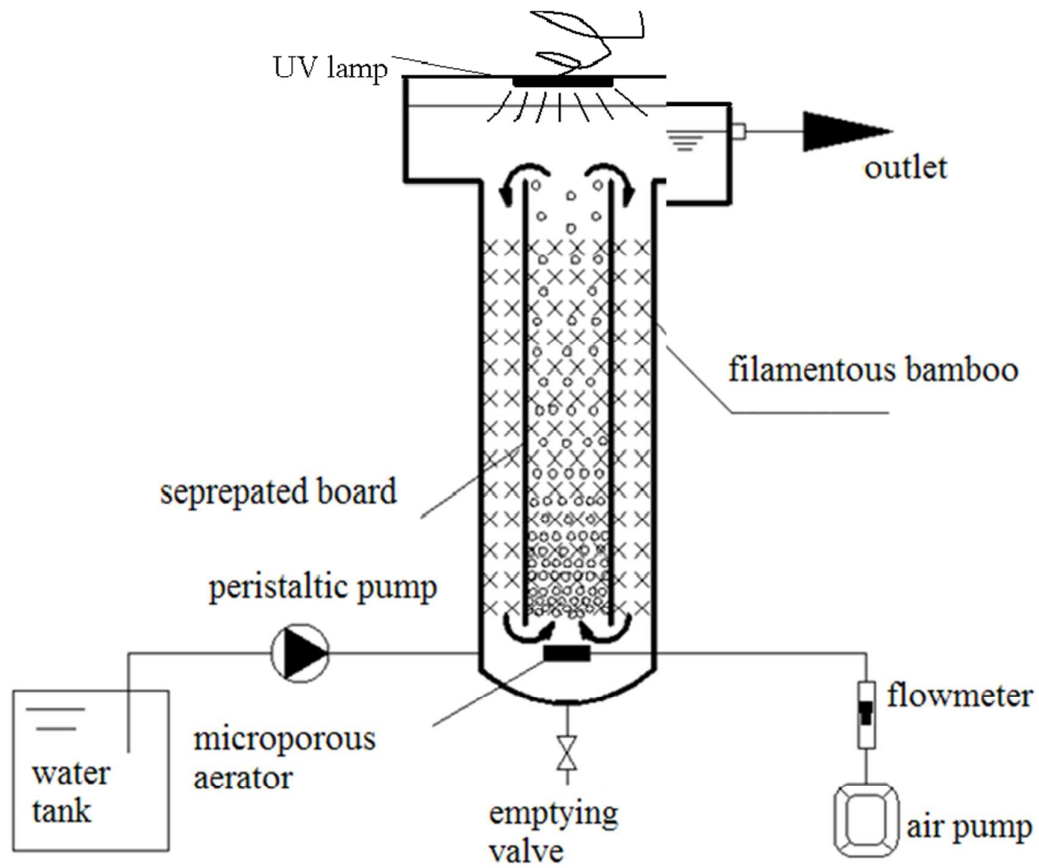
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Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the internal circulation of a baffled biofilm reactor (ICBBR)

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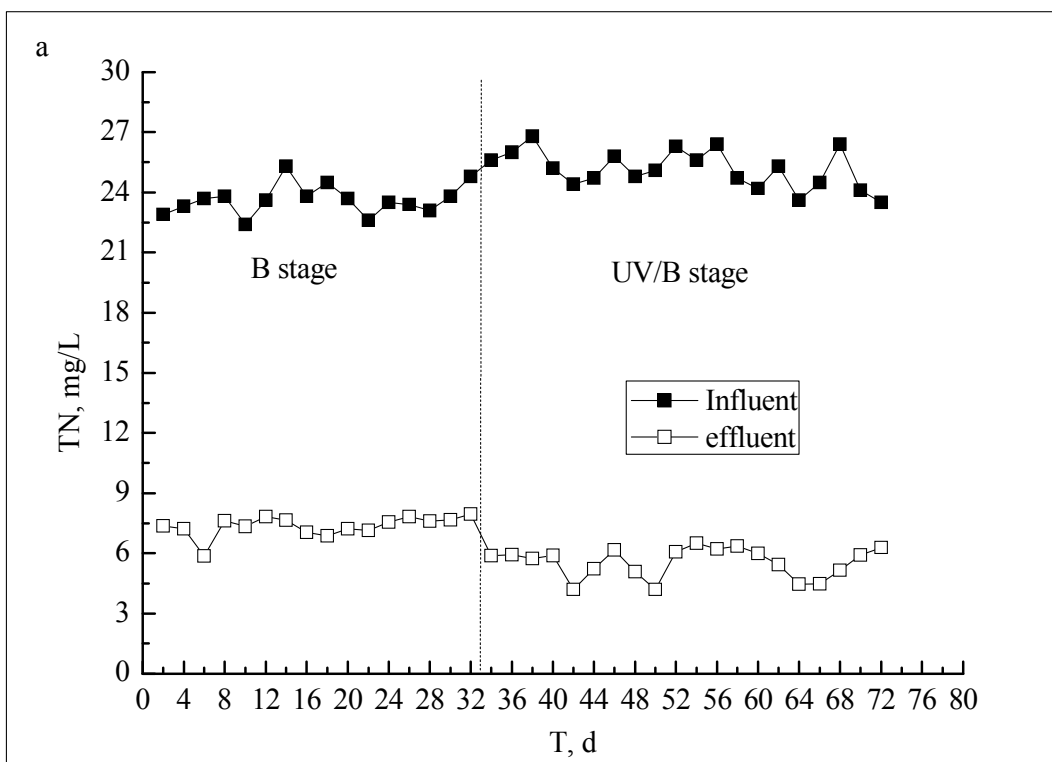
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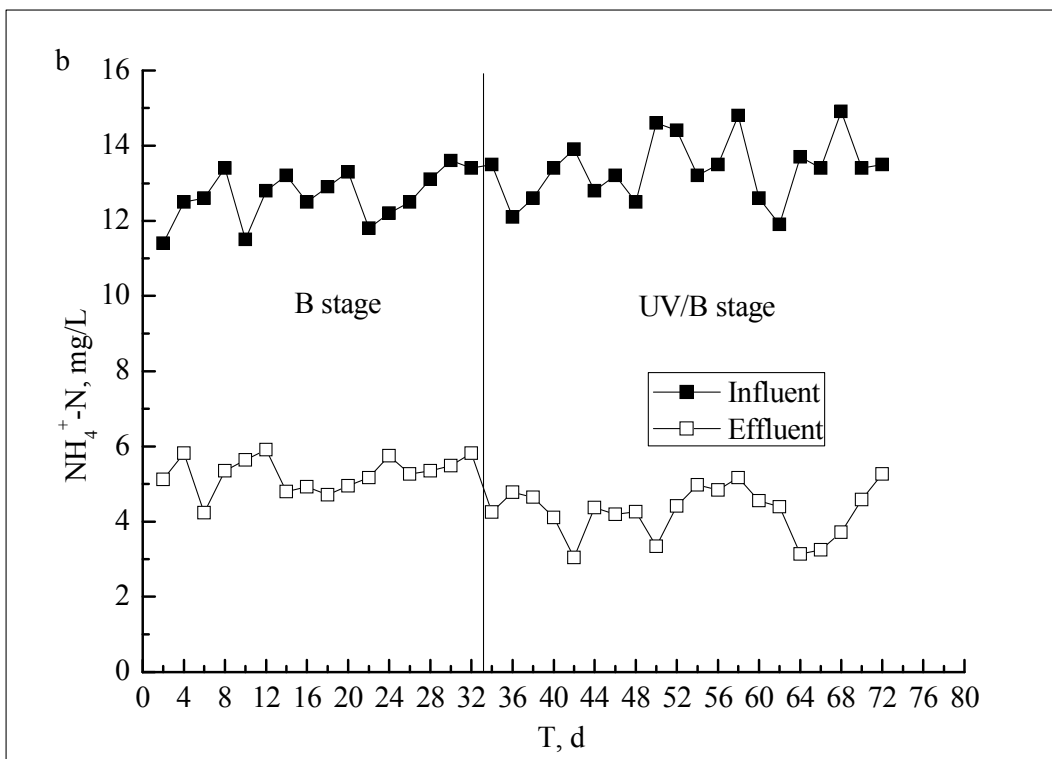
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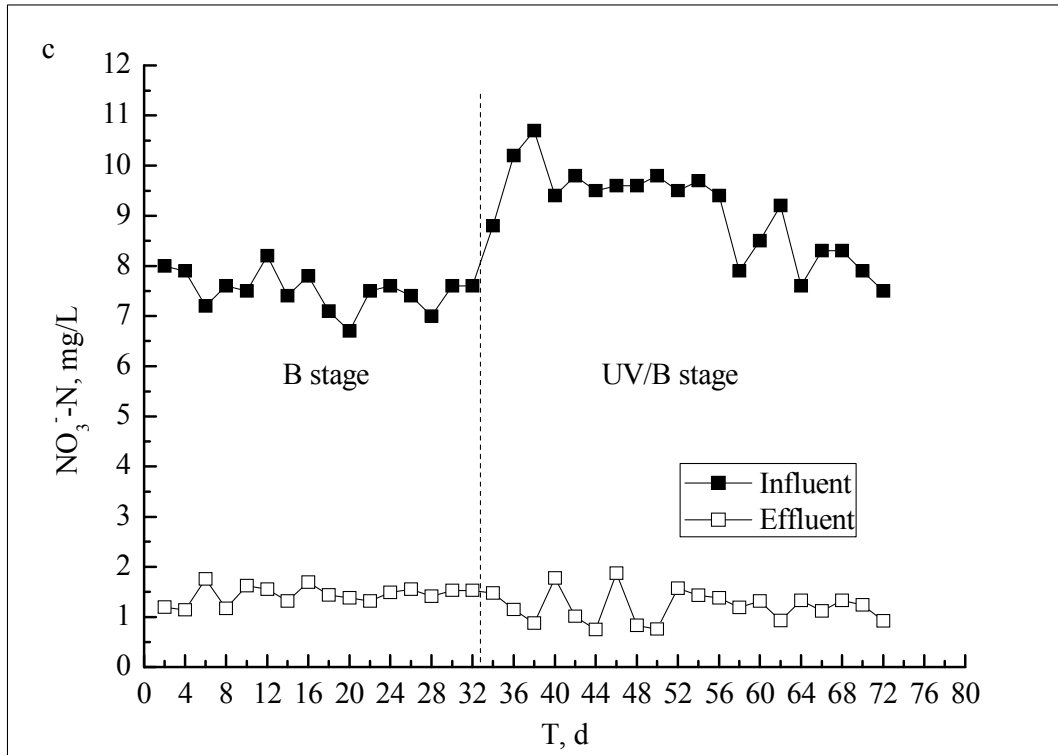
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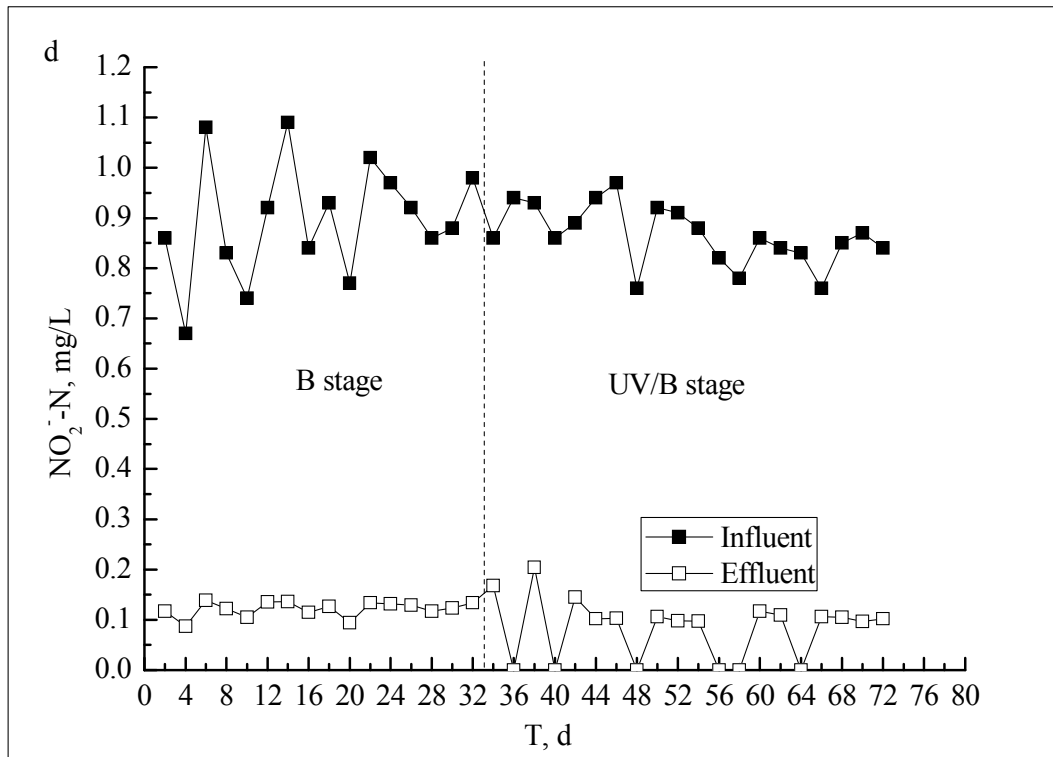
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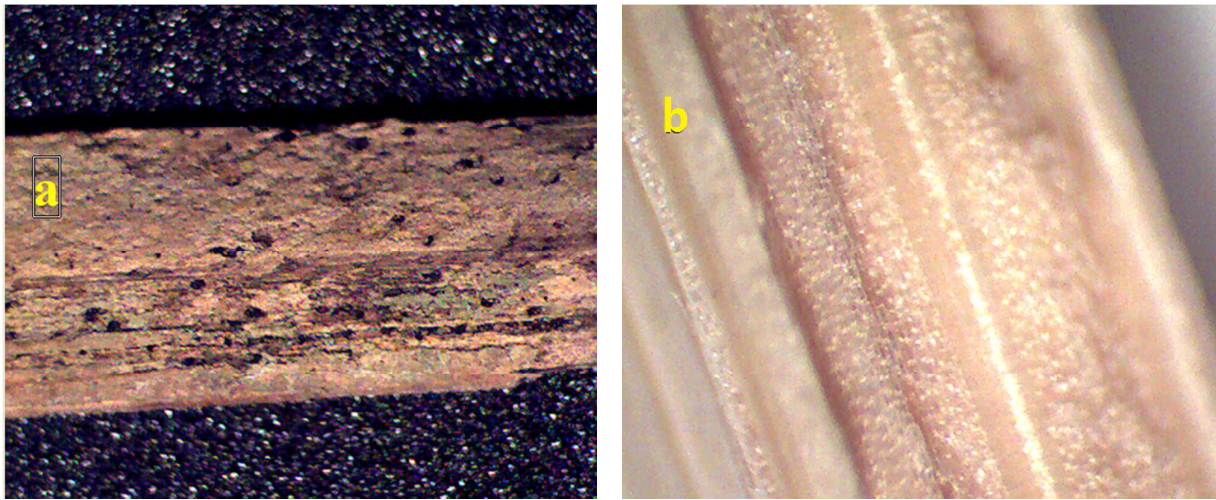
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Figure 2. Removal efficiency of TN, NH_4^+ -N, NO_3^- -N, NO_2^- -N



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Figure 3 Changes in filamentous bamboo before (b, 20 \times) and after usage (a, 8 \times)

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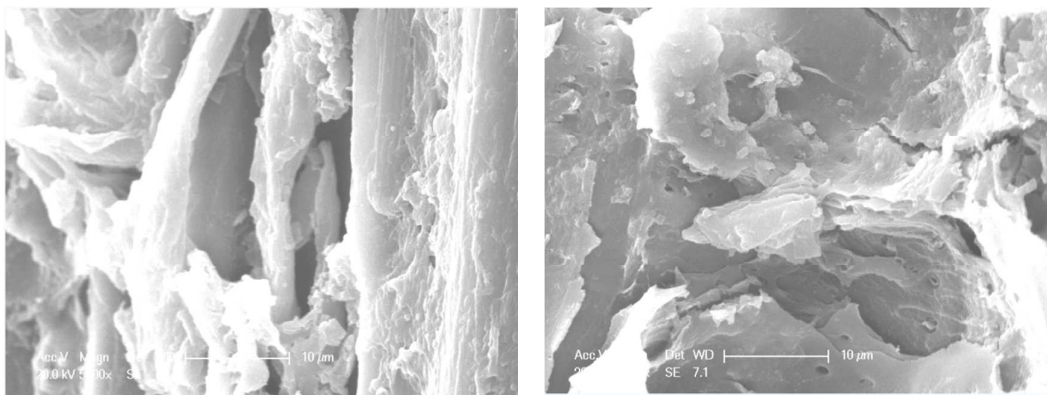
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Figure 4 Changes in the surface micro-structures of bamboo

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(Note: figure (a) shows the surface micro-structures of raw bamboo, figure (b) shows the surface

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micro-structures of bamboo used in the experiments)

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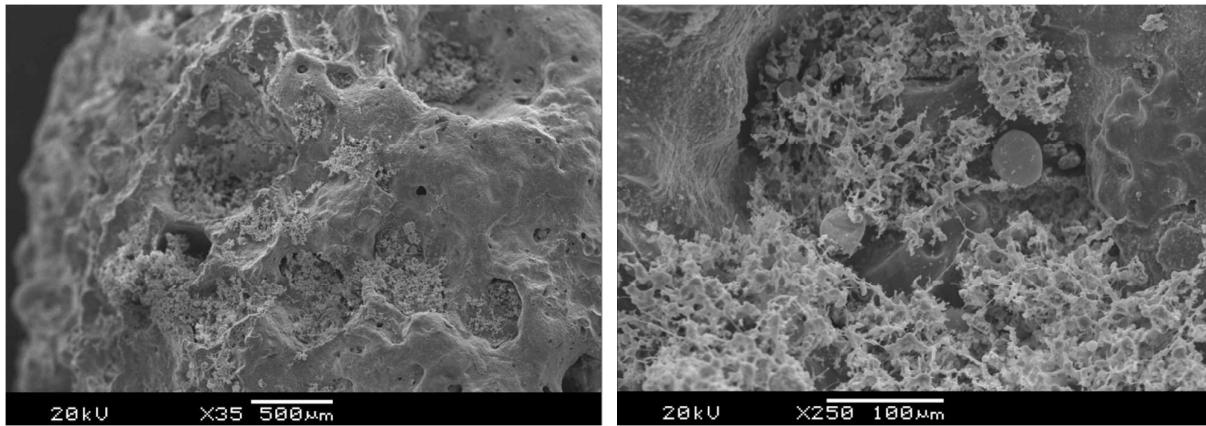
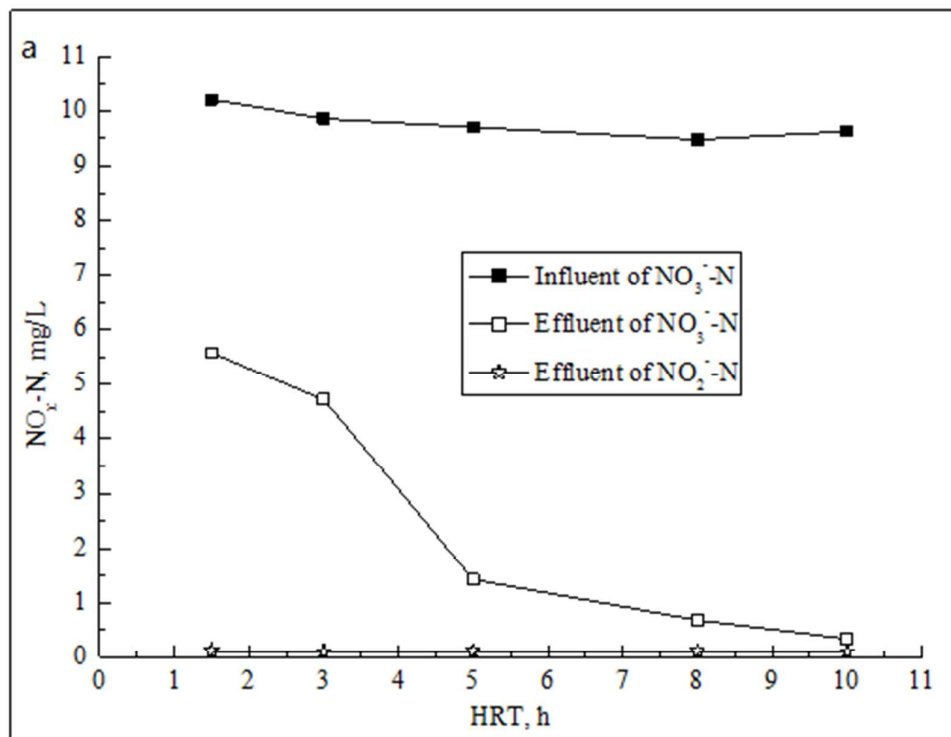
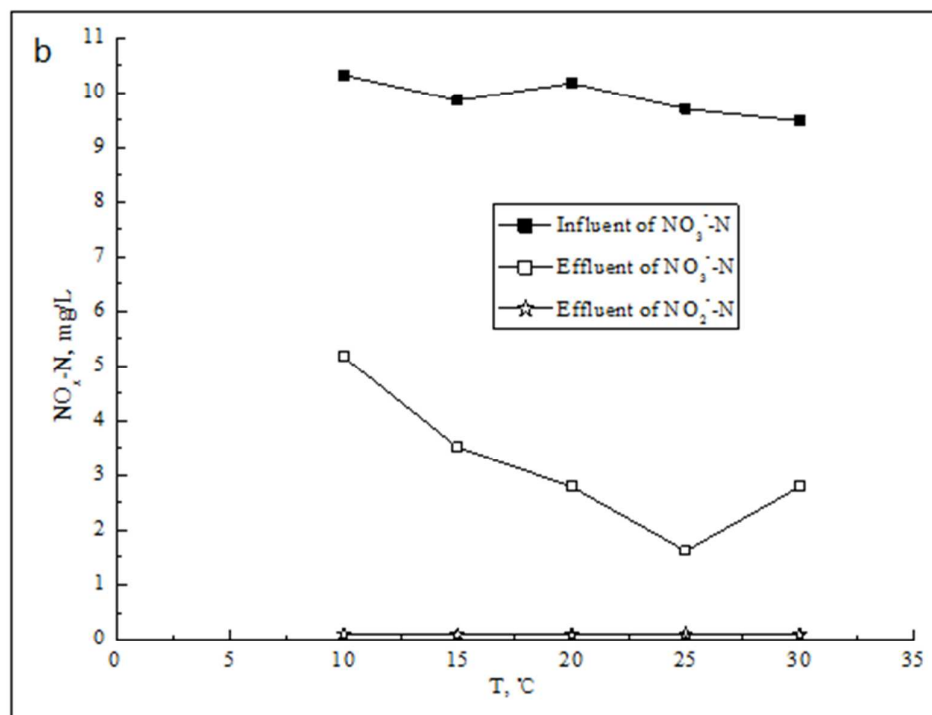


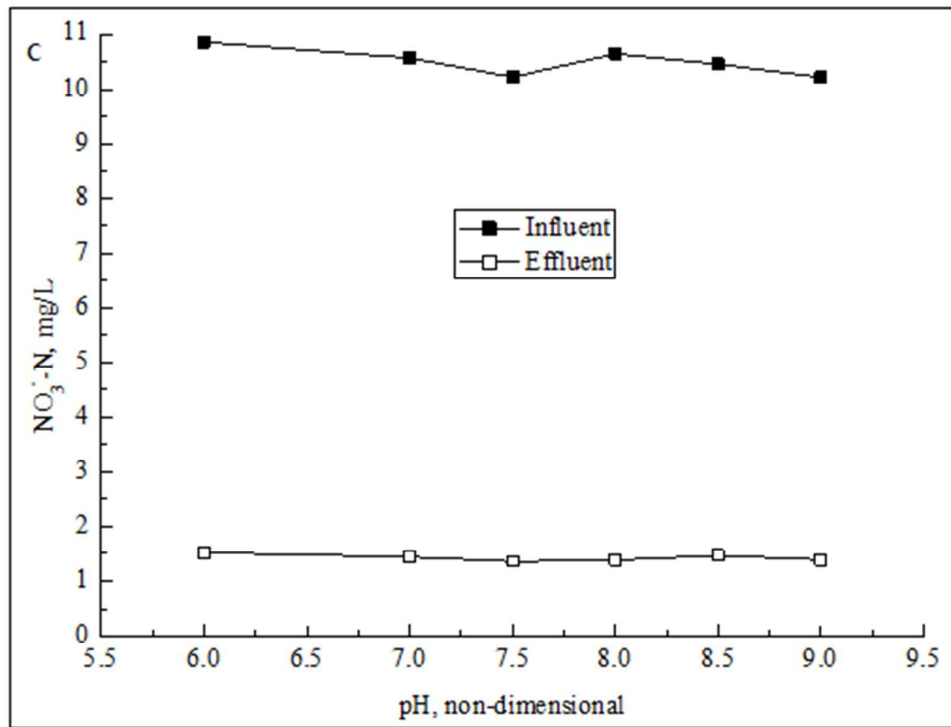
Figure 5. The biofilm adhered on the filamentous bamboos



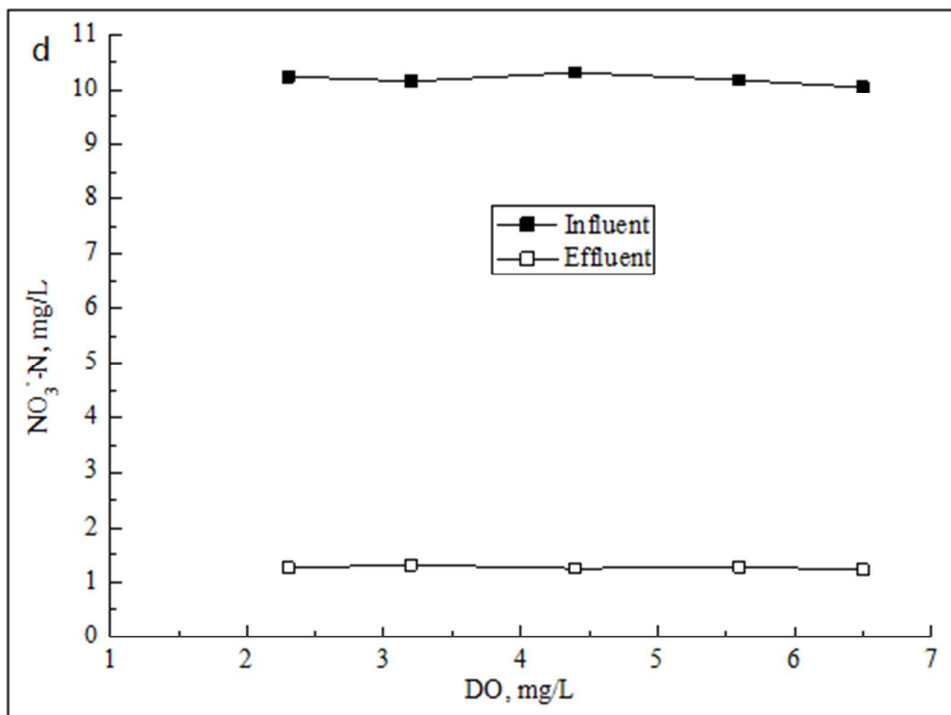
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414 Figure 6. The effect of pH, DO, water temperature, and influent NO₃⁻-N concentration on NO₃⁻-N

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