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1	Effect of L-tyrosine on aerobic sludge granulation and its
2	stability
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10	Abstract:
11	Aerobic sludge granulation and its stability remain challenging in application.
12	Tyrosine, a compound in extracellular polymeric substances (EPSs) extracted from
13	sludge, is reported to be closely associated with sludge granulation and its stability. In
14	order to confirm this, this study investigated the effect of L-tyrosine on granulation
15	and disintegration of granular sludge in two identical sequencing airlift bioreactors
16	(SABRs): one dosed with L-tyrosine (6 mg/L) and the other without dosing. Changes
17	in the physiochemical and biological properties of the aerobic granular sludge (AGS)
18	and organic and nitrogen removal in both reactors operated under different ratios of
19	chemical oxygen demand (COD) to nitrogen were closely monitored for 120 days.
20	The L-tyrosine dosing shortened full granulation of AGS by 1 month. Disintegration
21	of the granules and deterioration in the COD and nitrogen removal capability were not
22	observed in the L-tyrosine dosed reactor even when the ratio of COD/N in the influent
23	was reduced from 4 to 1, in order to test AGS disintegration. This clearly confirmed
24	the contribution of L-tyrosine in promoting AGS granulation and its stability. Both
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25	the enrichment of quorum sensing auto-inducer relating bacteria genera (21%) and the
26	stable production of EPS were suggested as main reasons for the positive effect of
27	L-tyrosine on the granulation and stability of AGS.
28	
29	Keywords: Aerobic granular sludge; granulation and stability; L-tyrosine effect;
30	COD/N ratio
31	
32	1. Introduction
33	
34	As a special form of biofilm, aerobic granular sludge (AGS) has been recognized as a
35	low energy and small footprint technology for substituting activated sludge processes
36	for municipal and industrial wastewater treatment. ¹ The merits of AGS, including
37	improved settleability, high biomass retention, and high flexibility against changes in
38	pollution and environmental conditions, have been intensively demonstrated. ² These
39	advantages ensure a high application potential of the AGS technology in wastewater
40	treatment. Nonetheless, efficient start-up and stability of AGS process still remain
41	critical issues. ³
42	
43	The extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) is known to affect the granulation
44	process of AGS. ⁴ The main components proteins (PN) and polysaccharides (PS) of
45	EPS are further found to be important in maintaining the properties of AGS. ⁵ The

46 granular structure is supported by a backbone mainly composed of $PS^{1,6}$ and the PN

AGS granulation and structure integrity due to enhanced surface

47	may improve AOS granulation and structure integrity due to enhanced surface
48	hydrophobicity and the reduced surface negative charge. ^{4,7} Apart from PS and PN,
49	alginate-like exopolysaccharides (ALE) successfully extracted from the EPS of AGS
50	developed with synthetic wastewater has been confirmed its function of improving
51	formation of AGS. ⁸ In addition, the EPSs also contain other components, such as
52	lipids and humic, fulvic, amino acids, etc. ^{1,4} Their roles in EPS's contribution in the
53	granulation and structural stability of AGS are unknown. Therefore, further
54	investigation on possible contributing components of EPSs in AGS is deemed
55	necessary to resolve critical issues.

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57 Our recent study discovered a significant decrease in tyrosine-like compounds in the 58 EPS extracted from the AGS that disintegrated when it exposed to a low COD/N ratio (=1) medium in a sequencing airlift bioreactor (SABR).⁹ The effect of tyrosine has 59 60 been investigated on formation of biofilm, and mainly focused on L and D-tyrosine. 61 The L-tyrosine was found a precursor to N-acyl-tyrosine which is bacteria signaling controlling biofilm formation.¹⁰ On the contrary, Kolodkin-Gal et al.¹¹ reported that 62 63 D-amino acids including D-tyrosine could prevent biofilm formation. Mixed effects were also observed in "L" isomers of various amino acids, including L-tyrosine; some 64 promoted while some inhibited biofilm formation.¹² An exploratory study on the role 65 66 of L-tyrosine in aerobic sludge granulation while maintaining the structure integrity 67 needs to be carried out. Aerobic sludge granulation and stability in a SABR dosed 68 with L-tyrosine and that without L-tyrosine dosing as the control system were tested

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69	in parallel. Close monitoring of the physical, chemical and biological characterization
70	of both AGS granules were performed. Findings from this study would shed light on
71	the role of EPS in the AGS formation and stability.
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73	2. Materials and Methods
74	
75	2.1 Reactor and operation
76	
77	Aerobic sludge granulation was conducted in two identical SABRs (100 cm in height
78	and 5 cm in diameter with a working volume of 1.1 L in each reactor). The SABRs
79	were operated in parallel under the same conditions, one serving as the control reactor
80	(Ra) free of L-tyrosine, while the other (Rb) tested the effect of L-tyrosine (Sigma
81	Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) dosed via its influent as a constant rate of 6 mg/L, as
82	adopted from a biofilm formation control study. ^{11,13} A 2-L/min air flow rate was
83	applied in each reactor, maintaining a superficial up-flow air velocity of 1.2 cm/s. ¹⁴
84	Both reactors had a 2.4-h operation cycle comprised of 6 min feeding, 120 min
85	aeration, 5 min settling, 5 min decanting and 8 min idling. The volumetric exchange
86	ratio of each reactor was set at 50%, corresponding to a hydraulic retention time
87	(HRT) of 4.8 h. Details of the operation strategies are provided in Table A.1 in the
88	Supplementary Information (SI).
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9	T

92	Both reactors were inoculated with 2 g/L of activated sludge taken from a local
93	sewage treatment plant in Hong Kong. Synthetic wastewater was prepared by diluting
94	the synthetic stock solution (Table A.2 in SI) with tap water to set the influent COD
95	concentration at a typical level, i.e. 400 mg/L. Acetate, glucose and yeast comprised
96	the source of organics. In order to decrease the COD/N ratio in the influent from 4
97	(phase I) to 1 (Phase II), ammonium chloride was added from day 60 accordingly, in
98	order to increase the influent ammonium concentration from 100 to 400 mg-N/L in
99	Phase I and II respectively (Table A.3 in SI). The ratio of bicarbonate (NaHCO ₃) to
100	ammonium-nitrogen (N) in the influent was fixed at 4 to maintain pH at 7.9. The
101	ambient temperature in the laboratory was $23+2$ °C
101	another temperature in the habitatory was 23 ± 2 °C.
101	amolent temperature in the haboratory was 23±2°C.
101 102 103	2.3 Analytical methods
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101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109	 2.3 Analytical methods 2.3.1 Water quality and sludge physical property analysis COD was determined following the Standard Methods.¹⁵ Total nitrogen (TN) was measured by using a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-VCPH, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a total nitrogen measurement unit (TNM-1, Shimadzu). A flow
101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110	 2.3 Analytical methods 2.3.1 Water quality and sludge physical property analysis COD was determined following the Standard Methods.¹⁵ Total nitrogen (TN) was measured by using a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-VCPH, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a total nitrogen measurement unit (TNM-1, Shimadzu). A flow injection analyzer (QuikChem 8500, Lachat Instruments) was applied to measure the

112 analyzed by using an ion chromatograph (HIC-20A super, Shimadzu). The physical

113 properties of granular sludge were characterized with mixed liquid suspended solid 114 (MLSS), mixed liquor volatile suspended solids (MLVSS), sludge volumetric index 115 (SVI), particle size distribution, morphology and structure, cohesion, and specific area. 116 MLSS, MLVSS and SVI were measured every two days according to the Standard Method¹⁵. The size distribution of sludge was determined with a laser diffraction 117 118 particle size analyzer (LSI3 320, Beckman Coulter). The sludge micro-structure and 119 morphology were examined with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (JSM 6300F, 120 JEOL) after fixing the sludge sample over night at 4°C in 2% paraformaldehyde, 2% 121 glutaraldehyde, and 1X phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) mixed solution and 122 subsequent lyophilization. Cohesion tests followed the protocol reported by Wan et al.¹⁶ with the following modifications: 1) measurement chamber geometry: closed 123 124 with a volume of 520 mL, diameter 100 mm, depth 66 mm, paddle diameter 63 mm, 125 and paddle height 24 mm placed at 1/3 of the chamber height from the bottom (paddle 126 power number Np of 2.9), and 2) a series of velocity gradients of 250, 13230 and 250 s^{-1} were applied. The specific area and total pore volume of sludge were also 127 128 examined by using an automatic instrument (ASAP 2020, Micrometrics) and then 129 determined from the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method.¹⁷

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131 2.3.2 EPS analysis

132

133 EPS content and component

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135	EPS was first extracted from the sludge using a formaldehyde-NaOH method. ¹⁸ The
136	carbohydrate or polysaccharide (PS) in EPS was then quantified by using the
137	phenol-sulfuric acid (PSA) method with glucose as the standard. ¹⁹ The protein (PN) in
138	EPS was determined from the modified Lowry colorimetric method with bovine
139	albumin serum as the standard. ²⁰ A luminescence spectrometer (F-4500 FL
140	Spectrophotometer, Hitachi) was used to examine the EEM spectra of extracted EPS
141	for components identification with methodology applied as previously described ⁹ .
142	
143	2.3.3 Microbial diversity analysis
144	
145	A Power Soil DNA extraction kit (MO BIO Laboratories Inc.) was periodically
146	applied to extract DNA from the sludge samples taken from both reactors. The 16S
147	rDNA gene was amplified by PCR with the following steps: 94 °C for 5 min followed
148	by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 53 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 45 s; and a final extension at
149	72 °C for 10 min. Then 200ng of purified 16S rDNA amplicons from each sample were
150	pooled and subjected to pyrosequencing using the ROCHE 454 FLX Titanium platform
151	(Roche) at the National Human Genome Centre of China in Shanghai, China. The
152	pyrosequencing methodology employed was the same as previously described ⁹ .
153	
154	Low quality sequences were removed from raw sequence data by trimming the

156 sequences according to the barcodes of individual samples. The sequences were then

barcode tags and primer sequences. FASTA files were generated from the resulting

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157	aligned using the software Mothur ver. $1.17.0^{21}$ and the distance matrix was produced.
158	Operational taxonomic units (OTU) were determined at 90, 95 and 97% similarities
159	(Mothur v. 1.17.0). Rarefaction curves and diversity indices (ACE and Chao1) were
160	determined from the calculated OTUs using the same software. In the
161	taxonomy-based analysis, the representative sequences from each OTU were
162	subjected to the RDP-II Classifier of the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP), ²² the
163	National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) BLAST, ²³ and the
164	Greengenes Databases. ²⁴ The relative abundance and occurrence of the tags assigned
165	into these three samples were visualized as a heat map using the Multi Experiment
166	Viewer (MeV) v4.8.1 software.

167

168 **3. Results**

169

170 3.1 Formation of aerobic granules

171

Disintegration of AGS induced by low COD/N ratio (i.e., COD/N = 1) has been confirmed in our previous work⁹. Thus, to eliminate unexpected effects imposed by factors other from the L-tyrosine, both reactors were started up under an appropriate COD/N ratio of 4 in the formation phase (phase I). The seeding sludge was aerated for 2 days in both reactors prior to the inoculation. A short settling time (5 min) was then applied in both reactors. MLSS was intensively monitored during the start-up period. In the control reactor, a decrease of MLSS was observed within the first 18 days

179	(from 2 to 1.4 g/L), but the sludge in the test reactor showed excellent settling
180	properties, enabling a continuous increase in MLSS from initially 2 to 6.4 g/L at day
181	76 (see Fig. 1a).

182

183 Figure 1b shows the mean particle diameter of the sludge in each reactor. The mean 184 particle size in the test reactor reached 200 µm after 7 days and then became stable at 185 $2,150 \pm 20 \ \mu\text{m}$ after 32 days. The SVI₅ of both reactors was initially 100 mL/g. After 186 11 days' operation, SVI₅ of the test reactor significantly decreased to 35 mL/g and 187 subsequently remained at around 47 mL/g throughout the entire period. Conversely, 188 the SVI₅ of the control reactor stayed unchanged until day 39, and then gradually 189 reduced to 76 mL/g after day 46. Apparently, granulation in the control reactor was 190 much slower than that in the test reactor, though its sludge floc size was measured to 191 be 200 µm or above from day 14. The ratio of SVI₅ to SVI₃₀ is often used to evaluate 192 the extent of granulation, and when the value is close to unity full granulation is recognized.²⁵ Figure 1c illustrates that the ratio of SVI5/SVI30 was close to unity in 193 194 the test reactor after 11 days, and 39 days were required for the control reactor, i.e. 28 195 days longer than the test reactor.

196

197 3.2 Stability of aerobic granular sludge

198

199 In our previous stability study of AGS, the granules underwent a condition of 200 stepwise decrease in COD/N ratio from 4 to 1, and eventually disintegration occurred

201	at a ratio of 1.9 Accordingly, after full granulation was achieved in these two reactors,
202	the COD/N ratio was decreased from 4 at day 60 to 1 at day 120 to investigate the
203	effect of L-tyrosine on the stability of aerobic granules, during which the key physical,
204	chemical and biological characteristics of both AGSs were monitored closely. The
205	respective results are summarized below.
206	
207	3.2.1 Particle size and settling ability
208	
209	With a decrease of COD/N ratio from 4 to 1, the mean diameter of the granules in the
210	test reactor remained stable at 2100 \pm 100 μ m throughout the operation, and in the
211	control reactor significantly decreased by 90% from 1600±50 μm initially to 200
212	$\pm 18 \mu m$ after 60 days (see Fig. 2a).
213	
214	Meanwhile, the SVI5 of the control reactor increased from 55 ± 5 mL/g to 110 ± 10
215	mL/g. However, that of the test reactor maintained at 50 \pm 5 mL/g till the end of the
216	experiment. According to the ratio of SVI_5/SVI_{30} , AGS in the control reactor
217	disintegrated after day 88, while the test reactor maintained the extent of granulation

from 5.9 to 7.6 g/L (see Fig. 2c).

during the whole operation in Phase II with COD/N equal to 1 (see Fig. 2b). Due to

the deterioration of the settling ability of AGS in the control reactor, half of the sludge

was washed out, i.e. the MLSS concentration decreased from 6 g/L at day 94 to 3 g/L

at the end of the experiment. Comparatively, the MLSS in the test reactor increased

2	n	2
L	L	3

224 3.2.2 Performance of the reactors

225

The ammonium nitrogen removal efficiencies of both reactors during the entire operation are shown in Fig. 3. Both reactors showed similar removal efficiency (more than 90%) during the granulation period (Phase I, COD/N=4). With the COD/N ratio further decreased from 4 to 1, the removal efficiency of both reactors was halved at day 60. The removal efficiency of the control reactor continually decreased to 17% eventually. Conversely, that of the test reactor gradually recovered to 75% at the end of experiment.

233

234 The maximum oxidation rate of the ammonium and nitrite in both reactors in Phases I 235 (COD/N=4) and II (COD/N=1) were determined from the cycle tests conducted with 236 a dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration fixed at 8.2 mg/L. As shown in Table 1, the 237 rates of the test reactor were determined to be 8.4 and 3.0 mg N/g VSS h, 50 and 43% 238 higher than that of the control reactor (5.6 and 2.1 mg N/g VSS h) in Phase I 239 (COD/N=4). The maximum oxidation rate of ammonia increased to 19.4 in the 240 control reactor and 21.8 mg N/g VSS h in the test reactor while the ratio of COD/N 241 decreased to 1 in Phase II. The nitrite oxidation rate in the test reactor maintained at 242 2.9 mg N/g-VSS h, but in the control reactor, it increased threefold to 6.1 mg 243 N/g-VSS-h due to the disintegration of AGS in control reactor after the COD/N ratio 244 decreasing to 1.

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245

246	In phase I, TN loss in the control reactor $(35\pm5\%)$ was greater than that $(30\pm5\%)$ in
247	the test reactor (see Fig. 3b), which could be ascribed to higher porosity of AGS in the
248	testing reactor (Table 2) decreasing anaerobic zones in granules. When the COD/N
249	ratio decreased from 4 to 1, the TN loss gradually reduced in this reactor due to
250	disintegration of granules, however the TN loss in the test reactor still remained at
251	between 20 and 30% when the ratio reached 1, with the stable porosity and surface
252	area features of AGS maintained (see Table 2). The reasons for such stable properties
253	of the granules is further discussed in Section 3.2.3. The COD removal efficiency of
254	both reactors was maintained at more than 85% throughout the operation.
255	
256	3.2.3 Physical characteristics of granules

257

258 The physical strength of the granules in both reactors was measured to illustrate their 259 structural features and capability to withstand high abrasion and water shear forces. 260 Figure 4 shows the cohesion results of the granules in both reactors. During Phase I 261 (COD/N=4), no apparent coagulation and break-up of the granules were observed in the control reactor when the mixing forces (G value) was 250s⁻¹, 13230 s⁻¹ and 250 s⁻¹ 262 263 successively. This confirmed that the sludge in this reactor was of pure granular structure.¹⁶ However, when the same G-values were applied to the test reactor, 264 265 break-up and re-coagulation were observed (see Fig.4a) though the granules remained 266 intact, indicating that flocculent sludge-like properties were incorporated in the 267 granules in the test reactor. The same sludge behavior in the test reactor was observed

268	in Phase II (COD/N=1), with a complete dispersion occurring in the control reactor
269	(see Fig. 4b).
270	
271	The physical strength of the granules is usually negatively correlated with its
272	porosity, ²⁶ which determines substrate transport and oxygen diffusion within the
273	granules. Hence the porosities of the granules in both reactors under different COD/N
274	ratios were examined, as shown in Table 2. With the COD/N ratio decreased from 4
275	to 1, the surface area (BET) and total pore volume of the granules in the control
276	reactor clearly rose from 1.9 to 4.5 m^2/g and 9.0 to 18.1 ml/kg-VSS respectively, in
277	line with the results of the cohesion tests. Accordingly, the surface area and total pore
278	volume of the granules in the test reactor were maintained at 3.5 $m^2\!/g$ and 13.0
279	ml/kg-VSS, respectively.

280

281 **4. Discussion**

282

283 4.1 Effect of L-tyrosine on formation and stability of AGS

284

The production of EPSs, especially the PS and PN compounds, plays a key role in aerobic granulation and structure integrity via altering the physical-chemical properties of the cellular surface of AGS, such as hydrophobicity and charge.^{5,27} The change of certain components in EPSs, e.g., tyrosine-like compounds fading out in the disintegrating AGS was revealed by Luo et al.⁹ In the present study, the effect of L-tyrosine on AGS is to: accelerate granulation (stage I) with L-tyrosine at 6 mg/L,

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291 acquiring AGS formation within 11 days, i.e. 5 days shorter than the fastest 292 granulation period ever reported (see Table 3) and a stable reactor performance as 293 well as structural integrity of AGS in terms of the changes in diameter and physical 294 strength (Phase II).

295

296 4.2 The production of EPS

297

298 As shown in Figure 5, in Phase I (COD/N=4), the PS content of the granules in the 299 test reactor reached 38 mg/ g-VSS, two times greater than that in the control reactor. 300 When the COD/N ratio reduced to 1 at day 60, the PS extracted from the granules in 301 the test reactor slightly decreased to 35 mg/g-VSS; comparatively it significantly 302 decreased by 50% to 10 mg/g-VSS in the control reactor, which in turn disintegrated 303 the granules (Fig. 2). This indicated the importance of EPS in stability maintenance of 304 the AGS. Stable secretion of EPS in test reactor can be ascribed to three reasons. 305 Firstly, the porous structure of the L-tyrosine-promoted granules. Higher porosity of 306 the aerobic granules in the test reactor could relieve the limitation of mass transfer and thus maintained PS secretion in the center of the granules.^{1,4} Secondly, the L-tyrosine 307 308 as substrate can be utilized by bacteria to synthesize N-acyl-tyrosine which promotes the production of EPS¹⁰. Thirdly, the L-tyrosine is the main compound of the tyrosine 309 310 kinase and tyrosine phosphatases which are vital to cell regulatory enzymes for a number of microbial processes, including EPS secretion.³² 311

313	At the end of experiment, a 3D-EEM analysis was conducted to identify the different
314	tyrosine-EPS in both reactors. The results indicate that the tyrosine protein-like
315	(region A) substances were observed in granules of both reactors in phase I.
316	Subsequently the tyrosine protein-like contours faded out in the granules of the
317	control reactor after the COD/N ratio decreasing from 4 to 1, but can be detected in
318	the testing reactor throughout the reactor operation (see Fig. A.1 in SI). In our
319	pervious study, the tyrosine protein-like compound in EPS correlated with the
320	disintegration of aerobic granules under extremely low COD/N ratio. Therefore, the
321	accumulation of tyrosine protein-like would be one of the reasons for the integrity
322	structure of aerobic granules in testing reactor under phase II.
323	
324	4.3 The improvement of microbial community
325	
326	The microbial communities of the granules in both reactors were analyzed and

326 The interoblat communities of the granules in both feactors were analyzed and
327 compared by 16S rDNA pyrosequencing at the end of the experiment. Approximately
328 40,000 and 50,000 effective sequence tags were retrieved from the two types of
329 granules (control and L-tyrosine-promoted). Sufficient sequencing was confirmed by
330 the rarefaction curves (see Fig. A.2 in SI).

331

332 At the phylum level, proteobacteria in L-tyrosine-promoted granules accounted for 80% 333 much higher than the control granules (57%). This phylum is reported to associate 334 with the production of *N*-acyl-tyrosine which can promote production of EPS^{10} . The

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abundance of bacteroidetes (27%), which are responsible for secreting lectin-specific
EPS (glycoconjugates) for cell attachment,³³ was 3.5 times higher in the
L-tyrosine-promoted granules than in the control granules (8%).

339 At the genus level (Fig. 6), the abundance of *Flavobacterium* (3.3%), *Nitrosomonas* 340 (3.0%) and *Thauera* (15%) in the L-tyrosine-promoted granules were much higher 341 than those of the control granules (0.2, 1.6 and 0.7%, respectively). Meanwhile, all of 342 the aforesaid genera have been shown to contain species that positively correlate with the quorum sensing (OS) auto-inducers during granulation.³⁴ The OS auto-inducers, 343 344 especially N-acyl-homoserine-lactone (AHL), have been recently recognized as signaling molecules for biofilm development.³⁴ These genera could be driving or 345 346 accelerating the granulation when L-tyrosine dosed. In addition, chemical similarities between AHL and N-acyl-tyrosine has been reported previously¹⁰ and they both can 347 348 enhance the formation of biofilm. However connections between L-tyrosine, AHL and 349 these genera are not clear yet, and a further study is deserved.

350

The portion of Flavihumibacter was larger in the L-tyrosine-promoted granules (1.9 %) than the control granules (0.1 %). Flavihumibacter belongs to filamentous bacteria which can accelerate aerobic granulation with high porosity by offering a structural network to aggregate the cells together.³⁵ Therefore, the richness of Flavihumibacter with L-tyrosine dosing could be another cause for the high porosity of AGS in the test reactor.

357

358	AOB Nitrosomonas in the L-tyrosine-promoted and control granules accounted for 3
359	and 1.5 % respectively. NOB Nitrospira and Nitrobacter were rare in both granules (<
360	0.3%), and such low abundance of NOB reflects the accumulation of nitrite in both
361	reactors. The minimum sludge retention times (SRTs) were calculated for both AOB
362	and NOB, as shown in Table A.5 in SI. The mean SRT of both reactors was 8 days
363	longer than the minimum SRT for AOB and NOB, i.e. 4.4 and 1.8 days. Tarre et al.,
364	(2007) indicated an optimum pH range for AOB and NOB growth of 7.0 to 8.5 and
365	7.3 to 7.5, respectively. The low NOB abundance is most likely caused by the influent
366	pH of 7.5-8.0 in the reactors. Additionally, the highly porous structure of
367	L-tyrosine-promoted granules is beneficial to the development of AOB abundance
368	from which oxygen can easily penetrate into core area of the granules.

369

370 **5.** Conclusions

371

With dosing of L-tyrosine, test reactor achieved full granulation after 11 days' operation, and maintained structural integrity when decreased COD/N ratio from 4 to 1. Granules in test reactor were determined more porous than that in the control reactor, and this property potentially mitigates the mass transfer limitation in the granules. The stable secretion of EPS and the enrichment of genera related to the secretion of QS auto-inducers and filamentous in the test reactor were suggested as the main reasons for the positive effect of tyrosine on the granulation and stability of 379 AGS.

380

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383

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LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLES

Table 1. Maximum oxidation rates (mg N/g VSS h) of ammonium and nitrite

Table 2. Surface area and porosity of granules in phases I and II

Table 3. AGS granulation time vs different enhancing methods

FIGURES

Fig. 1 Profile of sludge indices under granulation period (Phase I) with COD/N ratio of 4 for: (a) MLSS, (b) mean diameter of granules, and (c) SVI₅ and SVI₅/SVI₃₀

Fig. 2 Profile of sludge indices in Phase II with COD/N =1: (a) mean diameter of granules, (b) SVI_5 and SVI_5/SVI_{30} , and (c) MLSS

Fig.3 Profile of the removal efficiencies in both reactors during the whole operation for (a) ammonia and (b) TN

Fig.4 Changes in the mean particle size of the granular sludge during the cohesion tests: (a) Phase I (COD/N=4), (b) Phase II (COD/N=1)

Fig. 5 Profiles of EPS content of the granular sludge in (a) control reactor, (b) testing reactor

Fig. 6 Taxonomic classification of bacterial 16s rDNA reads retrieved from sludge of the control and testing reactors at genera level



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Tuble 1. Maximum onlaation faces (ing 1.05 fl) of animomatic indicate				
	Phase I, COD/N=4		Phase II, COD/N=1	
	Control	Testing	Control	Testing
	Reactor	Reactor	Reactor	Reactor
Max. NH_4^+ oxidation rate	5.6 ± 0.2	8.4 ± 0.3	19.4 ± 0.5	21.8 ± 0.5
Max. NO_2^- oxidation rate	2.1 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.1

Table 1. Maximum oxidation rates (mg N/g VSS·h) of ammonium and nitrite

Table 2. Surface area and porosity of granules in phases I and II				
	BET Surface Area		Total Pore Volume	
COD/N	(m^2/g)		(ml/kg-VSS)	
	Control Reactor	Testing Reactor	Control Reactor	Testing Reactor
4	1.9±0.2	3.6±0.4	9.0±0.6	13.4±1.2
1	4.5±0.4	3.4±0.3	18.1±1.1	12.6±0.9

Table 2. Surface area and porosity of granules in phases I and II

<u> </u>					
Strategies	granulation period (days)	References			
Static magnetic field	25	28			
50% crashed granules mixed	20	29			
Ca ²⁺ augmentation	17	30			
Mg ²⁺ augmentation	16	31			
L-tyrosine	11	Present study			

Table 3. AGS granulation time vs different enhancing methods