

1 **Assessing the potential of purple phototrophic bacteria for the**
2 **simultaneous treatment of piggery wastewater and upgrading of biogas**

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18

19 **ABSTRACT**

20 The potential of purple phototrophic bacteria (PPB) for the simultaneous treatment of piggery
21 wastewater (PWW) and biogas upgrading was evaluated batchwise in gas-tight
22 photobioreactors. PWW dilution was identified as a key parameter determining the efficiency
23 of wastewater treatment and biomethane quality in PPB photobioreactors. Four times diluted

24 PWW supported the most efficient total organic carbon (TOC) and total nitrogen removals
25 (78% and 13%, respectively), with CH₄ concentrations of 90.8%. The influence of
26 phosphorous concentration (supplementation of 50 mg L⁻¹ of P-PO₄³⁻) on PPB-based PWW
27 treatment coupled to biogas upgrading was investigated. TOC removals of ≈60% and CH₄
28 concentrations of ≈90.0% were obtained regardless of phosphorus supplementation. Finally,
29 the use of PPB and algal-bacterial consortia supported CH₄ concentrations in the upgraded
30 biogas of 93.3% and 73.6%, respectively, which confirmed the potential PPB for biogas
31 upgrading coupled to PWW treatment.

32

33 **Keywords:**

34 Biogas upgrading, Biomethane, Piggery wastewater treatment, Purple phototrophic bacteria

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 The annual production of pig meat in the European Union (EU) accounted for 24.1 million
38 tons in 2017, which ranked the EU as the second largest pig producer in the world. In this
39 context, a total of 150.1 million pig heads were produced in the EU in 2017 (Statista, 2018).
40 Unfortunately, this key economic sector annually generates in the EU between 217 and 434
41 million m³ of piggery wastewater (PWW) containing high concentrations of organic matter,
42 nitrogen and phosphorus (De Godos et al., 2009; García et al., 2017). The management of
43 such high volumes of PWW represents nowadays an economic, environmental and technical
44 challenge for the EU livestock industry. Anaerobic digestion and activated sludge processes
45 are typically implemented on-site or in centralized facilities in order to fulfill with European
46 wastewater discharge regulations (Andreoli and Von, 2007). In addition, alternative
47 technologies based on the intensification of algal-bacterial symbiosis have been also tested

48 both at lab and pilot scale in order to reduce the operating costs and enhance nutrient recovery
49 during PWW treatment compared to conventional technologies (De Godos et al., 2009;
50 García et al., 2018, 2017). Nevertheless, PWW treatment based on algal-bacterial symbiosis
51 is limited by the high NH_4^+ concentrations of this type of wastewater and its poor
52 performance at low temperatures, which requires the development of more resilient
53 biotechnologies capable of cost-competitively recovering the carbon and nutrients from
54 PWW.

55

56 In this context, purple phototrophic bacteria (PPB) have emerged as a promising technology
57 platform for wastewater treatment based on their ability to assimilate a higher fraction of the
58 carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous present in wastewater compared to their aerobic and
59 anaerobic counterparts (Hiraishi et al., 1991; Khatipov et al., 1998; Takabatake et al., 2004).
60 Compared to microalgae, PPB utilize infrared radiation (IR) as source of energy, which
61 reduces the power required by photon emission and allows a deeper light penetration into the
62 cultivation broth (thus reducing the footprint of the process) (Hülsem et al., 2014). In addition,
63 the influence of temperature on the growth of PPB is low, which makes them ideal
64 microorganisms to support wastewater treatment under multiple weather conditions.
65 Literature studies have shown the promising potential of these microorganisms for municipal
66 and PWW treatment. For instance, Kim et al. (2004) reported chemical oxygen demand
67 (COD) and orthophosphate removals of 50% and 58%, respectively, under anaerobic
68 conditions in a PPB photobioreactor. PPB have been also successfully applied for industrial
69 wastewater treatment in membrane photobioreactors and sequencing batch stirred tank
70 photobioreactors with COD removal efficiencies of 73-75% (Chitapornpan et al., 2012;
71 Kaewsuk et al., 2010). The ability of PPB to simultaneously remove COD, nitrogen and

72 phosphorus from domestic wastewater has been recently evaluated in photo-anaerobic batch
73 tests and in a continuous membrane photobioreactor (Hülßen et al., 2016, 2014). A recent
74 comparison between the use of PPB and microalgae for the recovery of carbon, nitrogen and
75 phosphorous from pork, poultry, sugar, dairy and red meat wastewater was carried out by
76 Hülßen et al. (2018), who confirmed that PPB are more efficient for organic and nutrient
77 removal than microalgae.

78

79 On the other hand, biogas from the anaerobic digestion of wastewater or organic solid waste
80 represents a renewable energy vector with potential to partially reduce the current world's
81 dependence on fossil fuels (Andriani et al., 2014; Muñoz et al., 2015). In the EU, the
82 contribution of biogas to the energy sector has increased by a factor of 3 concomitantly with
83 an increase in the number of biogas plants from 6227 in 2009 to 17662 by the end of 2016
84 (European Biogas Association, 2017). Biogas upgrading to biomethane is required prior
85 injection into gas grids or use as a vehicle fuel due to the large number and high
86 concentrations of impurities: CO₂ (15-60%), H₂S (0.005-2%), O₂ (0-1%), N₂ (0-2%), CO
87 (<0.6%), NH₃ (<1%), volatile organic compounds (<0.6%) and siloxanes (0-02%)
88 (Ryckebosch et al., 2011); while most international regulations require concentrations of CH₄
89 $\geq 95\%$, CO₂ $\leq 2-4\%$, O₂ $\leq 1\%$ and negligible amounts of H₂S (Muñoz et al., 2015). Algal-
90 bacterial systems have been consistently investigated as a low cost and environmentally
91 sustainable technology to simultaneously remove CO₂ and H₂S from biogas. However, O₂
92 stripping from the cultivation broth to the biomethane as a result of the oxygenic nature of
93 algal photosynthesis represents the main limitation of algal-bacterial systems in biogas
94 upgrading (Marín et al., 2018; Posadas et al., 2017, 2015). In this sense, the versatile
95 metabolism of PPB, capable of using H₂S in biogas or the organic matter present in

96 wastewater as electron donor to reduce CO₂ from biogas without O₂ generation, could
97 eventually support a cost-effective biogas upgrading. Overall, there is a lack of comparative
98 studies assessing the potential of PPB and algal-bacterial systems in order to determine the
99 most cost-effective and environmentally friendly biotechnology for biogas upgrading.

100

101 This study aimed at evaluating, for the first time, the potential and limitations of using PPB
102 for the simultaneous treatment of PWW and upgrading of biogas under IR in batch
103 photobioreactors. The influence of PWW dilution and phosphorous concentration on PPB-
104 based PWW treatment coupled to biogas upgrading were also investigated batchwise. The
105 mechanisms and limiting factors underlying wastewater treatment and CO₂/H₂S removal by
106 PPB were investigated. A comparative evaluation of PPB-based biogas upgrading vs. algae-
107 based photobioreactors was finally conducted batchwise. The use of batch photobioreactors
108 allowed to systematically test multiple environmental conditions. This work constitutes, to
109 the best of our knowledge, the first proof of concept of the biogas upgrading using PPB under
110 IR.

111

112 **2. Materials and methods**

113 **2.1 Cultivation media**

114 Fresh centrifuged PWW was collected from a nearby farm at Segovia (Spain) and stored at
115 4°C prior to use. The composition of the PWW was: total organic carbon (TOC)
116 concentration of 10350 mg L⁻¹, inorganic carbon (IC) concentration of 215 mg L⁻¹, total
117 nitrogen (TN) concentration of 2685 mg L⁻¹, P-PO₄³⁻ concentration of 15 mg L⁻¹, total
118 suspended solids (TSS) concentration of 5.9 g L⁻¹. Prior to each test, PWW was centrifuged
119 at 10000 rpm for 20 min in order to separate the soluble from the solid phase. A mineral salt

120 medium (MSM) consisting of distilled water with 1.00 g (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.05 g K₂HPO₄, 0.02
121 g MgSO₄ and 2.00 g NaCl per liter was used in the control tests. A synthetic biogas mixture
122 composed of CO₂ (29.5%), H₂S (0.5%) and CH₄ (70%) was used as a raw biogas in the
123 present study (Abello Linde; Spain).

124

125 **2.2 Inocula**

126 A set of duplicate glass bottles of 1.2 L was initially filled with 450 ml of centrifuged PWW
127 under a helium headspace, while another set was filled with 440 ml of centrifuged PWW and
128 10 ml of activated sludge (Valladolid wastewater treatment plant) under a helium headspace.
129 The pH of the cultivation broth was 7.3. The systems were incubated batchwise under
130 magnetic agitation at 200 rpm, 30 °C and continuous IR of 50 W m⁻² (Osilon black series
131 model SFH4780S with centroid wavelength of 850 nm, OSRAM GmbH, Germany) for 24
132 days in order to enrich PPB to a final concentration of 0.88 g TSS L⁻¹. A mixture of the
133 enrichments from both sets of bottles was used as inoculum to conduct test series 1-3.

134

135 **2.3 Piggery wastewater treatment coupled to biogas upgrading in purple phototrophic** 136 **bacteria photobioreactors**

137 **2.3.1. Test series 1: Influence of piggery wastewater dilution on purple phototrophic** 138 **bacteria-based piggery wastewater treatment coupled to biogas upgrading**

139 The influence of PWW dilution on PPB-based treatment performance was evaluated in 1.2
140 L bottles under a biogas headspace. The bottles were filled with 360 ml of PWW (undiluted,
141 2 times diluted and 4 times diluted) and 40 ml of PPB inoculum, and incubated under
142 magnetic agitation at 200 rpm, 30 °C and 50 W m⁻² of continuous IR for 25 days. A test with
143 2 times diluted PWW, prepared as above described and incubated in the darkness, was used

144 as control to assess the influence of IR. An additional set of duplicate glass bottles was filled
145 with 360 ml of MSM and 40 ml of inoculum under a biogas headspace to serve as biotic
146 control. Finally, a set of glass bottles was prepared with 360 ml of MSM and 40 ml of
147 inoculum under a biogas headspace and its pH adjusted to 2.0 (thus preventing biological
148 activity) to serve as abiotic control. The assays were conducted in duplicate.

149

150 **2.3.2 Test Series 2: Influence of phosphorous concentration on purple phototrophic** 151 **bacteria-based piggery wastewater treatment coupled to biogas upgrading**

152 A set of duplicate glass bottles of 1.2 L was filled with 360 ml of 4 times diluted PWW and
153 40 ml of inoculum under a biogas headspace. A second set of duplicate glass bottles was
154 filled with 360 ml of 4 times diluted PWW, 40 ml of inoculum and supplemented with a P-
155 PO_4^{3-} concentration of 50 mg L⁻¹ under a biogas headspace. The systems were incubated
156 under magnetic agitation at 200 rpm, 30 °C and IR at 50 W m⁻² for 22 days. The assays were
157 conducted in duplicate.

158

159 **2.3.3 Test Series 3: Comparative evaluation of the potential of purple phototrophic** 160 **bacteria and algal-bacterial consortia for biogas upgrading**

161 A set of duplicate glass bottles of 1.2 L was filled with 360 ml of 4 times diluted PWW and
162 40 ml of inoculum under a biogas headspace. A second set of bottles was prepared with 400
163 ml of MSM under a biogas headspace to serve as abiotic control. The systems were incubated
164 under magnetic agitation at 200 rpm, 30 °C and an IR of 50 W m⁻² for 23 days.

165

166 At the same time, a set of duplicate glass bottles of 1.2 L was filled with 360 ml of MSM and
167 40 ml of algal-bacterial inoculum (obtained from an outdoor high rate algal pond treating

168 biogas and centrate at the Valladolid University (Spain)) under a biogas headspace. The pH
169 of the cultivation medium was adjusted to 7.0. A second set of duplicate bottles was prepared
170 with 400 ml of MSM under a biogas headspace to serve as abiotic control. The bottles were
171 incubated under magnetic agitation at 200 rpm, 30 °C and 200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ of photosynthetic
172 active radiation provided by high intensity LED PCBs (Phillips SA, Spain) for 23 days. The
173 assays were conducted in duplicate.

174

175 In all test series, the pH, headspace gas composition (CH_4 , CO_2 , H_2S , O_2 , and N_2) and
176 concentrations of dissolved TOC, IC, TN, N-NO_3^- , N-NO_2^- , P-PO_4^{3-} , SO_4^{2-} and volatile fatty
177 acids (VFAs) were periodically monitored. The initial and final biomass concentrations
178 (measured as TSS) were also determined.

179

180 **2.4 Analytical Procedures**

181 Dissolved TOC, IC and TN concentrations were analyzed using a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH
182 analyzer (Japan) equipped with a TNM-1 chemiluminescence unit. N-NO_3^- , N-NO_2^- , P-PO_4^{3-}
183 and SO_4^{2-} concentrations were quantified by HPLC-IC according to Serejo et al. (2015).
184 VFAs were analyzed in an Agilent 7820A GC-FID (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara,
185 USA) according to López et al. (2018). The pH was determined with an Eutech Cyberscan
186 pH 510 (Eutech instruments, The Netherlands), while the determination of TSS concentration
187 was performed according to Standard Methods (APHA, 2005). The concentration of CH_4 ,
188 CO_2 , H_2S , O_2 , and N_2 in the headspace of the bottles was determined using a Varian CP-
189 3800 GC-TCD (Palo Alto, USA) according to Posadas et al., (2015).

190

191 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

192 The results here presented were provided as the average values along with their standard
193 deviation from replicate measurements. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed
194 to determine how changes in PWW dilution influenced the quality of the upgraded biogas.

195

196 **3. Results and discussion**

197 **3.1 Influence of piggery wastewater dilution on purple phototrophic bacteria-based** 198 **piggery wastewater treatment coupled to biogas upgrading**

199 TOC concentration in biotic and abiotic control tests conducted with MSM remained constant
200 at $134 \pm 16 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and $69 \pm 9 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 1a). On the other hand, TOC
201 concentration in undiluted PWW and non-irradiated biotic control tests remained constant at
202 $10318 \pm 957 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and $3535 \pm 236 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 1a). A significant TOC
203 removal from $3977 \pm 336 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ to $1453 \pm 134 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ (TOC-removal efficiencies (REs) of
204 63%) in 2 times diluted PWW tests, and from $1989 \pm 12 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ to $436 \pm 14 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ (TOC-
205 REs of 78%) in 4 times diluted PWW tests (Fig. 1a) was observed. The TOC-REs herein
206 recorded were higher than those obtained by Hülsen et al. (2018), who reported removal
207 efficiencies of COD of approximately 10% for the treatment of PWW in batch tests. At this
208 point it should be highlighted that the TOC instrumental methodology exhibited an error
209 lower than 2 %, while the error of the COD analytical methodology was < 10 %. These results
210 confirmed the potential of PPB to anaerobically degrade organic matter at high
211 concentrations in the presence of IR as energy source, although the high TN concentrations
212 in undiluted PWW seems to inhibit PWW treatment. The pH in the undiluted, biotic control
213 and non-irradiated biotic control tests initially decreased as a result of the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$
214 acidification mediated by biogas, but remained stable at 6.9 ± 0.1 , 6.7 ± 0.1 and 6.6 ± 0.1 ,
215 respectively, from day 4 onwards. Meanwhile, the pH in the abiotic control remained constant

216 at 2.1 ± 0.1 . However, an increase from 6.6 ± 0.1 and 6.8 ± 0.1 (day 4) to 7.8 ± 0.1 and $8.0 \pm$
217 0.0 was observed by day 25 in 2 and 4 times diluted PWW tests likely mediated by the release
218 of basic TOC biodegradation metabolites. The high TN concentration in PWW (mainly
219 composed by 80-90% of NH_4^+ (Godos et al., 2010)) and relatively high pH represents a
220 perfect combination for microbial toxicity by free ammonia (FA). Indeed, the main inhibitory
221 mechanism of ammonium in anaerobic organisms is specifically the concentration of FA as
222 a result of a high pH in anaerobic systems (Hansen et al., 1998). FA is a potent uncoupler of
223 membrane transport in any microorganism, as is capable of destabilizing the proton gradient,
224 thus preventing phosphorylation (Gallert et al., 1998; Rajagopal et al., 2013). In this context,
225 only the presence of valinomycin, a potent antibiotic and a K^{2+} transporter in membranes, can
226 activate a similar effect over photophosphorylation in PPB (Fleischman and Clayton, 1968).
227 PWW may contain other organic Na^+ - K^{2+} transporters that could boost the toxicity of FA
228 upon proton motive force in PPB. Indeed, PWW usually contains a wide variety of emerging
229 pollutants like antibiotics or animal health-care products that may act as FA transporters in
230 membranes (Milić et al., 2013).

231

232 Similarly, in the assays conducted with undiluted PWW, the IC concentration remained
233 approximately constant at $179 \pm 21 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$. In 2 and 4 times diluted tests, IC concentrations
234 increased from 105 ± 9 by day 7 to 336 ± 46 and $397 \pm 15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, respectively, by day 20
235 (Fig 1b). This increase in IC concentration was mediated by the absorption of a fraction of
236 the CO_2 present in the biogas. IC concentrations in the non-irradiated biotic control tests
237 remained constant at $119 \pm 19 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, which confirm the absence of biological activity of
238 PPB without IR radiation.

239

240 Finally, while TN concentration remained constant in the tests without biological activity
241 (undiluted, abiotic, biotic and non-irradiated biotic control), TN concentration decreased
242 from 1083 ± 75 to 811 ± 15 mg L⁻¹ and from 563 ± 5 to 488 ± 18 mg L⁻¹ in 2 and 4 times
243 diluted PWW assays, respectively (Fig. 1c). This removal was likely due to nitrogen
244 assimilation into PPB biomass, which amounted 1.5 ± 0.3 and 2.2 ± 0.2 g TSS L⁻¹ by the end
245 of the tests conducted in 2 and 4 times diluted PWW, respectively. Neither NO₂⁻ nor NO₃⁻
246 were detected regardless of the TN concentration, which ruled out the occurrence of NH₄⁺
247 nitrification (as expected from the reductive conditions prevailing in the tests).

248

249 PWW dilution and the presence of IR significantly impacted on the biogas upgrading
250 performance. Thus, a decrease in CO₂ headspace concentrations from $28.7 \pm 0.4\%$ to $26.2 \pm$
251 0.2% , $23.1 \pm 2.0\%$ and $25.7 \pm 0.9\%$ mediated by CO₂ absorption in the cultivation broth was
252 recorded in the assays containing undiluted, biotic and non-irradiated 2 times diluted PWW
253 control tests, while in the abiotic test no significant variation in CO₂ concentration was
254 observed (Fig. 1d). The largest reductions in CO₂ headspace concentrations, down to $9.6 \pm$
255 1.4% and $7.5 \pm 0.1\%$, were recorded in 2 and 4 times diluted PWW tests (Fig. 1d). This
256 removal of CO₂ from biogas was mediated by both an absorption into the cultivation broth
257 (promoted by the above reported increase in pH) and a PPB-based CO₂ fixation using H₂S
258 from biogas and the biodegradable TOC as electron donor. Indeed, H₂S in the headspace
259 decreased from 0.40 to 0.24% and 0.04% in 2 and 4 times diluted PWW tests under reductive
260 conditions, which suggests its biological utilization as electron donor (Fig. 1e). The
261 unexpected increase in H₂S concentration to 1.0% in undiluted PWW tests and 0.7% in the
262 non-irradiated biotic control tests was likely induced by the use of dissolved sulphate as
263 electron acceptor by sulfate-reducers in the mixed culture during the biodegradation of a

264 minor fraction of biodegradable TOC. Finally, H₂S concentration in the headspace initially
265 decreased to 0.19% and 0.15% in the biotic and abiotic tests, respectively, as a result of H₂S
266 absorption in the MSM. On the other hand, CH₄ headspace concentrations of 88.7% and
267 90.8% were recorded at the end of the tests containing 2 and 4 times diluted PWW under IR
268 radiation, which confirmed the technical feasibility of combining PWW treatment and biogas
269 upgrading in PPB photobioreactors (Fig. 1f). In addition, a similar variation in CH₄
270 concentration in the headspace was recorded in the biotic and abiotic tests, increasing from
271 70 % up to 74.7% and 74.2%, respectively. The biomethane herein obtained in the test
272 conducted with 2 and 4 times diluted PWW and irradiated PPB could be used as a vehicle
273 fuel (a CH₄ content > 80% is required in some countries of the European Union) (Muñoz et
274 al., 2015).

275

276 Finally, an ANOVA was carried out to elucidate how changes in PWW dilution influenced
277 the quality of the upgraded biogas. Since the F values for CH₄ and CO₂ (5.6 and 5.2,
278 respectively) were greater than the F critical value of 3.5, it can be concluded that the stated
279 hypothesis was correct and therefore the quality of the upgraded biogas varied significantly
280 with PWW dilution.

281

282 **<Figure 1>**

283

284 CO₂ capture in the Calvin cycle by PPB is possible only when the organic substrates present
285 in the cultivation medium are in a reduced form, since PPB need CO₂ for maintaining the
286 redox homeostasis (McKinlay and Harwood, 2010). This is crucial to achieve a net CO₂
287 capture, thus allowing biogas upgrading by using the biodegradable organic matter present

288 in wastewater as electron donor. In order to confirm this hypothesis, the time course of VFAs
289 in the experiments conducted with diluted PWW was recorded (Fig. 2). The initial
290 characterization of the wastewater revealed that PWW contained highly reduced organics in
291 the form of VFAs. The main VFAs detected were acetate (963 mg L⁻¹), propionate (230 mg
292 L⁻¹), isobutyrate (126 mg L⁻¹), butyrate (109 mg L⁻¹), isovalerate (72 mg L⁻¹) and valerate (27
293 mg L⁻¹). The average oxidation state of the VFAs in the PWW herein used was calculated as
294 -0.63 following (McKinlay and Harwood, 2010). These environmental conditions require
295 PPB to use CO₂ to support microbial growth. Indeed, PPB consumed the VFAs
296 concomitantly with biomass growth and CO₂ assimilation in the 2 and 4 times diluted tests
297 (Fig. 2b and 2c, respectively), which confirmed the hypothesis proposed. Meanwhile VFAs
298 remained constant in the undiluted and non-irradiated biotic control tests (Fig. 2a and 2d,
299 respectively). Therefore, PPB use the excess of electrons from the VFAs to assimilate CO₂
300 in the Calvin cycle. The other major mechanism to achieve redox homeostasis is H₂
301 production, which was strongly inhibited by the high nitrogen concentration in these
302 particular assays (Sweet and Burris, 1981).

303

304 Since 4 times diluted PWW (with a TN concentration of 600 mg L⁻¹) supported the most
305 efficient TOC, TN, CO₂ and H₂S removal, test series 2 and 3 were conducted under these
306 experimental conditions.

307

308 <Figure 2>

309

310 **3.2 Influence of phosphorous concentration on purple phototrophic bacteria-based**
311 **piggery wastewater treatment coupled to biogas upgrading**

312 A significant TOC removal from 1712 ± 143 to 803 ± 123 mg L⁻¹ (TOC-REs of 53%) was
313 recorded in 4 times diluted PWW, while phosphorus supplementation supported a decrease
314 in TOC concentration from 1625 ± 86 to 646 ± 110 mg L⁻¹ (TOC-REs of 60%) (Fig. 3a). The
315 high TOC-REs recorded in test series 2 were mediated by the assimilation as biomass instead
316 of by TOC oxidation to CO₂, and confirmed the potential of PPB to anaerobically degrade
317 organic matter assisted by IR regardless of phosphorus supplementation. A pH increase from
318 6.7 ± 0.1 and 6.8 ± 0.0 (day 4) to 7.5 ± 0.1 and 7.7 ± 0.0 was observed by the end of day 22
319 in tests conducted without and with phosphorus supplementation to 4 times diluted PWW,
320 respectively, due to PPB-based TOC biodegradation. IC concentration increased as a result
321 of pollutant mineralization and CO₂ capture/fixation from 56 ± 3 to 369 ± 21 and 364 ± 9 mg
322 L⁻¹ (day 19) without and with phosphorus addition, respectively (Fig 3b). TN concentration
323 decreased from 620 ± 20 to 308 ± 39 mg L⁻¹ without phosphorous addition and from $611 \pm$
324 10 to 285 ± 33 mg L⁻¹ when phosphorus was supplemented (Fig. 3c). This removal was likely
325 due nitrogen assimilation into PPB biomass, which averaged 1.8 ± 0.8 and 1.9 ± 0.1 g TSS
326 L⁻¹ by the end of the tests without and with phosphorus supplementation, respectively. The
327 TN-REs herein recorded were higher those reported by Hülsen et al. (2018), who achieved
328 values of approximately 10% during the batch treatment of PWW by PPB. Neither NO₂⁻ nor
329 NO₃⁻ were detected in these tests series. The results here recorded for TOC, IC and TN
330 concentrations confirmed that phosphorous supplementation did not enhance significantly
331 PPB-based PWW treatment under photo-anaerobic conditions. Finally, P-PO₄³⁻ in the test
332 supplemented with phosphorus was completely removed by day 13 mainly due to P
333 assimilation into biomass, while P-PO₄³⁻ in the non-supplemented test remained below the
334 detection limit of the HPLC-IC (3 mg P L⁻¹).

335

336 The impact of phosphorus supplementation was more noticeable in the upgrading of biogas.
337 A reduction in CO₂ concentration from 29.4% to 8.2% and from 29.0% to 5.2% was recorded
338 with and without phosphorus supplementation, respectively (Fig. 3d). H₂S concentration in
339 the headspace decreased from 0.36% to 0.07% without phosphorus supplementation, while
340 phosphorus supplementation supported a complete removal of H₂S. This suggested its
341 biological utilization as electron donor to support CO₂ assimilation (Fig. 3e). Finally, an
342 increase in CH₄ concentration from 70 % to 89.2% and 91.9% without and with phosphorus
343 supplementation was recorded (Fig. 3f). The quality of the biomethane produced in P-
344 supplemented tests complied with biomethane requirements for use as a vehicle fuel (Muñoz
345 et al., 2015).

346

347 <Figure 3>

348

349 **3.4 Comparative evaluation of the potential of purple phototrophic bacteria and algal-** 350 **bacterial consortia for biogas upgrading**

351 The ability of PPB and an algal-bacterial consortium to simultaneously treat PWW and
352 upgrade biogas was comparatively assessed. A limited decrease in CO₂ headspace
353 concentrations from 28.6% to 24.1% was recorded in the test inoculated with the algal-
354 bacterial consortium, while CO₂ concentrations of 3.3% were obtained at the end of the
355 experiment inoculated with PPB (Fig. 4a). The low pH in the cultivation broth of the algal-
356 bacterial system (5.4 ± 0.7) imposed by the biogas headspace likely inhibited photosynthetic
357 activity of microalgae. H₂S concentration in the headspace of the PPB tests decreased from
358 0.35% to 0.10%, while in the algal-bacterial systems a H₂S concentration of 0.47% was
359 recorded by day 23 (Fig. 4b). CH₄ headspace concentration reached values of 93.3% and

360 73.6% in the tests with PPB and algal-bacterial consortium, respectively (Fig. 4c). Therefore,
361 an enhanced biogas upgrading capacity was observed for PPB compared with the algal-
362 bacterial consortium.

363

364 Finally, the TOC concentration in the algal-bacterial tests remained constant at $38 \pm 7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$
365 ¹, and gradually decreased from 2498 ± 0 to $1483 \pm 7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ (TOC-RE of 41%) in PPB tests
366 (Fig. 4d). On the other hand, the IC concentration in the algal-bacterial tests remained
367 constant at $14 \pm 4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and increased in the PPB tests from 108 ± 0 to $459 \pm 40 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ by
368 day 12 (Fig. 4e). Finally, no significant variation in the TN concentration was observed
369 regardless of the consortia ($624 \pm 33 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ in PPB tests and $200 \pm 13 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ in algal-
370 bacterial tests) (Fig. 4f).

371

372 <Figure 4>

373

374 **4. Conclusions**

375 PPB represent an innovative biological platform for the simultaneous treatment of PWW and
376 upgrading of biogas under photo-anaerobic conditions. PWW with TN concentrations of 600
377 mg L^{-1} provided the best conditions for wastewater treatment and biogas upgrading. The
378 presence of VFA in PWW supported CO_2 fixation in the Calvin cycle, thus allowing biogas
379 upgrading. The low phosphorous concentrations inherent to PWW did not significantly
380 impact on wastewater treatment performance but slightly improved biomethane quality. CH_4
381 concentrations of 93.3% can be achieved using PPB, which complied with most international
382 regulations for biogas use as a vehicle fuel.

383

384 E-supplementary data of this work can be found in online version of the paper.

385

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390

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- 499

500 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

501 **Figure 1.** Time course of (a) total organic carbon, (b) inorganic carbon, (c) total nitrogen, (d)
502 CO₂, (e) H₂S and (f) CH₄ concentrations during the biodegradation of undiluted (■), 2 times
503 diluted (○), and 4 times diluted (▲) PWW coupled to biogas upgrading. Inoculated IR-
504 deprived control test with 2 times diluted PWW (◇). Biotic control test with MSM (◆) and
505 abiotic control test with MSM at pH 2.0 (□).

506 **Figure 2.** Time course of VFA concentration during the biodegradation of (a) undiluted, (b)
507 2 times diluted and (c) 4 times diluted PWW coupled to biogas upgrading. (d) Inoculated IR-
508 deprived control test with 2 times diluted PWW.

509 **Figure 3.** Time course of (a) total organic carbon, (b) inorganic carbon, (c) total nitrogen, (d)
510 CO₂, (e) H₂S and (f) CH₄ concentrations during the treatment of 4 times diluted PWW (□)
511 and 4 times diluted PWW supplemented with 50 mg P-PO₄³⁻ L⁻¹ (▲).

512 **Figure 4.** Time course of (a) CO₂, (b) H₂S, (c) CH₄ (d) total organic carbon, (e) inorganic
513 carbon and (f) total nitrogen concentration during biogas upgrading with a PPB consortium
514 treating PWW (□) and an algal-bacterial consortium (●).

Figure 1. Time course of (a) total organic carbon, (b) inorganic carbon, (c) total nitrogen, (d) CO₂, (e) H₂S and (f) CH₄ concentrations during the biodegradation of undiluted (■), 2 times diluted (○), and 4 times diluted (▲) PWW coupled to biogas upgrading. Inoculated IR-deprived control test with 2 times diluted PWW (◇). Biotic control test with MSM (◆) and abiotic control test with MSM at pH 2.0 (□).

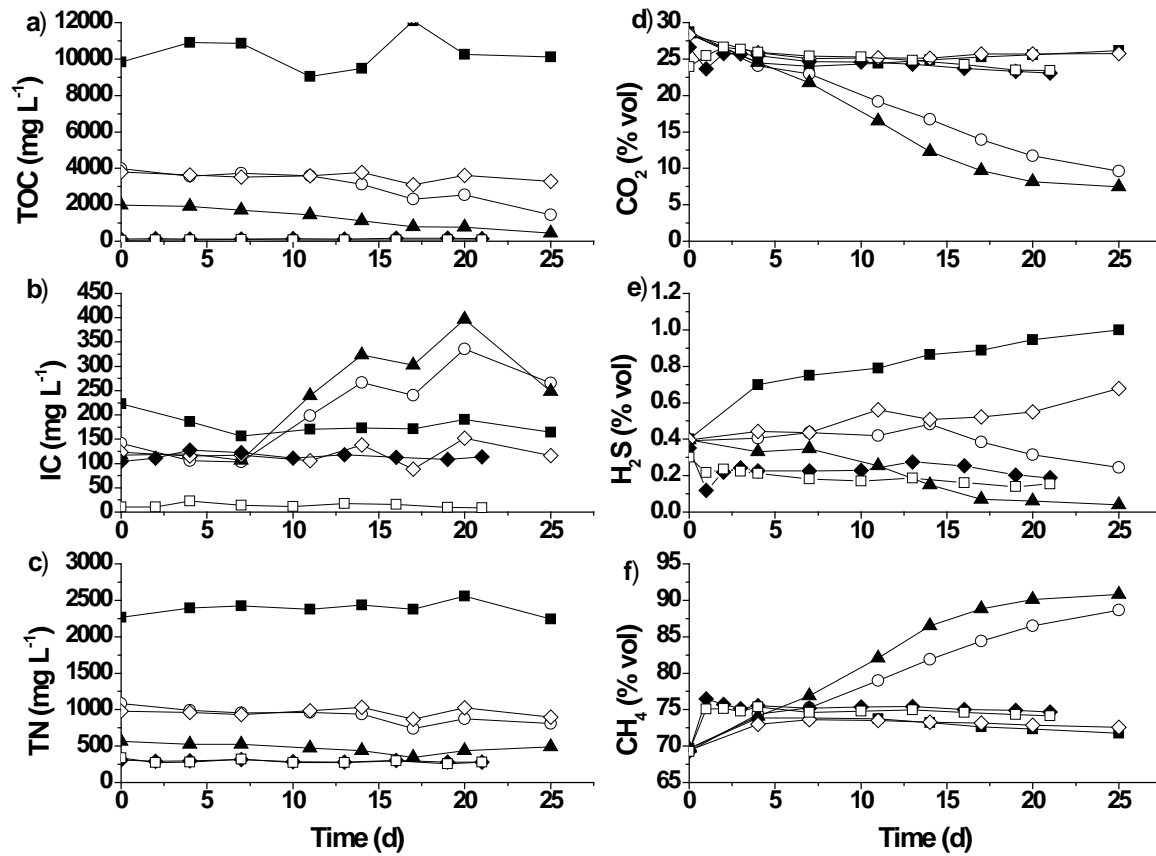


Figure 2. Time course of VFA concentration during the biodegradation of (a) undiluted, (b) 2 times diluted and (c) 4 times diluted PWW coupled to biogas upgrading. (d) Inoculated IR-deprived control test with 2 times diluted PWW.

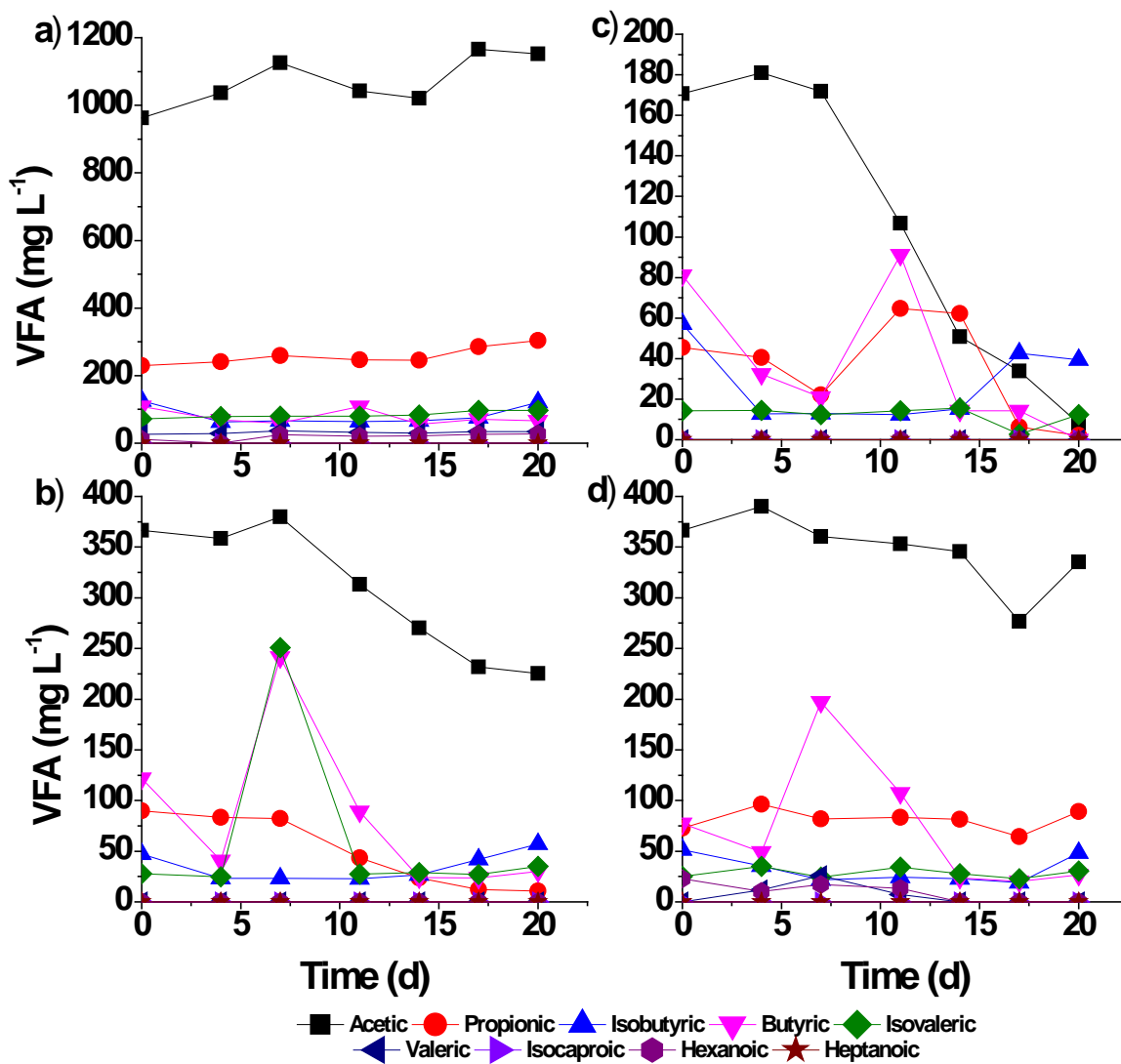


Figure 3. Time course of (a) total organic carbon, (b) inorganic carbon, (c) total nitrogen, (d) CO₂, (e) H₂S and (f) CH₄ concentrations during the treatment of 4 times diluted PWW (□) and 4 times diluted PWW supplemented with 50 mg P-PO₄³⁻ L⁻¹ (▲).

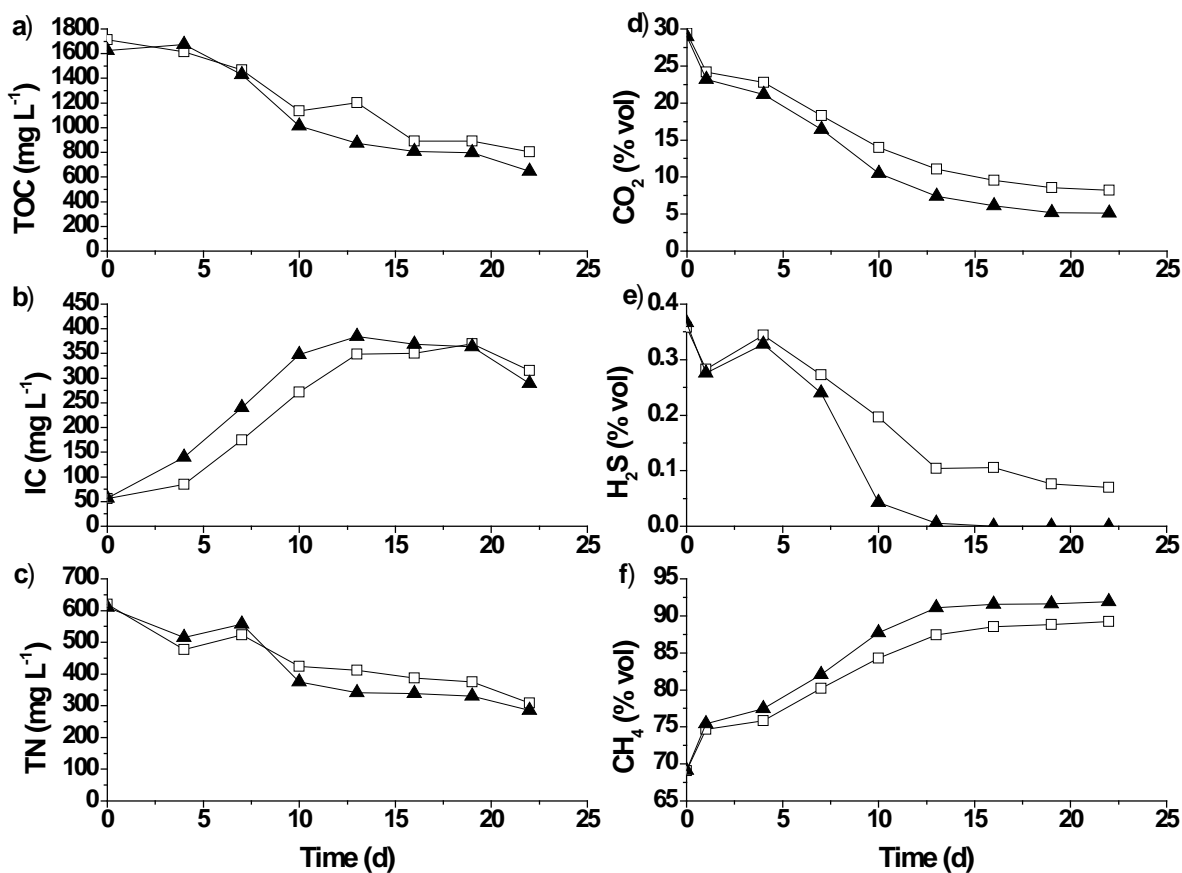
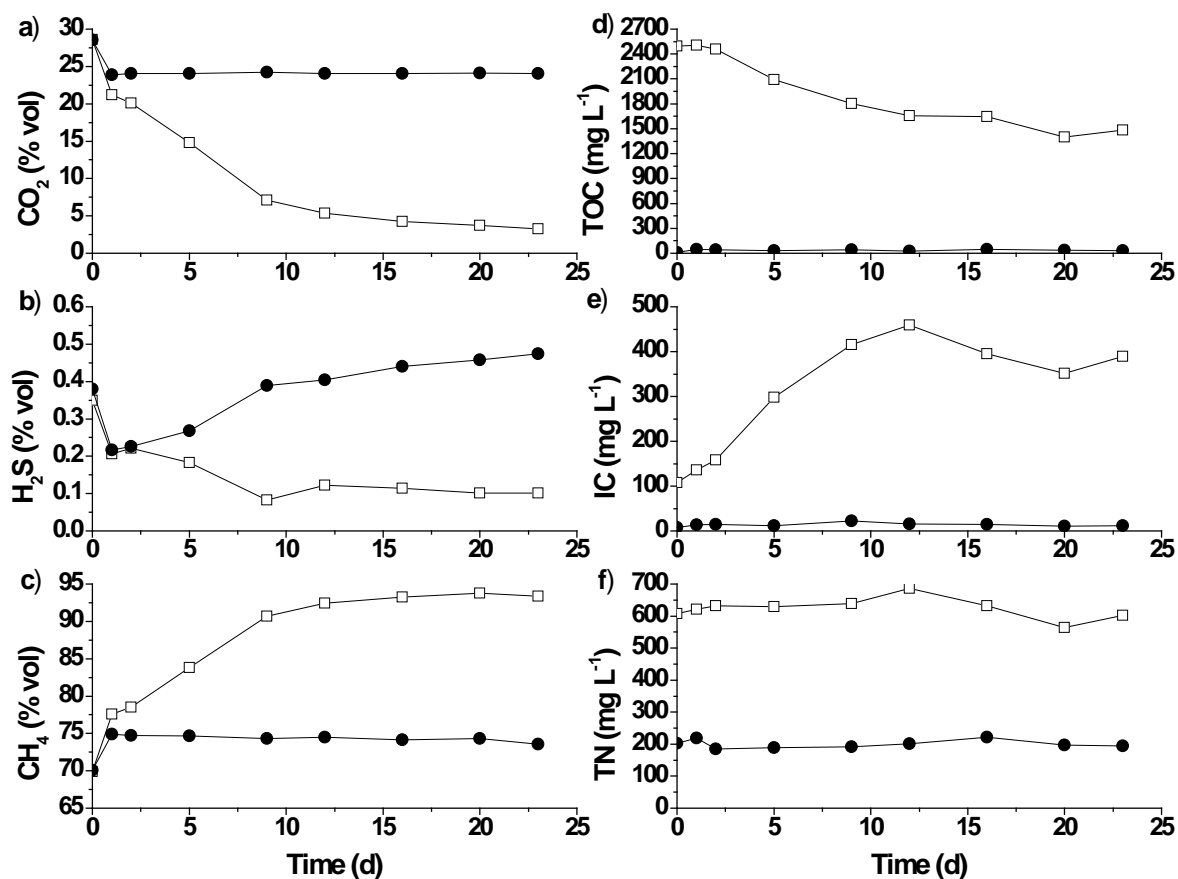


Figure 4. Time course of (a) CO₂, (b) H₂S, (c) CH₄, (d) total organic carbon, (e) inorganic carbon and (f) total nitrogen concentration during biogas upgrading with a PPB consortium treating PWW (□) and an algal-bacterial consortium (●).



1 **Assessing the potential of purple phototrophic bacteria for the**
2 **simultaneous treatment of piggery wastewater and upgrading of biogas**

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19 **Inoculum enrichment**



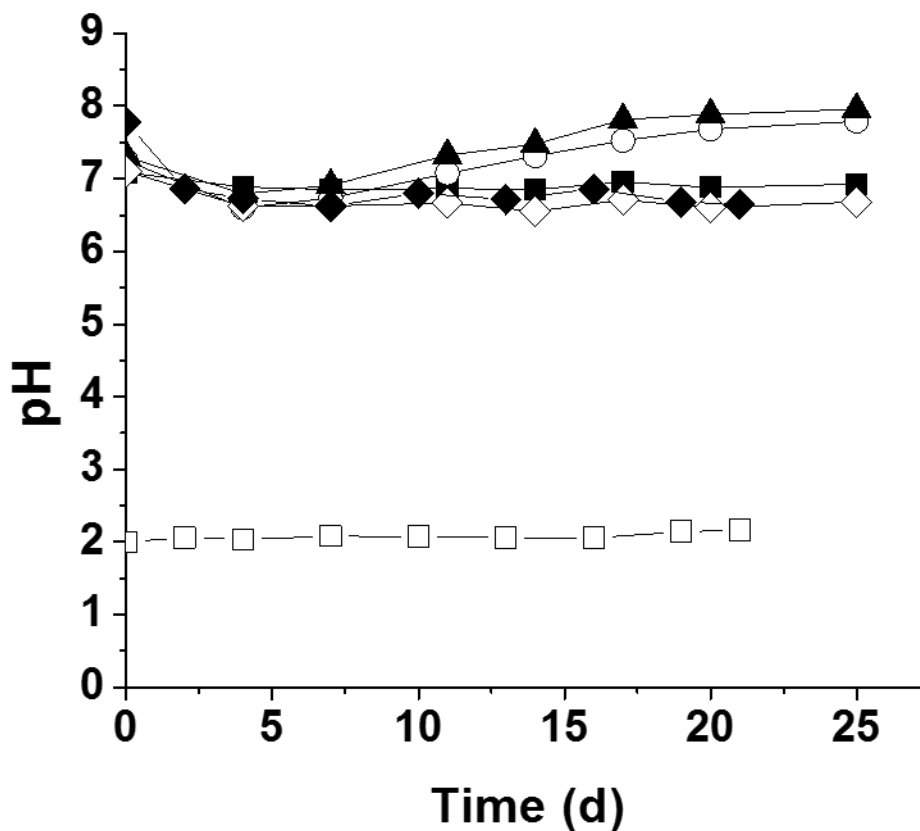
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Figure S1. Inoculum enrichment set-up

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23 pH values



24

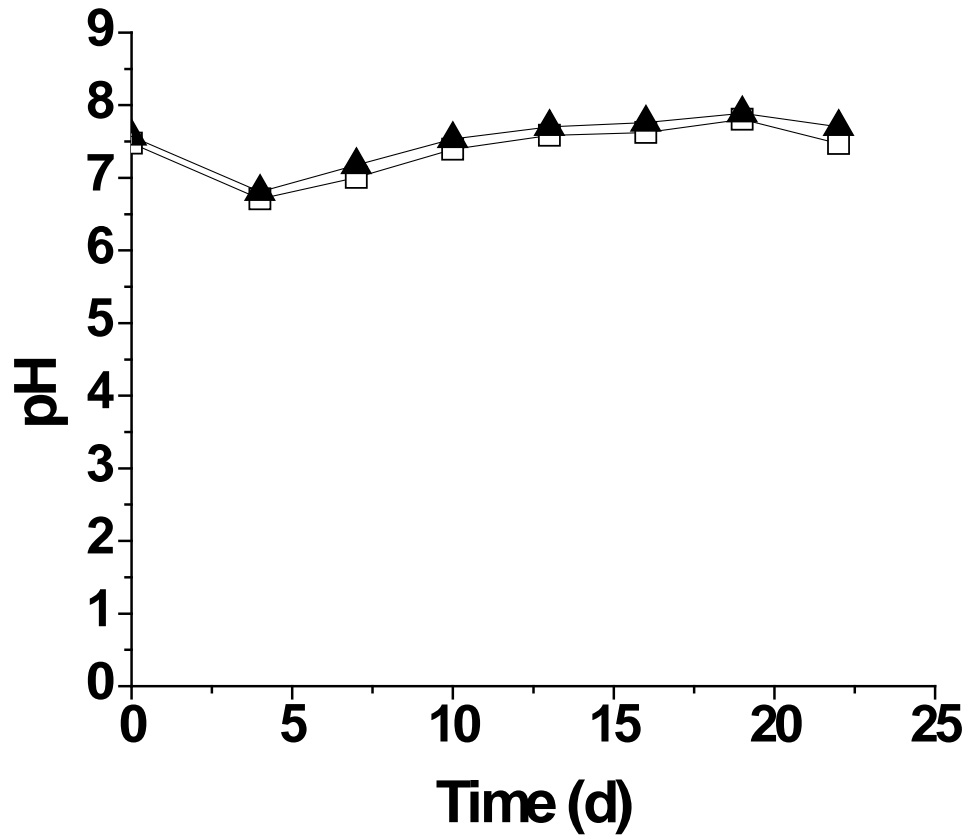
25 **Figure S2.** Time course of pH during the biodegradation of undiluted (■), 2 times diluted
26 (○), and 4 times diluted (▲) PWW coupled to biogas upgrading. Inoculated IR-deprived
27 control test with 2 times diluted PWW (◇), biotic control test with MSM (◆), abiotic control
28 test with MSM at pH 2.0 (□).

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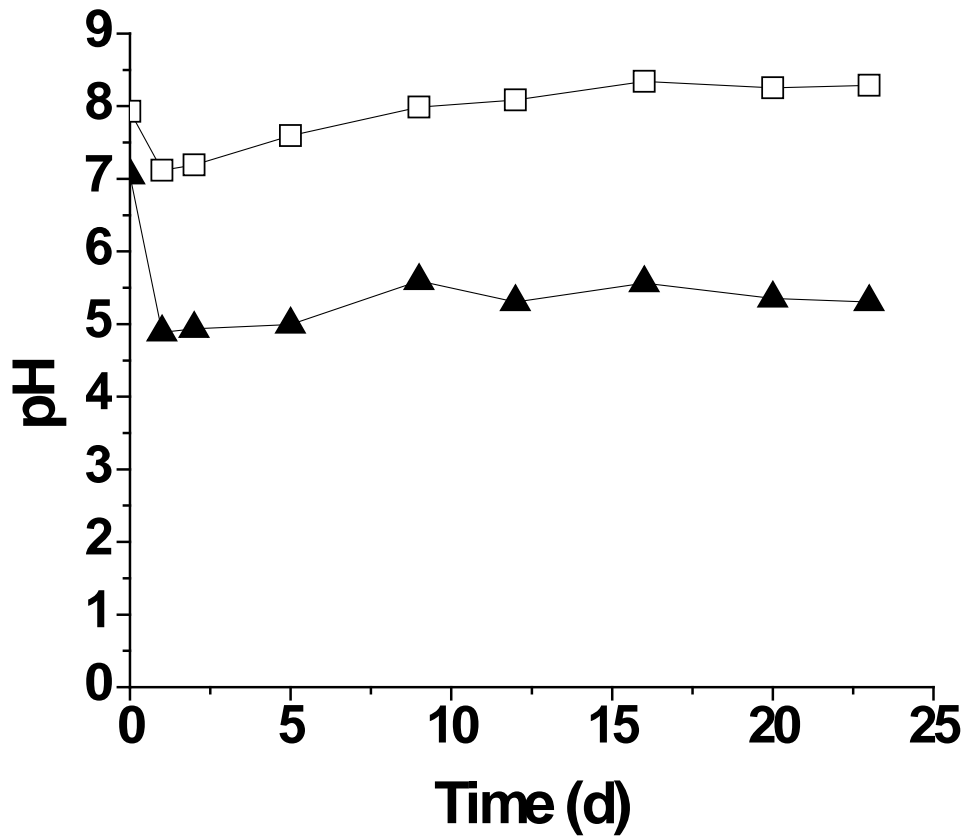
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34 **Figure S3.** Time course of pH in test series 2. Four times diluted PWW without (□) and with
35 P-PO₄³⁻ supplementation (▲).



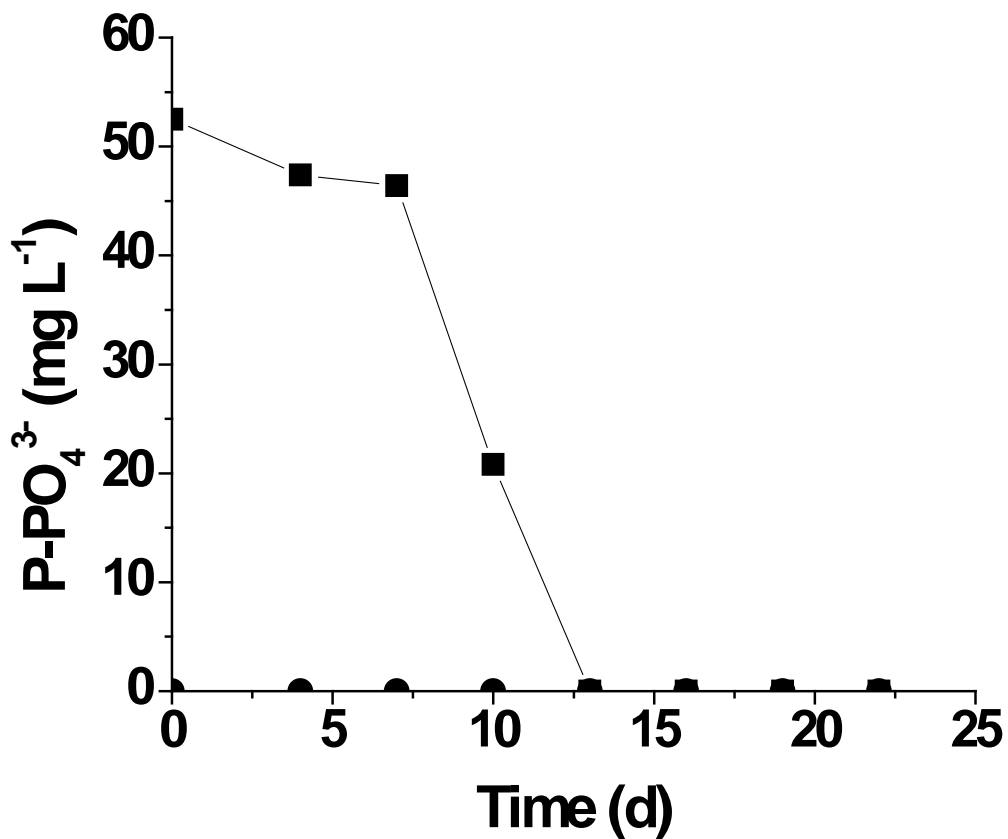
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37 **Figure S4.** Time course of pH in test series 3. Purple phototrophic bacteria treating 4 times
38 diluted PWW under a biogas atmosphere (□), algal-bacterial consortium in MSM under a
39 biogas atmosphere (▲).

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41

42 **P-PO₄³⁻ concentration in test series 3**



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44 **Figure S5.** Time course of P-PO₄³⁻ concentration in the cultivation broth of the assays
45 conducted with 4 times diluted PWW (●) and 4 times diluted PWW supplemented with PO₄³⁻
46 ³ (■) in test series 3.

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52

53 **Table S.1.** Analysis of variance

	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F value	F critical
CH ₄	410.8	2	205.4	5.6	3.5
Error	775.1	21	36.9		
CO ₂	380.6	2	190.3	5.2	3.5
Error	763.9	21	36.4		
H ₂ S	1.4	2	0.7	35.4	3.5
Error	0.4	21	0.1		

54