

1 **Increased extracellular polymeric substances production contributes for the**
2 **robustness of aerobic granular sludge during long-term intermittent exposure**
3 **to 2-fluorophenol in saline wastewater**

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Industrial effluents often contain organic pollutants and variable salinity levels, making their
17 treatment challenging. The high content of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) in the
18 aerobic granular sludge (AGS) is thought to protect the microbial communities from stressful
19 conditions. Ammonium and phosphate removal, EPS production, and granular morphology
20 were assessed in a lab-scale AGS reactor operated during 138 days at continuous low or
21 moderate salinity levels (1.41-6.46 g/L of NaCl) and intermittent short-term loadings of a
22 fluoroorganic pollutant, 2-fluorophenol (2-FP, 20 mg/L). 2-FP was not degraded throughout
23 operation. Ammonium removal efficiency was drastically affected whenever 2-FP stressor
24 was present, decreasing from 99% to non-detectable conversion levels, but completely
25 recovering after 2-FP feeding ceased. Phosphate removal, initially disturbed by exposure to
26 stress conditions, recovered with time, even when stressors were still present. Complete
27 phosphate removal did not occur in periods when nitrite temporarily accumulated after
28 nitrification started to recover. EPS composition and concentration in AGS varied during
29 operation, initially decreasing from 133 to 34 mg/g_{VSS of AGS}, during the stress phases but
30 recovering thereafter to 176 mg/g_{VSS of AGS}. Breakage of granules into smaller ones occurred
31 at two different operational moments due to stressors presence. The presence of 2-FP and
32 moderate salinity levels in wastewater had more immediate detrimental effects on nutrients

33 removal than on EPS production. The AGS system capacity to recover the nutrient removal
34 performance and EPS production, after the withdrawal of 2-FP from the inlet stream
35 reinforced its robustness to deal with industrial wastewaters.

36

37 **Keywords:** Aerobic granular sludge; extracellular polymeric substances; 2-fluorophenol;
38 salinity; granular morphology.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Biological wastewater treatment is usually performed by conventional activated sludge
42 systems. However, construction and operation of activated sludge systems requires large
43 surface areas. Since wastewater treatment systems are needed in densely populated
44 regions, land is a limited resource [1]. Aerobic granular sludge (AGS) is an innovative and
45 compact wastewater treatment system that has been adopted in several countries.
46 Currently, there are more than 67 Nereda® wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) in
47 operation, under construction or in design ([https://www.royalhaskoningdhv.com/en-
48 gb/nereda/nereda-plants](https://www.royalhaskoningdhv.com/en-gb/nereda/nereda-plants)). Although mainly applied for the treatment of urban wastewater,
49 the compact technology makes it also very useful for industrial wastewater treatment.

50 AGS, a special case of suspended biofilm, is composed of self-immobilized microorganisms
51 that form spherical sludge aggregates [2]. Microorganisms are embedded in a self-produced
52 matrix, called extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) [3]. AGS has interesting properties
53 such as exceptional settling ability, high biosorption capacity, ability to simultaneously
54 remove organic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus [4,5]. EPS are high molecular weight
55 polymers, that either result from microorganisms' metabolism or cell lyses. Accumulation of
56 such EPS on the cells surface, forms a protective barrier for the cells against the external
57 environment [3,6]. EPS can affect the entire AGS microbial surface and consequently the
58 capacity of aggregation, biosorption, mass transfer and structural stability, important
59 features for the removal of organic pollutants [7].

60 Wastewater biotreatment, including the AGS process, can face several difficulties when
61 treating industrial wastewater due to the variable chemical composition; the presence of
62 recalcitrant and toxic compounds; the presence of salts; and starvation periods due to
63 production process fluctuations [8–10]. Industries such as the chemical, pharmaceutical,
64 agro-food, petroleum, textile and leather industries, generate large amounts of saline

65 wastewater, which often contain (micro)pollutants [11]. Phenolic compounds, including
66 fluorophenols, are within the most toxic and recalcitrant compounds often present in
67 industrial wastewaters, specifically effluents from the production of pharmaceuticals, bulk
68 chemicals, herbicides, and pesticides [12,13]. Some studies focused on the aerobic
69 treatment of saline wastewater polluted with organic compounds typically found in the
70 industrial sector: Kokabian et al. [14] and Assadi et al. [15] studied the effect of salts on the
71 performance of activated sludge systems treating azo dyes from the textile industry; Corsino
72 et al. [16] and Campo and Di Bella (2019) [17] reported the cultivation of AGS and treatment
73 of wastewater simultaneously containing hydrocarbons and aromatic hydrocarbons from
74 petrochemical pollution, and high salt (NaCl) concentration; Ramos et al. [18] and Ramos et
75 al. [19] reported the effect of salinity on AGS treating a mixture of aromatic compounds
76 (phenol, o-cresol, p-nitrophenol, and quinoline). Nevertheless, there are no reports on the
77 use of AGS to treat wastewater characterized by the simultaneous presence of halogenated
78 aromatics pollutants and salinity. Duque et al. [20] and Ramos et al. [21] evaluated the effect
79 of 2-fluorophenol (2-FP) as the sole stressor in wastewater on AGS bioreactor performance.
80 However, 2-FP toxic effect was in fact attenuated by bioaugmentation with a degrading
81 strain.

82 EPS production is regarded as one of the protective strategies for bacteria in biofilms to
83 survive and grow in stressful environments [3,6,7]. However, whether secretion of EPS by
84 AGS microbial community changes during exposure to harsh environments is not a well-
85 researched issue. In the present study, we aimed at investigating the effect of the toxic
86 compound 2-FP combined with low to moderate salinity (1.41-6.46 g/L of NaCl) wastewater
87 on the performance of a lab-scale AGS system and on the EPS secreted by the microbial
88 community within the granules. In order to mimic transient states of composition typical of
89 industrial effluents, the reactor inlet stream periodically varied in 2-FP presence and salt
90 concentration. EPS composition and production was assessed during the applied stress
91 conditions to further elucidate the EPS protection role towards the combination of stressors.
92 To the best of our knowledge, this study presents for the first-time the effects of combined
93 stressors, namely an halogenated aromatic pollutant and salinity, on the nutrient removal
94 performance and EPS production of an AGS system, investigating the reliability of this low
95 footprint technology to deal with intermittent conditions that characterize industrial
96 effluents.

97

98 **2. Materials and methods**

99

100 **2.1 AGS sequencing batch reactor (SBR) set-up**

101 A 2.5 L SBR with 110 cm height and an internal diameter of 6.5 cm was inoculated with AGS
102 from an urban WWTP at Frielas, Portugal. The WWTP receives domestic, pluvial and
103 industrial (15-17%) wastewater.

104 The bioreactor was operated at room temperature performing treatment cycles of 3 h, as
105 followed: 60 min of inlet anaerobic feeding (introduced at the SBR bottom), 112 min of
106 aeration (bottom aeration supplied at an airflow rate of 4 L/min, superficial air velocity of
107 84.8 m/h), 3 min of settling and 5 min of effluent withdrawal. Approximately 40% of the
108 reactor liquid was withdrawn in each cycle. Particles with settling velocity greater than 6
109 m/h were retained in the reactor, whereas particles with lower settling velocity were
110 withdrawal. The pH was maintained at 7.0 - 8.0 by dosing 1 M NaOH or 1 M HCl.

111 Throughout phase I, the synthetic influent media used was as described by de Kreuk et al.
112 [22]. Briefly, synthetic influent media was composed by: NaAc 63 mM, MgSO₄·7H₂O 3.6 mM,
113 KCl 4.7 mM, NH₄Cl 35.4 mM, K₂HPO₄ 4.2 mM, KH₂PO₄ 2.1 mM, and 10 mL/L of trace element
114 solution. From day-133 onwards, variable influent media composition was applied to mimic
115 real industrial streams where recalcitrant pollutants are present intermittently [8,10,23]
116 along with low (1.4 g/L NaCl) to moderate salinity (3.1-6.5 g/L NaCl) levels, according to the
117 classification of water based on salinity levels described elsewhere [24,25]. During saline and
118 2-FP transient states (phases II-X), NaCl and 2-FP were added to medium in order to reach a
119 concentration in the inlet flow as indicated in

120

121 . The NaCl concentration chosen for this study, was within the concentration stated in the
122 literature for chemical industry wastewater [9]. 2-FP was chosen as a model fluorinated
123 compound present in industrial effluents, and the concentration used in the present study is
124 similar to those present in wastewater from other studies [20].

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126

127 **Table 1** - 2-FP and NaCl concentrations at the inlet fed to the reactor throughout its operation.

Phase	Duration (operation days)	Inlet concentration	
		2-FP (mg/L)	NaCl (g/L)
I	132 (d0 – d132)	0	0
II	6 (d133 - d139)	0	1.4
III	6 (d140 – d146)	20.0	1.4
IV	6 (d147 - d153)	0	3.1
V	6 (d154 – d160)	20.0	3.1
VI	6 (d161 - d167)	0	6.5
VII	6 (d168 – d174)	20.0	6.5
VIII	6 (d175 - d181)	0	6.5
IX	6 (d182 – d188)	20.0	6.5
X	81 (d189 - d270)	0	1.4

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129 **2.2 Analytical methods**

130 The granular sludge bed-volume was determined after 3 min settling using a graduated scale
 131 placed on the reactor column. Effluent total suspended solids (TSS) and volatile suspended
 132 solids (VSS) were analyzed in accordance with standard methods [26].

133 Samples collected from the inlet, influent and effluent bioreactor were filtered in order to
 134 remove biomass using non-sterile syringe membrane filters, 0.45 µm pore size (Chromafil®
 135 PET filters, Macherey-Nagel, Germany). Quantification of phosphate (PO₄³⁻-P), ammonium
 136 (NH₄⁺-N), nitrite (NO₂⁻-N), and nitrate (NO₃⁻-N) was performed as described by Amorim et al.
 137 [27]. Phosphate and ammonium removal efficiency were calculated using the following
 138 equation: Removal efficiency (%) = (C_i-C_f) ×100 / C_i, where C_i and C_f are the inlet and effluent
 139 concentrations of phosphate or ammonium.

140 2-FP quantification was performed using a modified HPLC method described by Duque et al.
 141 [20]. Modification of the method was as followed: flow rate of 1 mL/min; mobile phase
 142 consisting of 60% (v/v) acetonitrile and 40% (v/v) water acidified with trifluoroacetic acid;
 143 running time of 7 min (elution time ca. 3.2 min); compound detection at 210 nm using a
 144 diode array detector. Quantification of fluorine ions in the influent and effluent filtrate was
 145 measured by a potentiometric method as described by Duque et al. [20].

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147 **2.3 Image analysis**

148 AGS from the lab-scale bioreactor, before and during stress conditions, was collected to
149 assess morphology by image analysis. Granules were collected simultaneously to the ones
150 collected for EPS extraction and biochemical characterization. Four samples were collected
151 during phase I (due to its higher duration) and one sample per phase was collected during
152 phases II-X. After granules collection (during the aeration phase of the treatment cycle),
153 samples were subjected to a procedure described elsewhere to preserved biomass
154 properties until analysis [28]. Image analysis evaluated the equivalent diameter (Deq), area
155 (%), number (%), and roundness of granules as described elsewhere [21,29,30].

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157 **2.4 Extraction and characterization of EPS from granules**

158 EPS extraction was done using sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3), heat (80°C) and magnetic
159 stirring. This extraction procedure rendered a higher yield than other commonly used
160 procedures tested by Felz et al. [31]. Four consecutive extractions were performed using the
161 pellet obtained in each previous extraction to increase the extraction yield. Subsequently, an
162 acidic precipitation step was performed to extract structural EPS [31] and potentiate the EPS
163 compositional homogeneity [28]. EPS biochemical characterization was made using
164 colorimetric methods to access the proteins [32], polysaccharides [33] and humic acids like
165 contents [34].

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167 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

168 Statistical analysis was performed using the SPSS program (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL Version
169 26.0). Each EPS extraction comprised six replicates ($n=6$). Normal distribution was verified
170 with the Shapiro-Wilk test, $p > 0.05$ was considered significant. The statistical analysis was
171 carried out by one-way ANOVA and subsequent post-hoc Tukey comparison, with $p < 0.05$
172 established for significance, to investigate differences in the concentration of each EPS
173 component.

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176 3. Results and discussion

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178 3.1. AGS-SBR performance

179 3.1.1. 2-FP fate in the bioreactor

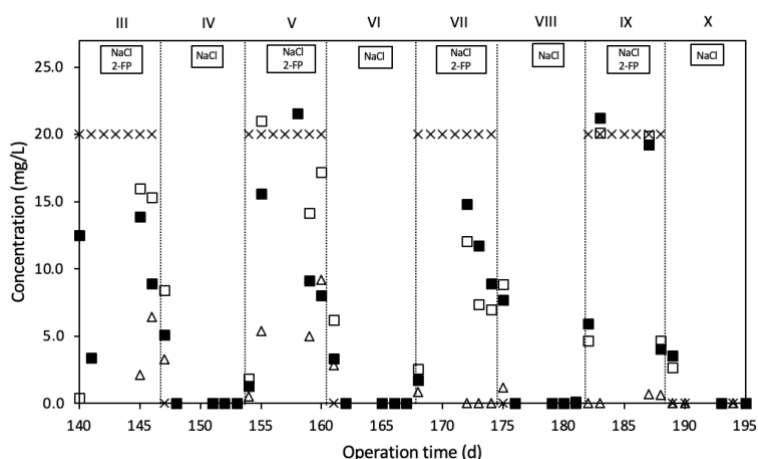
180 During phases I and II there was no addition of 2-FP to the inlet feeding, while salinity
181 increased during phase II. From phase III to IX the reactor was exposed to intermittent
182 loadings of 2-FP at a stepwise increase of salt concentration. 2-FP was continuously fed at
183 20.0 mg/L for six consecutive days followed by a period of six days without 2-FP feeding
184 (**Table 1**). **Figure 1** shows the profile of 2-FP concentration in the bioreactor. 2-FP was not
185 degraded during bioreactor operation which was also confirmed by the absence of fluorine
186 release. Additionally, metabolite formation was also not observed (data not shown). There
187 was no acclimatization of the biomass to the toxic compound, as also observed in previous
188 studies with the same compound [20,35]. Thus, removal of the toxic compound may have
189 occurred due to adsorption of 2-FP onto granules, similar to what was observed in a previous
190 study [35]. In the first cycle of each 2-FP feeding phases, the concentration of 2-FP after the
191 anaerobic feeding was found to be lower than expected based on the feeding concentration
192 and the dilution inside the reactor. Biomass adsorbed about 7.19 mg, 5.77 mg, 5.01 mg, and
193 2.93 mg of 2-FP in phases III, V, VII, and IX, respectively, with its sorption capacity decreasing
194 from 95 to 39%. This consistent decrease of 2-FP adsorption onto granules at the beginning
195 of successive phases may have been due to the stepwise salinity increase. In fact, NaCl may
196 have competed with 2-FP for adsorption binding sites, as reported by other studies [36–38].
197 Noteworthy, the amount of biomass inside the reactor during those phases was similar (bed
198 volume, section 3.2), which does not explain the variations in the amount of 2-FP adsorbed
199 to the biomass. During phases III (feeding with 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP and 1.4 g/L of NaCl) and V
200 (feeding with 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP and 3.1 g/L of NaCl), 2-FP concentration in the effluent was
201 found to be lower (ca. 13 and 53%, respectively) than that expected based on 2-FP
202 concentration detected in the influent after anaerobic feeding, indicating that the toxic
203 compound was further adsorbed during the aerobic period of the treatment cycle. In phases
204 VII and IX (feeding with 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP and 6.5 g/L of NaCl), adsorption of 2-FP to granules
205 during the aerobic period was less pronounced, with nearly all the 2-FP present in the
206 influent after anaerobic feeding being recovered at the outlet during the respective cycles.
207 Microbial cells and EPS in biofilms, including AGS, are key components responsible for

208 sorption phenomena. EPS constitutes a large fraction of the AGS composition [39], especially
 209 of the outermost layer of AGS biofilms, thus sorption of 2-FP onto granules was likely to
 210 occur. The EPS are mainly composed of proteins and polysaccharides, which contributed for
 211 the existence of different functional groups (e.g., carboxyl, hydroxyl, and amine moieties) at
 212 granules surface that represent sorption sites for the organic pollutants [4,40].

213 On the other hand, desorption of 2-FP occurred in the first cycle of phases after stopping 2-
 214 FP feeding (IV, VI, VIII, and X), as the concentration of 2-FP inside the reactor was found to
 215 be higher than expected based on effluent concentration from the previous cycle (fed with
 216 2-FP) and the dilution in the reactor. Desorption of 5.48, 2.05, 3.54, and 0.96 mg of 2-FP in
 217 the first cycle of phases IV, VI, VIII, and X, respectively, was observed. In these phases, 2-FP
 218 was detected in the first operation cycle in the influent after anaerobic feeding and in the
 219 effluent but not on the subsequent days.

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222

223 **Figure 1** - 2-FP concentration (mg/L) in SBR along phases III-X. 2-FP concentration (mg/L) in the inlet
 224 feeding (×), in the influent after anaerobic feeding (□), and in the effluent (■).

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226 3.1.2. Phosphate and ammonium removal

227 The concentrations of phosphate and nitrogen during the experimental period are shown in
 228 **Figure 2** (a). In the absence of salt and 2-FP in the feed (phase I), phosphate removal
 229 efficiency varied between 56% and 97%. During phases II-VI, an increase in the phosphate
 230 release during the anaerobic feeding, and a decrease in phosphate removal during the
 231 aerobic period were observed, probably as a result of the shock loads of 2-FP and salinity.

232 However, by the end of each of those phases there was an increase in the phosphorous
233 removal efficiency, which is an indication that the system was quickly adapting and starting
234 to recover the ability to remove phosphate. During phases VII-IX (feeding with 6.5 g/L of
235 NaCl and intermittent presence of 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP), the phosphate release during the
236 anaerobic feeding and phosphate removal efficiency stabilized (94-97%), indicating that the
237 2-FP shock loads and salinity were no longer affecting the system's ability to remove
238 phosphate as previously. Throughout phase X (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl), phosphate
239 removal efficiency increased from 6 to 70%, but did not achieve full removal during the
240 experimental period.

241 The concentration of ammonium in the bioreactor effluent during phase I was very low,
242 indicating high ammonium removal efficiency, around 98-100%. In phase II, the introduction
243 of salt in the feeding (1.4 g/L) did not affect the ammonium removal efficiency, which
244 remained at 100%. During phase III (feeding with 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP and 1.4 g/L of NaCl), a
245 decrease in the ammonium removal efficiency was observed, probably due to the first shock
246 load of 2-FP. From phase IV to phase IX, during which NaCl in the feeding medium increased
247 from 3.1 to 6.5 g/L and 2-FP was present intermittently, the ammonium removal efficiency
248 was extremely low, reaching 0%. However, when 2-FP was eliminated from the feeding
249 (phase X), the nitrification process was completely reestablished.

250 The main product of nitrification during phase I was nitrate, and its concentration in the
251 effluent reached 47 mg/L NO_3^- -N, indicating that complete nitrification occurred. During
252 phases III-IX (when 2-FP was intermittently introduced in the inlet feeding), low
253 concentrations of nitrite and nitrate were observed (0.1-0.4 mg/L NO_2^- -N and 1.1-3-2 mg/L
254 NO_3^- -N). After stopping 2-FP feeding, an increase in nitrite content was observed, reaching
255 7.4 mg/L NO_2^- -N (**Figure 2 c**), due to the recovery of the ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AOB)
256 activity in the granules and by the end of phase X complete nitrification was achieved,
257 indicating a recovery of the nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB).

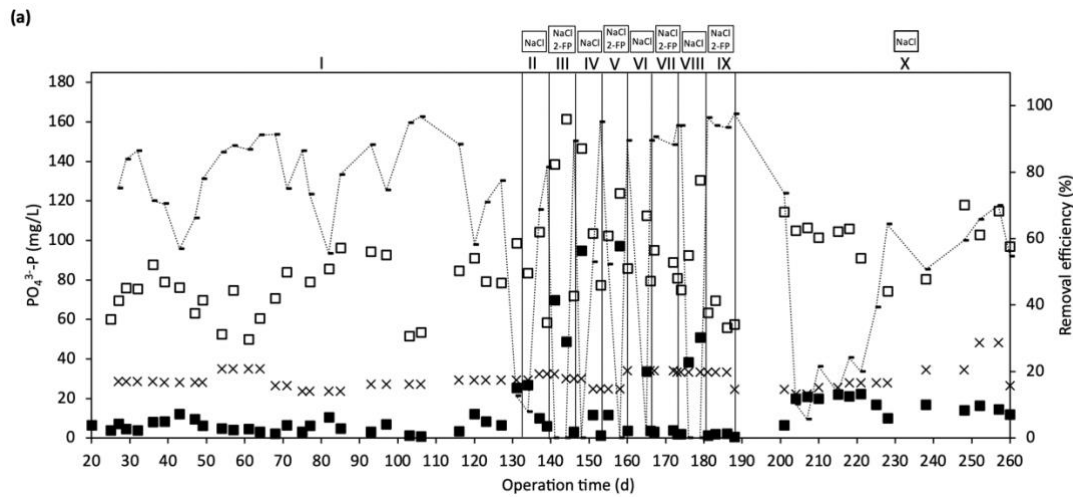
258 Several studies demonstrated that NaCl critically impairs the phosphate removal efficiency
259 of AGS [41–43]. Interestingly, de Graaff et al. [44] observed an effective enhanced biological
260 phosphate removal (EBPR) process performance by AGS fed with synthetic seawater, while
261 other research has shown a negative effect on operation of AGS processes with NaCl-based
262 wastewater at the same salinity as seawater. Pronk et al. [37] performed a study that
263 showed that an increase of up to 6.6 g/L Cl^- in the inlet feeding of an AGS-SBR system, led to

264 a decrease of phosphate uptake rates in the first days, recovering after a few days. Further
265 increase of the salt content in the inlet feeding caused phosphate uptake rates to decline.
266 Similarly, in the present study, phosphate uptake was affected by the gradual increase in
267 salinity, which would then recover days later. However, phosphate uptake was not
268 completely reestablished in phase X, when NaCl in the inlet feeding decreased to 1.4 g/L.
269 This observation is intrinsically connected to the nitrification process in the reactor. The
270 recovery of activity of AOB in phase X was not accompanied by the NOB, leading to the
271 accumulation of nitrite. Saito et al. [45], have reported the detrimental effect of nitrite on
272 phosphate removal efficiency. Nitrite at 2 mg/L NO_2^- -N caused a severe decrease on
273 polyphosphate-accumulating organisms (PAO) activity and a complete inhibition of the
274 aerobic phosphate uptake occurred above 6 mg/L NO_2^- -N. In the present study, when nitrite
275 accumulation decreased, around day-235, the phosphate removal efficiency started to
276 increase, reaching 70% by the end of the experimental period. The long exposure to nitrite
277 (24 days) could have had a detrimental effect on PAOs, leading to a reduction of this
278 microbial population, which takes time to be recovered, as reported by previous studies
279 [46].

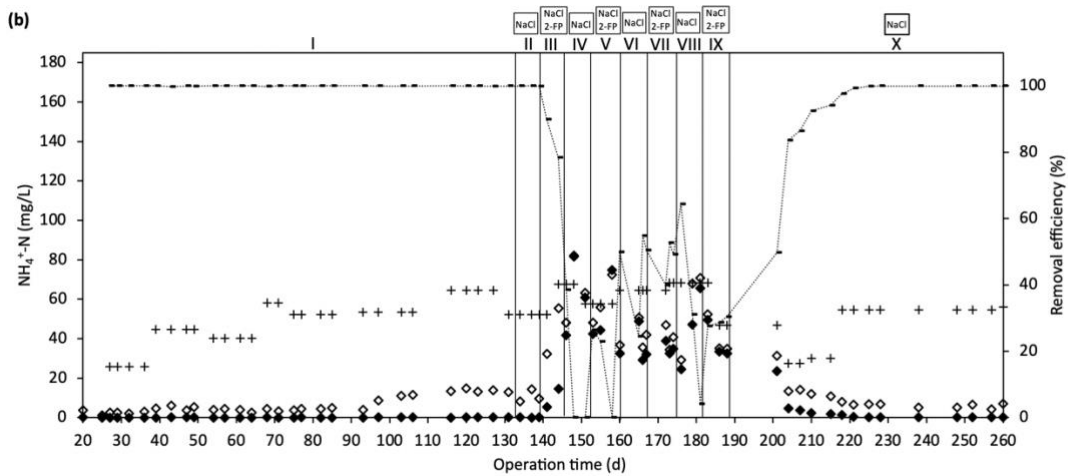
280 The addition of salt to the inlet feeding of up to 10 g/L of Cl^- had no negative effect on the
281 ammonium removal efficiency, as seen in previous studies [42,43,47]. Nevertheless,
282 ammonium removal was significantly impaired by the presence of halogenated phenolic
283 pollutants. Wei et al. [48] reported that the feeding of 10 mg/L of an halogenated phenol, 4-
284 chlorophenol, to an AGS-SBR system led to a decrease of ca. 59% in ammonium removal
285 efficiency. Lim et al. [49] and Jemaat et al. [23] described a strong inhibitory effect of 2,4-
286 dichlorophenol and 2-chlorophenol, respectively, on ammonium removal of AGS bioreactors.
287 In another study Ramos et al. [21] performed the bioaugmentation of an AGS-SBR system
288 with a 2-FP specialized degrading strain, achieving partial nitrification and complete 2-FP
289 degradation. In the present study, without bioaugmentation no 2-FP removal occurred,
290 leading to the inhibition of the nitrification. Additionally, AOB seemed to be more affected
291 by 2-FP than PAO, as the phosphate removal recovered even during periods with 2-FP
292 presence. The layered structure of granules might cause this finding, as AOB (and NOB) are
293 mainly in the outer layer (aerobic zone) of granules and, consequently, more exposed to
294 toxics, than PAO that are in the inner layers [1,10,50].

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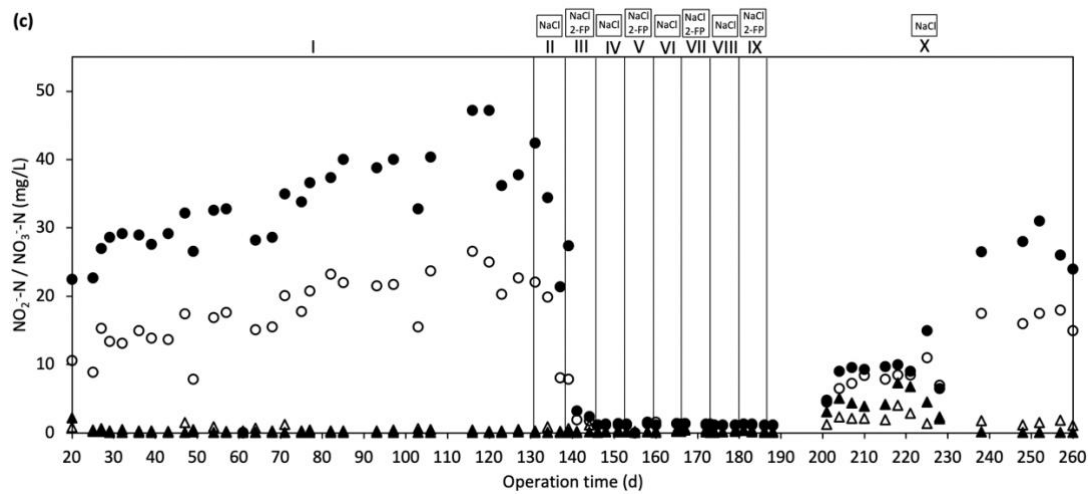
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299 **Figure 2** - PO_4^{3-} (a), NH_4^+ (b), and NO_2^- and NO_3^- (c) concentration profile along operation.
 300 Concentration (mg L^{-1}) of PO_4^{3-} in the inlet feeding (x), PO_4^{3-} in the influent after anaerobic feeding
 301 (\square), PO_4^{3-} in the effluent (\blacksquare), NH_4^+ in the inlet feeding (+), NH_4^+ in the influent after anaerobic feeding
 302 (\diamond), NH_4^+ in the effluent (\blacklozenge), NO_2^- in the influent after anaerobic feeding (\triangle), NO_2^- in the effluent (\blacktriangle),
 303 NO_3^- in the influent after anaerobic feeding (\circ), NO_3^- in the effluent (\bullet). PO_4^{3-} and NH_4^+ removal
 304 efficiencies (%) are presented in the corresponding graphics (dashed and dotted line).

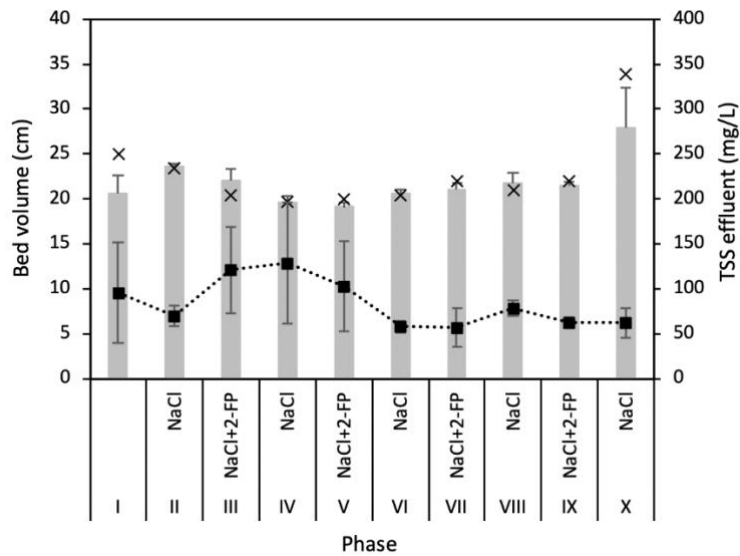
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3.2. AGS settling properties and morphology features

The bed volume of the AGS and solid content of the effluent of the bioreactor were regularly measured during the operation (**Figure 3**). When stress conditions started, in phase II (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl), the bed volume was maintained, and the solid content in the effluent showed low values indicating that the level of salinity applied did not cause a considerable detrimental effect on the AGS-SBR. Subsequently, after 2-FP feeding started, the bed volume started to decrease gradually, reaching its minimum values in phases IV (feeding with 3.1 g/L of NaCl) and V (20.0 mg/L of 2-FP and 3.1 g/L of NaCl), accompanied by an increase of the solid content in the effluent in those phases. Therefore, during phases IV and V, it is likely that granules were starting to disintegrate and break into smaller fragments, due to the presence of 2-FP and a higher salinity at the inlet medium. Nevertheless, in subsequent phases VI-IX, a slight increase of bed volume and a decrease of TSS were observed showing that after the initial disturbance observed due to the introduction of 2-FP in the feeding, the biomass was able to cope with the increase in salinity and with the intermittent load of 2-FP. In phase X (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl), after stopping 2-FP feeding, the bed volume increased, reaching its maximum value, and solids content in the effluent maintained low. Previous studies showed that feeding of AGS reactors with fluorinated compounds, such as fluoroquinolones (antibiotics) and fluoxetine (antidepressant) can lead to similar effects on AGS properties, decreasing sludge bed volume and increasing effluent solid content, which recovered and stabilized after ceasing the feeding with such compounds [51,52].

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331 **Figure 3** - Bed volume and effluent TSS profile during SBR operation. Columns represent the average
332 bed volume of each phase, data points represent the bed volume on the last day of each phase (x),
333 and average TSS in the effluent (■). Error bars represent the standard deviation.

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335 The morphological characteristics (Deq, area (%), number (%), and roundness) of the
336 granular biomass during the operational period are shown in **Figure 4** (a, b, c, and d,
337 respectively). The granules were classified according to their equivalent diameter into: small
338 granules (Deq < 150 μm), intermediate granules (150 \leq Deq < 1500 μm), and large granules
339 (Deq \geq 1500 μm). Minor variations of small and large granules Deq values were observed,
340 while intermediate granules Deq values suffered significant variations. With respect to
341 granules' area (%) and number (%), a generalized increase of intermediate granules and a
342 decrease of large granules occurred throughout operation, which indicated that large
343 granules could have broken into intermediate size granules. Exceptionally, during phases IV
344 (feeding with 3.1 g/L of NaCl) and X (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl), a significant decrease of
345 the number (%) of intermediate granules was observed, from 76 to 65% and from 91 to 70%,
346 ultimately leading to an increase of small granules number (%) from 18 to 33% and from 6 to
347 29%, respectively. Likely, breakage of intermediate granules into smaller ones occurred due
348 to the stress conditions applied. Results from bed volume and effluent solids content (**Figure**
349 **3**) suggest that in phase IV, the granules' breakage process resulted not only in smaller
350 granules but also in washed-out solid content debris. Granules' breakage process and the

351 observed increase of effluent solids content may likely be associated with the release of
352 dispersed bacteria to the bulk, possibly leading to the loss of slow-growing nitrifying
353 bacteria, that grow at the granules outer layer, as reported by Bassin et al. [53]. Results in
354 section 3.1.2 corroborate this hypothesis, as the lowest ammonium removal efficiencies
355 occurred in phase IV.

356 On the other hand, in phase X, the obtained small granules remained in the bioreactor
357 contributing to the bed volume increase (**Figure 3**). Previous studies indicate that
358 intermediate and small granules are often originated from the breakage of large granules as
359 the originated fragments will act as a viable seed material for subsequent re-growth of
360 fragments [21,28]. In fact, such changes in the granules' diameter were accompanied by an
361 increase on the efficiency of the nitrification processes which is probably related with
362 changes in the oxygen concentration gradient within the granules, as reported in previous
363 studies [54,55]. Furthermore, contrarily to that observed in phase IV, in phase X, the
364 ammonium removal process completely recovered (section 3.1.2.), indicating that the
365 granules' breakage process and subsequent loss of functional biomass was less pronounced.
366 Nevertheless, in phase X the bioreactor community was exposed to a lower salinity for a
367 longer period (1.4 g/L of NaCl for 81 days) than in phase IV (3.1 g/L of NaCl for 6 days), which
368 may have contributed for the system's nitrification recovery.

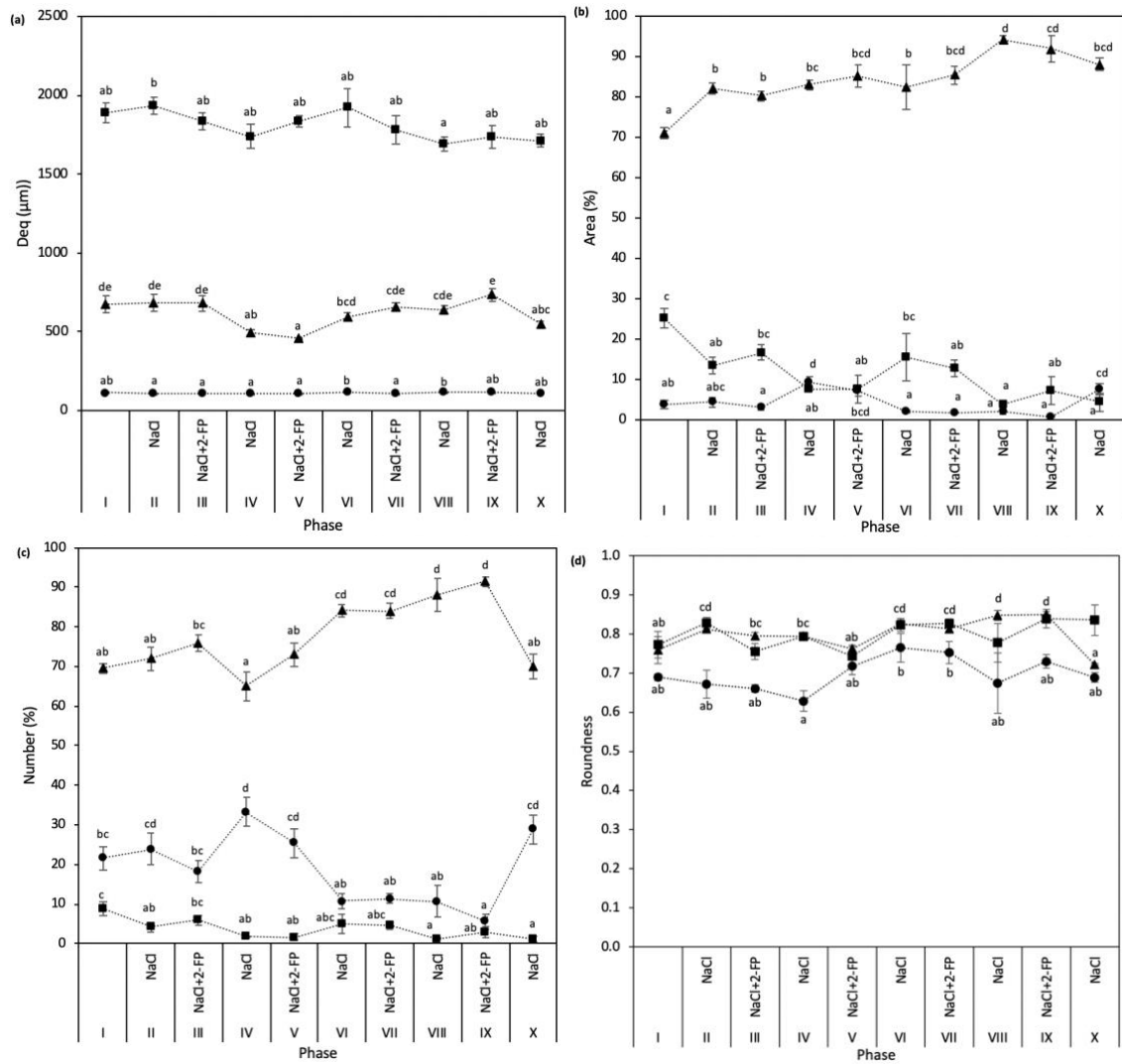
369 Amorim et al. [27] had also reported an increase of the number (%) of intermediate granules
370 ($500 \leq Deq < 1000 \mu m$) during the feeding of an AGS-SBR system with a mixture of chiral
371 pharmaceuticals. A previous study by Oliveira et al. [28], which evaluated the morphological
372 characteristics of AGS biomass from a full-scale Nereda® reactor in Frielas, Portugal,
373 revealed that small granules predominated in numbers in the bioreactor, but large granules
374 had the higher area (%). However, full-scale and lab-scale AGS systems are subject to
375 different conditions, which could be the basis for the observed contrasting results regarding
376 granules size predominance. A study by Mesquita et al. [56] indicated that results obtained
377 with synthetic wastewater cannot be directly extrapolated to real wastewater.

378 The granules roundness, a morphology feature indicative of granular stability, differ
379 significantly throughout operation for the small and intermediate granules, whereas large
380 granules showed consistent roundness (**Figure 4 d**). Images of granules depicting the three
381 defined size classes from day-33 (at the beginning of phase I, where no stress conditions
382 were applied), day-188 (phase IX, the last phase of 2-FP feeding), and day-270 (phase X, at

383 the end of bioreactor operation) are shown in **Figure 5**. At the end of bioreactor operation
384 granules appear to be more irregularly shaped and less spherical than at the start of
385 operation. The applied stress conditions could be the basis for the observed appearance
386 modification. In phase X, after stopping 2-FP feeding, the bed volume increased, reaching its
387 maximum value, while the solids content in the effluent remained low (**Figure 3**).
388 Nonetheless, the bed volume increase in phase X could be due to a biomass production
389 increase, but also due to the increase of interstitial spaces between irregularly shaped
390 granules.

391 Overall, image analysis allowed to observe that during the operation of the reactor the
392 biomass remained relatively stable, although in two periods (phases IV and X) slight granules
393 breakage phenomena was observed due to the stressors feeding. However, AGS has proven
394 to be a dynamic system, able to cope with the introduced stress conditions reestablishing
395 the nutrient removal performance as shown in section 3.1.2.

396

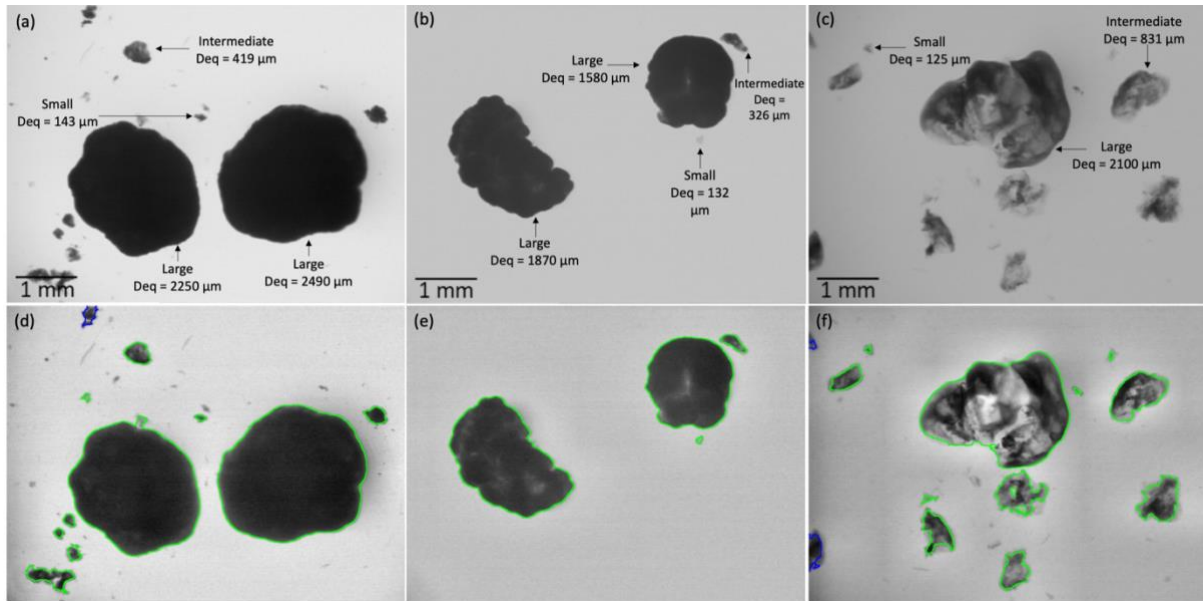


397

398

399 **Figure 4** - The biomass was divided into three granule size classes according to its Deq: small granules
 400 (●), intermediate (▲), and large (■). Deq (a), area (%) of granules of each size (b), number (%) of
 401 granules of each size (c), and roundness of each size (d). Phase I data points represent the average of
 402 the last sample of this phase. Three samples (n=3) of granules were used for image analysis. Marks
 403 and error bars represent average and standard deviation of the evaluated parameters. Means that
 404 do not share a letter in the mark of the same group differed significantly according to Tukey's test at
 405 $p < 0.05$; roundness of large granules did not differ significantly, and therefore, the letters on that
 406 graph correspond only to small and intermediate granules.

407



408

409 **Figure 5** - Image acquisition of granules from (a) operation day-33 (phase I), day- 188 (phase IX), (c)
 410 day-270 (end of bioreactor operation, phase X). Granules Deq are indicated in each image. Granules
 411 as they are recognized by the software from (d) day-33, (e) day- 188 and (f) day-270 are also shown.

412

413 3.3. EPS characterization

414 EPS was extracted from the granules sampled in different phases. Total EPS concentration
 415 was considered to be the sum of proteins, polysaccharides and humic acids. **Figure 6** shows
 416 the concentration of each EPS component (mg/g_{VSS of AGS}) and the protein-polysaccharide
 417 ratio (PN/PS).

418 Total EPS concentration recovered from AGS differed significantly between samples, ranging
 419 from 33.7 ± 8.8 to 176.1 ± 19.6 mg/g_{VSS of AGS}, obtained in phase VII day-174 and phase X day-
 420 270, respectively. Proteins were the main component in all EPS samples, followed by humic
 421 acids and polysaccharides. PN/PS ratios varied between 6.3 ± 1.2 and 17.5 ± 6.7 , observed in
 422 phase VI (day-165) and phase VIII (day-181), respectively. The introduction of stress
 423 conditions, from phase II to VI, was characterized by a decrease on both proteins and
 424 polysaccharides content. However, proteins decrease was less pronounced than
 425 polysaccharides, rendering a higher PN/PS ratio. Sheng et al. [57] and Li et al. [58] also
 426 observed a PN/PS ratio increase in the presence of halogenated phenols, due to the increase
 427 of protein concentration. Granules sustain their structure at a high PN/PS ratio. The high
 428 PN/PS ratio range indicates that the stress conditions affected granular structure and
 429 stability, as seen in previous studies [59,60].

430 During phase I, EPS concentration had small variations and only humic acids showed
431 significant differences between sample from day-33 and day-124 ($p < 0.05$); polysaccharides,
432 proteins and total EPS concentration showed no significant differences during this phase.
433 From phase II (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl) to phase VII (feeding with 6.5 g/L of NaCl and
434 20.0 mg/L of 2-FP in intermittent load), a generalized decrease of EPS concentration was
435 observed, as well as of the concentration of each EPS individual component. The
436 intermittent presence of 2-FP in the feeding complemented with the increasing salinity
437 affected the EPS production, leading to a minimum EPS concentration observed in phase VII.
438 On subsequent phases VIII and IX, in which the salinity concentration was maintained, and 2-
439 FP was present intermittently, an increase of EPS concentration was observed, showing that
440 the AGS system was able to deal with the toxic and salt stresses through the production of
441 EPS. At the end of phase X (feeding with 1.4 g/L of NaCl), EPS characterization revealed that
442 all EPS components increased, with proteins and total EPS exhibiting their maximum
443 concentration values during reactor operation.

444 EPS accumulates on the cells surface forming a protective barrier against the external
445 environment [3,6], shielding bacteria inside the granules from toxicity, and contributing for
446 the treatment processes resilience [61,62]. Furthermore, EPS contributes for the capacity of
447 aggregation, mass transfer, structural stability, biosorption and biodegradation of AGS [7].
448 Nonetheless, when EPS concentration in the aerobic granules was higher, phase I and X,
449 bioreactor performance was also at its highest efficiency, indicating once again the
450 protective function of EPS. Sheng et al. [57] and Li et al. [58], demonstrated that EPS
451 production increased in the presence of toxics, however, toxics were introduced in the
452 influent media as the only stress condition. Figueroa et al. [47] reported that granule
453 formation was hampered when treating saline wastewater from a fish canning industry (9
454 g/L Cl^-), which was related to the lack of EPS production by the biomass. Contrarily, Pronk et
455 al. [37] did not observe a detrimental effect on granule formation nor on effluent quality at
456 the same chloride ion concentration (9 g/L Cl^-). Interestingly, in the present study, EPS
457 production decreased successively in the early influent transient states of 2-FP and NaCl
458 (phases III-VII), even though, salinity levels used were lower than the ones in the study by
459 Figueroa et al. [47] and Pronk et al. [37]. 2-FP and NaCl could have had a synergistic effect in
460 the decrease of EPS production. At the lowest EPS concentration, detected in phase VII, a
461 possible EPS threshold was achieved, triggering the production of EPS by bacteria, as an

462 adaptation strategy, contributing for the maintenance of the granular strength, avoiding the
463 total disintegration of the granules, stimulating the self-aggregation ability during stress
464 conditions, and ultimately protecting functional bacteria responsible for nutrient removal.
465 Hence, in later transient states (phases VIII-X), in what appears to be a phase of adaptation
466 and recovery of EPS-producing bacteria, EPS concentration started to increase. The
467 increased EPS production in response to toxic stress in the influent, could be a late response,
468 rather than immediate, and be preceded by a concentration decrease, as seen in this study.
469 The observed recovery of EPS production could have contributed to bioreactor performance
470 maintenance, thus, protecting AOB, NOB and PAO communities, to some extent, from toxic
471 feeding. Moreover, the increased production of EPS likely allowed that granules exhibited
472 higher sorption capacity for the toxic substances, trapping them and avoiding their
473 penetration into the cells. Indeed, several process parameters can have an effect on the
474 granule structure and stability, and therefore, an effect on effluent quality as shown by
475 Wilén et al. [50]. Results in sections 3.1.2 showed that phase IV-V and V-IX have the lowest
476 phosphate and ammonium removal efficiencies, respectively, however, the lowest EPS
477 concentration was observed in phase VII. This indicates that influent stress conditions have
478 more immediate impact on the phosphate and ammonium removal efficiencies, affecting
479 PAO and AOB, than on EPS production activity, which seemed to be more resilient.

480 Interestingly, at the lowest EPS concentration in the AGS biomass (phase VII), no significant
481 granules' breakage or desintegration process were observed. However, in phase X, when EPS
482 concentration reached its maximum value, intermediate size granules broke into smaller
483 ones (section 3.2). In fact, Corsino et al. [63] reported that excess of EPS production is
484 responsible for the clogging of granules porosity, leading to their breakage; whereas
485 prolonged famine periods are characterized by EPS consumption by bacteria and,
486 consequently, limited clogging of granules porosity.

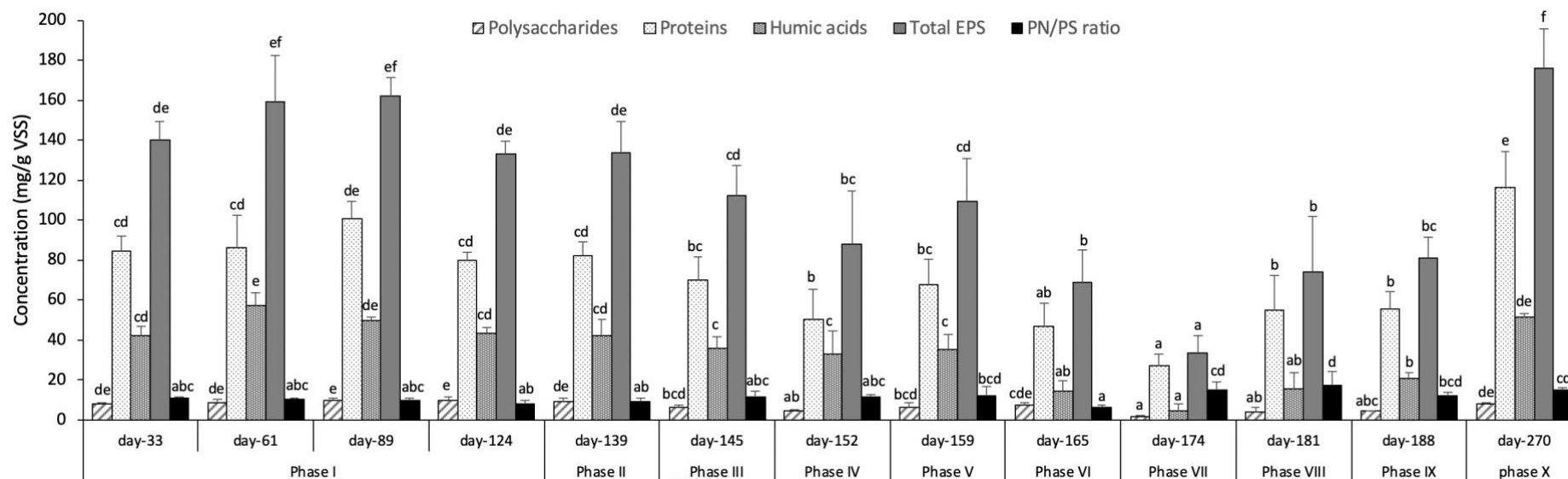
487 Salinity can potentially disrupt biofilm composition and the EPS structure. Hence, granules
488 size and biomass yield was shown to decrease in some studies [38,39]. Additionally, the
489 presence of salts in complex matrices, such as industrial wastewaters, can intensify the
490 inhibitory effect of organic pollutants [36]. Studies regarding the effect of salt and toxic
491 pollutants on the simultaneous biological nutrient removal and EPS production are difficult
492 to compare and often show different results. The reason for the distinct results obtained can
493 be explained by the different experimental conditions, namely, pH, temperature, the salt

494 and toxic compounds concentrations, the way the salts and toxics are introduced in the
495 system (as a pulse or gradual increase), the bacterial species present in the reactor (adapted
496 or non-adapted), the organic pollutant introduced itself, and also the EPS extraction
497 technique used.

498 Studies correlating EPS production and bioreactor performance in the presence of simulated
499 industrial wastewater that introduces pollutants intermittently, in addition to salinity, are
500 not reported to the best of our knowledge. In the present study the use of influent transient
501 states introduces influent compositional changes (6 days duration) that could prevent the
502 microbial community to adapt in terms of EPS production and simultaneous biological
503 nutrient removal. In addition, the presence of the toxic compound indeed caused
504 performance and EPS production disturbances, which were later recovered, emphasizing the
505 robustness of AGS systems in dealing with intermittent presence of toxics in saline
506 wastewater. This study thus highlights the importance of EPS producing microorganisms to
507 avoid the deterioration of nitrification and phosphate removal processes, through the
508 protection of key microorganisms, leading to an improvement of effluent quality.

509

510



511

512 **Figure 6** – EPS characterization based on the polysaccharides, proteins, humic acids, and total EPS. Means that do not share a letter in columns of the same
513 group differed significantly according to Tukey’s test at p<0.05.

514

515

516 **4. Conclusions**

517 An AGS-SBR was operated under different regimes of 2-FP and NaCl feeding, simulating the
518 variability in industrial wastewater. As main conclusions:

- 519 - Indigenous AGS population did not degrade 2-FP.
- 520 - Ammonium removal was inhibited during 2-FP feeding but was completely
521 reestablished upon ceasing its supply.
- 522 - Phosphate removal quickly adapted to stressors load. When ceasing 2-FP supply,
523 nitrite accumulation inhibited PAO's activity, reestablished when nitrite levels
524 decreased.
- 525 - EPS concentration decreased upon the initial exposure to stressors, but granule's EPS
526 content increased later even in the presence of stress conditions. Although EPS
527 production response was not immediate, it was efficient in maintaining the system
528 performance.
- 529 - AGS is a robust wastewater system able to adapt to the stepwise salinity increase and
530 the intermittent presence of 2-FP, increasing the EPS production and restoring the
531 nutrient removal efficiency after the withdrawal of 2-FP from the inlet stream.

532

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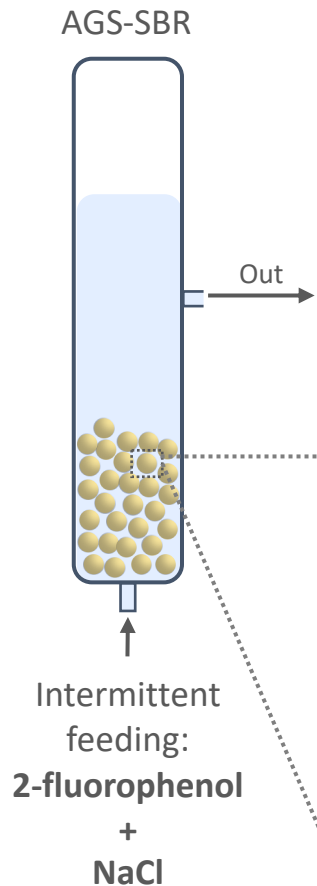
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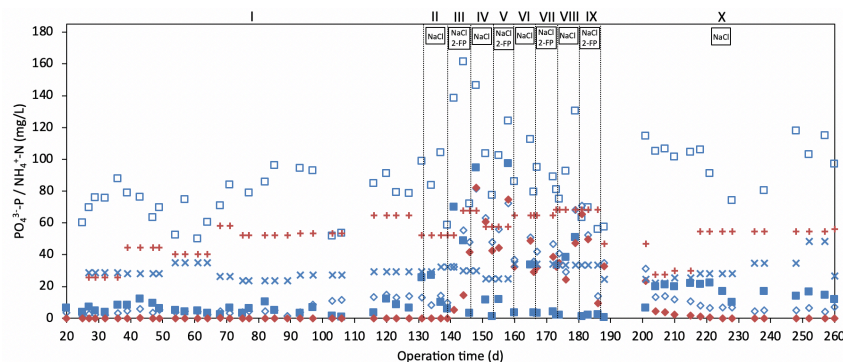
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Highlights

- Lab-scale AGS-SBR intermittently fed with 2-fluorophenol and NaCl
- Ammonium removal impaired by 2-FP, but reestablished when 2-FP feeding ceased
- Phosphate removal recovered after the initial exposure to stress conditions
- Increased EPS production in later phases in responding to stress shocks
- Stressors had more immediate effects on nutrients removal than on EPS production

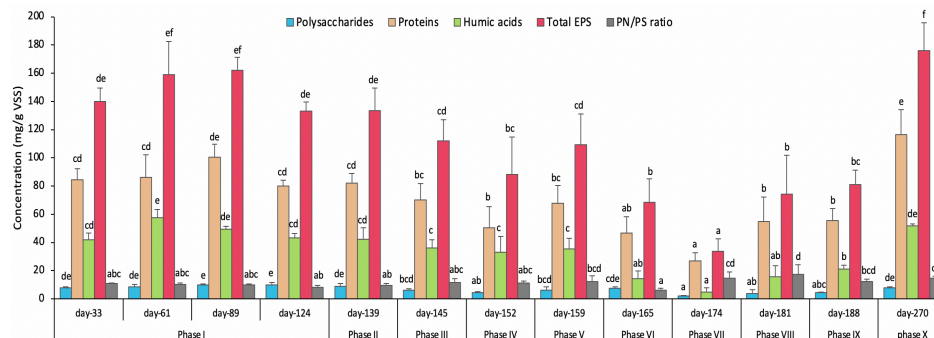


Bioreactor performance evaluation



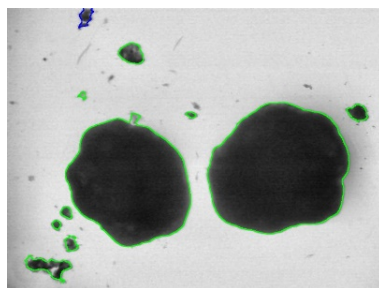
- NH₄⁺ removal impaired by 2-FP
- PO₄³⁻ removal recovered after the initial exposure to stressors

EPS characterization



- Feeding of stressors affected the EPS production
- Possible EPS threshold was achieved, triggering EPS production increase in later phases of stressors feeding

Granules morphology



- Slight granules' breakage phenomena occurred due to stressors feeding