

1 **TITLE PAGE**

2 *Title:*

3 Low-dissolved-oxygen nitrification in tropical sewage: an investigation on potential,  
4 performance and functional microbial community

5 *Short Title:*

6 Low-DO nitrification in tropical sewage

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## 21 **Abstract**

22 Intensive aeration for nitrification is a major energy consumer in sewage treatment plants  
23 (STPs). Low-dissolved-oxygen (low-DO) nitrification has the potential to lower the aeration  
24 demand. However, the applicability of low-DO nitrification in the tropical climate is not well-  
25 understood. In this study, the potential of low-DO nitrification in tropical setting was first  
26 examined using batch kinetic experiments. Subsequently, the performance of low-DO  
27 nitrification was investigated in a lab-scale sequential batch reactor (SBR) for 42 days using  
28 real tropical sewage. The batch kinetic experiments showed that the seed sludge has a relatively  
29 high oxygen affinity. Thus, the rate of nitrification was not significantly reduced at low DO  
30 concentrations (0.5 mg/L). During the operation of the low-DO nitrification SBR, 90% of NH<sub>4</sub>-  
31 N was removed. The active low-DO nitrification was mainly attributed to the limited  
32 biodegradable organics in the sewage. Fluorescence in-situ hybridisation and 16S rRNA  
33 amplicon sequencing revealed the nitrifiers were related to *Nitrospira* genus and  
34 *Nitrosomonadaceae* family. Phylogenetic analysis suggests 47% of the Operational Taxonomic  
35 Units (OTUs) in *Nitrospira* genus is closely related to a comammox bacteria. This study has  
36 demonstrated active low-DO nitrification in tropical setting, which is a more sustainable  
37 process that could significantly reduce the energy footprint of STPs.

## 38 **Keywords**

39 Activated sludge; ammonia-oxidizing bacteria; biological nitrogen removal; nitrification;  
40 *Nitrospira*; tropical climate

## 41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Malaysia is a tropical country rich in water resources. However, many of these water resources  
43 are polluted with excessive levels of nitrogen. The major nitrogenous pollutant is ammoniacal  
44 nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub>-N), which is mainly discharged to the environment through inadequately treated

45 sewage and agricultural-based industries. Consequently,  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  removal from sewage is  
46 important if the water quality is to be preserved. For example, high ammonia concentration  
47 may cause fish toxicity in aquatic environment. Therefore, the Environmental Quality (Sewage)  
48 Regulation 2009 (DOE 2009) was enacted to limit  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  concentration discharged from  
49 sewage treatment plants (STPs) to 5 mg/L.

50 Ammonia removal from sewage is usually achieved by nitrification. Nitrification is typically  
51 considered a two-step process in which ammonia is oxidised into nitrite in the first step. Nitrite  
52 is then oxidised into nitrate in the second step. The theoretical oxygen demand for this process  
53 is 4.57 g  $\text{O}_2$ /g  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  (Tchobanoglous *et al.* 2014). Thus, a high dissolved oxygen (DO) level  
54 (> 2 mg/L) is recommended to ensure complete nitrification. Maintaining a high DO level in  
55 the aerobic tank requires a large amount of energy.

56 There are several proposed processes with the potential to reduce the energy consumption of  
57 an STP including, Single reactor High activity Ammonia Removal Over Nitrite (SHARON),  
58 Anaerobic ammonium oxidation (Anammox) and low-DO nitrification. Low-DO nitrification  
59 has been widely studied in lab-scale and pilot-scale reactors (Hanaki *et al.* 1990; Bellucci *et al.*  
60 2011; Arnaldos *et al.* 2013). Bellucci *et al.* (2011) and Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) reported complete  
61  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  oxidation at low DO concentrations but produced contradictory results. Bellucci *et al.*  
62 (2011) did not find any difference in the  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  oxidation rate between their low DO (0.5 mg/L)  
63 and high DO (3 mg/L) reactors. On the other hand, Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) reported a  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$   
64 oxidation rate in low-DO reactor (0.1 mg/L) half of that in their saturated DO reactor. Hanaki  
65 *et al.* (1990) has also studied the interaction between DO, organic loading and nitrification  
66 activity. They found that the observed oxygen half-saturation constant for nitrifiers increased  
67 when carbon source was added. This suggests organic loading may inhibit nitrification at low  
68 DO concentrations.

69 The microbial community structure of the nitrifying sludge at low DO concentrations is  
70 believed to differ from conventional high DO nitrifying community. Active nitrification in low  
71 DO condition has been linked to an increase in oxygen affinity in both ammonia-oxidizing  
72 bacteria (AOB) and nitrite-oxidising bacteria (NOB) (Daebal *et al.* 2007; Arnaldos *et al.* 2013;  
73 Keene *et al.* 2017). Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) and Fitzgerald *et al.* (2015) found that *Nitrosomonas*  
74 *sp.* were the abundant AOB in low DO condition. Daebal *et al.* (2007) reported that the NOB  
75 could develop an affinity for oxygen that is equal or higher than AOB. Low DO condition have  
76 also been found to change the composition of NOB by enriching *Nitrospira*-like organisms.  
77 *Nitrospira* are considered to be K-strategists due to their competitive advantage for oxygen  
78 over *Nitrobacter*-related NOB, which is an r-strategist (Liu & Wang 2013).

79 The foregoing studies were all undertaken in temperate regions. The biological nitrogen  
80 removal process is not well-understood in the tropical region, where the sewage temperature is  
81 around 30°C (Ong *et al.* 2013). High temperature (30°C) is known to accelerate the rate of  
82 microbial metabolisms, consequently the rate of biological reactions is also increased. This  
83 study aims to both take advantage of high rate of nitrification in tropical climate and address  
84 the knowledge gap of nitrification in the tropics by investigating the efficiency of ammonia  
85 removal from real sewage at low DO concentrations. Batch kinetic experiments were first  
86 conducted to evaluate the effect of DO on specific ammonia uptake rate (SAUR). After the  
87 potential of low-DO nitrification was validated by batch experiments, the performance of NH<sub>4</sub>-  
88 N removal efficiency in a low-DO nitrification sequential batch reactor (SBR) was assessed.  
89 In addition, 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and fluorescence in-situ hybridisation (FISH)  
90 were used to investigate the microbial community structure of the low-DO nitrifying sludge.

## 91 **METHODS**

### 92 **Sampling of seed sludge and sewage**

93 Grab samples of return activated sludge (RAS) and sewage after preliminary treatment were  
94 acquired from a municipal STP in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, henceforth referred to as STP A.  
95 The plant is operating with extended aeration system combined with preanoxic tank, while the  
96 preliminary treatment in STP A includes bar screen and aerated grit chamber. The samples  
97 were stored at 4°C prior to use.

### 98 **Batch kinetic experiments of DO effect**

99 The procedure of kinetic experiments is adapted from van Loosdrecht *et al.* (2016). A 1-L jar  
100 test was used for the batch kinetic experiments. The reaction mixture for the experiment was  
101 made up of concentrated sludge from STP A, tap water, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl solution and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution.  
102 The initial concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub>-N and alkalinity in the reaction mixture were 20 mg/L and  
103 200 mg/L as CaCO<sub>3</sub> respectively. The pH of the mixture was adjusted to between 7.5 and 8.0  
104 at the beginning of kinetic experiment. The kinetic experiment was performed at DO set points  
105 of 0 mg/L, 0.25 mg/L, 1.25 mg/L, 2.25 mg/L, 3.25 mg/L, 5.25 mg/L and 6.5 mg/L. Compressed  
106 air was sparged into the reaction mixture and a solenoid valve that connects to DO sensor was  
107 used to control the DO level in the reaction mixture. Mixed liquor samples were taken  
108 periodically for anion and cation analyses.

### 109 **SBR operation for low-DO nitrification**

110 The working volume of the SBR was 2 L. Seed sludge obtained from STP A was inoculated  
111 into the SBR to achieve initial total suspended solid (TSS) concentration of around 2500 mg/L.  
112 The initial TSS concentration of 2500 mg/L was selected based on typical MLSS concentration  
113 range suggested by Tchobanoglous *et al.* (2014). Sewage obtained from STP A was fed into

114 the SBR as influent. The SBR was operated in 6-hour cycle, including 5 minutes filling phase;  
115 300 minutes reaction phase; 50 minutes settling phase; 4 minutes decanting phase and 1 minute  
116 idling phase. Overhead stirring mechanism was used for both mixing and aeration to maintain  
117 low DO condition in the reactor. The impeller designed rotational speed was 300 rpm to ensure  
118 that the DO concentration during the 300-minute reaction phase was lower than 0.5 mg/L. The  
119 SBR was operated with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 15 hours and SRT of 20 days,  
120 which corresponds to effluent withdrawal rate of 0.8 L/cycle and sludge wastage rate of 50  
121 mL/cycle. However, HRT was shortened to 10 hours (effluent withdrawal rate = 1.2 L/cycle)  
122 after 21 days of reactor operation due to excessive accumulation of  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  in the reactor. The  
123 DO concentration, temperature and pH were monitored online using InPro6850i DO probe  
124 coupled with M300 Process 1-channel 1/2 DIN DO monitor (Mettler-Toledo, U.S.) and Ceragel  
125 CPS71D digital pH sensor (Endress + Hauser, Germany). Mixed liquor samples were taken  
126 from the reactor at regular interval for chemical analyses listed in the next subsection.

### 127 **Chemical analyses**

128 The TSS and volatile suspended solid (VSS) concentrations of the samples collected from SBR  
129 were analysed in accordance to the standard method (APHA 1998). Mixed liquor samples from  
130 SBR and batch kinetic experiments were filtered through 0.2- $\mu\text{m}$  membrane filter immediately.  
131 The filtered samples were analysed for nitrite ion ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ), nitrate ion ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and ammonium ion  
132 ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) concentrations using 861 Advanced Compact Ion Chromatography (Metrohm,  
133 Switzerland). The total nitrogen (TN) concentration of the samples was analysed using TOC-  
134 V CSN total organic carbon analyser coupled with TNM-1 nitrogen measuring unit (Shimadzu,  
135 Japan). The samples were filtered through 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$  membrane filter prior to TN analysis. In  
136 addition, chemical oxygen demand (COD) was analysed using high range COD test kit with  
137 DRB 200 COD digester (Hach, U.S.).

138 **DNA extraction and library preparation for 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing**

139 Sludge samples were collected weekly for DNA extraction using NucleoSpin Soil DNA  
140 Extraction Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Germany). All the DNA samples (day 0, 7, 14, 21, 28, 35 and  
141 42) was then amplified using FastStart High Fidelity PCR System (Roche Diagnostics Ltd.,  
142 UK). The V4 and V5 regions of the 16S rRNA genes were amplified using a pair of barcoded  
143 universal primers F515/R926 targeting both bacteria and archaea (F515: 5'- GTG CCA GCM  
144 GCC GCG GTA A -3'; R926: 5'- CCG TCA ATT CCT TTR AGT TT -3'). Each DNA  
145 template was amplified in a 50 µL PCR reaction mixture, which consists of 1.0 µL of each  
146 primer set (10 µM), 6.5 µL of High Fidelity PCR Master (Sigma-Aldrich, UK), 40.5 µL  
147 molecular grade water (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) and 1.0 µL of DNA extract. The PCR  
148 amplification was performed in a thermocycler Techne TC-5000 (Bibby Scientific, UK) with  
149 initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min. Subsequently, 30 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30  
150 seconds, annealing at 55°C for 30 seconds and elongation at 72°C for 45 seconds were carried  
151 out, followed by final elongation at 72°C for 7 min.

152 PCR amplified product was purified using AGENCOURT AMPure XP beads (Beckman  
153 Coulter, Ireland). The purified PCR samples were then quantified using Qubit<sup>TM</sup> dsDNA HS  
154 Assay Kits with the use of Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, U.S.). Prior to amplicon  
155 sequencing, all the purified and quantified PCR samples were diluted to 500 pM each and  
156 pooled together. Size selection on the pooled samples was performed using Pippin Prep System  
157 (Sage Science, U.S.) as recommended for Ion Torrent workflow. Clonal amplification of the  
158 DNA fragments onto Ion Sphere<sup>TM</sup> Particles (ISP) and ISPs enrichment were performed using  
159 Ion OneTouch 2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, U.S.) prior to amplicon sequencing on Ion Torrent  
160 Personal Genome Machine (PGM<sup>TM</sup>) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, U.S.).

## 161 **Post-sequencing bioinformatics analyses**

162 The \*.*fasta* and \*.*qual* files were processed using Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology  
163 (QIIME) v1.8.0 open-source software package with the workflow described by Caporaso *et al.*  
164 (2010). The barcoded sequences were first demultiplexed and trimmed with the minimum  
165 average quality score of 20 and minimum sequence length of 100. Open reference operational  
166 taxonomic unit (OTU) picking of the sequence data was then performed by clustering sequences  
167 into OTUs based on 97% similarity using uclust method. Sequence similarity of 97% is widely  
168 accepted to represent taxonomic relatedness down to species level (Schloss & Handelsman  
169 2005). Subsequently, the picked OTUs were aligned against the latest GreenGenes database  
170 using PyNAST algorithm. The aligned sequences generated was filtered to eliminate recurring  
171 alignment gap at the same position. Chimeric sequences in the aligned sequences were also  
172 being identified using ChimeraSlayer method and filtered. The filtered and aligned sequences  
173 was then used for core diversity analyses in QIIME to generate taxa plots. In addition, reference  
174 sequences were downloaded from GenBank database and aligned with the 16S rRNA fragment  
175 sequences. Phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA fragment sequences was performed by  
176 aligning the 16S rRNA gene sequences using MUSCLE algorithm and constructing  
177 phylogenetic trees with neighbour-joining method using MEGA7 (Kumar *et al.* 2016).

178 The nucleotide sequences have been deposited into GenBank under accession numbers  
179 SRX3284361:SRX3284366.

## 180 **Fluorescence in-situ hybridisation (FISH)**

181 Cell fixation was carried out using 4% paraformaldehyde solution as described by Amann *et*  
182 *al.* (1990). Three sludge samples were collected on day 7, day 24 and day 42 of the SBR  
183 operation, respectively. The fixed cells were all hybridised with EUB338 MIX, which consists



184 of equi-molar concentrations of EUB 338, EUB 338 II and EUB338 III (Amann *et al.* 1990;  
 185 Daims *et al.* 1999) to target all the bacteria.

186 Other FISH probes targeting both AOB and NOB are listed in Table 1. The probe EUB338  
 187 MIX was attached with 6-FAM fluorophore, while all other probes have Cy-3 fluorophore  
 188 attached to the probes. The hybridised slides were viewed under DM2500 fluorescence  
 189 microscope (Leica Microsystems, Germany), images were captured using DFC310 FX cooled  
 190 charged-coupled device (CCD) digital colour camera (Leica Microsystems, Germany).

191 **Table 1.** FISH probes applied in molecular analyses of fixed sludge samples targeting  
 192 nitrifying bacteria

Probe Name	Sequence (5' – 3')	% FA Conc.	Specificity	Reference
Nso1225	CGC CAT TGT ATT	35	Betaproteobacterial	Mobarry <i>et al.</i> (1996)
	ACG TGT GA		AOB	
Ntspa662	GGA ATT CCG CGC	35	Genus <i>Nitrospira</i>	Daims <i>et al.</i> (2001a)
	TCC TCT		(NOB)	
NIT3	CCT GTG CTC CAG	40	Genus <i>Nitrobacter</i>	Wagner <i>et al.</i> (1996)
	GCT CCG		(NOB)	

193

#### 194 SAUR and kinetic modelling of DO effect

195 The value of ammonia uptake rate (AUR) was calculated from the slope of the time profile of  
 196 NH<sub>4</sub>-N or NO<sub>x</sub>-N (NO<sub>2</sub>-N + NO<sub>3</sub>-N) obtained by kinetic experiments. AUR was divided by the  
 197 VSS concentration to determine the value of SAUR for each kinetic experiment.

198 Saturation kinetic model was used to simulate the effect of DO on SAUR (Tchobanoglous *et al.*  
 199 *al.* 2014), as shown in eq. (1),

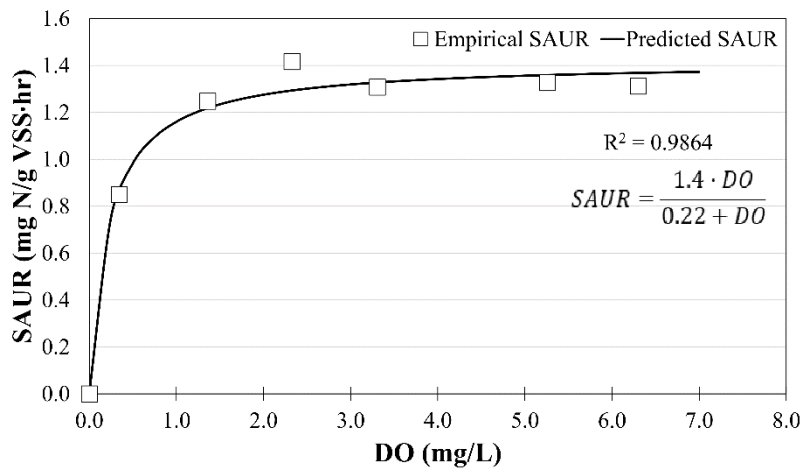
200 
$$SAUR = \frac{SAUR_{max} \cdot DO}{K_O + DO} \quad (1)$$

201 where  $SAUR_{max}$  is the maximum SAUR and  $K_O$  is the half-saturation constant of oxygen.  
 202  $SAUR_{max}$  and  $K_O$  were determined by performing nonlinear regression in MATLAB (v7.3, The  
 203 Math Works Inc., Natick, MA, USA) by minimising squared error of regression line.

204 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

205 **Effect of DO on seed sludge nitrification performance**

206 The relationship between SAUR and DO is described by saturation kinetics (Figure 1). From  
 207 the nonlinear regression, the value of  $K_O$  of the sludge is 0.22 mg/L. The values of  $K_O$  for  
 208 nitrifiers reported in the literatures range from 0.10 to 1.0 mg/L (Manser *et al.* 2005; Keene *et*  
 209 *al.* 2017). Hence, the seed sludge in this work may have a relatively high affinity for oxygen.  
 210 Low DO condition does not significantly reduce the SAUR, the rate being 70% of the  
 211 maximum at 0.5 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L.



212  
 213 **Figure 1.** The effect of DO on SAUR of the seed sludge from STP A. The square markers  
 214 denote the SAUR data determined from batch kinetic experiments while the solid line  
 215 represents the saturation kinetic model fitted to the data.

216 The maximum SAUR is estimated to be 1.4 mg N/g VSS·hr (Figure 1); in the lower range of  
217 literatures' values, which range between 1 and 3 mg N/g VSS·hr (Arnaldos *et al.* 2013; Yang  
218 *et al.* 2016).

219 The curve fitting using saturation kinetics suggests that nitrifiers in the seed sludge have high  
220 oxygen affinity, which matches with the survival strategies of K-strategists, such as  
221 *Nitrosospira sp.* and *Nitrospira sp.* (Tchobanoglous *et al.* 2014). *Nitrospira sp.* was reported  
222 to be abundant in full-scale STPs and in low-DO reactors (Liu & Wang 2013; Yang *et al.* 2016).  
223 In the real plant, pockets of low-DO zones are found in the macro-environment of the aerobic  
224 tank (Daigger & Littleton 2014). The non-uniform DO distribution in the macro-environment  
225 may be favourable for the growth of K-strategist nitrifiers.

226 The batch experiment in this section indicates that operating a nitrification reactor at low DO  
227 condition is, in principle, feasible. However, the conditions were artificial (a synthetic medium  
228 with only ammonia and alkalinity as feed). Therefore we further examine the effect of low DO  
229 in an SBR fed with real wastewater.

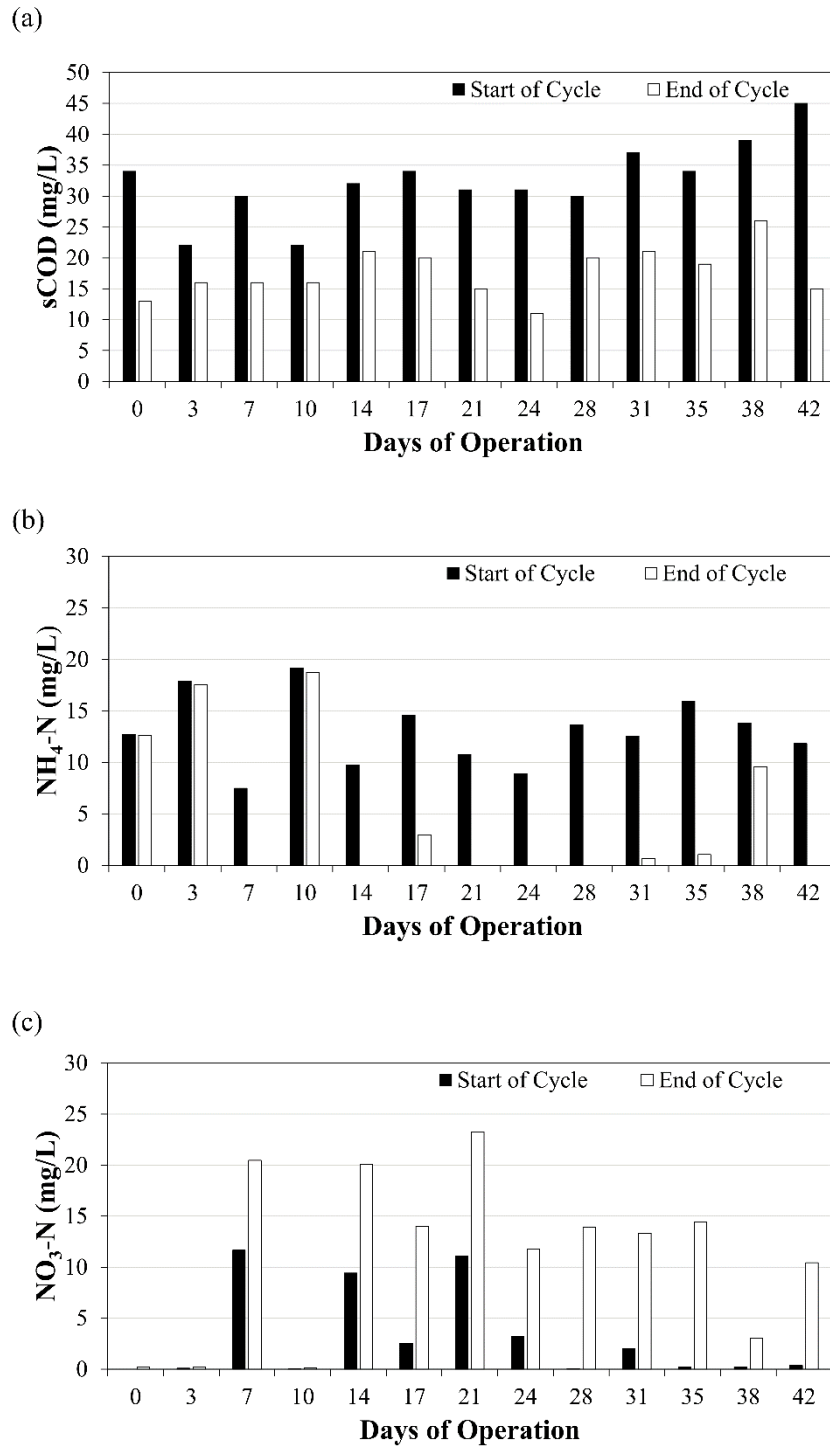
### 230 **Performance of low-DO nitrification SBR**

#### 231 *Sewage characteristics*

232 The COD and TN concentrations of the sewage were characteristics of a low-strength  
233 wastewater (Tchobanoglous *et al.* 2014). The total COD (tCOD), soluble COD (sCOD), TN  
234 and NH<sub>4</sub>-N were 280 ± 24 mg/L, 71 ± 9 mg/L, 23 ± 3 mg/L and 17 ± 3 mg/L respectively. The  
235 sewage NO<sub>2</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N were < 0.5 mg/L at all times. The tCOD-to-nitrogen (COD/N) ratio  
236 of the sewage was approximately 12, which is lower than the typical range of 25 to 35  
237 (Tchobanoglous *et al.* 2014).

238 *COD and NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency*

239 The SBR was operated for 42 days at DO concentration below 0.5 mg/L. The initial TSS and  
240 VSS concentrations were 2400 mg/L and 1800 mg/L respectively. Both TSS and VSS  
241 concentrations reduced in the first 14 days of SBR operation, after which both concentrations  
242 were maintained at  $1500 \pm 200$  mg/L and  $1300 \pm 160$  mg/L respectively. The sCOD removal  
243 and nitrification were both stable after 14 days of SBR operation (Figure 2). The reactor  
244 typically removed sCOD and NH<sub>4</sub>-N adequately. The effluent sCOD was  $18 \pm 5$  mg/L (Figure  
245 2(a)) and the residual organic matter might represent small fraction of non-biodegradable COD  
246 (Figure S1(d)). Effluent NH<sub>4</sub>-N was often less than 2 mg/L (Figure 2(b)). The one peak of  
247 effluent ammonia on day 38 was associated with the failure of the impeller.



248

249 **Figure 2.** Profiles of (a) sCOD, (b) NH<sub>4</sub>-N, (c) NO<sub>3</sub>-N throughout low-DO nitrification SBR  
 250 operation.

251 The adaptation period in this study (14 days) is much shorter than 25 and 140 days reported by  
 252 Fitzgerald *et al.* (2015) and Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) respectively. The rapid appearance of active

253 nitrification could be caused by either the more rapid growth of nitrifiers at warmer temperature  
254 or the high proportion of suitably adapted organisms in the seed sludge. Using a simple model  
255 of AOB adaptation developed by Ofițeru and Curtis (2009), the adaptation of AOB to low DO  
256 condition was simulated. The simulation suggests that the adaptation is more sensitive to the  
257 initial AOB concentrations than the nitrifiers' maximum growth rate. Presumably the seed  
258 sludge used in low-DO nitrification studies by Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) and Fitzgerald *et al.* (2015)  
259 were from conventional aerobic sludges and so a longer acclimation period was required for  
260 the adaptation of aerobic sludge in low DO condition.

261 Low COD concentration in the sewage may have contributed to the active nitrification in low-  
262 DO condition by reducing the oxygen competition between heterotrophs and nitrifiers. Satoh  
263 *et al.* (2000) reported a decreased in AOB population relative to heterotrophs when  
264 biodegradable organics was introduced, suggesting that heterotrophs may outcompete AOB for  
265 oxygen. Hanaki *et al.* (1990) also suggested that addition of COD would hamper nitrification  
266 performance by encouraging heterotrophs' growth.

267 Despite the low DO concentrations, all the ammonia was converted into nitrate (Figure 2(c)).  
268 Accumulation of nitrite was not detected in a typical SBR cycle (Figure S1(c)). Low DO level  
269 is conventionally associated with the accumulation of nitrite in the nitrification process.  
270 However, more recent studies showed that low-DO nitrification could exert selection pressure  
271 on certain lineages of NOB that possess high oxygen affinity, thus making NOB a better  
272 competitor of oxygen than AOB (Daebal *et al.* 2007; Liu & Wang 2013). Consequently, nitrite  
273 consumption by NOB is always higher than its production by AOB. Furthermore, high free  
274 ammonia (FA) concentration is a significant factor of nitrite accumulation. FA concentration  
275 approximately 9 mg N/L is sufficient to inhibit oxidation of nitrite to nitrate (Tchobanoglous  
276 *et al.* 2014). FA concentration in the sewage of this study was less than 0.5 mg/L based on acid

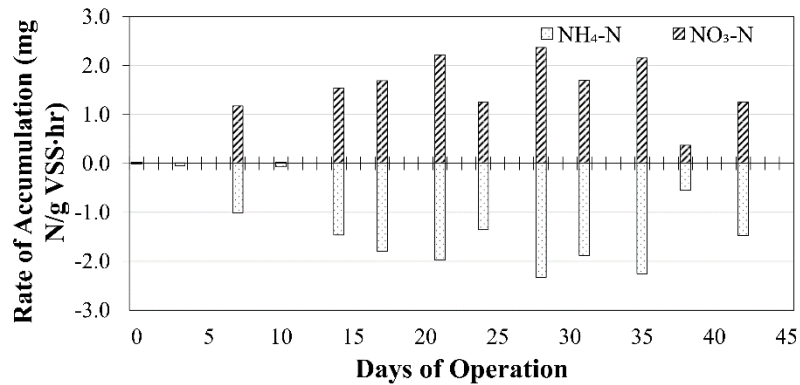
277 dissociation of ammonia. Hence, both increased oxygen affinity of NOB and negligible FA  
278 concentration might have contributed to complete oxidation of ammonia to nitrate.

279 Interestingly, Figure 2(c) shows that the NO<sub>3</sub>-N at the beginning of the cycle was negligible  
280 between day 28 and day 42, which suggests a loss of NO<sub>3</sub>-N in the reactor. The theoretical  
281 NO<sub>3</sub>-N at the start of an SBR cycle should be 5 mg/L if denitrification did not occur.  
282 Denitrification obviously did not occur during the reaction phase because the increase in NO<sub>3</sub>-  
283 N is equivalent to the NH<sub>4</sub>-N reduction (Figure 2(b) and Figure 2(c)). Thus, denitrification  
284 might have occurred during the settling phase. Significant denitrification in clarification step  
285 has been reported by previous studies (Siegrist *et al.* 1995; Mikola *et al.* 2014). The condition  
286 in the settling phase was favourable for denitrification because of the anoxic environment, the  
287 decay of biomass was found to provide the COD required for denitrification (Siegrist *et al.*  
288 1995). The detailed profiling of NO<sub>3</sub>-N in the settling phase would be useful to determine the  
289 efficiency of denitrification in future works.

#### 290 *Rate of nitrification*

291 The specific rate of accumulation of NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N were  $1.8 \pm 0.4$  mg N/g VSS·hr though  
292 low DO concentration was maintained (Figure 3). The rate of NH<sub>4</sub>-N uptake at steady-state  
293 low-DO nitrification reactor operation (> 14 days; Figure 3) appeared to be 1.3 times higher  
294 than that of the seed sludge (Figure 1). A modest increase in rate of nitrification is expected as  
295 the sludge adapts to low DO condition. When compared with literature, Yang *et al.* (2016)  
296 reported 3 mg N/g VSS·hr of NH<sub>4</sub>-N uptake at DO concentration between 1 and 2 mg/L. Low-  
297 DO nitrification study conducted by Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) also reported nitrification rate close  
298 to 4 mg N/g TSS·hr at DO concentration of 0.1 mg/L. Thus, the rate of nitrification in this work  
299 is still relatively low. One of the reasons could be the high nitrifier abundance in other studies  
300 (Arnaldos *et al.* 2013; Yang *et al.* 2016). For example, Arnaldos *et al.* (2013) found that

301 nitrifiers constituted nearly half of the total bacteria in their reactor. Also, Yang *et al.* (2016)  
 302 reported nitrifiers' abundance in the order of  $10^{10}$  copies/g VSS, which is significantly higher  
 303 than the typical abundance ( $10^6$  to  $10^8$  copies/mL) published elsewhere (Bellucci *et al.* 2011;  
 304 Fitzgerald *et al.* 2015).



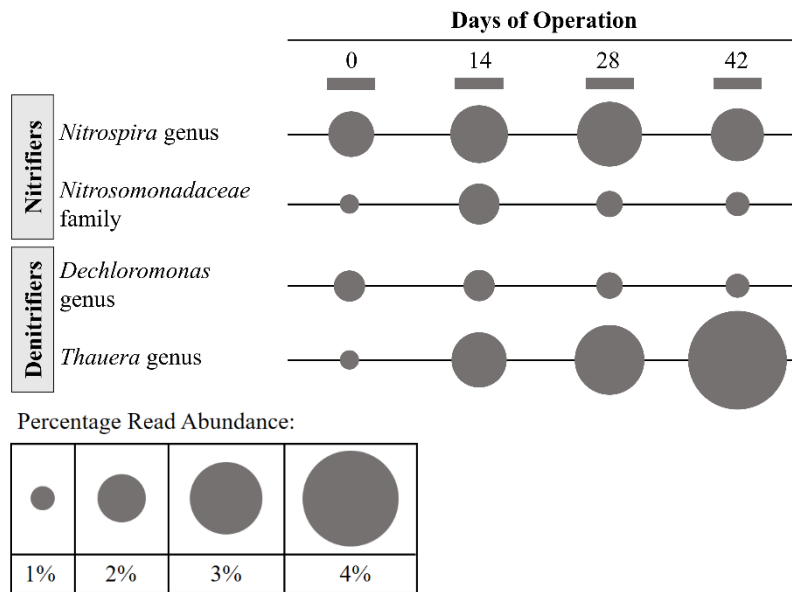
305

306 **Figure 3.** Profiles of rates of accumulation for NH<sub>4</sub>-N and NO<sub>3</sub>-N throughout SBR operation.

307 **Proportional abundance of nitrifiers and denitrifiers in low-DO nitrification SBR**

308 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing data identified more than 746 known taxonomies but only 20  
 309 taxonomies were present in more than 1% throughout the SBR operation. The top three most  
 310 abundant organisms in the sludge are *Saprospiraceae* family ( $13 \pm 2\%$ ), *Sphingobacteriales*  
 311 order ( $5 \pm 1\%$ ) and *envOPS12* order ( $3 \pm 0.5\%$ ). Figure 4 shows the four most abundant  
 312 taxonomies that associate with nitrification and denitrification. The information was extracted  
 313 from the taxa plots generated by core diversity analysis in QIIME.





314 **Figure 4.** Population dynamics of significant OTUs present in the low-DO nitrification reactor.

315 The microbes related to the family *Nitrosomonadaceae* and genus *Nitrospira* were found to be  
 316 the most abundant AOB and NOB respectively. *Nitrobacter*-related NOB were not detected by  
 317 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. FISH analysis supports the presence of *Nitrosomonadaceae*-  
 318 related AOB and *Nitrospira*-related NOB detected by 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing (Figure  
 319 S2).

320 Genus *Nitrospira* and family *Nitrosomonadaceae* each represent 1% to 3% of total biomass.  
 321 The family *Nitrosomonadaceae* is known to be able to oxidise ammonia autotrophically to  
 322 nitrite. Members of the genus *Nitrospira* are known to be chemolithoautotrophic aerobic NOB.  
 323 *Nitrospira*-related NOB has been described as K-strategists organisms that survive in low  
 324 substrate concentrations. Strains related to *Nitrospira sp.* have been observed in other  
 325 nitrification studies (Yang *et al.* 2016). For instance, Yang *et al.* (2016) has observed the  
 326 coexistence of large population of *Nitrospira sp.* with AOB in reduced DO aerobic tanks of a  
 327 water reclamation plant in Singapore.

328 To further examine the diversity and phylogeny of the unidentified *Nitrospira sp.*, a  
 329 phylogenetic tree was constructed for all the 224 OTUs within the *Nitrospira* genus (Figure

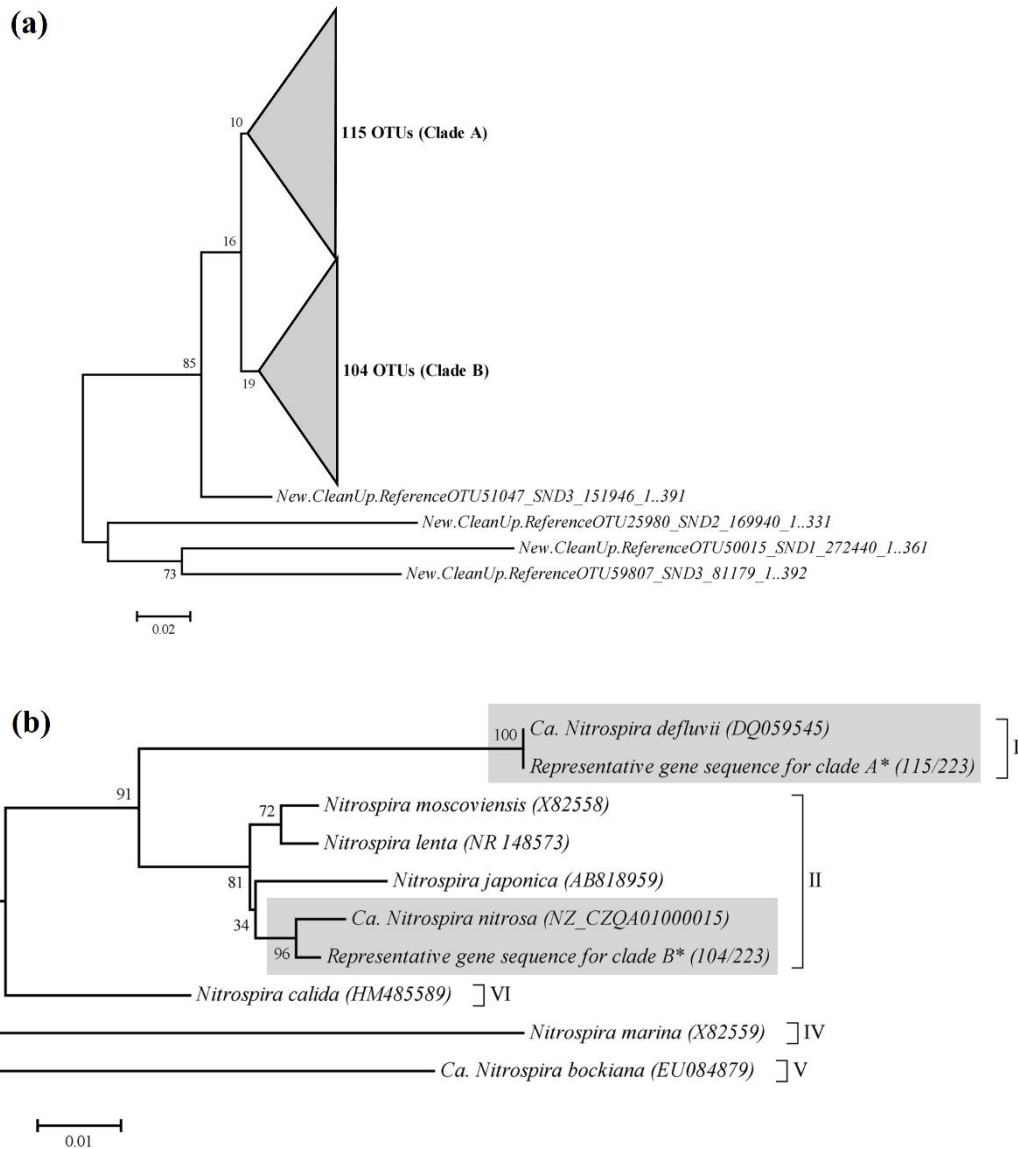
330 5(a)). Most of the OTUs are clustered into two equally divided clades, termed Clade A and  
331 Clade B here. The average sequence similarity within each clade is  $98 \pm 2\%$  based on p-distance  
332 matrix, which suggests OTUs in each clade could be related down to species level (sequence  
333 similarity  $> 97\%$ ). Thus, a representative sequence from each clade was generated based on the  
334 highest frequency of nucleotide base at each position. The representative sequences were  
335 aligned with other known *Nitrospira* 16S rRNA-coding sequences to construct a phylogenetic  
336 tree (Figure 5(b)). Figure 5(b) shows that Clade A (52% of total OTUs) of the *Nitrospira sp.*  
337 detected in this study is closely related to *Ca. Nitrospira defluvii*, while Clade B (47% of total  
338 OTUs) is closely related to one of the comammox strains, *Ca. Nitrospira nitrosa* (van Kessel  
339 *et al.* 2015).

340 *Ca. Nitrospira defluvii* is classified into sublineage I of *Nitrospira sp.* based on 16S rRNA  
341 phylogeny and is an important NOB in sewage treatment (Daims *et al.* 2001b; Lücker *et al.*  
342 2010). Lücker *et al.* (2010) found that the key enzyme nitrite oxidoreductase (nxr) in *Ca.*  
343 *Nitrospira defluvii* differs significantly with other *Nitrospira sp.* but shares the closest homolog  
344 with an anammox bacteria (*Ca. Kuenenia stuttgartiensis*). *Ca. Nitrospira defluvii* also lacks  
345 protection mechanism against oxidative stress commonly present in *Nitrospira* (Lücker *et al.*  
346 2010). Thus, *Ca. Nitrospira defluvii* may be an important NOB in low-DO nitrifying systems.  
347 van Kessel *et al.* (2015) identified some strains of the genus *Nitrospira* as comammox bacteria,  
348 so called because of their ability to completely oxidise ammonia to nitrate. The BLAST  
349 alignment of the representative 16S rRNA gene sequence of Clade B in this work and *Ca.*  
350 *Nitrospira nitrosa* showed 99% sequence identity. Therefore, the presence of comammox-  
351 related *Nitrospira sp.* supports the earlier finding on complete oxidation of ammonia to nitrate  
352 in the low-DO nitrification reactor. The other two strains of comammox bacteria, *Ca.*  
353 *Nitrospira inopinata* and *Ca. Nitrospira nitrificans* are phylogenetically distant from the

354 members of the *Nitrospira sp.* detected in this study (Daims *et al.* 2015; van Kessel *et al.* 2015).

355 Thus, these two comammox strains are not included in Figure 5(b).

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**Figure 5.** Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree of the *Nitrospira sp.* 16S rRNA gene sequences showing the relationship (a) amongst all 223 OTUs belong to *Nitrospira* genus in this study, and (b) between the representative sequences of *Nitrospira sp.* (marked with \*) obtained from low-DO nitrification reactor and reference sequences in the GenBank database. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the frequencies of OTUs exhibiting the same 16S rRNA gene sequences. Bootstrap values are shown in percentages of 1000 replicates. The defined sublineages of the genus *Nitrospira* (Daims *et al.* 2001b) were indicated by roman numerals adjacent to the square brackets. The shaded branches indicate the closest phylogenetic relationship between the present study sequence and the available reference sequence.

367 The role of comammox bacteria in wastewater treatment system is still uncertain (van Kessel  
368 *et al.* 2015; Chao *et al.* 2016; Gonzalez-Martinez *et al.* 2016). Phylogenetic analyses conducted  
369 by van Kessel *et al.* (2015) suggested that *Ca. Nitrospira nitrosa* was present in engineered  
370 systems, including wastewater treatment plant and drinking water distribution system.  
371 Conversely, both Chao *et al.* (2016) and Gonzalez-Martinez *et al.* (2016) inferred that  
372 comammox-like bacteria probably do not play an important role because of their low  
373 abundance (< 0.1%) in wastewater treatment plants. Chao *et al.* (2016) hypothesised that the  
374 operating conditions in wastewater treatment plants are not favourable for the growth of  
375 comammox bacteria as they are known to proliferate in low-substrate (< 10 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> mg/L, < 22  
376 mg NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/L) and hypoxic conditions (< 0.1 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L) (van Kessel *et al.* 2015). In this study, the  
377 low-substrate and the low-DO environment in the nitrification reactor could promote the  
378 growth of comammox-related bacteria. Besides, the comammox-related *Nitrospira sp.* was also  
379 detected in the seed sludge of the low-DO nitrification reactor, suggesting their potential role  
380 in nitrification in the tropical STPs. Further research is required to clarify the role of  
381 comammox bacteria in the tropical wastewater treatment systems.

382 Denitrifying bacteria were present in the low-DO nitrifying sludge. Denitrifiers related to the  
383 genera *Dechloromonas* and *Thauera* were present with average abundances of 1.3% and 2.8%  
384 respectively. Interestingly, the genus *Thauera* was present in less than 1% in the inoculum but  
385 gradually enriched to beyond 4%. The presence of denitrifying community in this study may  
386 have contributed to the possible denitrification activity in the settling phase. The possible  
387 reason for the absence of denitrification activity during the 300-minute reaction phase could be  
388 that the denitrifiers preferentially use oxygen as an electron acceptor. Thus, further study is  
389 required to achieve nitrogen removal from tropical sewage via nitrification and denitrification  
390 in low-DO environment.

### 391 **Energy savings of low-DO nitrification**

392 The amount of energy reduction to operate a low-DO nitrification process (0.5 mg/L) relative  
393 to conventional nitrification process (2 mg/L) was estimated based on oxygen transfer rate to  
394 maintain biological activities and bulk DO level in the tropical sewage (30°C) (Tchobanoglous  
395 *et al.* 2014). The calculation assumes surface aerator was used to provide aeration. The  
396 estimated energy reduction is 23% of the energy required to operate the process at 2 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L.  
397 Keene *et al.* (2017) reported estimated energy reduction of the similar range (25%) when  
398 operating a biological nutrient removal process at 0.33 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L relative to higher DO  
399 concentrations (0.9 – 4.3 mg/L). The reduction in aeration energy requirement offers a strategy  
400 to improve the energy efficiency of STPs.

### 401 **CONCLUSIONS**

402 Efficient removal of ammonia from tropical sewage was achieved in low-DO condition (< 0.5  
403 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L) through batch kinetic experiments and lab-scale SBR operation. Short adaptation  
404 period of the seed sludge to low-DO condition was observed, possibly due to the high  
405 proportional abundance of AOB in the seed sludge. Operating a low-DO nitrification process  
406 was estimated to reduce 23% of the aeration energy requirement when compared to  
407 conventional nitrification process (2 mg O<sub>2</sub>/L).

408 AOB and NOB related to family *Nitrosomonadaceae* and genus *Nitrospira*, respectively were  
409 the dominant nitrifiers in the low-DO nitrifying system. The unidentified members of the genus  
410 *Nitrospira* detected in this study were closely related to *Ca. Nitrospira defluvii* and *Ca.*  
411 *Nitrospira nitrosa* (comammox organism). More investigations to quantify nitrifiers and  
412 comammox organisms in the sludge will be required. Denitrifiers were also detected in the  
413 low-DO nitrification reactor, suggesting the possibility to achieve nitrogen removal from  
414 tropical sewage in future study.

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