

Methane production in an anaerobic osmotic membrane bioreactor using forward osmosis: Effect of reverse salt flux

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Abstract

This study investigated the impact of reverse salt flux (RSF) on microbe community and bio-methane production in a simulated fertilizer driven FO-AnMBR system using KCl, KNO₃ and KH₂PO₄ as draw solutes. Results showed that KH₂PO₄ exhibited the lowest RSF in terms of molar concentration 19.1 mM/(m².h), while for KCl and KNO₃ it was 32.2 and 120.8 mM/(m².h), respectively. Interestingly, bio-methane production displayed an opposite order with KH₂PO₄, followed by KCl and KNO₃. Pyrosequencing results revealed the presence of different bacterial communities among the tested fertilizers. Bacterial community of sludge exposed to KH₂PO₄ was very similar to that of DI-water and KCl. However, results with KNO₃ were different since the denitrifying bacteria were found to have a higher percentage than the sludge with other fertilizers. This study demonstrated that RSF has a negative effect on bio-methane production, probably by influencing the sludge bacterial community via environment modification.

Keywords: Fertilizer, Forward Osmosis, Anaerobic Membrane Bioreactor, Methane, Pyrosequence, Reverse diffusion.

1 Introduction

Water scarcity and environmental pollution have driven the development of water reuse

33 in the urban water management (Shannon et al., 2008). A lot of efforts have been placed
34 to develop technologies to reuse and recycle resource in municipal and industrial
35 wastewater, including activated carbon filtration, ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF),
36 reverse osmosis (RO) and anaerobic membrane bioreactor (AnMBR) (Michael et al.,
37 2013; Wei et al., 2014). Although these technologies showed a good capability to remove
38 suspended solids, organic pollutants, and even salinity from the wastewater, there are still
39 some challenges to be addressed. For instance, the emerging micro pollutants were
40 difficult to be completely removed by AnMBR equipped with UF membrane (Cath et al.,
41 2006). On the other hand, RO is an energy intensive treatment technology, which cannot
42 be affordable in some developing countries where coincidentally water demand is also
43 high, such as in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) (Ghaffour, 2009). It is
44 therefore crucial to develop a novel technology capable of removing emerging micro
45 pollutants at low energy cost.

46 Forward osmosis (FO) is a membrane separation process driven by the osmotic pressure
47 difference between the feed solution (FS) and draw solution (DS) (Cath et al., 2006).
48 Since this process is not driven by an external pressure, the energy consumption is much
49 lower than RO technology. It has been reported that the fouling and scaling of FO
50 membranes is also less severe than in RO, and mostly reversible via hydraulic cleaning
51 (Li et al., 2015). However, FO generally needs to be coupled with another process to
52 separate the diluted draw solution from the final product water. However, this additional
53 recovery process requires energy and increases the capital cost of the hybrid system .

54 Lately, fertilizer-drawn forward osmosis (FDFO) has received increased interest since the
55 diluted DS can be used directly for irrigation purposes and therefore no recovery process
56 is required (Phuntsho et al., 2012). In FDFO, the process is driven by fertilizers (FO draw
57 solution) and thus the water drawn from the wastewater (FO feed solution) is used to
58 dilute the fertilizer solution which can then be directly used for fertigation (Chekli et al.,
59 2017; Kim et al., 2016).

60 By combining FDFO and AnMBR, several benefits can be achieved, namely bio-methane
61 production, higher effluent quality than UF based AnMBR systems and sustainable
62 fertigation via wastewater reuse. Different fertilizers have been compared in terms of
63 water flux, bio-methane production rate and reverse diffusion (Kim et al. 2016).

64 However, it is still not clear why different fertilizers exhibited different bio-methane
65 production rates. It could be related to the bacterial community variation caused by
66 different reverse diffusion rates of different fertilizers, but there is no substantial proof to
67 support this hypothesis.

68 Due to the RSF from the fertilizer draw solution (DS) and the high salt rejection of the
69 FO membrane which retains the salts from the feed, the fertilizer concentration within the
70 AnMBR will ultimately increase. However, this increase is a gradual process rather than
71 a one-time intensive dosage. The bacterial community in the AnMBR is sensitive to the
72 environment, especially the methanogens, so the one-time intensive dosage of fertilizer
73 could significantly modify the bacterial community but might not reflect the real situation
74 with gradual increase. Since the methanogens might be able to endure the gradual
75 changes of environment but not a sudden significant modification, the one-time intensive
76 fertilizer dosage may overestimate the effect of reverse diffused fertilizers on the methane
77 production in the FDFO-AnMBR. Therefore, a systematic study is required to
78 demonstrate the impact of RSFs of different fertilizer DS on bio-methane production in
79 the FDFO-AnMBR, especially in a parallel comparison with gradual build-up of salt.

80 This study investigated the impact of gradual reverse fertilizer diffusion on the methane
81 production in a hybrid FDFO-AnMBR system by dosing three different fertilizers, which
82 amount was pre-determined via FO experiments, into parallel anaerobic fermentation
83 bottles step by step. The methane production was monitored for all conditions to check
84 the effects of fertilizer dosage. The corresponding sludge under different conditions were
85 also collected and analyzed via pyrosequencing to illustrate the microbe community
86 difference of different conditions and its relation with the methane production difference.

87

88 **2 Materials and Methods**

89 **2.1 Anaerobic sludge**

90 The anaerobic sludge collected from one digester of the Wollongong Sewage Treatment
91 Plant, located in Wollongong, Australia (Lat: 34 26 35 S Long: 150 53 50 E), was used as
92 the seed sludge in this study. 700 mL of anaerobic sludge was filled in each bottle of the
93 bio-methane potential (BMP) apparatus and then purged by nitrogen gas to ensure the
94 anaerobic condition within these bottles to simulate AnMBR systems. The anaerobic

95 sludge was characterized in terms of total solids (TS), mixed liquor suspended solids
96 (MLSS), pH and chemical oxygen demand (COD) (Table 1).

97

98 **2.2 Model substrates and reversed draw solutes**

99 To maintain the bioactivity of the BMP apparatus, 550 mg/L glucose was dosed in the
100 bottles every two day as substrate for the anaerobic fermentation. Glucose is a common
101 compound utilized as model substrates in membrane bioreactor research (Ansari et al.,
102 2015). The amount of glucose dosed every two day in this study was determined based on
103 the synthetic wastewater recipe used in a previous study (Kim et al., 2016) assuming 1 L
104 of treated wastewater per day.

105 Three fertilizers, namely KCl, KNO₃ and KH₂PO₄ were used as model draw solutes in the
106 FDFO process for this study. These three fertilizers were chosen because they exhibited
107 different RSF according to preliminary results (S. Li et al., 2017), and thus the impact of
108 reversely diffused fertilizers on the bio-methane production could be evaluated. The
109 experiment was conducted for 20 days, since one similar study reported that the methane
110 production trend and microbial community dynamics in an anaerobic digester did not
111 change after 20 days (Wang et al., 2017). In contrast with one time intensive dosage of
112 fertilizer in a previous reported study (Kim et al., 2016), the fertilizers were gradually
113 added in the fermentation bottles over the whole experiment period of 20 days. To
114 simplify the simulation, the RSF was considered constant during the whole experiment of
115 20 days. The amount of dosed fertilizer per day was based on the detected RSF
116 (described in Section 2.3), membrane area of 20 cm² and a 24-hour operation.

117

118 **2.3 FO experiments for RSF determination**

119 To determine the amount of fertilizer chemicals to be added to the digested sludge, FO
120 experiments were conducted to evaluate the RSF of different draw solutes (Supplemental
121 Table S1 and Figure S1 for experimental conditions and schematic diagram,
122 respectively). During these RSF determination experiments, primary wastewater and
123 corresponding fertilizers were utilized as FS and DS, respectively. The FS and DS of 1 L
124 each were separately recycled in the FO system with an identical velocity of 8.5 cm/S
125 (Table S1). The experiment was conducted for 24 hours, the volume of DS increased by

126 240 mL for all three tested fertilizer DS. The FS and DS before and after experiment
127 were sampled for NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} analyses with ion chromatography system (ICS-1600,
128 DIONEX) and K^+ analyses with inductively coupled plasma – mass spectrometry (ICP-
129 MS, Agilent Technology 7500 series). The RSF was determined based on Eq. 1:

$$130 \text{RSF} = (C_{F_end} \times V_{F_end} - C_{F_ini} \times V_{F_ini}) / (A \times T) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

131 where C_{F_ini} and C_{F_end} are the draw solute concentration in the FS at the beginning and
132 the end of the FO process, and V_{F_ini} and V_{F_end} are the volume of FS at the beginning and
133 the end of FO process. A is the effective FO membrane area used in this study (20 cm^2),
134 and T is the time of the FO experiment (24 hours).

135 As shown in Figure S2, the detected RSFs for KH_2PO_4 , KCl and KNO_3 and draw solutes
136 were 2.6, 2.4 and $12.2 \text{ g}/(\text{m}^2.\text{h})$, corresponding to 19.1, 32.2 and $120.8 \text{ mM}/(\text{m}^2.\text{h})$,
137 respectively. Therefore, in terms of RSF in molar concentration, KH_2PO_4 had the lowest
138 reverse diffusion among the three tested fertilizers.

139

140 **2.4 Bio-methane potential (BMP) apparatus**

141 Because the bacterial community could change over time, in order to investigate the
142 effect of different RSFs under identical initial conditions, the bio-methane potential
143 experiments were conducted in a batch mode for different substrates addition (Ansari et
144 al., 2015) using a BMP apparatus (depicted in Figure S3). The BMP apparatus is
145 composed of 7 fermentation bottles submerged in a water bath at a temperature of
146 $35 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$. The generated biogas from these bottles was diverted to an array of inverted
147 1,000 mL plastic mass cylinders submerged in the 1 M NaOH solution to collect and
148 measure the biogas. The NaOH solution plays an important role to remove CO_2 and H_2S
149 from biogas to better evaluate CH_4 production potential. Air volume in each mass
150 cylinder was recorded 2 times per day. Detailed description of BMP apparatus used in
151 this study is given elsewhere (Ansari et al., 2015).

152

153 **2.5 Experimental protocol**

154 First of all, the quality of anaerobic sludge was characterized and described in Section
155 2.1. The RSFs of FDFO process was determined for three different fertilizers and then the
156 corresponding amount of each fertilizer was added into the BMP apparatus together with

157 glucose for the bacteria growth during anaerobic sludge fermentation. One fermentation
158 bottle was filled with DI water as blank control, while the rest six bottles were filled with
159 fertilizers (each fertilizer was run in duplicate). After mixing the anaerobic sludge with
160 the substrates and fertilizers, all bottles were purged with nitrogen gas. The dissolved
161 oxygen in fermentation bottles was measured after nitrogen gas purging to ensure the
162 value was lower than 0.5 mg/L. The fermentation bottles were then submerged in a water
163 bath of 35°C and connected to the biogas collecting cylinder described in Section 2.5.
164 During fermentation, glucose was added into the anaerobic sludge every two days as
165 indicated in Section 2.2. On the other hand, the corresponding amounts of different
166 reverse diffused fertilizers determined in Section 2.3 were dosed every three days to
167 simulate the gradual accumulation in an AnMBR system. The produced biogas volume
168 was continuously recorded, and the methane, nitrogen concentration within the collected
169 biogas was determined after the experiment. Moreover, the corresponding anaerobic
170 sludge under different fertilizer addition was collected for bacteria and Achaea
171 composition investigation via pyrosequencing.

172

173 **2.6 Bio-methane determination**

174 The biogas in each cylinder was collected with a 1-liter gas-sampling bag. After the
175 collection, the volumes of bio-methane, nitrogen and carbon dioxide were determined by
176 a portable methane detection apparatus (Multitec 560, Orangeth). The specific biogas
177 volume was calculated based on the Eq. (2).

$$178 \quad V_s = C_m \times V_b \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

179 where V_s is the produced specific biogas volume, C_m is the measured percentage of
180 specific biogas, and V_b is the recorded volume of biogas mixture.

181

182 **2.7 DNA extraction**

183 The sludge samples collected at the end of the experiment from the bottles of the BMP
184 apparatus were stored under -20°C before shipping to DNASense Apps Company in
185 Denmark for 454 pyro-sequencing. During the shipment, sludge samples were kept in dry
186 ice at a temperature of -20°C, as recommended. The DNA of all bacteria and archaea in
187 sludge samples were extracted through the FastDNA Spin kit for soil (MP Biomedicals,

188 USA), using 4x the normal bead beating to enable the recovery of bacteria that are
189 difficult to lyse (Albertsen et al., 2015).

190

191 **2.8 16S rRNA amplicon library preparation**

192 The procedures for bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing were based on
193 (Caporaso et al., 2012) and an Illumina protocol (Illumina, 2015), respectively. Up to ten
194 ng of extracted DNA was used as template for PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA gene
195 fragments. Each PCR reaction (25 μ L) contained dNTPs (400 μ M of each), MgSO₄ (1.5
196 mM), Platinum® Taq DNA polymerase HF (0.2 mU and 0.5 U for bacteria and archaea,
197 respectively), 1X Platinum® High Fidelity buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and
198 tailed primermix (400 nM of each forward and reverse). The forward and reverse tailed
199 primers were designed (Illumina, 2015) and contained primer parts targeting the
200 respective 16S gene fragments. For bacterial community, V1-3 primer containing 27F
201 AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG and 534R ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG was used; while
202 V3-5 primer with 5'-CCCTAHGGGGYGCASCA (Arch-340F) and 5'-
203 GWGCYCCCCGYCAATTC (Arch-915R) was used for archaea. PCR was run with the
204 following programs: 1) bacteria: initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, 30 cycles of
205 amplification (95°C for 20 s, 56°C for 30 s, 72°C 60s) and a final elongation at 72°C for 5
206 min; 2) archaea: initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, 35 cycles of amplification (95°C for
207 20 s, 50°C for 30 s, 72°C 60s) and a final elongation at 72°C for 5 min. Duplicate PCR
208 reactions were performed for each sample and duplicates were pooled after PCR. Both
209 bacteria and archaea amplicon libraries were purified using the Agencourt® AMPure XP
210 bead protocol (Beckmann Coulter, USA) with the following exceptions: the sample/bead
211 solution ratio was 5/4, and the purified DNA was eluted in 33 μ L nuclease-free water.
212 Library concentration was measured with Quant-iT™ HS DNA Assay (Thermo Fisher
213 Scientific, USA) and quality validated with a TapeStation 2,200, using D1K ScreenTapes
214 (Agilent, USA).

215 The purified sequencing libraries were pooled in equimolar concentrations and diluted to
216 4 nM. The samples were paired end sequenced (2×301 bp) on a MiSeq (Illumina) using a
217 MiSeq Reagent kit v3, 600 cycles (Illumina, USA) following the standard guidelines for
218 preparing and loading samples on the MiSeq. 20% Phix control library was spiked in to

219 overcome low complexity issue often observed with amplicon samples.
220 The DNA extraction and sequencing were successful for all samples and yielded 28,720-
221 149,886 and over 10000 reads for bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA genes, respectively,
222 after quality control and bioinformatics processing.

223

224 **2.9 Bioinformatics analysis**

225 Forward and reverse reads for both bacteria and archaea were trimmed for quality using
226 Trimmomatic v. 0.32 (Bolger et al., 2014) with the settings SLIDINGWINDOW:5:3 and
227 MINLEN:275. Because the V3-5 region for archaea is longer than what is possible to
228 merge, only the first 275 bp of read 1 was used for further analysis. Both bacteria and
229 archaea reads were dereplicated and formatted for use in UPARSE workflow (Edgar,
230 2013). The dereplicated reads were clustered, using the usearch v. 7.0.1090 -cluster_otus
231 command with default settings. OTU abundances were estimated using the usearch v.
232 7.0.1090 -usearch_global command with -id 0.97. Taxonomy was assigned using the RDP
233 classifier (Wang et al., 2007) as implemented in the parallel_assign_taxonomy_rdp.py
234 script in QIIME (Caporaso et al., 2010), using the MiDAS database v.1.20 (McIlroy et
235 al., 2015). The results were analyzed in R (RCoreTeam, 2015) through the Rstudio IDE
236 using the ampvis package v.1.9.1 (Albertsen et al., 2015).

237

238 **2.10 Acetate analysis**

239 To support the possible abundance of acetogenesis bacteria in sludge, acetate (output of
240 acetogenesis bacteria) as an indicator was measured. Samples of sludge with different
241 fertilizer addition (10 mL for each sample) were collected during the experiments, and
242 stored at -20°C. The acetate concentrations of samples were determined with acetate
243 colorimetric assay kit following the instruction procedure (MAK086, Sigma-Aldrich).

244

245 **3 Results and discussion**

246 **3.1 Methane production in anaerobic fermenters**

247 Biogas production from the anaerobic digestion of fermented anaerobic sludge is shown
248 in Figure 1 for different fertilizer dosages. With the increase of fermentation time, more

249 biogas was produced for all conditions, and the amount of produced biogas was similar
250 for both sludge without fertilizer (DI), and sludge with KNO_3 and KH_2PO_4 dosages.
251 However, the biogas production from sludge with KCl dosage exhibited a slightly lower
252 total biogas volume than others. Total biogas volume is composed of methane and
253 nitrogen. The dosage of fertilizer could affect the archaea and bacteria genus responsible
254 for methane and nitrogen production, and eventually led to the variation of total biogas
255 volume. Therefore, the slight difference in total biogas production of fermenters with KCl
256 dosage could be due to the bacteria and archaea community difference between different
257 fertilizer dosages.

258 Although the biogas production was similar to all conditions, the methane and nitrogen
259 concentrations exhibited a significant variation for different conditions. As shown in
260 Figure 2, around 272 mL produced biogas was methane when there was no fertilizer in
261 the sludge (DI), while the methane volume within biogas for sludge with fertilizers was
262 lower and varied with the type of fertilizer used. In general, the higher RSF was, the less
263 methane was produced. KH_2PO_4 dosage exhibited the closest methane volume to the DI
264 condition (238 mL), followed by KCl dosage (170 mL) and KNO_3 dosage (less than 65
265 mL). Interestingly, RSFs of these three fertilizers followed a reverse order. Moreover, the
266 sludge with KNO_3 exhibited a higher nitrogen gas concentration (1,166 mL) than the
267 other conditions which were between 820 mL and 990 mL. Since the dosages of
268 fertilizers were based on simulated FDFO processes, the impact of different fertilizers'
269 RSF on the anaerobic bio-methane production can thus be demonstrated. Fertilizers'
270 effect on changing the biogas production and composition could be due to: 1) the acute
271 responses of sludge in the initial period due to different fertilizer dosages; 2) and further
272 variations of microbe communities in the long-term. It has been reported that the increase
273 of ionic strength could inhibit the viability of microbes (Cha et al., 2013). With the
274 increase of RSF and feed solute rejection, the ionic strength of sludge would also increase
275 which could also contribute towards inhibition of microbes. However, because the
276 increase of salinity is gradual, the negative influence of increase in salt concentration
277 (such as KH_2PO_4) on bio-methane production at the initial period might not be as severe
278 as reported in the studies since the microbe communities have time to adapt to the new
279 conditions (Ansari et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016).

280 Regarding the variations of microbe communities, both archaea and bacteria might
281 involve. Methane production involves hydrolysis, acidogenesis, acetogenesis and
282 methanogenesis (Chojnacka et al., 2015). Archaea is mainly responsible for the final
283 stage of methanogenesis, while the previous steps are conducted by the bacteria. Both
284 archaea and bacteria have different types of genus involving the whole process of
285 methane production via different pathway. Hydrogenotrophic methanogens mainly
286 utilize CO₂, H₂ and formate as substrates for methane production while acetotrophic
287 methanogens utilize acetate and methylotrophic methanogens utilize methylamines
288 (Chojnacka et al., 2015). Bacteria in anaerobic sludge mainly contribute to the hydrolysis
289 and biodegradation of the organics into substrates utilizable for methanogens, such as
290 CO₂, H₂, formate, propionate and acetate. All these archaea and bacteria genus have their
291 own optimum growth environment. The reverse diffusion of fertilizer could therefore
292 substantially change the environment for bacteria and archaea. Besides the inhibition of
293 microbes' viability in the initial period, the microbial community could also be changed
294 in long-term. Consequently, the amount of archaea and bacteria for methane production
295 could be directly/indirectly affected. Some archaea are sensitive to the salinity, such as
296 *Methanomethylovorans* (Cha et al., 2013); thus its viability might be firstly inhibited and
297 then followed by a reduction in amount due to the addition of fertilizers; while some
298 bacteria can grow better in a mineral medium (e.g., *Enterococcus* (Fisher & Phillips,
299 2009) and *Comamonas* (Etchebehere et al., 2001)) which could help them outcompete
300 other bacteria genus when the salinity of sludge is increased by the fertilizer addition. The
301 increase of nitrogen gas for sludge with KNO₃ addition was probably related to the
302 abundance of de-nitrification bacterium, *Comamonas*, which could convert the reverse
303 diffused nitrate into nitrogen.

304 One previous study about the selection of FDFO draw solutes showed that the
305 biomethane production was significantly affected by KCl, KH₂PO₄, (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄Cl,
306 NH₄NO₃, except for (NH₄)₂HPO₄ (Kim et al., 2016). In contrast with this study, the
307 dosage of KCl, KH₂PO₄ and KNO₃ exhibited a clear difference in terms of biomethane
308 production. That is probably because high fertilizer dosages (9 times concentrated) were
309 applied in the previous study (Kim et al., 2016), which might have exposed the archaea
310 and bacteria in sludge to a mineral shock and severely affect the viability of microbial

311 communities and thus no methane was produced in most of the conditions tested.
312 However, in the present study, the fertilizers were gradually added into the sludge and
313 this procedure gave some time to the microbes to adjust themselves for the change of
314 environment. Considering that the concentration of fertilizer in anaerobic digester is also
315 a gradual process, the step-by-step dosage of fertilizer can better reflect the impact of
316 reverse fertilizers on the biomethane production.

317

318 **3.2 Effect of fertilizer types on the archaeal community structure of** 319 **anaerobic sludge**

320 In Figure 3, the overall microbial compositions in all samples are compared using
321 multivariate statistics, principal components analysis (PCA), in which samples located
322 close to each other imply a similar microbial composition. As shown in the figure, the
323 duplicates of KCl and KNO₃ are located next to each other (except for KH₂PO₄),
324 indicating that the microbial compositions in the duplicates of these two conditions were
325 very similar. The reason behind the slight different archaeal composition for duplicates of
326 KH₂PO₄ was not clear. Since all the experimental conditions and seed sludge were
327 identical for the two duplicates of KH₂PO₄ during the experiments, the slight composition
328 difference could be due to slight manual operational variation during sludge sampling,
329 sample shipment and DNA extraction procedure. However, although there are differences
330 between the microbial compositions with different fertilizers, all samples clustered in a
331 small area, indicating that the archaea composition of all samples is similar to each other
332 in general.

333 All the detected archaea are within the *Euryarchaeota* phylum. The *Euryarchaeota* include
334 the methanogens producing methane and often found in intestines, the halobacteria
335 surviving at extreme concentrations of salt, and some extremely thermophilic aerobes and
336 anaerobes (Amils, 2011). The genus of abundant archaea under all tested conditions is
337 shown in Figure 4. This includes *Methanosaeta*, *Methanobacterium*,
338 *Methanomethylovorans*, *Methanobrevibacter*, *o_WCHA1-57_OTU_9*, *Methanospirillum*,
339 *Methanomassiliicoccus*, *f_WCHA2-08_OTU_13*, *Methanoculleus*, *Methanosphaera*. As
340 shown in this figure, the dominant archaea genus for all conditions is *Methanosaeta*. The
341 relative abundance of *Methanosaeta* for DI, KCl, KNO₃ and KH₂PO₄ was 98.1%, 98.2%,

342 95.2% and 97.8%, respectively. The rest of archaea only covered 2-5% of the abundance.
343 This result is in good agreement and supports the similar microbial composition observed
344 in Figure 3.

345 *Methanosaeta* are gram-negative rods typically 0.8 - 1.3 by 2 - 6 μm in size (Kamagata et
346 al., 1992). They are commonly found in rice paddies and anaerobic digesters which are
347 common sources of methane (Smith & Ingram-Smith, 2007). *Methanosaeta* are
348 acetotrophic methanogen, which means they rely on the acetate for methane production
349 during anaerobic digestion (Mori et al., 2012). These organisms are widely distributed
350 across the planet, and have an extremely high affinity for acetate allowing them to thrive
351 even if concentrations are very low (5-20 μM) (Jetten et al., 1992). Among the
352 methanogens detected in this study, *Methanosaeta* is the only acetotrophic methanogen
353 while the others are hydrogenotrophic methanogens that obtain energy for growth by using
354 hydrogen to reduce CO_2 to CH_4 .

355 The occurrence of *Methanosaeta* in the anaerobic digester was very likely because of the
356 low acetate concentration (<45 μM for all fertilizer conditions, Figure S4). In fact,
357 *Methanosaeta* dominate in stable habitats, where acetate levels are low, since they are
358 specialists with a higher affinity for acetate (Jetten et al., 1990). The acetate
359 concentrations in all digesters are generally within the threshold range for *Methanosaeta*
360 growth (7-70 μM), but not sufficient for the growth of other acetotrophic methanogen,
361 such as *Methanosarcina* (0.2-1.2 mM required) and hydrogenotrophic methanogens (0.4-
362 0.6 mM required) (Jetten et al., 1990). On the other hand, the dominant abundance of
363 *Methanosaeta* (more than 95% for all conditions) also indicated that acetate in sludge
364 was crucial for the methane production in this study. Therefore, the methane production
365 in such a *Methanosaeta* dominating system depended almost entirely on the abundance of
366 acetogenesis bacteria. The difference of biomethane production observed in this study
367 was therefore very likely caused by the variation of bacteria that could affect
368 acetogenesis.

369

370 **3.3 Effect of fertilizer types on the bacterial structure of anaerobic** 371 **sludge**

372 The bacterial composition of different conditions is presented in Figure 5. The duplicates

373 of each tested fertilizer are located close to each other in the figure, confirming the
374 similarity of the bacterial composition between two duplicates and the reproducibility of
375 experiments. It is also clear that the bacterial composition of KH_2PO_4 exhibited the
376 highest similarity to the DI condition without fertilizer. Bacteria composition with KCl
377 addition exhibited a higher difference than KH_2PO_4 , while bacterial composition with
378 KNO_3 addition is located far from the DI condition and other two fertilizers; exhibiting
379 the highest difference. It is interesting to note that the distances between bacteria
380 compositions of different fertilizers and DI condition (shown in Figure 5) are consistent
381 with the corresponding differences in bio-methane production (Figure 2) and the amount
382 of fertilizer addition determined by the FO process. The more similar bacterial
383 composition between fertilizer addition and DI condition was, the more bio-methane
384 would be produced. This confirms that the reverse diffusion of fertilizers affected the
385 bacteria composition by changing their living environment, and thus influencing the bio-
386 methane production.

387 40 bacteria genus were detected to have more than 0.1% relative abundance in all
388 samples (Figure S5). Within these 40 genus, 8 bacteria genus were found to have
389 different percentage for different fertilizer conditions. Figure 6 exhibits the bacteria genus
390 variation under different conditions, providing proofs to elucidate the impacts of bacteria
391 composition on bio-methane production. The 8 genus include *Enterococcus* and
392 *Trichococcus* of *Firmicutes* phylum, *vadinBC27 wastewater-sludge group*,
393 *Proteiniphilum* and *f_009E01-B-SD-P15_OTU_19* of *Bacteroidetes* phylum;
394 *Syntrophorhadus* and *Comamonas* of *Proteobacteria* phylum; *f_Spirochaetaceae_otu_58*
395 of *Spirochaetae* phylum. Within these genus, *Trichococcus* (Regueiro et al., 2014),
396 *Proteiniphilum* (Chen & Dong, 2005), *f_009E01-B-SD-P15_OTU_19*, *Syntrophorhadus*
397 (Ju & Zhang, 2014) and *f_Spirochaetaceae_otu_58* are acetogenesis bacteria, capable of
398 biodegrading organics into acetate. Sludge without fertilizer (DI condition) showed
399 similar percentages on all genus to sludge with KH_2PO_4 , confirming the similar bacteria
400 composition of these two conditions.

401 Considering that the acetotrophic *Methanosaeta* is the dominant archaea for all
402 conditions, it indicates that the similar methane production for these two conditions was
403 likely because the simulated KH_2PO_4 reverse diffusion did not cause significant changes

404 on the sludge microbial composition. Since the reverse diffusion of KH_2PO_4 was the
405 lowest among the three tested fertilizers, it indicates that the reduction of methane
406 production in FO-AnMBR could be minimized by limiting the reverse draw solute
407 diffusion. Regarding the sludge with KCl addition, the abundance percentages of most
408 genus were similar to the DI condition, except for the *Enterococcus* and *Trichococcus*.
409 *Enterococcus* is Lactic acid production bacteria (Fisher & Phillips, 2009). The
410 *Enterococcus* was higher in KCl condition than DI and KH_2PO_4 , which could produce
411 more lactic acid instead of acetate, which might not be suitable for the consumption of
412 *Methanosaeta*. Moreover, the lower abundance of *Trichococcus* in KCl and KNO_3
413 conditions could lead to an even lower acetate production in the digester and thus a lower
414 methane production, and this has been confirmed by the methane production shown in
415 Figure 2. Sludge with KNO_3 exhibited the lowest methane production, and interestingly,
416 besides the lower abundance of *Trichococcus*, the abundances of all other acetogenesis
417 bacteria in this condition were lower than other three conditions. Moreover, there were
418 three bacteria genus in sludge with KNO_3 which exhibited higher abundance percentages
419 than other conditions, which includes *Enterococcus*, *vadinBC27 wastewater-sludge*
420 *group* and *Comamonas*. As mentioned above, *Enterococcus* produce lactic acid, not
421 acetate, during anaerobic digestion and this might lead to the lower methane production.
422 *Comamonas* is an anoxic denitrifier (Chen et al., 2016; Etchebehere et al., 2001), so it
423 could utilize the nitrate in sludge as electron acceptor and produce nitrogen gas, and
424 consequently outcompete other acetogenesis bacteria and indirectly reduce the methane
425 production. This can be confirmed by the higher detected nitrogen gas production in
426 sludge with KNO_3 addition. Another possibility could be that the nitrate is toxic for the
427 acetogenesis bacteria and thus, the reverse diffusion of nitrate from KNO_3 led to the
428 reduced abundances of these bacteria genus.

429

430 **4 Conclusions**

431 This study demonstrated the impact of fertilizers' RSF on methane production in a hybrid
432 FDFO-AnMBR system and the mechanisms related to microbe composition. Different
433 fertilizers exhibited different RSFs with an order of $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4 < \text{KCl} < \text{KNO}_3$, and therefore
434 different negative impacts on the bio-methane production. The impact of RSF on methane

435 production was found to be through changes on the bacterial community in the AnMBR
436 system, instead of the archaea community. The lowest methane production observed for
437 KNO₃ fertilizer was also probably due to the promoted denitrification bacteria abundance
438 caused by the elevated nitrate concentration, which in turns outcompeted the acetogenesis
439 methanogens.

440

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590 **Figure captions**

591 **Figure 1:** Accumulated produced biogas volumes within anaerobic fermenters with
592 different reverse diffused fertilizers during a 20-day experiment. RSFs for KH_2PO_4 , KCl
593 and KNO_3 and draw solutes were 2.6, 2.4 and 12.2 $\text{g}/(\text{m}^2\cdot\text{h})$, corresponding to 19.1, 32.2
594 and 120.8 $\text{mM}/(\text{m}^2\cdot\text{h})$, respectively (Fig. S2). The values shown in the Figure are the
595 averages of duplicate experiments using each different fertilizer dosage, except for the
596 blank control with DI water. Complete composition of accumulated produced biogas is
597 shown in Table S2.

598 **Figure 2:** Methane (CH_4) and Nitrogen (N_2) gas volume in the accumulated produced
599 biogas for anaerobic fermenters with different reverse diffused fertilizers. RSFs for
600 KH_2PO_4 , KCl and KNO_3 and draw solutes were 2.6, 2.4 and 12.2 $\text{g}/(\text{m}^2\cdot\text{h})$, corresponding
601 to 19.1, 32.2 and 120.8 $\text{mM}/(\text{m}^2\cdot\text{h})$, respectively (Fig. S2).

602 **Figure 3:** Principle component analysis of archaeal community in sludge samples. Each
603 point represents the microbial community in a specific sample. Distance between the
604 sample dots signifies similarity; the closer the samples are, the more similar microbial
605 composition they have.

606 **Figure 4:** Abundant archaea genus at different draw solute reverse diffusion conditions.
607 (Values are average of duplicates for sludge samples with fertilizer dosage; deviation of
608 duplicates is within 2%).

609 **Figure 5:** Principle component analysis of bacterial community in sludge samples. Each
610 point represents the microbial community in a specific sample. Distance between the
611 sample dots signifies similarity; the closer the samples are, the more similar microbial
612 composition they have.

613 **Figure 6:** Top 8 abundant bacteria genus at different draw solute reverse diffusion
614 conditions (values are average of duplicates for sludge samples with fertilizer dosage;
615 deviation of duplicates is within 2%).

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618 **Table captions**

619 Table 1: Characteristics of anaerobic sludge used in this study.

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