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Glycerol-driven Denitratation: Process Kinetics, Microbial Ecology, and Operational Controls

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Water Impact Statement

This study's characterization of denitratation could, in conjunction with downstream anammox, yield a more sustainable alternative to chemical- and energy-intensive conventional nitrification and denitrification. The findings have an immediate and long-term influence on WRRFs incorporating short-cut BNR processes driven by glycerol. Results were subsequently used to propose bioreactor operating strategies that could maximize nitrite accumulation in real-world denitratation systems.

1 **Glycerol-driven Denitrataion: Process Kinetics,** 2 **Microbial Ecology, and Operational Controls**

3

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20 ABSTRACT: Denitrataion, the selective reduction of nitrate to nitrite, is a novel process when
21 coupled with anaerobic ammonium oxidation (anammox) could achieve resource-efficient
22 biological nitrogen removal of ammonium- and nitrate-laden waste streams. Using a

23 fundamentally-based, first principles approach, this study optimized a stoichiometrically-limited,
24 glycerol-driven denitratation process and characterized mechanisms supporting nitrite
25 accumulation with results that aligned with expectations. At the optimal influent chemical
26 oxygen demand to nitrate ratio of 3.0:1 identified, glycerol supported selective nitrate reduction
27 to nitrite (nitrite accumulation ratio, NAR=62%) and near-complete nitrate conversion (nitrate
28 reduction ratio, NRR=96%), indicating its viability in a denitratation system. Specific rates of
29 nitrate reduction (135.3 mg-N/g-VSS/h) were at least one order of magnitude greater than
30 specific rates of nitrite reduction (14.9 mg-N/g-VSS/h), potentially resulting in transient nitrite
31 accumulation and indicating glycerol's superiority over other organic carbon sources in
32 denitratation systems. Optimal stoichiometric limitation pH and ORP inflection points in
33 nitrogen transformation assays corresponded to maximum nitrite accumulation, indicating
34 operational setpoints to prevent further nitrite reduction. Denitratation conditions supported
35 enrichment of *Thauera* sp. as the dominant genus. Stoichiometric limitation of influent organic
36 carbon, coupled with differential nitrate and nitrite reduction kinetics, optimized operational
37 controls, and a distinctively enriched microbial ecology, was identified as causal in glycerol-
38 driven denitratation.

39

40 KEYWORDS: partial denitrification; denitratation; glycerol; short-cut biological nitrogen
41 removal; first-principles approach

42

43 1. Introduction

44 Conventional biological nitrogen removal (BNR), including energy and chemical-
45 intensive nitrification and denitrification, is traditionally used to treat ammonium-laden (NH_4^+)

46 waste streams. The advent of engineered processes that achieve oxidation of NH_4^+ to nitrite
47 (NO_2^-), termed nitrification, combined with denitrification (reduction of NO_2^- to nitrogen gas (N_2))
48 or anaerobic ammonium oxidation (anammox) represent short-cut BNR alternatives to
49 conventional BNR approaches. Such short-cut BNR processes can provide reductions in
50 chemical (external carbon for denitrification and alkalinity for nitrification) and energy use
51 (aeration for nitrification), driving the desire for NO_2^- accumulation within these processes.¹

52 Alternatively, waste streams containing concomitantly high concentrations of NH_4^+ and
53 nitrate (NO_3^-), such as those resulting from fertilizer² and explosives manufacturing,^{3,4} provide
54 similar energy and chemical reduction opportunities through distinct short-cut BNR processes.
55 A particularly effective pathway for treating waste streams containing both NH_4^+ and NO_3^- is
56 through heterotrophic⁵⁻¹⁰ or autotrophic¹¹ denitrification (selective reduction of NO_3^- to NO_2^-)
57 coupled with downstream anammox. A combined denitrification-anammox system used to treat
58 waste streams containing equal concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- , such as those previously
59 described, would theoretically reduce aeration energy requirements by 100% and COD
60 requirements by 60% compared to treatment of the same waste stream using conventional
61 BNR.¹² These benefits translate to municipal wastewater treatment as well, with a 50% decrease
62 in aeration energy and 80% in COD requirements for a partial nitrification-denitrification-
63 anammox system.¹² Recent studies⁵⁻¹⁰ on heterotrophic denitrification have focused on
64 performance in lab-scale sequencing batch reactors (SBRs) driven by acetate, methanol, glucose,
65 and sludge fermentation liquid due to the lack of sufficient readily biodegradable chemical
66 oxygen demand (COD) in typical waste streams. These studies have primarily been
67 observational in nature, with particular emphasis placed on empirically identifying parameters
68 and conditions that potentially contributed to NO_2^- accumulation, such as influent COD:N ratios,

69 pH, ORP, and loading rates. Stoichiometric limitation of influent COD:N ratios, specifically, has
70 been shown to influence endpoint nitrogen speciation.¹³ Various parameter combinations were
71 optimized, denoted by the observation of stable NO_3^- -to- NO_2^- conversion ratios as high as 90%
72 during steady-state studies.⁷

73 The selection of an external COD source to drive denitrification is critical when
74 attempting to maximize NO_2^- accumulation. Traditionally, methanol has been one of the most
75 widely used external COD sources for denitrification due to its low cost and wide availability.¹⁴
76 NO_2^- accumulation has proven difficult with methanol due to methanol dehydrogenase's direct
77 delivery of electrons to cytochrome *c* and proximal to NO_2^- reductase as opposed to distribution
78 solely through the ubiquinol pool to NO_3^- reductase similar to other carbon sources.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ The
79 unique electron delivery locations during methanol oxidation within the respiratory
80 denitrification chain potentially contribute to concomitant NO_3^- and NO_2^- reduction.

81 Several water resource recovery facilities are switching to glycerol due to the operational
82 and safety risks associated with methanol.¹⁴ Glycerol is similar in cost to methanol and less
83 expensive than ethanol and acetate,¹⁸⁻²⁰ is available as a waste or byproduct,^{21,22} and has no
84 known inhibitory effects on the anammox process, unlike methanol.²³ NO_2^- accumulation during
85 glycerol supplementation was also anecdotally observed in full-scale treatment plants resulting in
86 unintentional enrichment of anammox on the produced NO_2^- .²⁴ Nevertheless, to fully realize the
87 operating benefits that a denitrification-anammox system could offer, it is imperative for the
88 parameters and conditions leading to NO_2^- accumulation in a glycerol-driven denitrification
89 system to be systematically identified, defined, and addressed in relation to reactor operating
90 strategies.

91 Accordingly, the overarching goals of this study were to use a fundamentally-based, first
92 principles approach to characterize the process kinetics, nitrogen conversion efficiencies, and
93 microbial ecology of a glycerol-fed denitratation process, and identify concomitant reactor
94 operating strategies. The specific objectives were to (1) control selective conversion of NO_3^- to
95 NO_2^- through stoichiometric limitation of influent glycerol dose, (2) quantify the rates of NO_3^-
96 reduction relative to rates of NO_2^- reduction and understand their impact on the selective
97 accumulation of NO_2^- , (3) elucidate the microbial community structure under varied carbon-
98 loading levels in a functional glycerol-driven denitratation process, and (4) identify operational
99 controls and reactor operating strategies to maximize denitratation rates and efficiencies.

100

101 2. Materials and Methods

102 2.1. Experimental Set-up and Reactor Operation

103 A lab-scale SBR with a working volume, $V=12$ L, was operated at room temperature
104 ($22\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for a period of 232 d. The SBR was operated at a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 1
105 d, utilizing 4 cycles per day with each cycle consisting of a 90-min anoxic feed and react period,
106 a 180-min anoxic react period, a 50-min settling period, and a 40-min decant period. SBR feed
107 contained 100.0 mg/L NO_3^- -N as the terminal electron acceptor to simulate the influent of a high
108 NO_3^- -containing waste stream typical of a fertilizer² or explosives³ manufacturing facility, 25.0
109 mg/L NH_4^+ -N (to support assimilation), and macro and trace nutrients (Table S1). NH_4^+
110 availability supported cell growth with a more easily assimilable nitrogen source, maximizing
111 metabolic energy generation via NO_3^- reduction as opposed to assimilation. pH was controlled
112 automatically at 7.50 ± 0.05 using 0.5 M HCl and 1.0 M NaHCO_3 via a chemical dosing pump
113 (Etatron D.S., Italy). Sludge wasting was controlled daily at the end of the anoxic feed and react

114 period following COD exhaustion to maintain a solids retention time (SRT) of 3 d. Glycerol,
115 diluted to a 15% solution by volume, served as the external COD source and was provided to
116 meet influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios from 2.5:1 to 5.0:1. Glycerol was fed at the end of the anoxic
117 feed and react period so that examined influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios were met during each
118 cycle. Upon transitioning to each influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio tested, the SBR was determined to
119 be at steady-state once all biomass concentrations were within ±10% over the course of one SRT
120 period after which a stabilization period of 4 x SRT was allocated to allow for sludge acclimation
121 prior to assessing performance relative to other conditions. Sequencing and timing of SBR
122 cycles and daily solids wasting was controlled and maintained by peristaltic pumps (Masterflex,
123 IL) using electronic timers (ChronTrol Corporation, CA).

124

125 2.2. Sample Collection and Wastewater Quality Analysis

126 All analytical procedures employed were in accordance with Standard Methods for the
127 Examination of Water and Wastewater.²⁵ Aqueous-phase samples were withdrawn during the
128 decant period of the reactor cycle and concurrently from the influent for chemical species
129 analysis after centrifugation (8,000 x G, 10 min, 4-8°C) to remove cells and cell debris. NO₃⁻
130 and NH₄⁺ were measured using ion selective electrodes (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA). NO₂⁻
131 concentration was measured via diazotization and colorimetry.²⁵ The fraction of influent NO₃⁻
132 lost to nitrogenous gases was determined via mass balance on nitrogen. Centrifuged aqueous-
133 phase samples were filtered using 0.20 μm syringe filters (A Chemtek, MA) and stored at -20°C.
134 Dionex ICS-2100 ion chromatography using a Dionex IonPac AS-18 IC column (Thermo Fisher
135 Scientific, MA) was used to confirm ion selective electrode and colorimetric measurements of
136 NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ concentrations, respectively. Similarly, a Dionex IonPac AS-14 IC column

137 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA) was used to quantify volatile fatty acid production during
138 unbuffered *ex situ* batch kinetic assays. Separate aqueous-phase samples were extracted at the
139 end of the anoxic react period and during the decant period of the reactor cycle to assess total
140 biomass concentrations in the reactor and effluent, respectively, for SRT control. Aqueous-
141 phase samples taken during the decant period were centrifuged (8,000 x G, 10 min, 4-8°C) and
142 filtered using 0.45 µm syringe filters (A Chemtek, MA) to assess remaining soluble COD
143 (sCOD) concentrations (Hach Chemical Company, CO). Biomass concentrations were
144 approximated by subtracting sCOD measurements from total COD measurements to determine
145 particulate COD (pCOD) (Hach Chemical Company, CO).²⁶ Additional aqueous-phase samples
146 taken just prior to the end of the anoxic react period were centrifuged (8,000 x G, 10 min, 4-8°C),
147 supernatant was discarded, and cell pellets were preserved at -80°C for subsequent DNA
148 extraction and 16S rRNA gene sequencing at all influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios tested except for
149 influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.8:1.

150

151 2.3. Feeding Strategy Experiments

152 Two feeding strategies were evaluated to maximize NO₂⁻ accumulation during
153 experiments conducted following the 232 d operational period. A semi-continuous feeding
154 strategy delivered NO₃⁻-containing SBR feed and glycerol continuously for the first 75 and 72
155 min, respectively, of the anoxic feed and react period (Fig. S1). A pulse feeding strategy
156 delivered a pulse of NO₃⁻-containing SBR feed and glycerol every 45 min for the first 270 min of
157 the SBR cycle (Fig. S1). Feeding rates were controlled to maintain equivalent mass loading rates
158 of NO₃⁻ and glycerol and influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios for the two feeding strategies.

159

160 2.4. Batch kinetic assays

161 Batch assays, *in situ* (within the SBR) and *ex situ*, were conducted to measure extant
162 process kinetics and optimize operational controls, including batch duration, pH, and ORP. *In*
163 *situ* assays followed previously described sampling collection and chemical analysis procedures.
164 Aqueous-phase samples were obtained from the primary SBR at steady-state over the course of a
165 single 360-min reactor cycle. *Ex situ* assays were carried out in an anoxic, sealed, spinner flask
166 batch vessel with a working volume, $V=1$ L, at room temperature ($22\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$). Mixed liquor was
167 taken from the primary SBR at steady-state during the feed and react period, washed 4 times
168 using SBR feed without NO_3^- , and supernatant was discarded. Prior to extant kinetic batch
169 assays, the medium was buffered to pH 7.50 using 0.5 M HCl and 1.0 M NaHCO_3 and N_2 gas
170 was sparged until dissolved oxygen (DO) levels were equal to 0.01 mg/L O_2 , or the minimum
171 practical limit of the InPro 6850i polarographic DO sensor with M300 transmitter (Mettler-
172 Toledo, OH). pH was maintained at $\text{pH } 7.50\pm 0.05$ by manual control.

173 pH optimization batch assays were conducted within normal pH operating ranges (see
174 Supporting Information (SI)). NO_3^- and glycerol were dosed to meet the desired initial
175 COD: NO_3^- -N ratio. NO_3^- was dosed at the outset of the experiment (time=0 min) and the
176 biomass was incubated for 30 min prior to the addition of glycerol to ensure that residual
177 nitrogen species and glycerol from the primary SBR remaining in the washed mixed liquor were
178 consumed prior to data collection. pH, ORP, and DO were measured and recorded continuously
179 via an InPro 3253i/SG pH/ORP electrode and an InPro 6850i polarographic DO sensor,
180 respectively, attached to an M300 transmitter (Mettler-Toledo, OH).

181 Following extant kinetic batch assays, linear regression with $R^2\geq 95\%$ of NO_x -N species
182 from time points of maximum concentration to minimum concentration for each respective

183 species was performed with pCOD concentrations taken just prior to glycerol input to determine
 184 true specific rates of NO_3^- reduction ($sDNaR$) (Eqn. 1) and NO_2^- reduction ($sDNiR$) (Eqn. 2).
 185 NO_2^- production resulting from NO_3^- reduction was not accounted for in the determination of
 186 specific rates of NO_2^- reduction, yet this remains representative of a true reduction rate. During
 187 the time points assessed for each influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratio, NO_3^- removal was complete or
 188 near-complete (<3% of initial dose) except at influent COD: NO_3^- -N=2.5:1 where NO_3^-
 189 concentration measurements confirmed no continued NO_3^- reduction. pCOD measurements
 190 were used to determine maximum specific substrate consumption rates (Eqns. 1-2).

191

$$192 \quad sDNaR = \left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \left(\frac{\Delta S_{\text{NO}_3^-}}{\Delta t}\right) \quad \text{Eqn. 1}$$

193

$$194 \quad sDNiR = \left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \left(\frac{\Delta S_{\text{NO}_2^-}}{\Delta t}\right) \quad \text{Eqn. 2}$$

195

196 Where:

197 $sDNaR$: maximum specific NO_3^- consumption rate (mg NO_3^- -N/g VSS/h)198 $sDNiR$: maximum specific NO_2^- consumption rate (mg NO_2^- -N/g VSS/h)199 X : volumetric biomass concentration approximated using pCOD measurements (g

200 VSS/L)

201 $\frac{\Delta S_{\text{NO}_3^-}}{\Delta t}$: volumetric substrate (NO_3^-) consumption rate (mg NO_3^- -N/L/h)202 $\frac{\Delta S_{\text{NO}_2^-}}{\Delta t}$: volumetric substrate (NO_2^-) consumption rate (mg NO_3^- -N/L/h)

203

204 2.5. DNA Extraction, Next-Generation Sequencing of Amplicon Library, and Bioinformatics
205 DNA was extracted from biomass samples and purified using a QIAamp DNA Mini Kit
206 (Qiagen, Inc., MD). The quality and quantity of DNA were checked using a NanoDrop Lite
207 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA). Barcoded fusion primers with Ion Xpress™
208 sequencing adapters (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA) and a 16S rRNA bacterial 1055F/1392R
209 universal primer set were applied in each sample for multiplex sequencing. Amplification of
210 genomic DNA targets was performed with iQ™ SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, CA) and
211 purification via Agencourt AMPure XP Reagent (Beckman Coulter, CA). Library quantification
212 was performed with an Agilent DNA 1000 Kit (Agilent, CA). Template preparation with the
213 DNA library followed by Ion Spheres Particle (ISP) enrichment was performed using Ion
214 OneTouch2 (Ion PGM Hi-Q View OT2 Kit). Enriched ISP was loaded onto an Ion Torrent 318
215 v2 BC chip and run on an Ion Torrent Personal Genome Machine (Ion PGM Hi-Q View
216 Sequencing Kit). Ion Torrent Suite software was used for base calling, signal processing, and
217 quality filtering (Phred score of >15) of the raw sequences. The 1055F/1392R universal primer
218 set targeted sequences of approximately 350 base pairs (bp). Mothur software was used to
219 initially screen out likely incorrect amplicon sequences with bp lengths more than 50 bp different
220 than the target sequence length.²⁷ AfterQC software was utilized to further delete bad quality
221 reads (Phred score of <20) and trim the tails of reads where quality dropped significantly.²⁸
222 DADA2 programming via R Studio software was used to produce a table of non-chimeric
223 amplicon sequence variants from the demultiplexed fastq files.²⁹ QIIME2 software was applied
224 in conjunction with the Silva version 132 reference taxonomy for further post-sequencing
225 bioinformatic analysis.³⁰ Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) plot was generated through R
226 Studio ggplot2 package.

227

228 2.6. Nitrogen Conversion Calculations

229 Reactor performance was normalized with respect to the influent characteristics. A NO_2^-
 230 accumulation ratio (NAR) (Eqn. 3) was defined to relate the accumulation of NO_2^- to the
 231 removal of NO_3^- .³¹ A NAR equal to 100% indicated that all NO_3^- removed accumulated as NO_2^-
 232 compared to terminal reduction to N_2 gas, for which the NAR would be 0%. NO_3^- reduction was
 233 also classified in terms of a NO_3^- reduction ratio (NRR) (Eqn. 4), which normalized the
 234 conversion of NO_3^- to the influent NO_3^- concentration.¹⁰ A NRR equal to 100% would indicate
 235 conversion of all influent NO_3^- to any reduced form, while a NRR of 0% would indicate no
 236 conversion.

237

$$238 \quad \text{NAR} = \left[\frac{(\text{NO}_{2,\text{eff}}^- - N) - (\text{NO}_{2,\text{inf}}^- - N)}{(\text{NO}_{3,\text{inf}}^- - N) - (\text{NO}_{3,\text{eff}}^- - N)} \right] \times 100\% \quad \text{Eqn. 3}$$

239

$$240 \quad \text{NRR} = \left[\frac{(\text{NO}_{3,\text{inf}}^- - N) - (\text{NO}_{3,\text{eff}}^- - N)}{(\text{NO}_{3,\text{inf}}^- - N)} \right] \times 100\% \quad \text{Eqn. 4}$$

241

242 Where:

243 $\text{NO}_{2,\text{inf}}^- - N$: influent NO_2^- -N concentration (mg NO_2^- -N/L)244 $\text{NO}_{2,\text{eff}}^- - N$: effluent NO_2^- -N concentration (mg NO_2^- -N/L)245 $\text{NO}_{3,\text{inf}}^- - N$: influent NO_3^- -N concentration (mg NO_3^- -N/L)246 $\text{NO}_{3,\text{eff}}^- - N$: effluent NO_3^- -N concentration (mg NO_3^- -N/L)

247

248 3. Results and Discussion

249 3.1. Denitrification Reactor Performance

250 The influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio required for glycerol-driven denitrification (NO₃⁻-N to N₂
251 reduction) was thermodynamically³² determined to be 5.9:1 (see SI). This corresponded well
252 with experimentally-determined operational ratios of 5.0:1 to 5.6:1. Stoichiometric analysis
253 revealed that influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.4:1 (see SI) would provide only enough electrons via
254 COD oxidation to reduce NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ on a theoretical electron equivalence basis as opposed to
255 full denitrification. Therefore, influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios between 2.4:1 and 5.9:1 were
256 referred to as stoichiometrically-limited for the purposes of this study. These calculations form
257 the fundamentally-based foundation to the first principles approach used in this study to conduct
258 and interpret the results of glycerol-driven denitrification presented herein.

259 The utilization of glycerol as the external COD source and electron donor resulted in
260 significant NO₂⁻ accumulation at stoichiometrically-limited influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios from
261 2.5:1 to 5.0:1, indicating that the use of glycerol was feasible to sustain a denitrification process.
262 The highest degrees of NO₃⁻ removal and NO₂⁻ accumulation, as a function of influent
263 COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio during steady-state SBR operation, occurred at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1
264 (Fig. 1). This resulted in an average NO₂⁻ accumulation of 60.8±11.5 mg/L NO₂⁻-N (n=10) and
265 NAR of 62%, indicating that 62% of the NO₃⁻ reduced was converted to NO₂⁻ rather than
266 terminally reduced to N₂ gas. Additionally, the NRR was determined to be 96%, indicating that
267 a majority of the influent NO₃⁻ was converted leaving only approximately 4% of influent NO₃⁻ in
268 the effluent (Table 1). Accumulation of NO₂⁻ at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 compared to
269 influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=4.0:1 (p=0.21, α=0.05, n=7) and influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.8:1 (p=0.49,
270 α=0.05, n=10) was not significantly different. Similar NAR and NRR at influent COD:NO₃⁻-

271 N=3.0:1 and 4.0:1 indicated that influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 was more operationally optimal
272 due to the lesser required COD loading to achieve analogous performance. COD loading should
273 be minimized in a single-stage denitratation-anammox or in a denitratation system feeding
274 downstream anammox due to the negative impacts excess COD impart on anammox.³³

275 Substantial NO₃⁻ accumulation occurred at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.8:1 (31.7±11.4 mg/L
276 NO₃⁻-N, n=11), signifying that this ratio was less operationally optimal compared to influent
277 COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1. The observed NO₃⁻ accumulation at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 and 2.8:1
278 may be due to lower biomass concentrations (Table S2) requiring longer batch durations to
279 accomplish additional NO₃⁻ conversion through increased reaction time. However, effluent
280 sCOD concentrations were negligible (<3.7%; Table S2) signifying that glycerol was nearly
281 completely consumed within the examined batch duration. Rather, the observed NO₃⁻
282 accumulation in these cases indicated that the influent COD:NO₃⁻-N was not sufficient despite
283 the stoichiometric compliance of these influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios,¹⁰ potentially due to
284 unrealized COD requirements for cell maintenance and synthesis³⁴ or additional demand by non-
285 denitrifying³⁵ or fully-denitrifying microorganisms remaining in the microbial community.
286 Therefore, influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 was deemed more optimal than influent COD:NO₃⁻-
287 N=2.8:1 due to the similar NO₂⁻ accumulation coupled to less than 4% of the influent NO₃⁻
288 remaining in the effluent. The high sensitivity at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N<3.0:1 highlighted
289 significant implication for accurate system operation and control. A minimal reduction in
290 influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio from 3.0:1 to 2.8:1 yielded a sevenfold increase in effluent NO₃⁻,
291 signifying that strict control of the glycerol-driven denitratation system must be maintained. To
292 this end, online dosing control¹⁹ based on appropriate signals of reactor performance seems

293 necessary to maximize concomitant NO_3^- -N conversion selectively to NO_2^- during partial
294 denitratation.

295 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) across the influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios identified a
296 statistically significant difference in NAR ($p=4.8 \times 10^{-11}$, $\alpha=0.05$, $n=38$) with a decrease from 69%
297 to 11% as the influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratio approached that for glycerol-driven denitrification
298 (5.9:1; see SI). Further Holm-Sidak post-hoc multiple comparison analysis indicated that the
299 significant difference in NAR was primarily caused by the expectedly lower NAR at influent
300 COD: NO_3^- -N=5.0:1 ($p<9.7 \times 10^{-5}$ for all comparisons, $\alpha=0.05$; Table S3). The decrease in NAR
301 from influent COD: NO_3^- -N=4.0:1 to 5.0:1 was most likely attributable to excess available COD
302 that was used to further reduce accumulated NO_2^- to gaseous nitrogen products. No significant
303 difference in NAR (Table S3) was identified between influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios of 3.0:1
304 (NAR=62%) and 4.0:1 (NAR=57%), further supporting that similar NO_2^- accumulation could be
305 achieved at lower influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios while maintaining near-complete NO_3^- removal.

306 Previous studies^{5,7} observed that varying the influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratio had a negligible
307 effect on the NAR determined at the point of maximum NO_2^- accumulation during *ex situ* batch
308 experiments, while a separate batch study³⁶ concluded that the COD source, as opposed to the
309 influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratio, impacted the NAR more readily. In contrast, another separate batch
310 study⁸ concluded that NO_2^- accumulation was influenced by both the COD source and COD
311 dosing. While insightful, the utility of these results^{5,7,8} to guide steady-state denitratation
312 processes is limited as these studies failed to acclimate their batch experiment seed sludge to the
313 conditions being investigated, which likely contributed to their discrepancy with the current
314 study. Despite investigating the impact of various influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios, Ge et al.⁸
315 utilized a fully denitrifying inoculum, whereas Du et al.⁷ inoculated batch experiments assessing

316 various influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios with a microbial community acclimated to a single
317 stoichiometrically-limited influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio. Both seed sludges likely contained
318 phenotypes with NO₂⁻ accumulation capabilities different than those expected following
319 acclimation to the investigated conditions. Cao et al.⁵ did not report conditions of their batch
320 inoculum.

321 In an improvement over these previous efforts, our current study utilized a sludge
322 stabilization and acclimation period of 4 x SRT following influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio changes.
323 This intentionally allowed the microbial community to adapt to the influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio
324 being investigated. In doing so, it was observed that the influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio had similar
325 impacts on NAR during both steady-state operation (Fig. 1) and *ex situ* batch assays, with NO₂⁻
326 accumulation decreasing as influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios increased (Fig. S2).

327 In comparison to other steady-state operation studies^{7,10,37} using primarily sodium acetate
328 as the external COD source, glycerol-driven NARs were at least 10% lower (Table 1). While
329 most reported acetate-driven denitratation NARs were greater than 80%, glycerol-driven
330 denitratation yielded NARs less than 70%. These respective acetate-driven steady-state
331 studies^{7,10,37} were deemed reasonable comparisons due to similar COD dosing regimens and
332 results were reported for study periods sufficient in length to assume microbial community
333 acclimation to and stabilization at the studied conditions. Despite this, the assessment of reactor
334 performance based solely upon reported NARs can be misleading as the index does not account
335 for complete or other conversion of influent NO₃⁻. Thus, NAR=100% does not necessarily
336 indicate that all influent NO₃⁻ was converted. Several studies,^{5-7,37} however, reported NRRs of
337 nearly 100% that when coupled with a NAR approaching 100% indicated near-perfect
338 denitratation performance (Table 1). It follows then that optimal performance in the current

339 study occurred at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 with NAR=62% and NRR=96%. The inability of
340 glycerol to achieve similar efficiency to acetate- or fermentate-driven denitratation is not
341 currently understood. Possible explanations include a greater intracellular carbon and microbial
342 energy storage mechanism during low substrate availability,^{38,39} the COD-source supported
343 enrichment of a microbial consortium with a greater abundance of true denitrifiers,³⁵ an
344 inefficient metabolism in support of denitratation due to a less direct assimilability of glycerol, or
345 the downstream delivery of electrons on the electron transport chain similar to methanol.^{16,17}

346 Likely contributing factors to the need for a higher than the theoretical influent
347 COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio (see SI) were COD uptake for cell maintenance and synthesis³⁴ and
348 intracellular storage,³⁹ or an incomplete enrichment for a solely denitrating or progressive
349 onset⁴⁰ phenotype-dominated microbial community. The presence of non-denitrifying
350 heterotrophic microorganisms,³⁵ or those heterotrophs that express either a complete
351 denitrification metabolic pathway or a rapid, complete onset of denitrification genes⁴⁰ would
352 impose a competitive demand on influent COD. Competition for influent COD by
353 microorganisms exhibiting these phenotypes would decrease its availability for selective
354 reduction of NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ thus requiring influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios above that determined
355 theoretically, which was supported by the results herein (Table 1).

356

357 3.2. Process Kinetics

358 Notably, extant kinetic analysis indicated that transient NO₂⁻ accumulation at all influent
359 COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios assessed was potentially due to at least one order of magnitude greater
360 specific rates of NO₃⁻ reduction compared to the specific rates of NO₂⁻ reduction driven by
361 glycerol (Table 2).⁴¹ Observed performance at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N>3.0:1 (Fig. S2) also

362 supported this assertion as the maximum NO_2^- accumulated never equaled the initial NO_3^-
363 concentration, indicating that there was concomitant reduction of NO_3^- and NO_2^- . However,
364 performance at influent $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-:\text{N}=3.0:1$ resulted in near-complete selective reduction of
365 NO_3^- to NO_2^- prior to terminal reduction to N_2 gas (Fig. S2). It should be emphasized that the
366 kinetic profiles in Fig. S2 were obtained from acclimated biomass from individual SBRs
367 operated for at least 4 x SRT at each influent $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-:\text{N}$ ratio.

368 In general, measured specific rates of NO_3^- reduction and μ_{max} values were higher than
369 those previously reported for glycerol-driven full denitrification studies (Table 2) and may be
370 due to differences in the microbial community that was selected for by stoichiometric limitation
371 during our current denitrification-specific study. Glycerol-driven specific rates of NO_3^- reduction
372 values were nearly double those reported for acetate-driven systems at similar influent
373 $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-:\text{N}$ ratios, but slightly lower than those observed in an experiment utilizing a
374 combination of external COD sources garnered from sodium acetate and endogenous carbon in a
375 domestic wastewater stream (Table 2). The ratios of $s\text{DNaR}:s\text{DNiR}$ achieved in this study with
376 glycerol across different influent $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-:\text{N}$ values were also higher than previously reported
377 with acetate (Table 2). This difference may be due to variations in the direct assimilability of
378 each COD source with more assimilable COD sources such as glycerol or endogenous carbon in
379 these cases supporting greater specific rates of NO_3^- reduction,³⁴ or the COD source-supported
380 microbial community.

381

382 3.3. NO_2^- Accumulation through the Management of Operational Controls

383 3.3.1. Denitratisation Control via Batch Duration

384 Batch duration was identified as an effective process control parameter to maximize NO_2^-
385 accumulation. The duration of the anoxic feed and react period could be shortened to achieve
386 comparable or improved performance. NO_2^- concentrations decreased following peaks of NO_2^-
387 accumulation at higher influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios (4.0:1, 5.0:1; Fig. 2). This decrease was not
388 observed at influent COD: NO_3^- -N=3.0:1, indicating that excess COD remained following
389 completion of denitratisation at higher ratios. Despite minimal NO_2^- reduction following peak
390 NO_2^- accumulation at influent COD: NO_3^- -N=2.5:1, overall performance remained low, making
391 this ratio less effective at achieving partial denitratisation (Table 1; Fig. 2).

392 Results generally supported that influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratios have an inverse relationship
393 with time to maximum NO_2^- accumulation during the anoxic react period. Batch duration could
394 be reduced to 150 minutes or less, or the time to maximum NO_2^- accumulation (Fig. 2).
395 Subtraction of the feed and react period of the SBR cycle from the reduced batch duration, by
396 extension, would yield an optimal react time equivalent to a continuous flow system's HRT (Fig.
397 2). The optimal react time is representative of when glycerol is available for NO_3^- reduction in
398 both systems. Therefore, the identified optimal react times in our SBR system would be
399 equivalent to HRTs of approximately 30 minutes (COD: NO_3^- -N=4.0:1 and 5.0:1) to 60 minutes
400 (COD: NO_3^- -N=2.5:1 and 3.0:1) in continuous flow systems operating at each respective influent
401 COD: NO_3^- -N ratio.

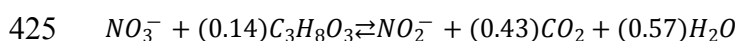
402

403 3.3.2. Denitrataion Control via pH and ORP

404 During unbuffered (see SI) and non-carbon limited operation (influent COD:NO₃⁻-N≥5.9:1),
 405 the denitrataion-dominated phase of the denitrification profile exhibited a distinct decrease in the
 406 reactor's pH and increase in the ORP until both reached inflection points after which pH increased
 407 and ORP decreased (Fig. 3). At this inflection point, NO₃⁻ reduction decelerated due to the
 408 depletion of available NO₃⁻ allowing for observable concomitant NO₂⁻ reduction thus decreasing
 409 the NAR and negatively impacting the objective of maximizing NO₂⁻ accumulation. Continuous
 410 monitoring of pH and ORP could provide an observable real-time control to maximize
 411 denitrataion. While feedforward online control of COD dosing tied to influent NO_x loading has
 412 proven effective in controlling denitrataion,¹⁹ this system requires online NO_x sensors which
 413 may not be achievable at all plants due to potentially high capital⁴² and maintenance costs.⁴³
 414 Rather, denitrataion control via pH and ORP observation could provide a backup check or serve
 415 as a less costly alternative⁴² with widely available and utilized sensors.

416 pH and ORP were previously reported as control parameters for denitrification driven by
 417 acetate, methanol, endogenous carbon, soybean wastewater, and brewery wastewater.^{7,8,36,44,45}
 418 Contrary to the distinct glycerol-driven pH and ORP profile observed in the current study, Ge et
 419 al.⁸ and Du et al.⁷ described acetate-driven profiles exhibiting a general increase in pH whereby a
 420 “turning point” separated denitrataion from denitrification. However, the observed pH profiles
 421 obtained experimentally in our study (Fig. 3) are in excellent concurrence with theoretically
 422 calculated net production of 0.43 equivalents of acidity per mole NO₃⁻ reduced to NO₂⁻ (Eqn. 5),
 423 which supported the observed pH fluctuation profiles.

424

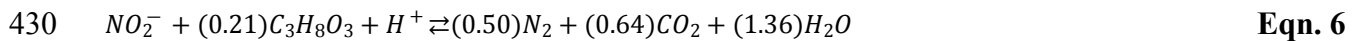
**Eqn. 5**

426

427 For completeness, stoichiometry (Eqn. 6) reveals that denitrification should result in a net

428 consumption of 0.36 equivalents of acidity per mole NO_2^- reduced to N_2 gas at pH 7.5.

429



431

432 3.3.3. Denitrification Control via Feeding Strategy

433 The pulse feeding strategy resulted in a statistically significant improvement in
434 denitrification performance ($\alpha=0.05$; $n=8$) over the semi-continuous feeding strategy in both NO_2^-
435 accumulation ($p=0.03$) and NO_3^- reduction ($p=0.0003$), indicating that feeding methodology
436 impacted the performance of the system (Table S4). As both feeding strategies maintained
437 equivalent influent COD: NO_3^- -N ratio per substrate pulse or for the duration of the semi-
438 continuous feeding period, this difference in system performance was thought to be influenced
439 by the temporal distribution of substrate pulses. Those pulses occurring later in the anoxic feed
440 and react period may have limited the time for the biotransformation of NO_3^- to gaseous nitrogen
441 thus allowing for greater NO_2^- accumulation. This is counter to the semi-continuous feeding
442 strategy, where fully denitrifying microorganisms within the microbial community had the full
443 anoxic feed and react period to reduce influent NO_3^- . Therefore, in a continuous-flow BNR
444 process, the spatial location of introducing glycerol could be another factor to promote partial
445 denitrification if possible. Optimizing the dosing location of electron donors is quite widely
446 practiced for increasing the efficiency of COD utilization even for full denitrification in step-feed
447 BNR or Bardenpho configurations.¹²

448

449 3.4. Microbial Ecology

450 *Proteobacteria* was the most dominant phylum out of 14 identified at all influent
451 COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios (Fig. 4a). *β-Proteobacteria* made up at least 73% of the *Proteobacteria*
452 phylum at all influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios. In a survey of wastewater denitrifying bacterial 16S
453 rDNA sequences retrieved from GenBank, Lu et al.⁴⁶ found that approximately 72% of
454 prokaryotic microorganisms displaying denitrifying capabilities were taxonomically affiliated
455 with *Proteobacteria*, while *β* sub-class affiliated microorganisms were typically abundant in
456 denitrifying activated sludge,^{2,46,47} similar to the findings herein.

457 Within *β-Proteobacteria*, the *Rhodocyclaceae* and *Comamonadaceae* families were
458 identified as those mainly involved in denitrification in activated sludge.^{47,48} Our findings
459 supported this as *Thauera* sp., belonging to the *Rhodocyclaceae* family within *β-Proteobacteria*,
460 was enriched as the most dominant genus with a relative abundance of nearly 80% at influent
461 COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 (Fig. 4b). While widely found in denitrifying activated sludge systems,⁴⁶
462 *Comamonadaceae* fam. was not identified in this study, indicating that their enrichment may not
463 be favored under stoichiometrically-limited conditions imposed herein. The microbial
464 communities at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1, 4.0:1, and 5.0:1 were similar, while that at influent
465 COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 was dissimilar from all others according to Principal Coordinates Analysis
466 (PCoA; Fig. S3) at the species taxonomic level. Both Chao-1 estimations⁴⁹ and Shannon's
467 diversity indices⁵⁰ further indicated that species richness decreased as influent COD:NO₃⁻-N
468 approached influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 with the richness at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 being
469 much greater than the other ratios examined (Table S5). The distinct difference in the microbial
470 community structure at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 compared to other influent COD:NO₃⁻-N

471 ratios examined (Fig. 4b; Fig. S3; Table S5) indicated that the influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio was an
472 important factor in the selection and regulation of the microbial community structure.^{51,52}

473 Influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1 presented the greatest relative abundance of *Thauera* sp.
474 (80%) which subsequently decreased (66% and 61% at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=4.0:1 and 5.0:1,
475 respectively) as influent COD:NO₃⁻-N increased. *Burkholderiaceae* fam. and *Paracoccus* sp.
476 persisted at elevated enrichment levels across the range of stoichiometrically-limited influent
477 COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios examined (Fig. 4b). Other studies identified both taxa as widely present in
478 heterotrophic denitrification systems^{53–55} with certain members able to express complete
479 denitrification pathways using myriad carbon sources.^{54,56,57} Their combined increase in relative
480 abundance as influent COD:NO₃⁻-N approached the theoretical requirement for complete
481 denitrification (5.9:1; see SI) coincided with increased fully-denitrifying performance (Fig. 1).
482 The decrease in the competitive demand for stoichiometrically-limited influent COD likely led to
483 a greater enrichment of microorganisms capable of expressing a complete denitrification
484 metabolic pathway or a rapid, complete onset of denitrification genes.⁴⁰ *Saccharimonadaceae*
485 fam., of Candidate phylum *Saccharibacteria*, persisted at all influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios
486 examined and has been reported to prefer complex organic substrates typically resulting from
487 endogenously-released compounds in activated sludge systems.^{58,59}

488 The structural change at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 corresponded with the decrease in
489 influent COD:NO₃⁻-N below the identified optimal ratio (3.0:1) and a deterioration in reactor
490 performance (Fig. 1). While NAR was not significantly different, a low NRR (54%; Table 1) at
491 influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 indicated that the selective pressure of insufficient influent COD
492 may have selected for microorganisms more capable of growth in the substrate-limited
493 conditions.¹² Those taxa previously mentioned remained similarly enriched; however, *Thauera*

494 sp. relative abundance decreased to 24%, indicating non-optimal conditions were present to
495 support glycerol-driven denitratation. *Rhizobiaceae* fam., reportedly able to express a complete
496 metabolic denitrification pathway,⁶⁰ and *Prostheco bacter* sp., an oligotroph that thrives in
497 nutrient-poor conditions,⁶¹ were enriched at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1 (4% and 6% relative
498 abundance, respectively). Both taxa presented negligible reads at all other influent COD:NO₃⁻-N
499 ratios examined suggesting that they may have been able to outcompete *Thauera* sp. for the
500 limited influent COD at influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=2.5:1.

501 Certain *Thauera* spp. strains have been characterized according to two distinct regulatory
502 phenotypes,⁶² including the immediate and simultaneous onset of all denitrification genes with
503 no detectable NO₂⁻ accumulation, as well as the progressive and sequential onset of
504 denitrification cascade genes with appreciable NO₂⁻ accumulation.⁴⁰ Selective pressures were
505 not identified for either in the current study, although the selection for progressive onset
506 denitrifiers would be critical to facilitate denitratation. The coupling of a high relative
507 abundance of *Thauera* sp. (Fig. 4b), high NRR, and high NAR (Table 1), with the ability to
508 perform full denitrification when presented with sufficient COD (Fig. S2) indicated that the
509 application of stoichiometric limitation in the influent COD:NO₃⁻-N as a selective pressure may
510 favor the progressive onset over rapid, complete onset phenotype. *Thauera* sp. may represent a
511 key functional microorganism for denitratation systems indicated by its decreasing relative
512 abundances away from the optimal influent COD:NO₃⁻-N (Fig. 4b). Several recent denitratation-
513 specific studies^{5,7,10,63} further supported this argument with reported *Thauera* sp. relative
514 abundances from 55% to 73% under limited influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios with acetate as the
515 external COD source despite different seed sludges. In comparison, acetate-driven full
516 denitrification studies reported no more than 12% relative abundance of *Thauera* sp.^{47,64}

517 Therefore, the application of a stoichiometrically-limited influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio as a
518 selective pressure in a denitratation system may impart a stronger impact on the denitrifying
519 community structure than previously recognized.

520

521 4. Conclusions

522 Denitratation, with downstream anammox processes, offers chemical and energy
523 reductions through resource-efficient BNR of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻-laden waste streams. A
524 fundamentally-based, first-principles approach was used to propose an influent COD:N ratio and
525 other operating parameters that would promote denitratation and experimental results aligned
526 with expectations. Glycerol supported the process kinetics and microbial ecology necessary to
527 selectively convert NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ in denitratation systems. Process control strategies, including
528 influent COD loading and pH, ORP, and batch duration operational setpoints were identified and
529 used to further define reactor operating strategies that could maximize denitratation performance.
530 Significant enrichment indicated *Thauera* sp. may represent a key functional microorganism in
531 denitratation systems. This study implicated stoichiometric limitation of influent organic carbon,
532 unique microbial community enrichment, and differential NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ reduction kinetics as
533 determinant factors in glycerol-driven denitratation.

534

535 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

536 E-supplementary data can be found in online version of the paper.

537

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545

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551

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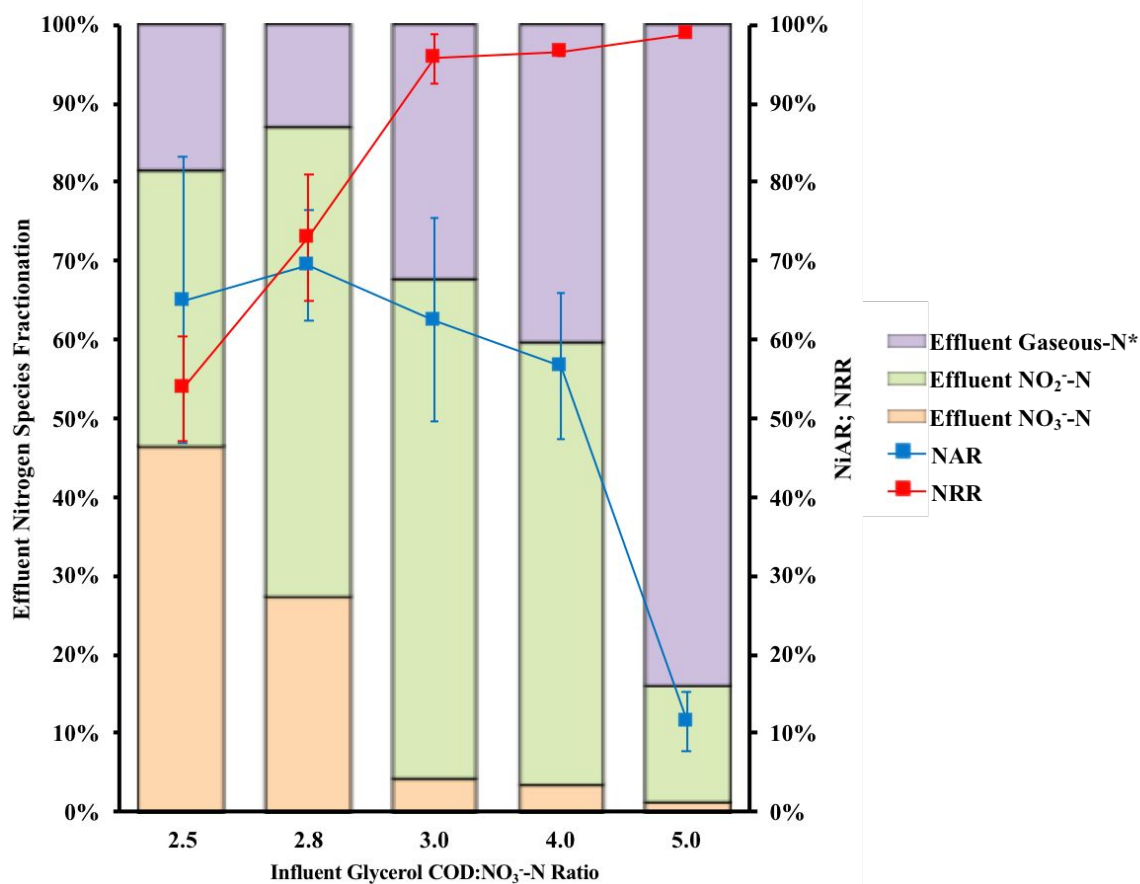
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737 **Figure 1.** Steady-state denitrification performance and respective NAR and NRR assessed at each738 influent COD:NO₃-N ratio. *Effluent gaseous-N contributions were calculated via mass balance.

739

740 **Table 1.** Influence of external COD source and influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratios on denitratation
 741 performance.

External COD Source	Influent COD:NO ₃ ⁻ -N	NAR [%]	NRR [%]	Reactor Type	Source
Sodium Acetate	3.0	51–73	~73–93	USB ^a	37
	3.0	80	~100	SBR	7
	2.75	83	~100		37
	2.5	87	85		10
Sodium Acetate / Domestic Wastewater	3.1 ^b	90	~100		5
Fermentation Effluent	3.0	80	~100		6
Glycerol	2.5	65±18	54±7		This study
	2.8	69±7	73±8		
	3.0	62±13	96±3		
	4.0	57±9	97±1		
5.0	11±4	99±0			

^a Upflow sludge blanket reactor (USB)

^b Reported influent ratio includes COD associated both with the domestic wastewater and external COD source

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744 **Table 2.** Summary of process kinetic parameters for both full denitrification and denitratation
 745 studies with respect to external COD source and influent COD:NO₃⁻-N ratio.

COD Source	Inf. COD:NO ₃ ⁻ -N	Inf. NO ₃ ⁻ -N [mg N/L]	μ _{max} [d ⁻¹]	sDNaR ^h [mg N/g VSS/h]	sDNiR ⁱ [mg N/g VSS/h]	Source
Sodium Acetate	1.22	2,700	--	23.0 ^f	19.0 ^f	65
	5.0	150	--	82.3	32.0	7
	1.0	--	--	52.0	--	8
	6.0	--	--	280.0	--	
Sodium Acetate / Domestic WW	3.4 ^e	1,000	--	190.0	--	5
Glycerol	5.0	100	--	6.5 ^{a,d}		22
	26.0	22.5	3.4	1.7 ^{a,b}		18
	26.0	22.5	2.0	1.35 ^{a,c}		
	2.5	100	--	112.3	1.8	This Study
	3.0	100	--	135.3	14.9	
	5.0	100	--	147.1	40.0	
	20.0 ^g (Unlimited)	100	6.2	--	--	

^a Rates reported as mg NO_x-N/g VSS/hr based upon full denitrification studies.

^b Rate reported in study exhibiting no NO₂⁻ accumulation.

^c Rate reported in study exhibiting NO₂⁻ accumulation.

^d Suspended phase rates reported; biofilm rates not reported for comparison purposes to current study.

^e Reported influent ratio includes COD associated both with the domestic wastewater and external COD source.

^f Rates reported from original study for the pH utilized in current study.

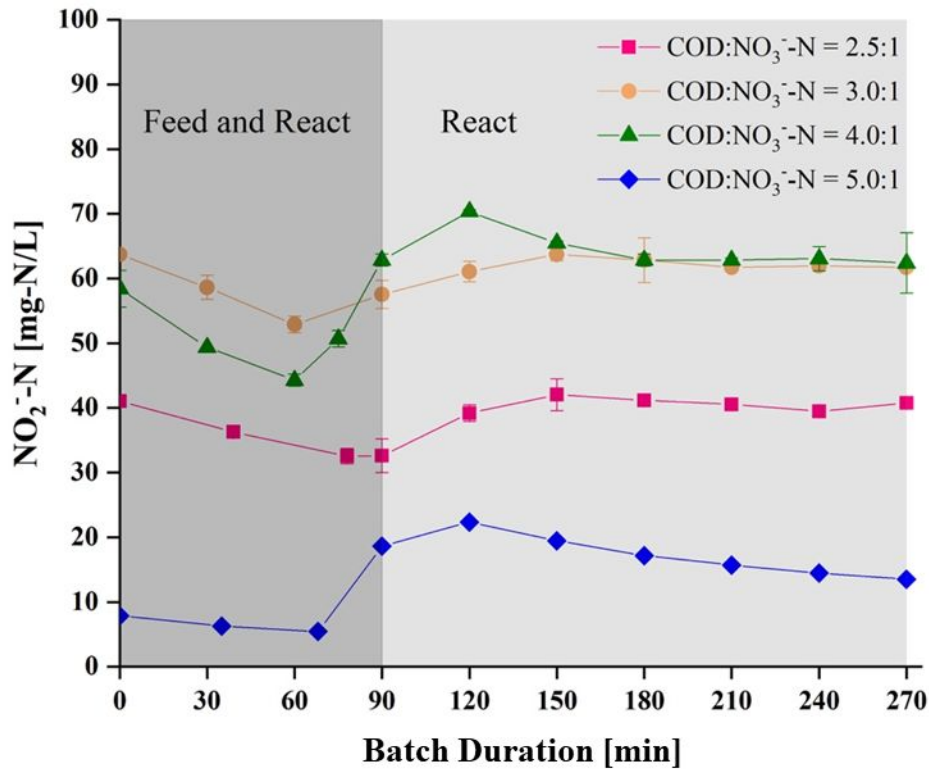
^g Batch experiment used biomass acclimated to influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0.

^h Specific rate of NO₃⁻ reduction (sDNaR)

ⁱ Specific rates of NO₂⁻ reduction (sDNiR)

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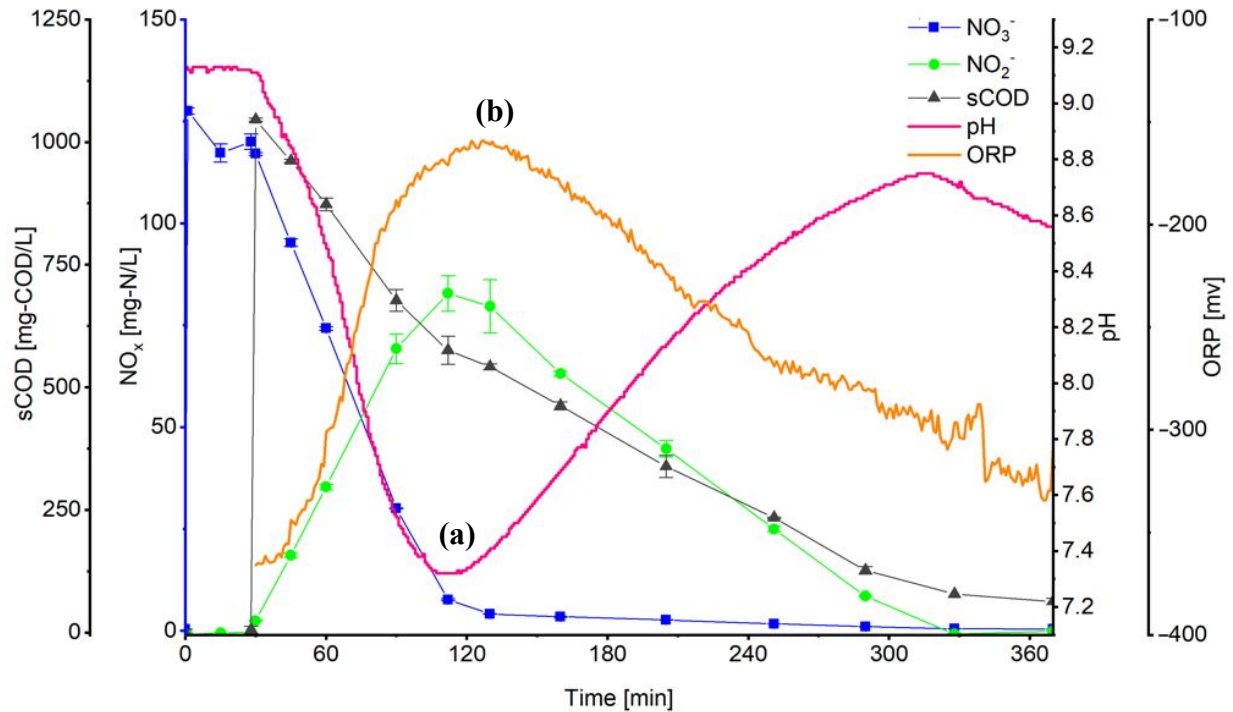
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749 **Figure 2.** Representative *in situ* NO_2^- -N profiles identified the optimal batch duration obtained
 750 during steady-state operation at each respective influent $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratio. Optimal batch
 751 durations corresponded to the points of maximum NO_2^- accumulation at each respective influent
 752 $\text{COD}:\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ratio. Decreases in NO_2^- concentrations during the feed and react period were
 753 attributed to dilution.

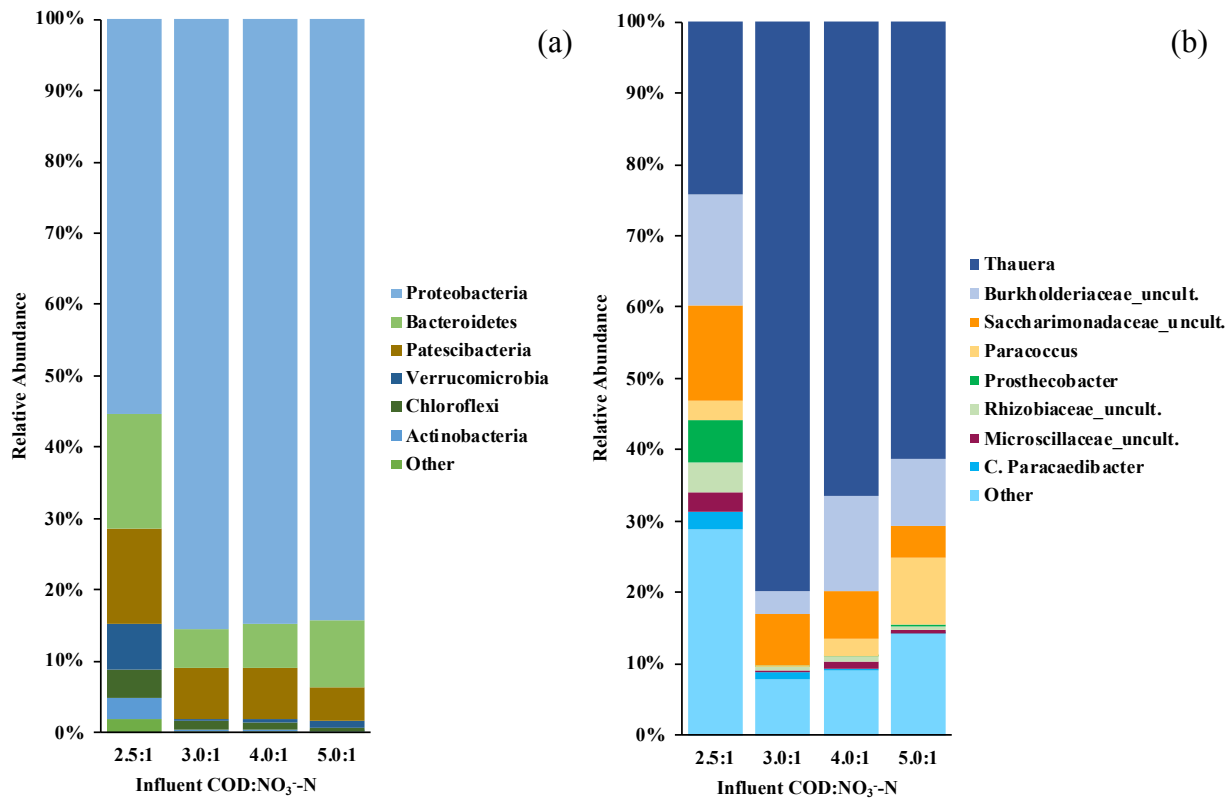
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756 **Figure 3.** NO_x , pH, and ORP profiles depicting the pH (a) and ORP (b) inflection points at the
 757 point of maximum NO_2^- accumulation prior to which denitritation was dominant and after which
 758 denitritation became dominant (influent $COD:NO_3^-:N=10.0:1$; microbial ecology acclimated to
 759 influent $COD:NO_3^-:N=3.0:1$). Influent COD was provided in excess and beyond that at which
 760 biomass was acclimated in order to drive the process beyond denitritation and demonstrate the
 761 ability of pH and ORP to serve as denitritation process controls even under non-ideal influent
 762 $COD:NO_3^-:N$ ratios.

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765 **Figure 4.** Taxonomic analysis of the microbial consortium at the phylum (a) and genus (b)766 taxonomic levels under optimal operating conditions (influent COD:NO₃⁻-N=3.0:1, SRT=3 d).

767 The grouping “Other” comprises OTUs with less than 1% total relative abundance (among all

768 samples summed).

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