

# RSC Advances



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This *Accepted Manuscript* will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1 Investigation of fate and behavior of tetracycline in nitrifying sludge  
2 system

3 Chao Song, Xue-Fei Sun, Peng-Fei Xia, Yun-Kun Wang, Shu-Guang Wang\*

4 Shandong Key Laboratory of Water Pollution Control and Resource Reuse, School of

5 Environmental Science and Engineering, Shandong University, Jinan 250100, China

6

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

---

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 531 88365919; Fax: +86 531 88364513.

*E-mail address:* wsg@sdu.edu.cn (Shu-Guang Wang)

## 7 **Abstract**

8 This study aims to investigate the fate and behavior of tetracycline (TC) in  
9 nitrifying sludge system, as well as the effects of TC dosage on sludge performance.  
10 For this purpose, two TC spiked and two control laboratory reactors were operated for  
11 two months, while the spiked reactors (designated as RI and RII) were intermittently  
12 fed with TC at the concentrations of 10 and 1 mg/L, respectively. TC could be  
13 effectively removed via initial adsorption and subsequent biodegradation, while  
14 biodegradation was the primary mechanism in this study. Compared to RII, no  
15 significant negative effects were found on dehydrogenase activity under higher TC  
16 stress in RI. It is interesting that RI showed better nitrification performance than RII,  
17 especially higher nitrite oxidation capacity. Moreover, exposure to TC also promoted  
18 the formation of aggregation and affected the composition of nitrifying bacteria. The  
19 relative contents of nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (NOB) in RII decreased by almost 50%,  
20 from  $11.4 \pm 3.2\%$  to  $6.5 \pm 2.5\%$  while it was slight change in RI, from  $11.9 \pm 5.8\%$  to  
21  $11.2 \pm 3.8\%$ . Furthermore, the mean sludge diameter increased from  $218.3 \pm 7.8 \mu\text{m}$   
22 to  $512.4 \pm 7.8 \mu\text{m}$  and  $353.8 \pm 11.1 \mu\text{m}$  in RI and RII, respectively. It indicated that  
23 larger aggregations were discovered in reactors with high TC stress. The aggregation  
24 might lead to multilayer structure of sludge to protect microorganism inside, which  
25 would explain the higher relative abundance of NOB in reactors with high TC stress.  
26 This work expands our vision about the fate and behavior of antibiotics in activated  
27 sludge system, which has far-reaching implications in activated sludge process.

28 **Keywords:** tetracycline; nitrifying sludge; aggregation; degradation; fluorescent in  
29 situ hybridization (FISH)

## 30 1. Introduction

31 Tetracycline (TC), a type of broad-spectrum antimicrobial active compounds, is  
32 widely used in modern agriculture and livestock industries as growth promoters and to  
33 improve feed efficiency.<sup>1, 2</sup> However, most tetracycline, about 50-80%, is excreted  
34 through urine and feces without metabolism and released into the environment.<sup>3, 4</sup>  
35 According to the recent research, residues of TC have been detected in sewage  
36 effluents, surface water and drinking water.<sup>5, 6</sup> The presence of tetracycline antibiotics  
37 in the environment could promote the transfer and spread of antibiotic resistance  
38 genes among microorganisms, which have a potential risk in public health.<sup>7-9</sup>  
39 Therefore, the elimination of tetracycline antibiotics from water resources is an  
40 important research subject.

41 The activated sludge technology is the most common process for the secondary  
42 treatment of wastewater. It has been reported that tetracycline antibiotics could be  
43 removed by activated sludge with the efficiencies of 11.6% to 85.4%.<sup>10, 11</sup>  
44 Nevertheless, most of TC removed via conventional activated sludge is through  
45 adsorption with little biodegradation. Li and Zhang systematically examined the  
46 elimination of TC by two types of activated sludge treating freshwater sewage and  
47 saline sewage, respectively, and found that adsorption was the primary mechanism for  
48 TC removal in activated sludge systems while biodegradation can be completely  
49 ignored.<sup>12</sup> Besides, it has been reported that only  $61.0 \pm 2\%$  of tetracycline was  
50 removed in anaerobic-anoxic-oxic process, while the biodegradation contributed only  
51 about 21.4% to the total removal of tetracycline.<sup>13</sup> Compared with conventional  
52 activated sludge, activated sludge with excellent nitrification performance could  
53 enhance the biodegradation of pharmaceutically active trace organic contaminants  
54 like antibiotics for the long sludge retention time.<sup>14</sup> Khunjar *et al.* discovered that  
55  $17\alpha$ -ethinylestradiol, a potent endocrine disruptor, could be degraded by nitrifying  
56 activated sludge.<sup>15</sup> Moreover, Fernandez-Fontaina *et al.* obtained high biodegradation  
57 efficiencies of 11 target antibiotics with nitrifying sludge.<sup>16</sup> In addition, nitrifying  
58 bacteria have been reported to exhibit a high tolerance to TC.<sup>17</sup> Hence, nitrifying

59 sludge process might be a potentially promising technology for TC wastewater  
60 treatment for the long sludge retention time and high tolerance. However, little  
61 information existing in the literature covers systematical evaluation of the fate and  
62 behavior of TC in nitrifying sludge process.

63 The main objectives of this work are to evaluate the biodegradation treatability  
64 of TC by nitrifying sludge and to investigate the fate and behavior of TC in nitrifying  
65 sludge system at lab-scale. Long-term operated reactors with different TC  
66 concentration were designed to study the elimination and fate of TC. Moreover, the  
67 morphology and nitrification properties of nitrifying sludge were evaluated to explore  
68 the macroscopic effect of TC on sludge. And, fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)  
69 were executed to assess the evolution of nitrifying populations.

## 70 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 71 *2.1 Nitrifying sludge and reactor operation*

72 Nitrifying sludge was collected from a sequencing batch reactor (SBR) fed with  
73 synthetic wastewater. The operational schedule of SBR was described in previous  
74 work.<sup>18</sup> In the experiments, two 1.5-L reactors (designated as RI and RII) with 1 L of  
75 mixed liquor were covered with tin foil paper to prevent photolytic degradation of TC,  
76 and run simultaneously at room temperature around 25 °C. The initial mixed liquid  
77 suspended solids concentrations (MLSS) were 606.7 and 626.7 mg/L for RI and RII,  
78 respectively. The reactors were operated sequentially in successive cycles of 72 h for  
79 the slow growth of nitrifying bacteria.<sup>19</sup> Each cycle consisted of 20 min influent  
80 feeding, 71 h with stirring (90 rpm), 30 min settling and 10 min effluent withdrawal.  
81 The volumetric exchange ratio was 50% and a small amount of sludge was discharged  
82 in each cycle to maintain MLSS stability. The dissolved oxygen concentration was  
83 measured with a dissolved oxygen meter (YSI Model 85, USA) and remained above  
84 5.0 mg/L during the operation.

85 The reactors were fed with synthetic solution ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N, 50 mg/L;  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 2000  
86 mg/L and other trace elements solution described by Fernandez-Fontaina *et al.*<sup>16</sup>; pH

87 = 7.2-7.6). At the beginning of each cycle, TC was added at initial concentrations of  
88 10 mg/L in RI and 1 mg/L in RII, which was a range of concentrations within the  
89 higher level of this antibiotic in wastewater.<sup>20</sup>

### 90 *2.2 blank experiment and abiotic control experiment*

91 In the blank experiment, two other reactors with only 10 mg/L and 1 mg/L TC  
92 added were run with stirring at 90 rpm for 72 h in dark at room temperature. The  
93 elimination of TC was only accounted by hydrolysis and volatilization.

94 In abiotic control experiment, nitrifying sludge samples were put into two 1.5-L  
95 reactors with a total volume of 1 L. The MLSS were adjusted about 600 mg/L.  
96 Sodium azide was added (3 g/L) in both reactors to inhibit microbial activity of the  
97 sludge.<sup>21</sup> The reactors were run for three cycles under the same operating conditions  
98 of RI and RII, with the addition of 10 mg/L and 1 mg/L TC at the beginning of each  
99 cycle, respectively. The aqueous samples were taken over 220 h for TC analysis by  
100 HPLC.

### 101 *2.3 Analytical methods*

102 The content of TC was determined by high performance liquid chromatography  
103 (HPLC, Shimadzu, LC-20AT) with a UV detector using a 5  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  4 mm  $\times$  250 mm  
104 ODS-C18 column. The mobile phase was a mixture of 0.01 M oxalic acid  
105 solution/acetonitrile/methanol 80:16:4 (v/v/v). Isocratic elution was performed with a  
106 wavelength of 360 nm at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Standard calibration showed good  
107 linearity ( $R^2 > 0.999$ ) between the concentrations of TC and the peak area response.  
108  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  and MLSS were analyzed according to the standard  
109 methods.<sup>22</sup> The morphology of nitrifying sludge was observed by an Olympus DP72  
110 microscope with a digital camera. The particle size was measured using a laser  
111 particle size analysis system (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern Instruments, UK).

### 112 *2.4 Analysis of TC in the liquid and solid phases*

113 For aqueous content analysis, about 0.5 mL samples were taken from the two  
114 reactors and filtered through a 0.22- $\mu\text{m}$  nylon membrane and stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until  
115 analysis by HPLC. The concentration of TC in the solid phase was analyzed by a  
116 modified method.<sup>23</sup> A slurry sample of 10 mL was centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 10  
117 min, and the solid residual was washed twice with 10 mL normal saline solution (0.9%  
118 NaCl solution). Then, the sludge was re-suspended with normal saline solution and  
119 treated with ultrasonic cell disruption system for 10 min, followed by centrifugation at  
120 8,000 rpm for 10 min. Finally, the supernatant was collected into a volumetric flask  
121 and diluted to 50 mL. The diluted solution was analyzed by HPLC to detect the TC  
122 concentration in solid phase. The TC recovery was  $97.3 \pm 2.6\%$ .

123 The removal of TC by adsorption and biodegradation was calculated with a  
124 modified mass balance methods described previously.<sup>16</sup>

$$125 \quad \text{Residue} = C_{w,t}/(C_{w,0} + C_{s,0}) \quad (1)$$

$$126 \quad \text{Sorption} = C_{s,t}/(C_{w,0} + C_{s,0}) \quad (2)$$

$$127 \quad \text{Biodegradation} = 1 - \text{Sorption} - \text{Residue} \quad (3)$$

128 where  $C_{w,0}$  and  $C_{s,0}$  are the concentrations of TC in liquid and solid phase at 0 h  
129 in a cycle, respectively.  $C_{w,t}$  and  $C_{s,t}$  are the concentrations of TC in liquid and solid  
130 phase at t h, respectively.

### 131 *2.5 Assay of dehydrogenase activity in sludge*

132 Dehydrogenase activity (DHA) was determined following the method described  
133 by Yang *et al.* by the reduction of 2,3,5-triphenyl tetrazolium chloride (TTC).<sup>24</sup>  
134 Samples from two reactors were treated with ultrasonic cell disruption system for 10  
135 min and transferred to 50 mL centrifuge tubes which contained 5 mL Tris-HCl buffer  
136 (pH = 8.4), 2.5 mL 0.36%  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  solution and 5 mL 0.4% TTC aqueous solution.  
137 Then, the tubes were incubated in a thermostatic water bath oscillator at  $37 \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  for  
138 1 h. After incubation, 2.5 mL of formaldehyde was added to stop the reaction and the  
139 triphenyl formazan (TPF) formed was extracted with 10 mL acetone at  $37 \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  for

140 30 min in the dark. After that, the mixture was centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 10 min  
141 and the absorbance of supernatant was measured at 485 nm. The data was expressed  
142 as mg TPF g<sup>-1</sup> SS h<sup>-1</sup>.

### 143 2.6 Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) analyses

144 FISH analysis was conducted to assess the evolution of nitrifying populations in  
145 the two reactors. Samples were collected from RI and RII at the 1st and 60th day. The  
146 biomass was fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde solution for 3 h at 4°C. After fixation,  
147 samples were centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min, washed twice in 1 × phosphate  
148 buffer saline (PBS), and re-suspended in ethanol/PBS solution (1:1) for storage at  
149 -20°C. Hybridization was conducted according to an established method.<sup>25</sup> The  
150 rRNA-targeted oligonucleotide probes used in this study were Cy3-labeled EUB338 for  
151 most bacteria<sup>26</sup>, FITC-labeled Nso190 for nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (NOB)<sup>27</sup>,  
152 Cy3-labeled Ntspa662 and Cy3-labeled Nit3 for ammonium-oxidizing bacteria  
153 (AOB)<sup>28</sup>. Samples were hybridized with three probes-pairs individually: EUB338 and  
154 Nso190, Ntspa662 and Nso190, as well as Nit3 and Nso190. The image acquisition  
155 was performed by a fluorescence microscope (OLYMPUS DP72) and the images  
156 were analyzed by Image-Pro Plus 6.0. For each sample, at least 10 different fields  
157 were randomly examined in order to ensure data reliability.

## 158 3. Results and Discussion

### 159 3.1 Nitrification performance in reactors

160 In order to study the nitrifying activity in both reactors, typical cyclic tests were  
161 designed to investigate the nitrification performance of nitrifying sludge. The typical  
162 patterns of nitrogen composition were shown in Fig. 1. In RI, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N was removed  
163 completely after 25 h, while NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N maintained a low level with slight increase. The  
164 concentration of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N increased rapidly at the initial 20 h and then decreased  
165 quickly to very low level. In RII, the removal of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N was much slower than that  
166 in RI and still remained 3.8 mg/L at the end of cycle. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration remained  
167 almost unchanged, while NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N was gradually produced and accumulated. In abiotic



168 control experiment, nitrification performance was also investigated in presence of  
169 sodium azide. In abiotic control experiment, the concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$ ,  
170  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  remained almost constant during 72 h, implying that nitrifying sludge had no  
171 effects on nitrification when sodium azide was added. These results also suggested  
172 that the changes of nitrogen composition in RI and RII (shown in Fig. 1a and b)  
173 resulted from biological activity in nitrifying sludge.

174 Biological nitrification is a two-step reaction as follows, AOB transform  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$   
175 to  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$ , and NOB further oxidize  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ .<sup>29</sup> Nitrogen removal  
176 efficiency would be reduced if any of these two steps was inhibited.<sup>30</sup> In this study, RI  
177 and RII displayed high removal ability of ammonia and AOB was more active in RI  
178 than RII. Moreover, the activity of NOB in RII was also much lower than that in RI,  
179 which led to the nitrite accumulation in RII. Obviously, the presence of TC inhibited  
180 the nitrification process in RII. Katipoglu-Yazan *et al.* evaluated the acute impact of  
181 TC on nitrifying mixed microbial culture and came to the conclusion that TC  
182 inhibited and retarded nitrification kinetics and nitrite oxidation, resulting in nitrite  
183 accumulation.<sup>17</sup> Moreover, it is notable that TC had an evident toxic effect on both  
184 AOB and NOB, but much stronger on NOB, implying that NOB was more sensitive  
185 to hostile environment.<sup>31-33</sup> Compared with the two reactors, the differences suggested  
186 that nitrifying sludge system with higher TC concentration exhibited better  
187 nitrification performance than that with lower TC concentration in this study, which  
188 was contrary to other research.<sup>6, 34</sup> It might be caused by the changes of microbial  
189 activity and sludge structure under TC stress.

### 190 3.2 Removal of TC in the nitrifying sludge system

191 According to the blank experiment profiles (Fig. S1), the concentration of TC  
192 remained almost constant during 72 h, indicating the elimination due to hydrolysis  
193 and volatilization of TC were so slight to be negligible. Thus, the removal of TC was  
194 mainly due to biological degradation and adsorption in this study. The removal of TC  
195 in the nitrifying sludge system was also investigated. As shown in Fig. 2, high TC  
196 removal capacity was obtained in both reactors. Within the first cycle, the TC

197 concentration in RI and RII decreased rapidly to mass fractions (relative to the initial  
198 amount in both reactors) of 22.4% and 6.8%, respectively. After that, the removal  
199 profiles of TC showed similar trend in the rest cycle (from the second cycle to the  
200 tenth cycle). The TC removal efficiency in RI was maintained at  $42.6 \pm 6.7\%$  at the  
201 end of the rest cycles, while that in RII sustained at  $75.5 \pm 7.3\%$ . Fig. 2c and d  
202 showed that adsorption mainly happened in the first cycle, and then the concentration  
203 of TC remained almost constant (Fig. 2c) or had a slight changes (Fig. 2d) during the  
204 next two cycles. Moreover, the declines of TC in the first cycle of RI and RII were  
205 almost the same with those in abiotic control reactors with similar removal efficiency.  
206 These results suggested that adsorption might be the primary mechanism for  
207 tetracycline removal in RI and RII while degradation can be ignored in the first cycle.  
208 Similar conclusions were also obtained in other studies.<sup>23, 32</sup> However, the TC  
209 concentration in control experiment remained almost constant during the next two  
210 cycles (Fig 2c and d), implying that the adsorption of TC by nitrifying sludge could  
211 reach equilibrium after the first cycle. Thus, we assumed that the removal of TC in the  
212 rest test could be mainly attributed to biodegradation. The adsorption and desorption  
213 of TC by nitrifying sludge might lead to the fluctuation of removal efficiency.

### 214 *3.3 Fraction of TC removal*

215 To obtain further insights into the adsorption and biodegradation of TC in  
216 nitrifying sludge system, experiments during each cycle were carried out when both  
217 reactors were stable. As shown in Fig. 3, the contents of TC in the liquid and solid  
218 phases were measured on behalf of the TC amount of residue and adsorption.<sup>35</sup> The  
219 biodegradation proportion was calculated according to mass balance. In RI and RII,  
220 about 14.5% and 17.3% TC was removed through adsorption, while 35.5% and 56.6%  
221 was achieved via biodegradation at the end of the cycle. The proportion of adsorption  
222 in RI and RII had a slight increase in the first 8 h and then decreased slightly.  
223 Compared with the part of the biodegradation, the removal by adsorption remained  
224 unchanged,  $14.9 \pm 1.0\%$  and  $28.3 \pm 7.3\%$ , respectively, clearly indicating that the  
225 adsorption equilibrium had been reached. These results verified the previous

226 assumption that biodegradation was the main approach to removal TC in subsequent  
227 operation. The biodegradation of TC showed a lag period in the first 8 h, after which  
228 it speeded up until the end of the cycle, implying that there was microbial acclimation  
229 of nitrifying sludge to TC of higher concentration at the beginning of the cycle.<sup>36</sup>  
230 Therefore, the initial removal of TC mainly depended on adsorption, and the  
231 subsequent decreases were attributed to biodegradation. At the later stage of cycle, the  
232 decrease of TC adsorbed by microbes would be attributed to the biodegradation.<sup>35</sup>

### 233 3.4 The enzyme activity of nitrifying sludge

234 The dehydrogenase is an enzyme oxidizing a substrate by a reduction reaction  
235 via transferring one or more hydrides (H<sup>-</sup>) to an electron acceptor.<sup>37</sup> The endogenous  
236 activity of sludge is measured in the absence of organic substrate, while the substrate  
237 metabolism activity is evaluated when the substrate is added.<sup>38</sup> In this study, TC was  
238 the only organic substrate added in both reactors, indicating that the trends of DHA  
239 might be positively correlated with the biodegradation efficiency of TC. The DHA at  
240 different time in a cycle was monitored and illustrated in Fig. 4a. In RI and RII, the  
241 DHA decreased from  $0.62 \pm 0.15$  and  $0.49 \pm 0.02$  mg TPF g<sup>-1</sup> SS h<sup>-1</sup> to  $0.47 \pm 0.06$   
242 and  $0.46 \pm 0.02$  mg TPF g<sup>-1</sup> SS h<sup>-1</sup> in the first 6 h, and then increased to  $0.79 \pm 0.08$   
243 and  $0.69 \pm 0.17$  mg TPF g<sup>-1</sup> SS h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

244 The DHA should be minimum at 0 h because of the highest TC concentration in  
245 reactors. However, the results showed that sludge had relatively high metabolism  
246 activity at 0 h in this study. It would be explained by the incomplete diffusion of TC  
247 to nitrifying sludge when TC was just added. DHA in the two reactors was not  
248 significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ) via two-way ANOVA analysis, suggesting that  
249 nitrifying sludge under higher TC stress had similar metabolism activity with that  
250 under lower TC stress. It seems that higher TC concentration did not result in lower  
251 DHA which was consisted with the results about TC biodegradation and nitrogen  
252 removal. Besides, it was found that the amount of TC biodegradation and DHA in  
253 both reactors were linearly dependent (Fig. 4b), indicating that dehydrogenase might  
254 play an important role in TC biodegradation.

### 255 3.5 FISH analysis

256 FISH analysis was further conducted to assess the evolution of microbial  
257 community in the nitrifying sludge system, while the distributions and quantities of  
258 AOB and NOB in both reactors were assessed using specific probes. It was easy to  
259 find in FISH images (Fig. S2) that NOB formed dense aggregations in close proximity  
260 to AOB in both reactors. The formation of micro-clusters consisting of AOB and NOB  
261 had been reported in other study,<sup>39</sup> and Okabe *et al.* observed a close association  
262 between AOB and NOB in the autotrophic nitrifying biofilms.<sup>40</sup> Quantitative FISH  
263 image analyses (Table 1) showed that, at the initial stage of operation, the fraction of  
264 NOB in total bacteria were about  $11.9 \pm 5.8\%$  and  $11.4 \pm 3.2\%$  in RI and RII,  
265 respectively. At the end of the experiment, the NOB fraction represented  $11.4 \pm 3.2\%$   
266 in RI whereas it took up only  $6.5 \pm 2.5\%$  in RII. Statistical analysis of the data at the  
267 beginning and the end of the operation showed that there was no significant difference  
268 ( $P > 0.05$ ) in RI while the results in RII were significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). This phenomenon  
269 indicated that low TC stress (1 mg/L) exhibited more effect on the composition and  
270 structure of microorganism in nitrifying sludge than high TC stress (10 mg/L), and  
271 NOB were more sensitive to the TC stimulation. The fraction of NOB decreased by  
272 almost 50%, resulting in weak nitrite oxidation capacity of nitrifying sludge, which  
273 was in accordance with the accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N in RII.

### 274 3.6 Sludge morphology and particle size

275 The sludge morphology and particle size were analyzed to explore the  
276 macroscopical variation of nitrifying sludge under different TC stress. Seed sludge  
277 showed a fluffy, irregular and loose-structural morphology, and average diameter of  
278 the bioparticles was about  $218.3 \pm 7.8 \mu\text{m}$ . After the addition of TC, the mean sludge  
279 diameter kept increasing, and at the end of operation, it reached  $512.4 \pm 7.8 \mu\text{m}$  and  
280  $353.8 \pm 11.1 \mu\text{m}$  in RI and RII, respectively. As shown in Fig. 5, it was obvious to  
281 observe that large aggregation with a dense and compact structure appeared in RI,  
282 while the sludge particle was smaller and dispersive in RII.

283 The results of sludge morphology and particle size revealed that TC might  
284 accelerate the formation of nitrifying sludge aggregation and the effect was more  
285 prominent at TC concentration of 10 mg/L than 1 mg/L. Hoffman *et al.* have reported  
286 the inductive effects of aminoglycoside antibiotics on bacterial biofilm formation and  
287 found that in a certain concentration range, the higher concentration of antibiotics  
288 induced more biofilm formation,<sup>41</sup> which is in good agreement with our results. The  
289 formation of aggregation resulted in multilayer structure of sludge, which is important  
290 for bacteria to resist the hazardous environment.<sup>42</sup> In this study, microorganism,  
291 especially NOB, might be protected from TC by the multilayer structure (Fig. S3) and  
292 maintained metabolic activity. The compact sludge structure in RI would provide  
293 stronger protection than the dispersive sludge structure in RII.<sup>43,44</sup> Hence, at the end  
294 of the operation, the proportion of NOB in RI ( $11.4 \pm 3.2\%$ ) was much higher than  
295 that in RII ( $6.5 \pm 2.5\%$ ), which would lead to better nitrification performance in RI.  
296 The aggregation phenomena of nitrifying sludge induced by TC would be further  
297 studied in the future work.

#### 298 **4. Conclusions**

299 The fate and behavior of tetracycline in nitrifying sludge system were  
300 investigated in this study. The results demonstrated that TC could be effectively  
301 removed by nitrifying sludge via a two-step procedure, including initial adsorption  
302 and subsequent biodegradation. TC exhibited inhibitory effect on both AOB and NOB,  
303 whereas NOB was more sensitive to TC. The nitrifying sludge aggregation was more  
304 observably induced at higher TC concentration, leading to multilayer structure of  
305 sludge to protect microorganism. These results explained why reactor under high TC  
306 stress showed better nitrification performance and contained more NOB amount than  
307 those in reactor under low TC stress. This work would not only expand our vision  
308 about the fate and behavior of antibiotics in activated sludge system, but also have  
309 far-reaching implications in both activated sludge and biofilm processes.

#### 310 **Acknowledgements**

311 This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of  
312 China (51178254, 51208283 and 51508309). The authors wish to thank China  
313 Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2015M570596) for the support of this work.

314 **References**

- 315 1. M. Erşan, E. Bağda and E. Bağda, *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 2013,  
316 **104**, 75-82.
- 317 2. A. K. Sarmah, M. T. Meyer and A. B. A. Boxall, *Chemosphere*, 2006, **65**, 725-759.
- 318 3. R. A. Palominos, M. A. Mondaca, A. Giraldo, G. Peñuela, M. Pérez-Moya and H. D.  
319 Mansilla, *Catal Today*, 2009, **144**, 100-105.
- 320 4. H. Liu, Y. Yang, J. Kang, M. Fan and J. Qu, *Journal of Environmental Sciences*,  
321 2012, **24**, 242-247.
- 322 5. K. M. Onesios and E. J. Bouwer, *Water Res*, 2012, **46**, 2365-2375.
- 323 6. D. T. Sponza and H. Çelebi, *Bioresource Technol*, 2012, **104**, 100-110.
- 324 7. Y. Yang, B. Li, F. Ju and T. Zhang, *Environ Sci Technol*, 2013, **47**, 10197-10205.
- 325 8. D. I. Andersson and D. Hughes, *Nat Rev Micro*, 2010, **8**, 260-271.
- 326 9. J. M. Brausch and G. M. Rand, *Chemosphere*, 2011, **82**, 1518-1532.
- 327 10. A. L. Batt, S. Kim and D. S. Aga, *Chemosphere*, 2007, **68**, 428-435.
- 328 11. A. L. Sponberg and J. D. Witter, *Sci Total Environ*, 2008, **397**, 148-157.
- 329 12. B. Li and T. Zhang, *Environ Sci Pollut R*, 2013, **20**, 3024-3033.
- 330 13. M. H. Huang, W. Zhang, C. Liu and H. Y. Hu, *Process Saf Environ*, 2015, **93**,  
331 68-74.
- 332 14. M. Clara, N. Kreuzinger, B. Strenn, O. Gans and H. Kroiss, *Water Res*, 2005, **39**,  
333 97-106.
- 334 15. W. O. Khunjar, S. A. Mackintosh, J. Skotnicka Pitak, S. Baik, D. S. Aga and N. G.  
335 Love, *Environ Sci Technol*, 2011, **45**, 3605-3612.
- 336 16. E. Fernandez-Fontaina, F. Omil, J. M. Lema and M. Carballa, *Water Res*, 2012, **46**,  
337 5434-5444.
- 338 17. T. Katipoglu-Yazan, I. Pala-Ozkok, E. Ubay-Cokgor and D. Orhon, *Bioresource*  
339 *Technol*, 2013, **144**, 410-419.
- 340 18. Y. J. Shi, X. H. Wang, H. B. Yu, H. J. Xie, S. X. Teng, X. F. Sun, B. H. Tian and S.  
341 G. Wang, *Bioresource Technol*, 2011, **102**, 2536-2541.
- 342 19. G. J. Xu, Y. Zhou, Q. Yang, Z. M.-P. Lee, J. Gu, W. Lay, Y. S. Cao and Y. Liu,

- 343 *Appl Microbiol Biot*, 2015, **99**, 2485-2490.
- 344 20. D. Larsson, C. de Pedro and N. Paxeus, *J Hazard Mater*, 2007, **148**, 751-755.
- 345 21. N. H. Tran, T. Urase and O. Kusakabe, *J Hazard Mater*, 2009, **171**, 1051-1057.
- 346 22. A. AWWA, *Washington, DC Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and*  
347 *Wastewater*, 1998, **20**.
- 348 23. S. F. Yang, C. F. Lin, C. J. Wu, K. Ng, Y. C. Lin, Angela and P. K. Andy Hong,  
349 *Water Res*, 2012, **46**, 1301-1308.
- 350 24. H. W. Yang, Z. P. Jiang, S. Q. Shi and W. Z. Tang, *Ecotox Environ Safe*, 2002, **53**,  
351 416-421.
- 352 25. M. K. H. Winkler, J. P. Bassin, R. Kleerebezem, L. M. M. de Bruin, T. P. H. van  
353 den Brand and M. C. M. van Loosdrecht, *Water Res*, 2011, **45**, 3291-3299.
- 354 26. H. Daims, A. Brühl, R. Amann, K.-H. Schleifer and M. Wagner, *Syst Appl*  
355 *Microbiol*, 1999, **22**, 434-444.
- 356 27. B. K. Mobarry, M. Wagner, V. Urbain, B. E. Rittmann and D. A. Stahl, *Appl*  
357 *Environ Microb*, 1997, **63**, 815.
- 358 28. H. Daims, J. L. Nielsen, P. H. Nielsen, K.-H. Schleifer and M. Wagner, *Appl*  
359 *Environ Microb*, 2001, **67**, 5273-5284.
- 360 29. J. R. Banu, K.-U. Do and I.-T. Yeom, *World J Microbiol Biotechnol*, 2008, **24**,  
361 2981-2986.
- 362 30. J. Rajesh Banu, K.-U. Do, S. Kaliappan and I.-T. Yeom, *Biotechnol Bioproc E*,  
363 2009, **14**, 543-548.
- 364 31. J. Zhang, Y. Tian, W. Zuo, L. Chen and L. L. Yin, *Chem Eng J*, 2013, **233**,  
365 132-137.
- 366 32. Y. J. Shi, X. H. Wang, Z. Qi, M. H. Diao, M. M. Gao, S. F. Xing, S. G. Wang and  
367 X. C. Zhao, *J Hazard Mater*, 2011, **191**, 103-109.
- 368 33. K.-U. Do, J. Rajesh Banu, S. Kaliappan and I.-T. Yeom, *Biotechnol Bioproc E*,  
369 2013, **18**, 313-320.
- 370 34. S. M. Bowman, K. E. Drzewiecki, E.-R. E. Mojica, A. M. Zielinski, A. Siegel, D.  
371 S. Aga and J. O. Berry, *Environ Sci Technol*, 2011, **45**, 8958-8964.
- 372 35. J. Xu, G. P. Sheng, Y. Ma, L. F. Wang and H. Q. Yu, *Water Res*, 2013, **47**,



- 373 5298-5306.
- 374 36. B. G. Plósz, H. Leknes and K. V. Thomas, *Environ Sci Technol*, 2010, **44**,  
375 734-742.
- 376 37. Z. S. Han, J. Y. Tian, H. Liang, J. Ma, H. R. Yu, K. Li, A. Ding and G. B. Li,  
377 *Bioresource Technol*, 2013, **130**, 136-143.
- 378 38. A. Flitsch, E. N. Prasetyo, C. Sygmond, R. Ludwig, G. S. Nyanhongo and G. M.  
379 Guebitz, *Enzyme Microb Technol*, 2013, **52**, 60-67.
- 380 39. B. Mahendran, L. Lishman and S. N. Liss, *Water Res*, 2012, **46**, 5085-5101.
- 381 40. S. Okabe, H. Satoh and Y. Watanabe, *Appl Environ Microb*, 1999, **65**, 3182-3191.
- 382 41. L. R. Hoffman, D. A. D'Argenio, M. J. MacCoss, Z. Y. Zhang, R. A. Jones and S. I.  
383 Miller, *Nature*, 2005, **436**, 1171-1175.
- 384 42. C. L. Amorim, A. S. Maia, R. B. R. Mesquita, A. O. S. S. Rangel, M. C. M. van  
385 Loosdrecht, M. E. Tiritan and P. M. L. Castro, *Water Res*, 2014, **50**, 101-113.
- 386 43. S. Yi, W. Q. Zhuang, B. Wu, S. T.-L. Tay and J.-H. Tay, *Environ Sci Technol*, 2006,  
387 **40**, 2396-2401.
- 388 44. A. F. Duque, V. S. Bessa, M. F. Carvalho, M. K. de Kreuk, M. C. M. van  
389 Loosdrecht and P. M. L. Castro, *Water Res*, 2011, **45**, 6745-6752.

### Figure Caption

Figure 1 Changing patterns of nitrogen composition in RI (a), RII (b) and abiotic control reactors (c – 10 mg/L TC, d - 1 mg/L TC)

Figure 2 The removal profile of TC in RI (a), RII (b) and abiotic control reactors (c – 10 mg/L TC, d - 1 mg/L TC)

Figure 3 Removal and migration of TC in RI (a) and RII (b)

Figure 4 Dehydrogenase activity of nitrifying sludge in both reactors

Figure 5 The morphology and particle size of nitrifying sludge in RI (a) and RII (b)

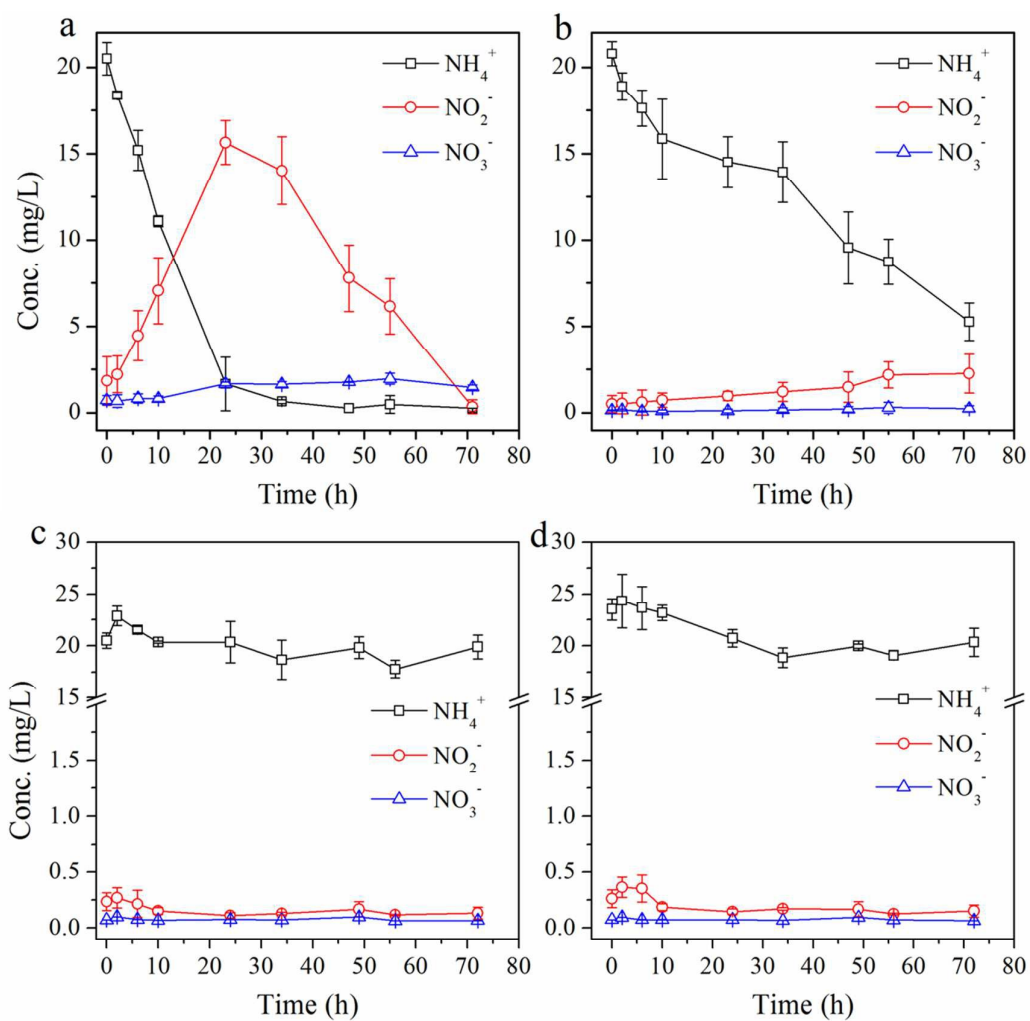


Fig. 1

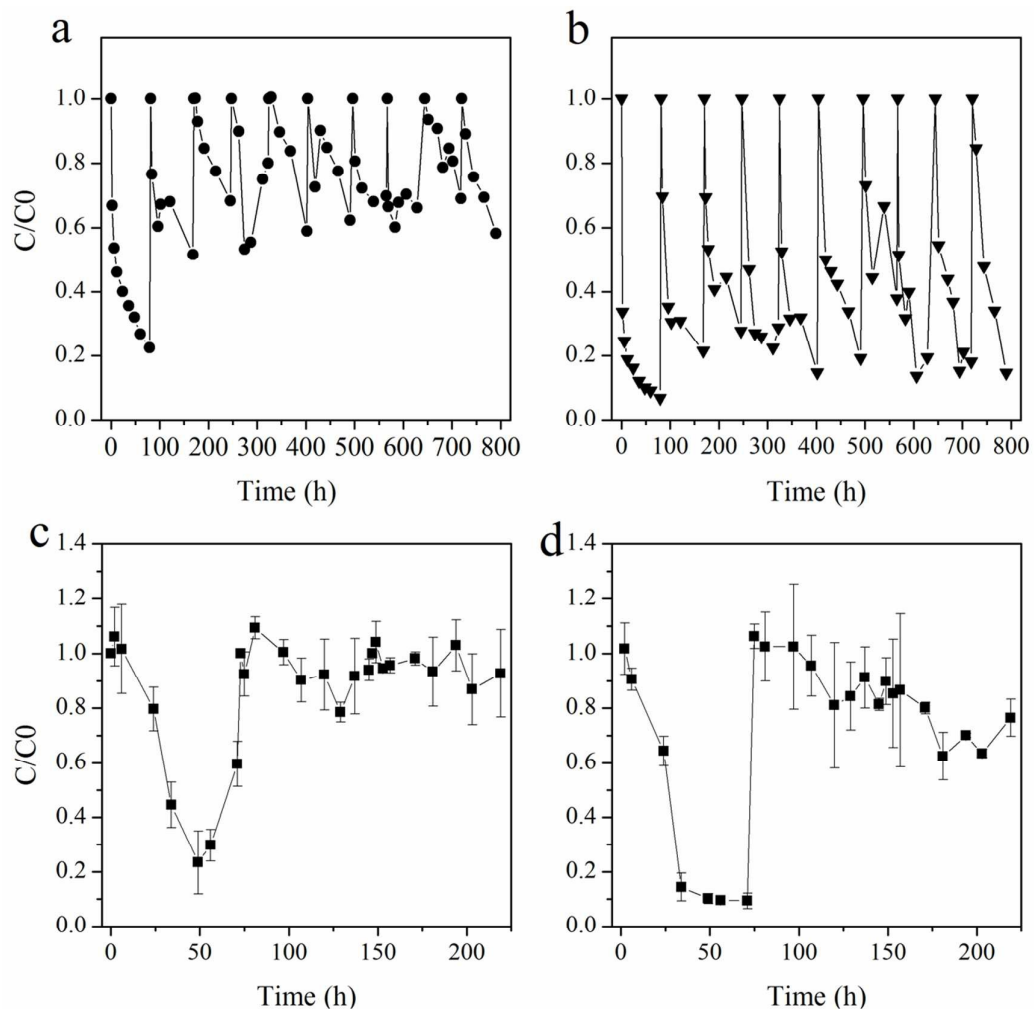


Fig. 2

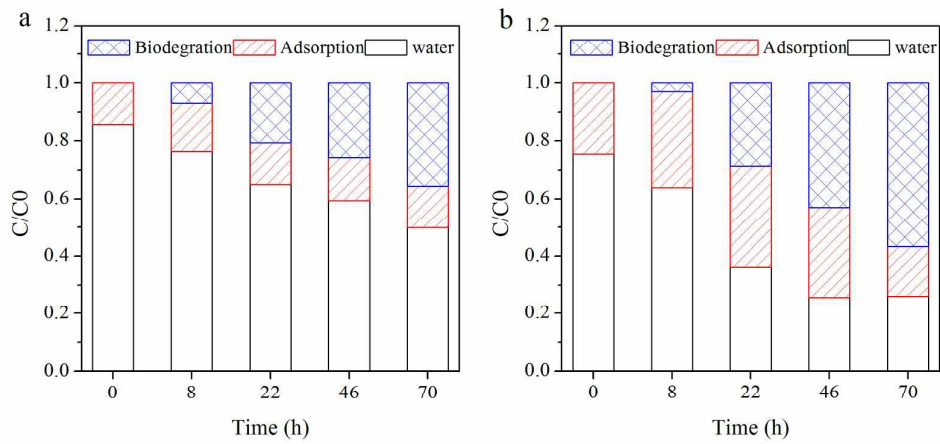


Fig. 3

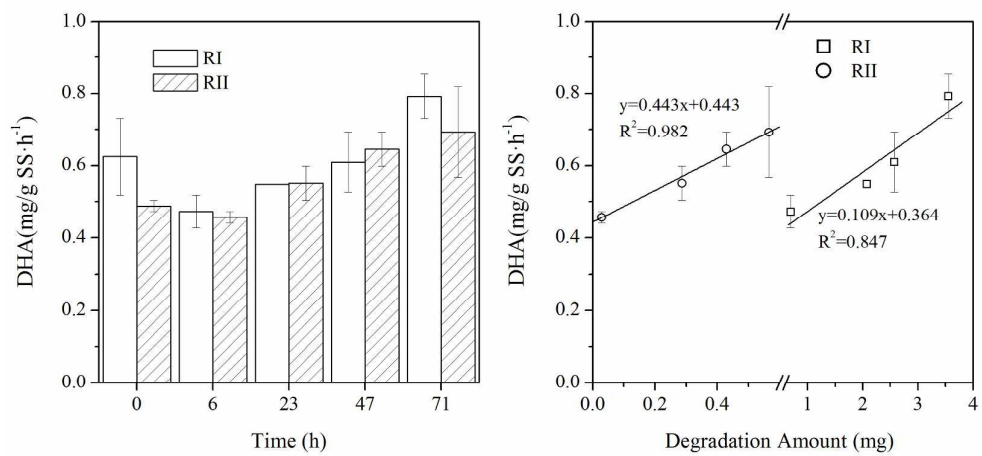


Fig. 4

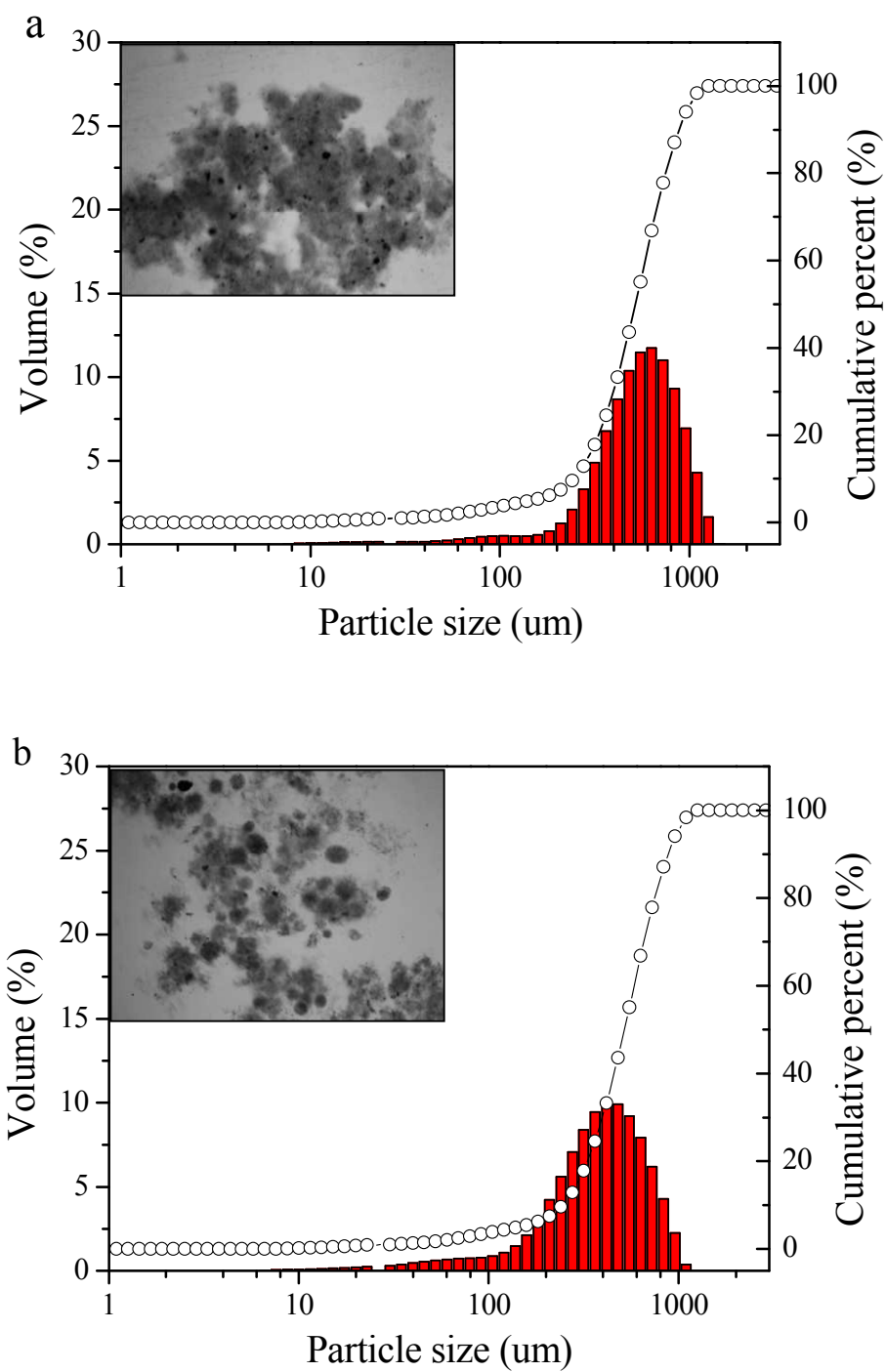


Fig.5

Table 1 The relative abundance of AOB and NOB in both reactors

	RI		RII	
	initial <sup>a</sup>	end <sup>b</sup>	Initial	end
NOB/total bacteria	11.9 ± 5.8%	11.2 ± 3.8%	11.4 ± 3.2%	6.5 ± 2.5%
AOB/total bacteria	49.1 ± 7.3%	54.5 ± 3.2%	46.3 ± 5.1%	50.9 ± 5.7%

a the samples taken at the beginning of the operation

b the samples taken at the end of the operation