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Title

Upscaling the Zeolite-Anammox Process: Treatment of Secondary Effluent

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8ns518qh>

Journal

Water, 10(3)

ISSN

2073-4441

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Publication Date

2018

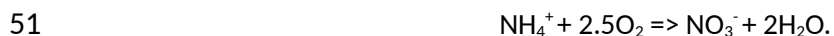
DOI

10.3390/w10030236

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33 processes. Ammonia is directly toxic to fish and marine life, while nitrate stimulates algal growth that
34 depletes dissolved oxygen (DO) levels at night resulting in suffocation of oxygen-breathing organisms.
35 While, SFB has shown some resistance to the classic symptoms of nutrient over-enrichment, recent
36 observations suggest that SFB's resistance to nutrient enrichment is weakening. It appears that SFB may
37 be trending toward, or already experiencing, adverse impacts due to high nutrient loads, thereby
38 requiring greater regulation of WWTP nitrogen loading to the Bay (SFEI, 2016). Thus, discharge
39 permitting at WWTPs may require greater removal of both reduced *and* oxidized nitrogen species. This
40 review considers the development of zeolite and anammox domestic wastewater treatment methods
41 during the past two decades to set the stage for possible commercial development of the integrated
42 zeolite-anammox treatment process capable of transforming WWTP effluent nitrogen loads to nitrogen
43 gas prior to effluent disposal.

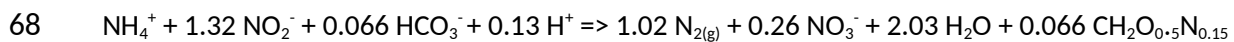
44 "Traditional" nitrogen removal in WWTPs rely on a two-step treatment process of nitrification
45 and denitrification. The nitrification process employs nitrifying bacteria to oxidize ammonia to nitrate
46 using available dissolved oxygen, while denitrification uses denitrifying bacteria to reduce the nitrate to
47 nitrogen gas. Nitrification occurs only under aerobic conditions at dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations
48 of >1.0 mg/L where *Nitrosomonas*-type bacteria convert ammonium to nitrite; then *Nitrobacter*-type
49 bacteria convert nitrite to nitrate. Nitrification is sensitive to inhibition by high organic concentrations
50 because of bacterial competition and is typically represented by the equation;



52 Denitrification is an anaerobic process occurring at DO levels <0.5 mg/L where facultative heterotrophic
53 bacteria reduce nitrate to nitrogen gas that volatilizes to the atmosphere. It requires a carbon source as
54 an electron donor, uses nitrate as an electron acceptor and is represented by the simplified equation;



56 During the past two decades, new approaches to nitrogen treatment methods have developed in
57the laboratory and some tested in pilot-scale treatment plants; two of the more promising methods
58include use of zeolite aggregates and anammox bacteria. Zeolites are a relatively commonly found
59deposit around the world whose aggregates have relatively low density, some internal porosity and
60unusually large cation-exchange capacity (CEC) for the type of mineral. Some research has explored use
61of the zeolite aggregates as an ammonium adsorption substrate. Anammox bacteria were discovered in
62WWTP anaerobic digesters and in several marine environments. They were key towards closing nitrogen
63balance estimates in WWTP and estuary-marine studies and found to readily convert ammonia ions
64using nitrite to nitrogen gas. Anammox bacteria prefer anaerobic environments and are relatively slow
65growing; some ten times slower than nitrifiers for example. Presumably, anammox bacteria congregate
66at aerobic-anaerobic interfaces where they can combine available nitrite and ammonia to form nitrogen
67gas with some residual nitrate following the reaction (Paredes, 2007):



69As anammox bacteria are capable of direct conversion of oxidized and reduced forms of nitrogen in
70WWTP discharge to nitrogen gas with little sludge production, they provide an interesting opportunity to
71reduce WWTP nitrogen loads to sensitive receiving waters; however, there are only limited reports of
72commercial application of this integrated process.

73

74 **Literature Review**

75 This literature review considers the wastewater treatment aspects associated with use of zeolite
76aggregate as a reactor substrate and cultivation of anammox bacteria for transformation of dissolved
77aqueous nitrogen species (i.e. nitrate, nitrite and ammonia) found in WWTP discharge to nitrogen gas
78thereby reducing nitrogen loading to receiving waters. We direct this review towards increasing the

79development and evaluation of zeolite-anammox treatment systems for commercial-scale applications to
80improve receiving water quality wherever adversely impacted by WWTP discharges.

81Zeolites & Wastewater treatment

82 In the late 1950's, enormous beds of zeolite-rich sediments, formed by the alteration of volcanic
83ash in lake and marine waters, were discovered in the western United States and elsewhere around the
84world notably in Australia, Canada, China, South America and Turkey, (Mumpton, 1999). Zeolites are
85characterized by extensive internal porosity, very large surface areas (i.e. both internal and external), and
86correspondingly high CECs (Bowman, 2003). Zeolites are classified as inclusion compounds of hydrated
87aluminosilicates having three-dimensional tetrahedral networks of SiO_4 and AlO_4 , linked by the shared
88oxygen atoms (Rehakova et al., 2004). Partial substitution of Al^{3+} for Si^{4+} results in excess negative charge
89offset by alkali and earth alkaline cations. These cations, along with the water molecules, are located in
90cavities and channels inside the aluminosilicate macro-anion framework enabling zeolites to function as
91effective natural ion exchangers. During the past 20 years, there has been a substantial amount of
92research and application of natural zeolites in environmental remediation schemes that capitalize on
93their ready availability and ion-exchange properties (Misaelides, 2011).

94 Several proposed wastewater treatment methods exploit the ammonium adsorption abilities of
95zeolites across a range of scales, from commercial WWTPs to development of patents for modified septic
96systems using zeolites (e.g. Rose, 2003). Wang and Peng (2010) reviewed studies of natural zeolites from
97around the world and found varying ion-exchange capacity for ammonium, some anions and organics,
98and heavy metal ions. Of the 21 zeolites considered, 18 were clinoptilolites with SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 fractions
99that ranged from 56-71% and 7.5-15.8%, respectively, while CECs ranged from 0.6-2.3 meq/mg.
100Similarly, at temperatures ranging from 20-70 C (when reported), the corresponding ammonium
101adsorption capacities of the different clinoptilolites ranged from 23-3 mg/g with higher values reported
102using Canadian forms while the USA-derived clinoptilolite value reported was 18.5 mg/g. Widiastuti et al

103(2008 & 2011) studied use of Australian zeolite for greywater treatment and similar to that reported by
104others found zeolite ammonium removal capacity increases with increasing initial ammonium
105concentration (e.g. Sarioglu, 2005), presumably as a result of greater aqueous to adsorbed phase
106concentration gradients. It appears that the ammonium ions can migrate from the external surface to
107the internal micro-pores of the zeolite within a given contact time. Several studies indicated that the
108adsorption or ion-exchange process is quite rapid and can be modeled by typical Langmuir and
109Freundlich isotherms (e.g. Rozic et al., 2000; Du et al., 2005; Englert and Rubio, 2005; and Motsi et al.,
1102009). Solution pH affected ammonium removal efficiency by the zeolite as well because the nitrogen
111dissociation form (NH_3 or NH_4) depends on pH. For example, ammonium removal efficiency from a 50
112mg/L NH_4 solution increased as pH increased from 2 to 5 peaking at about pH 5 and declining thereafter.
113Similarly, Jorgensen et al. (1976) found that zeolite was more selective at pH 5. Conversely, Du et al.
114(2005) reported that an optimal ammonium removal efficiency was achieved at pH 6 while Ji, Z-Y et al.
115(2007) using Ca^{2+} -formed clinoptilolite found a maximum adsorption capacity of 82% at pH 7 and Saltali
116et al. (2007) reported 75% ammonium removal at pH 7 and nearly 79% at pH 8 for Turkish (Yildizeli)
117zeolite. Together with Karadag et al (2006), Ji et al. (2007) and Saltali et al. (2007) found the adsorption
118process to be exothermic and removal efficiency improved with decreasing temperatures. Studies have
119also considered the influence of other ions or compounds in solution on ammonium uptake by zeolites.
120Jorgensen and Weatherley (2003) found that in most cases studied, the presence of organic compounds
121enhanced ammonium ion uptake. Similarly, considering adsorption from aqueous solutions having
122ammonium concentrations of 0–200 mg/L in the presence of Ca, K, Mg and Cl ions, Weatherley and
123Miladinovic (2004) found only minor changes on ammonium uptake by mordenite and clinoptilolite.
124This was a rather unexpected result since most other work to date had shown clinoptilolite exhibiting a
125greater affinity for potassium as compared to the ammonium ion. Calcium ions in solution had the
126greatest effect upon ammonium ion uptake, followed by potassium ions while magnesium ions had the

127least effect. Most studies considering zeolite ion-exchange properties were conducted using laboratory-
128scale reactors with controlled environments, though some work has involved larger-scale applications in
129wastewater treatment.

130 Misaelides (2011) noted in a short review that in addition to the ion-exchange properties of
131zeolites, zeolite aggregates demonstrated the ability to harbor bacteria that can increase sludge activity in
132WWTPs. The apparent drawback of this use was the slow formation of the bacteria layer on the zeolite
133surface, which does not become immediately effective, requiring bacterial growth establishment times
134of 1-2 weeks in the digesters. The modification of zeolites by cation-active polyelectrolytes accelerated
135the interaction among the bacteria with the zeolite surface further increasing the sludge activity. By
1362011, zeolite was recognized for its high CEC and for its ability to preferentially remove ammonium ions
137from wastewater. Use of zeolite for ammonium removal increased because of its wide availability and
138low-costs where available, and because ammonium-saturated zeolite can be relatively easily regenerated
139and re-used. High-strength brine was traditionally the preferred method of regeneration (Ji, 2007), but
140concerns about high levels of dissolved solids in the spent regenerant liquor led to development of other
141methods. An electrochemical method of regeneration was also established and used in several
142applications (Lei, 2009). One of the more promising methods explored more recently, however, is
143biological regeneration using microbial action to strip the ammonium from the cation exchange sites.

144 There are few commercial scale applications of zeolite adsorption reactors to remove
145ammonium from wastewater. Facing strict regulations associated with treated wastewater disposal to a
146pristine river, the Truckee Sanitation District deployed a zeolite reactor to remove residual ammonium
147prior to discharge. Using a relatively short contact time of several hours, the zeolite reactor successfully
148removed the ammonium from the treated wastewater. However, the zeolite reactor required near daily
149regeneration using saline water that eventually was disposed with the treated wastewater.

150Unfortunately, the regenerant addition to the discharge stream increased the salinity beyond acceptable
151disposal levels to the river and the reactor was decommissioned.

152 Early discovery of biological regeneration of zeolite by nitrifying bacteria by researchers in Israel
153(Green, 1996; and Lahav, 1998) suggested a two-stage process where brine removed ammonium from
154zeolite, followed by brine regeneration using nitrifying bacteria. Later processes exploited the ability of
155these bacteria to strip the ammonium from the zeolite, thereby simplifying the process (Jung, 2004). In
156Norway, “zeolite containing expanded clay aggregate filter media” was used to remove ammonia from
157domestic wastewater by a combination of nitrification and ion exchange. No chemical regeneration was
158necessary in addition to the biological regeneration during the four-month experimental period (Gisvold,
1592000). Zeolites used for stripping ammonium in reactors are typically sand-sized aggregates combining
160relatively large exterior surface area with ease of handling. The bacteria presumably could not strip
161ammonium from exchange sites within the zeolite aggregates since their cells are approximately 1000
162times larger than the pores formed by the zeolite lattice structure. Nitrifying biofilm-enhanced zeolite
163also appears to provide a dampening effect on shocks to digesters associated with peak or variable loads
164(Inan, 2005; McVeigh, 1999; Hedstrom, 2001). Such early studies considering nitrifying bacteria
165combined with older knowledge about anammox bacteria found in marine environments led to the
166possibility of combining these processes with zeolites to enhance nitrogen removal rates from domestic
167wastewater.

168Anammox & Wastewater treatment

169 As nitrogen removal processes and models were refined, WWTP operators and marine
170environment researchers became aware that nitrogen mass-balance “errors” indicated an unexplained
171nitrogen loss. Though existence of microorganisms capable of anaerobic ammonium oxidation using
172nitrite or nitrate as the electron acceptor was predicted in the 1970s (Jetten, 2009), they were not
173discovered until around 1992 in a WWTP in Delft, The Netherlands (Jetten, 1999; Sliemers, 2002;

174Dalsgaard et al., 2005), when they were named “anaerobic ammonium oxidation” or “anammox”
175bacteria. At the same time, the importance of anammox bacteria towards nitrogen cycling in the marine
176environment was well understood and researchers explored isolation of these bacteria from freshwater
177and marine environments for other applications. However, it was difficult to isolate this process in the
178laboratory until Mulder et al. (1995) developed laboratory denitrifying fluidized-bed reactors capable of
179removing nitrogen under anaerobic conditions. As anaerobic autotrophs, it remains difficult to isolate
180and raise pure cultures of anammox bacteria in the laboratory; DNA-sequencing of the bacteria is largely
181limited to university and research institute laboratories. However, study of highly enriched cultures
182obtained from WWTP anaerobic digesters has enabled some understanding of the bacterial cell biology
183and biochemistry (Dalsgaard et al., 2005). By 2005, the three genera of anammox bacteria described
184were quite small (<1 µm) and all shared a similar cellular structure that includes a membrane-bound
185compartment, known as the anammoxosome, where the anammox process is believed to occur. This
186membrane is composed of ladderane lipids in part that form a tight proton diffusion barrier, thereby
187enhancing ATP production within the cell. By 2010, Bae et al. (2010) using PCR (polymerase chain
188reaction) methods identified six anammox genera in activated sludges taken from WWTPs; three
189freshwater, two marine environment and one mixed species are also generally acknowledged. With
190discovery of more species and habitats, we anticipate that more versatile species will be identified, but
191their overall diversity remains relatively unknown (Jetten, 2009). Though surprisingly widespread,
192anammox bacteria discovered within each ecosystem appear to be dominated by a single anammox
193genus, indicating specialization for distinct ecological niches (Boumann, 2009; Kartal, 2007b). Some have
194speculated that up to 50% of atmospheric nitrogen is a result of widespread anammox activity (see
195Mansell, 2011).

196 Employment of anammox bacteria can revolutionize domestic wastewater treatment because of
197their ability to simplify removal of nitrogenous waste at significantly lower costs and with less sludge

198production than that of conventional WWTP nitrification-denitrification processes. Liu and Ni (2015)
199among others (Jetten et al., 2005) consider the anammox process “as one of the most sustainable
200alternatives to the conventional costly nitrification-denitrification biological nitrogen removal process” in
201wastewater treatment, particularly for high nitrogen low BOD wastewater streams. The autotrophic
202anammox process directly oxidizes ammonium to nitrogen gas utilizing nitrite as the electron acceptor
203without the need for an organic carbon source as required by heterotrophic denitrification processes
204(Hao. & van Loosdrecht, 2004). Further, oxygen demand is reduced as the ammonium is only required to
205be nitrified to nitrite instead of nitrate (Hao et al., 2005). As a result, anammox bacterial biomass yield is
206very low, creating a small amount of excess sludge production and thus lower operational costs (Strous
207et al., 1997; and Ni et al., 2012). Overall, the anammox process can reduce oxygen and exogenous
208carbon source demand by 64% and 100%, respectively, while reducing sludge production by 80–90% as
209compared to conventional WWTP nitrogen removal processes (Bi et al., 2014). At this point, there are
210numerous anammox pilot plants currently operating or under construction, however, anammox
211processes at these plants are limited to treatment of high-ammonium strength wastewater (500 to 3000
212mg/L) and operated at relatively warm temperatures (30-40 C), though marine anammox are known to
213function at much cooler temperatures (10-15 C).

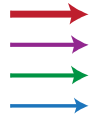
214 Relatively slow growth rates of anammox are seemingly linked to the environments from which
215they were obtained (Dalsgaard et al., 2005). For example, anammox exhibit bacterial growth doubling
216times of about 9-12 days under optimal temperature conditions associated with their origin (Li, 2009);
217that is, about 37 C for those cultures obtained from wastewater treatment plants while those from
218cooler anoxic marine environments prefer 12-15 C. This slow growth rate has limited commercial
219applications using anammox bacteria at WWTPs (Liu and Ni, 2015). Anammox bacterial growth can be
220very sensitive to WWTP operational conditions such as dissolved oxygen, temperature, pH and organic
221matter content thereby requiring considerable direct management or manipulation at the WWTP. While

222originally thought that nitrate was the oxidant for ammonium by anammox bacteria, nitrogen-isotope
223labeling experiments confirmed that the bacteria are using the nitrite form where presumably nitrate-
224reducing bacteria in the environment are converting the nitrate to nitrite prior anammox conversion to
225N₂ gas. As denitrifying bacteria have much greater growth rates as a competitive advantage over
226anammox bacteria, the presence of oxygen drastically inhibits the anammox process, though the
227inhibition process appears to be reversible and the anammox process resumes when anoxic conditions
228are restored. On the other hand, addition of reduced forms of manganese or iron, as an essential
229substrate for anammox bacteria, can facilitate growth of anammox bacteria (Liu and Ni, 2015), and such
230additions have been used for culturing anammox sludge (Van de Graaf et al., 1996)

231 Another important process in possible WWTP applications is linked to anammox ability for
232dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA). This is a microbially mediated pathway
233transforming nitrate to ammonium and traditionally thought to be involved with fermentation or sulfur
234oxidation (Burgin, 2007) and is a critical process (Giblin et al., 2013) in nitrogen cycling at coastal marine
235environments. Recently at least one genus of anammox bacteria appears capable of DNRA, even in the
236presence of 10 mM ammonium (Kartal, 2007a; Francis, 2007). It now appears that through DNRA
237anammox bacteria can also produce nitrogen gas from nitrate, even in the absence of a carbon source
238(organic or inorganic). Figure 1, taken from Giblin et al. (2013), summarizes the key nitrogen
239transformation processes associated with DNRA as well as the likely associated enzymes.

240

241



243

244

245 **Figure 1.** Nitrogen cycle pathways important to the DNRA process and some of the enzymes known to
 246 be involved (taken from Giblin et al., 2013). Nap = Periplasmic nitrate reductase. Nrf = Cytochrome C
 247 nitrite reductase. NosZ = Nitrous oxide reductase.

248

249 Wastewater Treatment Systems using Anammox

250

Although anammox bacteria exist in the nitrification/denitrification “environment” of
 251 conventional WWTPs, they seem constrained to micro-sites and are of marginal importance; the slow-
 252 growing anammox bacteria are likely out-competed by the faster-growing organo-heterotrophs. The
 253 anammox process is primarily anaerobic, though in the absence of DRNA process, enough oxygen must
 254 be present to create the nitrite needed to react with $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ to form N_2 gas. Originally thought to be
 255 inhibited by organic matter, some anammox species are less inhibited by carbon (Trimmer, 2003;
 256 Sabumon, 2007) and some of the most recently discovered species flourish when organic matter is
 257 present. Kindaichi (2008) postulated that anammox was inhibited by COD; but probably a result of
 258 species, pH, temperature, type of carbon, and C:N ratio. Molinuevo’s work appeared to indicate that
 259 organic matter at high COD concentrations (100 to 250 mg COD/L) negatively affected the anammox
 260 process and facilitated heterotrophic denitrification, but at COD concentrations <100 mg/L, anammox

261bacteria successfully converted ammonium to nitrogen gas suggesting that anammox removal of
262nitrogen of already treated wastewater having low COD is quite possible. Dong (2003) considered
263anaerobic digestion of poultry manure and detected active anammox bacteria but determined they were
264unable to effectively compete with denitrifiers at high CODs (between 2200 and 5400 mg/L COD).
265Sensitivity to organic matter may be related to the C:N ratio, and wastewater with a $BOD_5/N < 1.0$
266appears to be suitable for anammox treatment. Furukawa (2009) successfully treated wastewater having
267concentrations of 600-800 mg/L BOD, 500-700 mg/L TN, 30-70mg/L NH_4-N and 4000-4500 mg/L COD.
268Subsequently, anammox bacteria were found to be much more flexible and capable of competing for
269organic compounds and nitrate in the environment (Kartal, 2007a), and may be mixotrophic (Guen,
2702005). For example, Kartal (2007b) reported that anammox bacteria could use organic acids as electron
271donors to reduce nitrate and nitrite, and then successfully compete with denitrifiers for use of these
272compounds. There are also examples of denitrifying bacteria and anammox bacteria existing in dynamic
273equilibrium to achieve simultaneous nitrogen and COD removal in anaerobic systems (Chen, 2009).

274 Other research has indicated that anammox bacteria usually find specialized niche environments
275though their growth can be inhibited by compounds such as acetylene, phosphate, oxygen, methanol,
276sulfide at concentrations greater than 1mM, and organic matter combined with high nitrite
277concentrations (Graaf, 1996; Guven, 2005; Molinuevo, 2009). There is some research directed at
278overcoming the relatively slow growth rates of anammox that can delay the full treatment capability of
279larger-scale systems. Several studies (Liu and Bi, 2015, Qiao et al., 2012 & 2013, Waki et al., 2013, and
280Zhang et al., 2012) suggest utilizing external energy fields and/or addition of MnO_2 or ferrous iron to the
281wastewater stream treated to accelerate anammox growth, though such laboratory-scale augmentations
282have yet to be validated at the commercial scale. Practically, addition of manganese or iron to the
283wastewater treatment process, much less large electrical fields, may constitute a substantial cost to the
284WWTP, especially as uncertainty remains as to the required type of iron or manganese, their related

285concentration, and the duration supplemental metal additions are needed to maintain desired nitrogen
286removal.

287 Much of the anammox process understanding developed from various commercial applications
288designed to exploit the capability of anammox bacteria (e.g. Van Dongen et al., 2001; Van Loosdrecht et
289al., 2004). Many of these systems involve optimization of a two-step process in which the first reactor, or
290system employs partial nitrification of the available ammonia to nitrite to achieve the 'optimal' 1.2:1
291nitrite to ammonia ratio feedstock for the second anammox reactor step converting these to nitrogen
292gas. Lackner et al. (2014) notes the rapid expansion of the partial nitrification-anammox process to more
293than 100 WWTPs worldwide and outlines the operational and process control aspects and concerns
294described by surveys at 14 installations. The primary commercial systems include the CANON, DEMON
295and SHARON processes. The CANON process employs natural or engineered wetland systems treating
296wastewater with high ammonia and low BOD (Sun, 2007). Under excess ammonium conditions, the
297cooperation between aerobic (nitrosomonas-like) and anaerobic (planctomycetes) ammonium oxidizing
298bacteria leave no oxygen or nitrite for aerobic (nitrospira-like) nitrite oxidizing bacteria (Third, 2001;
299Sliekers, 2002). The DEMON process removes nitrogen from anaerobic co-digestion of urban and
300industrial sludge liquor using an anammox pathway with aerobic/anaerobic cycling inside a single
301bioreactor and the DEMON plant in The Netherlands has been operational since 2009. The SHARON
302process (Single reactor system for High activity Ammonium Removal Over Nitrite) has been developed
303specifically to treat liquor containing high ammonia concentrations (van Dongen et al., 2001). This is a
304partial nitrification process where bacteria in the reactor oxidize ammonium to nitrite at temperatures of
30530 to 40 C. An anaerobic ammonium-oxidation process follows this where anammox use the nitrite to
306oxidize ammonia and produce nitrogen gas. Gonzalez-Martinez et al. (2013 & 2014) describe the success
307of the SHARON process and found a broad range of microbial species completing the nitrogen
308conversions. In general, such combined partial nitrification – anammox reactors have operated successfully

309and Schmidt et al., (2003) and Lackner outline their particular operational advantages or challenges.
310Overall, the interrelationships between N-removing microbial consortia including nitrifiers, denitrifiers,
311and anammox have also been documented (e.g. Shipin, 2005) in wastewater treatment wetlands. Shipin
312(2005) described the role of *Nitrobacter* species in dissimilatory reduction of nitrate to nitrite, providing
313a major nitrite source for anammox. Clearly interest in applications of anammox bacteria to wastewater
314treatment continues to grow as Lackner et al. (2014) underscored that the number of research
315publications related to anammox applications in wastewater treatment is also growing rapidly and now
316to a rate of ~10 articles/year since 2016.

317Wastewater Treatment using Combined Zeolite-Anammox systems

318 Collison (2010) reported on bench and pilot-scale linear-channel reactor (wetland flumes)
319studies investigating several aspects associated with the effects of constructed wetland (CW) substrate
320and wastewater characteristics on COD and nitrogen removal rates. Collison and Grismer (2014) focused
321more specifically on the role of zeolites in nitrogen removal from these gravity-flow linear reactors. They
322found that in the zeolite substrate system, the wastewater $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was nearly completely removed
323midway along the first reactor channel prior to an aeration tank leading to the second channel. In the
324other three aggregate substrate systems, only about a quarter of the $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was removed prior to an
325aeration tank with the remaining $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ removed in the aeration tank. That is, the zeolite CW system
326appeared to remove 98% of the influent nitrogen without using the nitrification-denitrification process.
327Though zeolite ability to adsorb $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ cations was undoubtedly occurring in the zeolite CW flume, based
328on the measured zeolite CEC, the calculated mass of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ions that could be adsorbed was less than
329half that added to the system as influent. The failure of ammonium ions to saturate the zeolite
330adsorption sites indicated that other processes were occurring - most likely biological stripping of the
331 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ from the aggregate surfaces by anammox bacteria. The ability of anammox to compete effectively

332in an anaerobic flume with significant organic matter content seemed contentious but promising in
333terms of developing an efficient long-term nitrogen removal system for domestic wastewater treatment.

334 As both anammox and nitrifiers bacteria are several orders of magnitude larger (1 to 5 μm) than
335zeolite pore sizes (0.7 to 1.0 nm), only NH_4 ions can travel to internal CEC sites within the zeolite
336suggesting that only the NH_4 ions on the aggregate surfaces are available for the bacterial processes. It is
337also probable that such related bacterial biofilms are very thin, possibly as rudimentary as individual
338bacteria adhering to the aggregate surface. Quite possibly, influent NH_4 ions can diffuse through the
339water to the zeolite surface where they were adsorbed at ion-exchange sites and/or ingested by the
340bacteria. This relatively rapid and efficient process thus only relies on diffusion through water, and
341neither diffusion through the biofilm or through the aggregate particle is required. Collison and Grismer
342(2014) postulated that the unique performance of the zeolite CW systems in removing nitrogen was a
343function of the zeolite's ability to rapidly capture NH_4 ions, coupled with the anammox bacteria's ability
344to strip the NH_4 and regenerate the surface layer of the zeolite substrate. Environmental conditions for
345the anammox bacteria were further enhanced by the zeolite aggregate ability to soak up water and
346create an extensive aerobic/anaerobic interface (oxycline), thereby providing conditions where
347anammox has access to both the nitrite and ammonium ions needed to produce nitrogen gas. We found
348application of such an approach at the larger scale reported by Pei et al. (2013) who created a riparian
349wetland system that employed a zeolite-anammox treatment process and identified that three primary
350anammox genera were present and operational when flowrates were such that anaerobic conditions
351prevailed in the zeolite substrate.

352Commercial Upscaling of the Zeolite-Anammox Wastewater Treatment Process

353 While considerable laboratory-scale work related to use of zeolite or anammox to remove
354nitrogen species from various wastewaters has provided insight into the various treatment mechanisms
355associated with the ion-exchange and autotrophic anammox processes, there has been little work until

356recently considering the combined processes, especially at the commercial domestic WWTP scale (e.g.
357Kassab et al., 2010). Building on the proof-of-concept benchtop-scale zeolite-anammox treatment
358system described by Collison and Grismer (2014), Collison and Grismer (2018a) successfully upscaled this
359process to remove 25-75 mg/L ammonia-N in secondary WWTP effluent to final discharge ammonia and
360nitrate concentrations less than 1 and 3 mg/L, respectively. Secondary-treated effluent from east San
361Francisco Bay region WWTPs was pumped to trailers housing parallel linear-channel reactors assembled
362from channel sections about 3.7 m long by 0.7 m wide and 0.17 m deep. The channel sections were
363nearly filled with 20 mm zeolite aggregate and seeded at 3-4% by volume with either anaerobic digester
364effluent containing anammox bacteria or 'bio-zeolite' (zeolite aggregate having nitrifier/anammox
365bacteria biofilm) cultured in other reactors. Following a period of several weeks for complete
366colonization of the reactors, steady flows through the linear channels submerged the lower half of the
367zeolite substrate maintaining anaerobic conditions, while the upper half was passively aerated through
368capillary rise, or wicking action by the aggregate. During a roughly one-year period, they found that
369approximately 22 m of total reactor length was needed to reduce outlet ammonia concentrations to <1
370mg/L; moreover, that these gravity-flow systems required little maintenance and operated across a range
371of ambient temperatures (10-22 C). Overall, at inflow rates from about 40 to 110 Lph, the linear-channel
372reactors removed 21 to 42 g NH₃-N/m³/day on a bulk-reactor-volume basis (about 1.5 m³) from the
373secondary treated wastewater with the greater value associated with the higher nitrogen loading rate.
374On a total nitrogen mass basis, this removal rate exceeded the zeolite adsorption capacity by more than
375an order-of-magnitude and could not have occurred by denitrification because there was insufficient
376carbon in the secondary effluent (i.e. very low BOD/COD) for this process. Determination of the linear
377channel degradation factors was critical towards development of constructed wetland designs for this
378tertiary treatment prior to discharge to sensitive waters on the Bay periphery.

379 In an effort to reduce the zeolite-anammox reactor 'footprint' or total volume and to explore the
380 possibility of using this process to treat much greater ammonia strength wastewater, Collison and
381 Grismer (2018b and 2018c) investigated use of active aeration methods on nitrogen removal. This effort
382 stemmed in part from needs of the San Francisco Bay area WWTPs and observations from controlled
383 laboratory studies that anammox bacteria based reactors (e.g., Kotay et al., 2013) were capable of
384 roughly 1 kg NH₃-N/m³/day removal when supplied optimal nitrite:ammonia concentration ratio
385 wastewater. In these two studies, Collison and Grismer employed tank reactors using recirculating
386 trickling-filter (RTF) and blown, or forced countercurrent airflow designs to remove ammonia from both
387 secondary-treated effluent and high-strength anaerobic digester (AD) filtrate (~500 mg/L ammonia-N).
388 Nitrogen removal from the AD filtrate can significantly reduce total nitrogen loading in the WWTP
389 facilitating achievement of low effluent discharge targets, however, the AD filtrate treatment posed
390 other problems associated with the very high and variable TSS loading. With the project goal of reducing
391 WW ammonia concentrations to <100 mg/L, Collison and Grismer (2017b) first deploy parallel 210 L
392 barrel RTF reactors to assess the feasibility of AD filtrate treatment and investigate effects of aggregate
393 size on ammonia removal. The reactors were operated such that the lower 2/3rds of the reactor depth
394 remained submerged facilitating anammox bacterial growth and function, while the top 1/3rd of the
395 reactor aggregate remained desaturated. The barrel reactors successfully removed about 400 mg/L
396 ammonia from the AD filtrate resulting in discharge concentrations of roughly 70 and 90 NH₃-N mg/L and
397 100 and 120 NO₃-N mg/L, respectively, for the smaller (10 mm) and larger (20 mm) aggregates. Next,
398 they upscaled the RTF reactor design to a ~68-m³ (18,000 gal) intermediate-scale 'Baker tank' reactor for
399 treatment of about 10% of the WWTP AD filtrate sidestream. When operated using the two-layer
400 system for an 8-month period, the Baker tank reactor achieved an ~80% removal fraction with a nearly
401 one-day retention time, successfully reducing the average inlet ammonia concentration from about 460
402 mg/L to about 85 NH₃-N mg/L and 90 NO₃-N mg/L, despite variable inlet ammonia concentrations

403ranging from 250-710 mg/L. Such a removal rate was equivalent to what Mansell (2011) achieved with a
404two-stage partial-nitrification anammox laboratory reactor treating AD filtrate using a 220 day retention
405time. On a total reactor volume basis, the RTF tank design resulted in an ammonia degradation factor
406about an order-of-magnitude greater than that in the linear-channel reactors (i.e. 192 to 226 gm NH₃-
407N/m³/day for the barrel and Baker tank reactors, respectively). The large and highly variable TSS loading
408associated with the AD filtrate was problematic and contributed to aggregate pore clogging and some
409flow 'short-circuiting' during testing; not surprisingly, this effect was more apparent in the smaller-
410aggregate barrel reactors. Efforts to use settling tanks were of limited success and the authors proposed
411that backflush capabilities be included in the RTF tank reactor designs.

412 Eventual pore clogging and problems with the recirculation pump in the Baker tank reactor
413provided the opportunity to operate the tank as a largely anaerobic system for cultivation of biozeolite
414for other reactors and chance to explore nitrate scavenging potential of the anammox biofilms using
415DNRA processes. Decreased vertical flows through the top aerated media layer from pore clogging
416during this stage of the Baker tank reactor experiment, decreased aeration of the lower layer that in turn
417increased anammox bacterial growth and initially impaired ammonia oxidation in the submerged layer.
418As described above, had there been an adequate organic food supply, the lower anaerobic layer would
419have facilitated denitrifying bacterial growth, but the small reactor effluent BOD concentrations (<5
420mg/L) indicated that nitrate removal by denitrification was insignificant in this layer. Rather, the absence
421of nitrate and excess ammonia promoted dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) processes
422that converted the nitrate back to nitrite. Thus, the anammox bacteria removed about half of the inlet
423ammonia but practically all influent nitrate such that tank effluent nitrate-N concentrations were
424averaged ~0.1 mg/L.

425 Collison and Grismer (2018c) again explored active aeration methods in the zeolite-anammox
426process as above, but for treatment of secondary-treated WWTP effluent. Unfortunately, during most of

427the project period (~13 months), they failed to recognize that the secondary-treated effluent lacked
428sufficient ferrous iron necessary for anammox bacterial growth because the particular WWTP employed
429sludge incineration methods that precluded the need to add iron to AD processes to preserve WWTP
430plumbing infrastructure. As a result, for reactor inlet ammonia and nitrate concentrations of ~30 mg/L
431and 1 mg/L, reactor discharge ammonia and nitrate concentrations from the RTF and blown-air tank
432reactors remained disturbingly high at ~3 mg/L and ~25 mg/L, respectively, indicating poor anammox
433activity and treatment. In the last few months of the project, additions of ferric and chelated iron to the
434secondary effluent had no effect on treatment, though in the very last month, addition of ferrous iron
435almost immediately resulted in increased anammox activity as reactor discharge nitrate concentrations
436fell below 4 mg/L. Ultimately, they identified that zeolite aggregate coated with 'black' biofilms was a
437good indicator that sufficient iron was present in the wastewater to encourage and maintain the
438anammox bacterial populations in the biofilms necessary for adequate wastewater treatment.

439

440Summary & Conclusions

441 During the past two decades, new approaches to nitrogen treatment methods that include use
442of available zeolite aggregates as an adsorptive substrate and various strains of newly discovered
443anammox bacteria capable of converting ammonia to nitrogen gas. Zeolites are a relatively commonly
444found deposit around the world whose aggregates have relatively low density, internal porosity and
445unusually large cation-exchange capacity (CEC). Discovered in WWTP anaerobic digesters and in several
446marine environments, anammox bacteria were key towards closing nitrogen balance estimates in
447estuary-marine studies. These slow-growing bacteria prefer anaerobic environments and presumably
448congregate at aerobic-anaerobic interfaces where they can combine available nitrite and ammonia to
449form nitrogen gas with some residual nitrate, however, in the past few years they appear capable of
450direct conversion of ammonium to nitrogen gas via H_2N_2 production. As anammox bacteria appear

451capable of direct conversion of oxidized and reduced forms of nitrogen in WWTP discharge to nitrogen
452gas, they are an exciting opportunity to reduce WWTP nitrogen loads; however, only limited reports of
453commercial application zeolites and anammox in domestic wastewater treatment are available. Only
454recently have reports from Collison and Grismer that build on their previous lab work from 2010 become
455available describing applications of a zeolite-anammox treatment process in commercial WWTPs of the
456San Francisco Bay region of California.

457 Of course, additional laboratory and applied process work remains before the combined
458capabilities of zeolite substrates and anammox bacteria can be fully exploited at the full-scale domestic
459WWTP setting. As anammox bacteria are difficult to culture, currently there are no standardized
460techniques for sampling, preservation and transport of anammox bacterial biofilms from sediment,
461aggregates or reactor surfaces of practical benefit to facilitate identification of particular strains and DNA
462sequencing. Bacteria identification and DNA sequencing of what anammox samples are collected are
463largely limited to university or research institute labs as analytical costs at the very few commercial labs
464capable of these analyses are prohibitive in practice. No doubt, with such information, several more
465strains of anammox bacteria may be identified from diverse WWTP and marine environments that could
466be cultivated for wastewater treatment applications. Lacking such analyses, as a practical measure
467Collison and Grismer (2017c) suggest that presence of 'black' biofilms on the aggregate surfaces within
468WWTP reactors coupled with clear removal of both oxidized and reduced forms of nitrogen from the
469wastewater is a clear indication of adequate anammox bacteria activity. However, such observation
470provides little opportunity to identify which anammox strains are present and active.

471 At the WWTP scale, several operational parameters associated with successful removal of
472nitrogen species using the zeolite-anammox process remain ambiguous. These operational aspects
473requiring better definition include bio-zeolite seeding rates in reactors and associated effective start-up
474times, effective operating temperature ranges, optimal supplemental oxidation rates, and preferred Mn

475or Fe species supplementation to facilitate anammox growth rates, among others. At the most basic
476design level, simple gravity-flow zeolite-substrate channel reactors successfully removed nitrogen from
477secondary treated effluent with little energy or maintenance costs; however, it is not clear that such
478reactors would function as well at greater flow and nitrogen loading rates. Supplemental aeration
479through blown-air or recirculating trickling-filter designs appear capable of greater nitrogen removal
480rates for a particular reactor volume (i.e. greater ammonia degradation factors), but greater operational
481attention is required to maintain pumps and aerobic-anaerobic layers within the reactors. Nonetheless,
482preliminary upscaling results thus far are quite promising and additional applied research at the WWTP
483scale should better refine desirable operational parameters.

484 As compared to traditional nitrification-denitrification WWTP processes, the primary benefits
485two-stage partial-nitritation anammox or single zeolite-anammox reactors for wastewater treatment
486include possibly greater nitrogen removal and far smaller sludge production rates that reduce WWTP
487operating costs. As compared to the partial-nitritation two-stage reactor systems, the single reactor
488zeolite-anammox systems successfully remove nitrogen across a greater temperature range and
489wastewater strength variability while also being easier to maintain and operate as they do not require
490continuous adjustments for wastewater characteristics. On the other hand, as a fixed media bed system,
491the zeolite-anammox reactors are subject to possible pore clogging and some attention must be given to
492either pretreatment removal of recalcitrant solids, or backflushing capability within the reactor bed.
493Finally, from the perspective of WWTP greenhouse-gas generation, anammox bacterial conversions of
494nitrogen species either directly to nitrogen gas via DRNA processes, or through combination of
495ammonium and nitrite as outlined in the stoichiometric equations above, bypasses production of CO₂ gas
496occurring in the traditional nitrification-denitrification treatment process and represents a significant
497advantage over traditional WWTP processes. However, this aspect also needs further investigation that
498includes monitoring of the WWTP gases generated by each unit operation across the plant.

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