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# Removal of multiple electron acceptors by pilot-scale, two-stage membrane biofilm reactors



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#### ABSTRACT

We studied the performance of a pilot-scale membrane biofilm reactor (MBfR) treating groundwater containing four electron acceptors: nitrate  $(NO_3^-)$ , perchlorate  $(ClO_4^-)$ , sulfate  $(SO_4^{2-})$ , and oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>). The treatment goal was to remove  $ClO_4^{-}$  from ~200 µg/L to less than 6 µg/L. The pilot system was operated as two MBfRs in series, and the positions of the lead and lag MBfRs were switched regularly. The lead MBfR removed at least 99% of the O<sub>2</sub> and 63–88% of NO<sub>3</sub>, depending on loading conditions. The lag MBfR was where most of the ClO<sub>4</sub> reduction occurred, and the effluent  $ClO_4^-$  concentration was driven to as low as 4  $\mu$ g/L, with most concentrations  $\leq 10 \ \mu g/L$ . However,  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction occurred in the lag MBfR when its  $NO_{2}^{-} + O_{2}$  flux was smaller than ~0.18 g H<sub>2</sub>/m<sup>2</sup>-d, and this was accompanied by a lower ClO<sub>4</sub> flux. We were able to suppress  $SO_4^{-}$  reduction by lowering the H<sub>2</sub> pressure and increasing the  $NO_3^- + O_2$  flux. We also monitored the microbial community using the quantitative polymerase chain reaction targeting characteristic reductase genes. Due to regular position switching, the lead and lag MBfRs had similar microbial communities. Denitrifying bacteria dominated the biofilm when the  $NO_3^- + O_2$  fluxes were highest, but sulfate-reducing bacteria became more important when  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction was enhanced in the lag MBfR due to low  $NO_3^- + O_2$  flux. The practical two-stage strategy to achieve complete  $ClO_4^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  reduction while suppressing  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction involved controlling the  $NO_3^- + O_2$  surface loading between 0.18 and 0.34 g  $H_2/m^2$ -d and using a low  $H_2$  pressure in the lag MBfR.

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### 1. Introduction

Perchlorate  $(ClO_4^-)$  causes serious health problems by inhibiting the transfer of iodide from the blood to the thyroid gland, which is required for the gland to produce hormones essential for growth and metabolism (Logan, 2001; Wolff, 1998). Although the US EPA has not yet established a maximum contaminant level (MCL) for  $ClO_4^-$ , it plans to regulate  $ClO_4^$ under the Safe Drinking Water Act (USEPA, 2011), and some states have established cleanup levels ranging from 2 to 18 µg/ L for  $ClO_4^-$  in drinking water (Gu and Coates, 2006).

While physical/chemical techniques – activated carbon, ion exchange, and chemical reduction (Coates and Achenbach, 2004; Matos et al., 2008) – can remove  $\text{ClO}_4^-$  from water, biological reduction reduces  $\text{ClO}_4^-$  to harmless chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>) and water (H<sub>2</sub>O) (Van Ginkel et al., 1996). Perchlorate reductase (pcrABCD) reduces  $\text{ClO}_4^-$  to chlorite ( $\text{ClO}_2^-$ ) (Kengen et al., 1999), and chlorite dismutase (*cld*) further catalyzes the disproportionation of chlorite ( $\text{ClO}_2^-$ ) to chloride ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ) and oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) (Van Ginkel et al., 1996), which is subsequently reduced to H<sub>2</sub>O. The *pcrA* gene encodes for the  $\alpha$  subunit of perchlorate reductase, an enzyme that catalyzes the first step of perchlorate reductase reduction to chlorite; it is specific to perchlorate reducers and is usually used to detect and quantify perchlorate-reducing bacteria (PRB) (Nozawa-Inoue et al., 2008).

The hydrogen-based membrane biofilm reactor (MBfR) has been applied successfully for microbial reduction of ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> (e.g., Nerenberg et al., 2002; Rittmann, 2007; Ziv-El and Rittmann, 2009; Zhao et al., 2011, 2013a; Ontiveros-Valencia et al., 2013). In the MBfR, hydrogen gas  $(H_2)$  diffuses through the walls of hollow-fiber membranes and serves as the electron donor, while ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> is an electron acceptor. The non-porous polypropylene walls allow H<sub>2</sub> to diffuse through them, which delivers the electron donor directly to the H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing bacteria. The non-porous walls also prevent H<sub>2</sub> bubbling, which might lead to biofilm detachment (Nerenberg et al., 2003). Besides ClO<sub>4</sub>, many other oxidized contaminants can be simultaneously reduced in the MBfR: e.g., NO<sub>3</sub> (Ziv-El and Rittmann, 2009; Zhang et al., 2009),  $SO_4^{2-}$  (Ontiveros-Valencia et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013a), selenate  $(SeO_4^{2-})$  (Chung et al., 2006a), chromate (Chung et al., 2006b), and chlorinated solvents (Xia et al., 2011; Ziv-El et al., 2012). In addition to the MBfR, Ricardo et al. (2012) used an up-scaled ion exchange membrane bioreactor (IEMB) to achieve simultaneous removal of nitrate and perchlorate.

 $NO_3^-$  is an oxyanion commonly co-occurring with  $ClO_4^-$ , for example, in groundwater close to a military base that houses rockets (USEPA, 2001). The drinking water MCL for  $NO_3^-$  is 10 mg N/L (USEPA, 2009), because  $NO_3^-$  causes methemoglobinemia in infants.  $NO_3^-$  also spurs eutrophication of surface waters (Herman and Frankenberger, 1999). Respiratory  $NO_3^$ reduction, or denitrification, is a very common and wellstudied process (Hiscock et al., 1991) that can have different effects on  $ClO_4^-$  reduction (Coppola and McDonald, 2000; Giblin et al., 2000; Nerenberg et al., 2002; Choi and Silverstein, 2008; Zhao et al., 2011). Some previous studies have shown that nitrate inhibits  $ClO_4^-$  reduction, particularly when the electron donor was limiting (Herman and Frankenberger, 1999; Choi and Silverstein, 2008), although Nerenberg et al. (2002) showed that inhibition between nitrate and perchlorate reductions was trivial in a H<sub>2</sub>-based MBfR as long as sufficient H<sub>2</sub> was available. Modeling by Tang et al. (2012a,b,c) predicted that a high-enough nitrate loading (>0.6 g N/m<sup>2</sup>-d) strongly inhibits perchlorate reduction even if H<sub>2</sub> is not limiting, but a medium nitrate loading (0.1–0.6 g N/m<sup>2</sup>-d) has no adverse effect on perchlorate removal in an MBfR biofilm.

 $SO_4^{2-}$  is another oxyanion that often occurs with  $NO_3^-$  and  $ClO_4^-$ . Although  $SO_4^{2-}$  is a natural constituent of water and is not normally considered as a contaminant (US EPA, 2012),  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction usually is an unwanted process because its final product – hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) – is corrosive, odorous, and toxic (Odom, 1990). H<sub>2</sub>S strongly inhibits denitrification (Dalsgaard and Bak, 1994), and  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction inhibited  $ClO_4^-$  reduction in a previous MBfR study (Ontiveros-Valencia et al., 2013). Thus,  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction normally should be suppressed when denitrification and  $ClO_4^-$  reduction are required.

Many waters also contain dissolved O<sub>2</sub>. ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> reductions can be affected by O<sub>2</sub>, since O<sub>2</sub> is the most favorable electron acceptor (Ziv-El and Rittmann, 2009). O<sub>2</sub> can inhibit SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> reduction, because most sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) are strictly anaerobic (Dolla et al., 2006), although a few SRB can tolerate low concentrations of O<sub>2</sub> (below 15  $\mu$ M) (Marschall et al., 1993). O<sub>2</sub> at high concentration can inhibit denitrification, because denitrifying bacteria (DB) prefer to use O<sub>2</sub> as an electron acceptor over NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Alefounder et al., 1981). O<sub>2</sub> seems to have different effects on PRB. Chaudhuri et al. (2002) reported that dissolved O<sub>2</sub> concentrations as low as 2 mg/L inhibited perchlorate reduction by *Dechlorosoma*. sp. KJ. recovered its ability to reduce ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> after dissolved O<sub>2</sub> exposure at ~8 mg/L for less than 12 h.

The interactions among the four electron acceptors have been studied to a degree with the MBfR. Ziv-El and Rittmann (2009) reported that the four electron acceptors had a clear H<sub>2</sub>-utilization priority when H<sub>2</sub> supply was limiting in a H<sub>2</sub>based MBfR:  $O_2 > NO_3^- > ClO_4^- > SO_4^{2-}$ . Ontiveros-Valencia et al. (2012) reported that, without restriction on  $H_2$  availability,  $SO_4^{2-}$  was reduced only when the  $NO_3^{-}$  surface loading was  ${\leq}0.13$  g N/m²-day, since DB can outcompete SRB in the biofilm (Tang et al., 2013). In a previous study, we compared  $ClO_4^$ reduction with or without NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in an MBfR having a range of H<sub>2</sub> delivery capacities (Zhao et al., 2011). We found that, with sufficient H<sub>2</sub>, a small NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> loading (0.1 g N/m<sup>2</sup>-d) had no effect on ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction. Considering the fact that most PRB can use NO<sub>3</sub> and ClO<sub>4</sub> simultaneously as respiratory electron acceptors (Kengen et al., 1999; Xu et al., 2004) and that some PRB prefer  $NO_3^-$  as the electron acceptor (Giblin and Frankenberger, 2001), Tang et al. (2012a,b,c) generalized the interactions between  $NO_3^-$  and  $ClO_4^-$  reductions using a multispecies biofilm model. They predicted that low NO<sub>3</sub> loading slightly promotes ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction by providing more electron acceptor reduction for the PRB, but a high  $NO_3^$ loading inhibits ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> removal. The dividing line between the cases depends on the permeability of the membrane and the H<sub>2</sub> pressure.

In this study, we evaluated a pilot-scale MBfR used to treat a groundwater contaminated with  $ClO_4^-$  (160–200 µg/L) and  $NO_3^-$  (8–9 mg/L  $NO_3^-$ –N), but also containing  $SO_4^{2-}$  at

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