

# Effect of the Carbon Source on Nitrifying in an Activated Sludge System Treating Aquaculture Wastewater

Gabriela Morales<sup>1</sup>, Patricio Sanhueza<sup>1</sup> & Gladys Vidal<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Engineering and Environmental Biotechnology Group, Environmental Science Faculty & Center EULA-Chile, University of Concepción, Concepción, Chile

Correspondence: Gladys Vidal, Engineering and Environmental Biotechnology Group, Environmental Science Faculty & Center EULA-Chile, University of Concepción, P. O. Box 160-C, Concepción 4070386, Chile. Tel: 56-41-266-1033. E-mail: glvidal@udec.cl

Received: May 3, 2015 Accepted: June 13, 2015 Online Published: August 15, 2015

doi:10.5539/jas.v7n9p36

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/jas.v7n9p36>

## Abstract

The nitrogen in the aquaculture wastewater can have significant effects on receiving water bodies like eutrophication and ammonia toxicity to fish communities. Removing nitrogen by nitrification-denitrification can reduce the potential impact of aquaculture wastewater discharge. Nitrification is affected by different factors including dissolved oxygen, temperature, pH, alkalinity, toxicity, unionized ammonia and substrate concentration. All these parameters affect ammonia-oxidizing and nitrite-oxidizing bacterial activity.

The aim of this work is to study the effect of the carbon source on nitrifying bacterial activity in an activated sludge treating aquaculture wastewater.

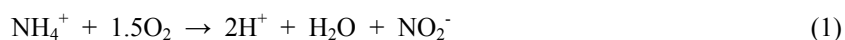
An activated sludge (AS) system was set up and operated continuously for 180 days. The operation was divided into two phases. During Phase I a source of organic carbon (CH<sub>3</sub>COONa) with a C/N level of 2.4 (operation days 1 to 101) was fed into the system, while in Phase II a source of inorganic carbon (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) with a C/N level of 16.2 was fed into the system (operation days: 102 to 180).

The maximum NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N removal efficiency was 49.7% during the Phase I, during which the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and NH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>-N concentrations were 37.1 ± 14.0 and 2.9 ± 1.1 mg/L, respectively. In Phase II, the maximum NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N removal efficiency was 45% and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and NH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>-N effluent concentrations were 2.8 ± 0.3 mg/L and 210 ± 49 mg/L, respectively. Ammonia- and nitrite-oxidation decreased in Phase I from 0.231 ± 0.005 mg NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>/gVSS min to 0.018 ± 0.004 mg NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N/gVSS min and in Phase II from 0.049 ± 0.011 mgNO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/gVSS min to 0.010 ± 0.002 mgNO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/gVSS min.

**Keywords:** nitrification, carbon source, nitrifying activity, activated sludge, aquaculture

## 1. Introduction

Aquaculture activities discharge effluents into the receiving aquatic ecosystem with pathogenic bacteria, therapeutic chemicals, antibiotics, metabolic products and food wastes (Cripps & Berghem, 2000; Michael, 2003; Stewart et al., 2006). These effluents are rich in solids, organic matter and dissolved metabolites such as ammonia, urea and carbon dioxide. In particular, one kilogram of fish production discharges approximately 577 g of BOD<sub>5</sub> (biological oxygen demand), 90.4 g of nitrogen and 10.5 g of phosphorus (Jegatheesan & Shu, 2011). Aquaculture wastewaters rich in nitrogen content may have a significant effect on the receiving water bodies such as eutrophication and ammonia toxicity to fish communities (Boaventura et al., 1996; Jegatheesan & Shu 2011). Consequently, biological nitrification-denitrification treatment is employed to remove nitrogen from wastewater (Campos et al., 2007). In this biological process the nitrification stage can determine the performance of the entire process (Shammas, 1986). Nitrification consists of the biological oxidation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> under aerobic conditions. First, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is oxidized into NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> by autotrophic ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (e.g. *Nitrosomonas*). NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is then oxidized to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> by autotrophic nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (e.g. *Nitrobacter*) (Ahn, 2006; Chen et al., 2006). Equations (1) and (2) show the basic chemical conversions that occur in nitrification (Chen et al., 2006).



Conventional biological treatment, like activated sludge (AS), is used to remove nitrogen (Ahn, 2006; Leu et al., 2010). Such systems can remove up to 99% of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  operated under an ammonia loading rate (ALR) of  $4 \text{ gNH}_4^+\text{-N/L}\cdot\text{d}$  (Antileo et al., 2002; Campos et al., 2002). Although AS systems are used for nitrification, they are not ideal for this purpose because they generate large and rapidly growing populations of heterotrophs compared to small and slow-growing populations of nitrifying bacteria (Gerardi, 2002; Campos et al., 2007). As well, nitrification is affected by a number of environmental factors including dissolved oxygen, temperature, pH, alkalinity, toxicity, unionized ammonia and substrate concentrations. Consequently, nitrification takes place with dissolved oxygen concentrations of  $> 2 \text{ mg/L}$  and at temperatures between 4 and 45 °C. The temperature range determined for *Nitrosomonas* is 5 to 30 °C, while for *Nitrobacter* it is 5 to 40 °C (Gerardi, 2002). The optimal pH for nitrification is between 7.5 and 8.5. Specifically the optimal pH range for ammonium-oxidizing bacteria is 7.5-8.0, while for nitrite-oxidizing bacteria it is 7.2-7.8 (Chen et al., 2006). Complete ammonium oxidation consumes medium alkalinity and reduces pH. The alkalinity required is  $7.1 \text{ mg CaCO}_3/\text{mg NH}_4^+\text{-oxidized}$  (Ahn, 2006; Li & Irvin, 2007). Autotrophic nitrifying bacteria use  $\text{CaCO}_3$  ( $\text{CO}_2$  or  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) as an external carbon source for growth, which is useful as a buffer to maintain medium pH (Ahn, 2006). On the other hand  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations of 10-150 mg/L and 0.1-1 mg/L inhibit ammonia- and nitrite-oxidizing bacteria, respectively (Anthonisen et al., 1976; Gerardi, 2002). Consequently, simultaneous growth of nitrifying and heterotrophic organisms in a single reactor results in low rates of nitrification due to the sensitivity of organic matter. Nitrification can only be successfully carried out under low chemical oxygen demand (COD) (Li & Irvin, 2007) because of which industrial operations produce wastewater with low C/N ratios to support the growth of nitrifying bacteria favored by a C/N level of  $< 10:1$  (Campos et al., 2007; Xia et al., 2008). As well, a substrate with organic carbon ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$ ) promotes the growth of heterotrophic bacteria in the system, as opposed to a substrate of inorganic carbon ( $\text{NaHCO}_3$ ), which favors the growth of nitrifying bacteria (Austin, 1980; Gerardi, 2002).

The objective of this work is to study the effect of the carbon source on nitrifying bacterial activity in an activated sludge treating aquaculture wastewater.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Inoculum

The inoculum consisted of 5 g/L of volatile suspended solids (VSS) of sludge obtained from the nitrifying reactor of a fish farm in southern Chile.

### 2.2 Synthetic Wastewater

The influent was synthetic medium aquaculture wastewater composed of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  - 700 mg/L,  $\text{MgSO}_4$  - 0.06 g/L,  $\text{NaCl}$  - 1.0 g/L,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  - 0.025 g/L.  $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$  - 1.5 g/L was used to study the effects of organic and inorganic carbon sources in Phase I, while  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  - 20 g/L was used as a carbon source in Phase II.

### 2.3 Activated Sludge System

A laboratory scale system of activated sludge (AS) was set up that included an aerobic reactor (1.0 L) and a settling unit (0.4 L), both made of glass agrees with Vidal et al. (2004). Synthetic wastewater was fed into the aerobic reactor by a peristaltic pump with the flow rate adjusted to the desired hydraulic retention time (HRT) based on the net liquid volume of the reactor. The system was operated at a temperature of  $18.0 \pm 2.0$  °C. The dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration was maintained at  $> 2 \text{ mg/L}$  with an air diffusion system. The sludge was periodically recycled from the settling unit to the aerobic reactor to maintain approximately 3.0 gVSS/L. Figure 1 shows a scheme of the activated sludge system and its components.

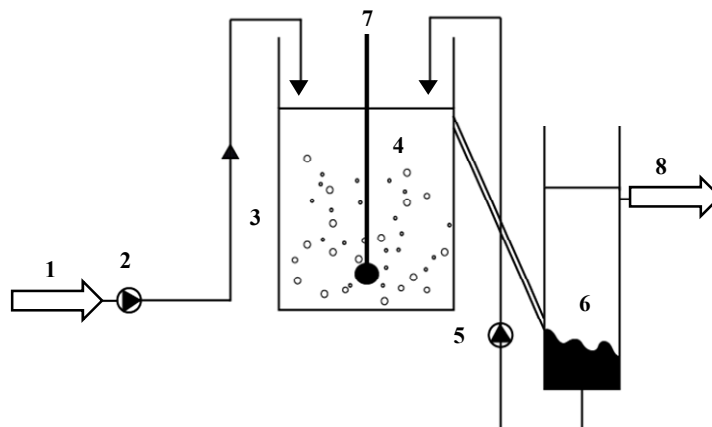


Figure 1. Schematic of activated sludge system: (1) influent, (2) pump, (3) aeration tank, (4) biomass, (5) biomass recirculation, (6) sedimentation, (7) aeration, and (8) effluent

#### 2.4 Operational Conditions

The system was operated continuously for 180 days. The operation was divided into two phases. In Phase I a source of organic carbon ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$ ) was fed into the system from days 1 to 101 at a C/N ratio of 2.4. In Phase II a source of inorganic carbon ( $\text{NaHCO}_3$ ) was fed into the system from days 102 to 189 at a C/N ratio of 16.2. The ammonium loading rate (ALR) in the influent was maintained throughout the operation at  $0.33 \text{ gNH}_4^+/\text{L}\cdot\text{d}$ , with a hydraulic retention time of  $2.05 \pm 0.19 \text{ d}$ . Table 1 shows the characteristics of the system during the two phases of operation.

Table 1. Characteristics of influent fed to the activated sludge system during the two operating conditions

Characteristics of influent		Phase	
		I	II
Substrate	-	$\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$	$\text{NaHCO}_3$
Operating time	d	0-101	102-180
C:N ratio	-	20	8
ALR	$\text{gNH}_4^+/\text{L}\cdot\text{d}$	0.33	0.33
OLR	$\text{gCOD}/\text{L}\cdot\text{d}$	$0.36 \pm 0.04$	-
HRT	d	$2.09 \pm 0.18$	$2.01 \pm 0.20$
Sludge concentration	$\text{gVSS}/\text{L}$	$7.22 \pm 3.81$	$3.47 \pm 1.20$
DO	mg/L	$6.75 \pm 1.18$	$5.55 \pm 0.87$
pH influent	-	$7.11 \pm 0.21$	$7.40 \pm 0.65$

Note. ALR: Ammonium Loading Rate, OLR: Organic Loading Rate, HRT: Hydraulic Retention Time, DO: Dissolved Oxygen.

The efficiency of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal was calculated throughout the operation. COD and  $\text{BOD}_5$  removal efficiencies were evaluated only in Phase I. Efficiencies were calculated using Equation (3):

$$E(\%) = (Q_i \times C_i - Q_o \times C_o) / (Q_i \times C_i \times 100) \quad (3)$$

Where, E (%) is the removal percentage; Q is the flow rate (L/d); C is the parameter concentration (mg/L); and subindex "i" and "o" are the inflow and outflow, respectively.

$\text{NO}_2^- \text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the effluent were determined weekly and alkalinity, the oxidation reduction potential (ORP), temperature, pH, and DO were monitored daily.

Ammonium- and nitrite-oxidation were analyzed by the oxygen uptake rate (OUR) and the specific oxygen

uptake rate (SOUR) during both operating phases on days 29, 62, 118, 139, 162 and 168. As well, microorganisms were studied microscopically.

### 2.5 Analytical methods

Chemical oxygen demand (COD), biological oxygen demand (BOD<sub>5</sub>), total suspended solids (TSS), volatile suspended solids (VSS) and alkalinity were measured according to standard methods (APHA-AWWA-WPCF, 1998). NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N content were measured in filtered samples (0.45 μm) with a Merck specific spectroquant NOVA-60 kit. Free ammonia content in the effluent was estimated according the Equation (4) (Hansen et al., 1998):

$$\frac{[NH_3]}{TNH_3} = \left( 1 + \frac{10^{-pH}}{10^{-\left(0.09018 + \frac{2729.92}{T(K)}\right)}} \right)^{-1} \quad (4)$$

Where, [NH<sub>3</sub>] is the concentration of free ammonia, [TNH<sub>3</sub>] is the total ammonia concentration and T (K) is the temperature (Kelvin).

Temperature and DO were measured using a HQ-10 oxygen meter with an LDO sensor. pH and ORP were measured by a multiparameter (Oakton PC650).

Ammonium- and nitrite-oxidation were evaluated with a respirometry using a biological oxygen monitor (BOM) YSI 5,300. The system was operated with an air-tight respiration vessel fitted with a DO probe YSI 5,231. The vessel was continuously stirred and thermally controlled according to procedure of López-Fiuza et al. (2002). (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> 0.25 M and NaNO<sub>2</sub> 0.25 M were used as a degradation substrate for ammonium- and nitrite-oxidizing bacteria, respectively. The OUR was determined by linear regression from the slope obtained by plotting dissolved oxygen concentration versus time and SOUR with the SSV value used in the assay.

Microscopic examination was performed within 1 h of collection, using a Leica Microsystems microscope (model DM500).

### 3. Results and Discussion

Figure 2 shows the evolution of the oxidation reduction potential (ORP) and alkalinity during Phases I and II in the AS. During Phase I the C/N ratio was 2.4 with an organic carbon source meanwhile during Phase II the C/N was 16.2 with an inorganic carbon source. The average ORP value was 105.2 ± 38.7 mV and the DO concentration was 6.2 ± 1.2 mg/L. During Phase I pH in the influent was 7.1 ± 0.2 and in Phase II it was 6.9 ± 0.1, while in the reactor it was 7.7 ± 0.6 and 8.9 ± 0.4 for Phases I and II, respectively. Alkalinity increased from 81 mgCaCO<sub>3</sub>/L during Phase I to a maximum of 12,000 mgCaCO<sub>3</sub>/L during Phase II. Under these conditions the microorganisms observed in the reactor in Phase I were principally stalked ciliates (e.g. *Vorticella sp.*). According to Gerardi (2002), these protozoa are present in relatively large numbers during rapid nitrification. In Phase II this type of protozoa was not observed.

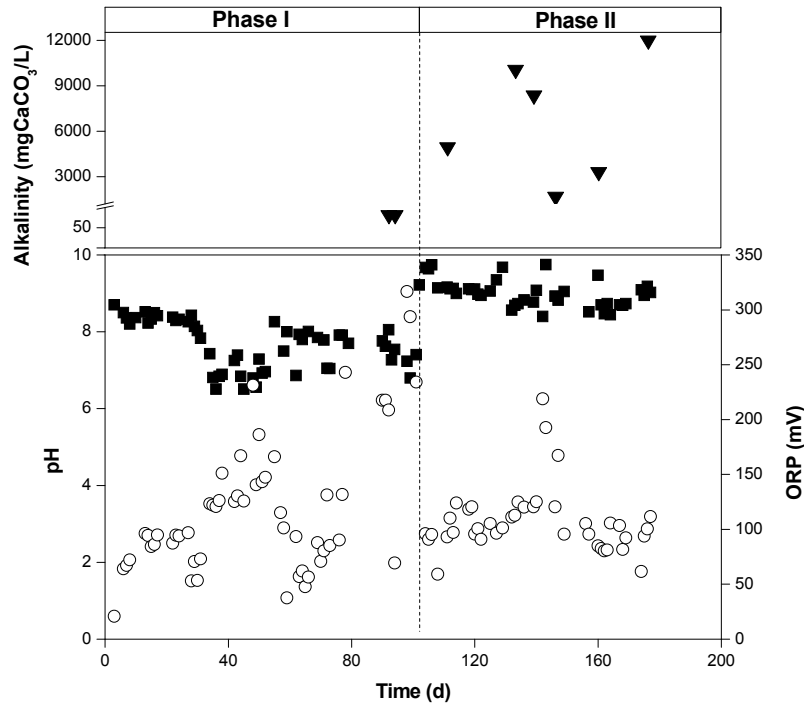


Figure 2. Evolution of alkalinity (▼), pH (■) and oxidation-reduction potential (ORP) (○) in the activated sludge system for different operating conditions

Figure 3 shows COD and  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiencies and Figure 4 shows the  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NH}_3^+\text{-N}$  concentrations in the effluent. In Phase I COD and  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiencies were  $84 \pm 3$  and  $37 \pm 8\%$ , respectively, while  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations in the effluent were  $27.5 \pm 13.1$  and  $37.1 \pm 14.0$  mg/L, respectively. Nitrite accumulation was detected during transformation. The estimated  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentration was  $2.9 \pm 1.1$  mg/L. Wang et al. (2010) reported a maximum  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal of 99.8% in a batch system with an organic carbon source as substrate and a C/N ratio of 4 to 10. In a simultaneous nitrification-denitrification process, nitrification was dominant at a low C/N. With a C/N ratio of 6.3 and an organic carbon source,  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal was 41%, with nitrite accumulation present. The highest nitrification rate was observed with C/N at 19.7 (Chiu et al., 2007).

In Phase II, the  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal was  $33 \pm 9\%$ .  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations were  $1.01 \pm 0.02$  and  $3.84 \pm 0.81$  mg/L, respectively, and the value of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  was  $210 \pm 49$  mg/L. In an activated sludge system with a C/N ratio of 5.7 and  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  as the carbon source, full ammonia removal to nitrate was observed (Campos et al., 2007).

The efficiency of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal decreased by 4% with the switch to an inorganic substrate. Decreases of up to 99% in  $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations were observed, while the value of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  increased by two orders of magnitude in Phase II.

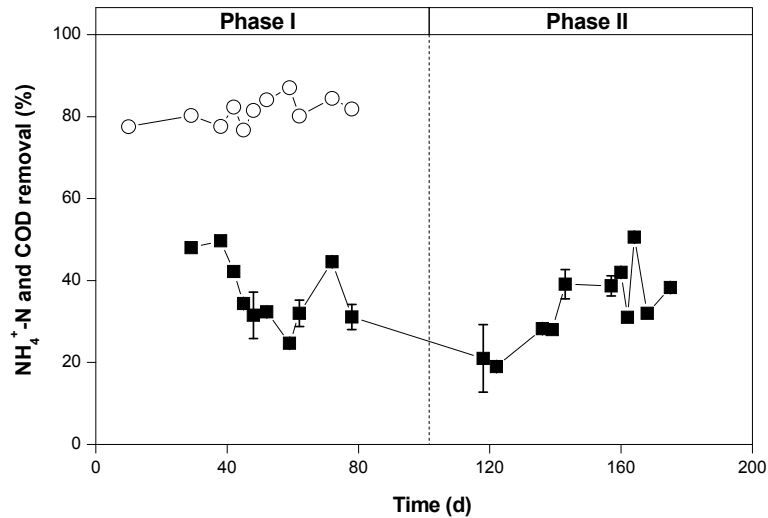


Figure 3.  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  (■) and COD (○) removal during operation of the activated sludge system

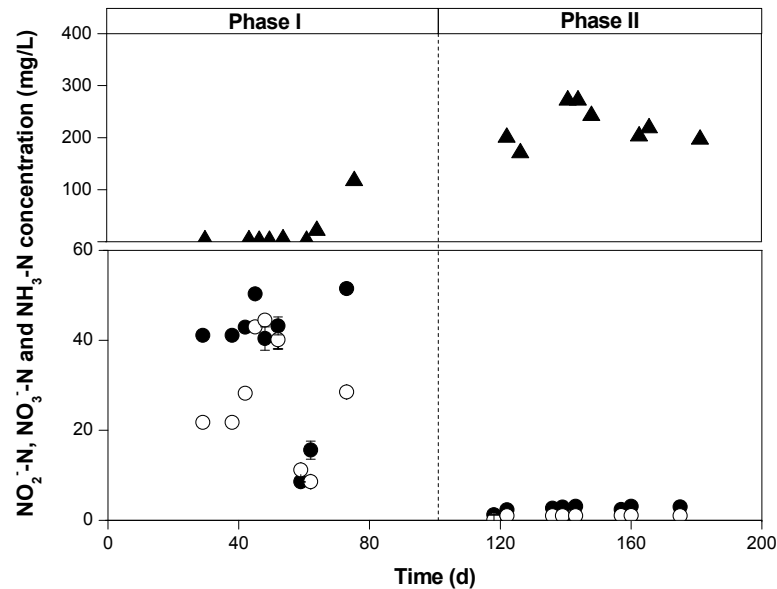


Figure 4. Evolution of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N (○),  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N (●) and  $\text{NH}_3$ -N (▲) activated sludge effluent concentrations during operating conditions

Table 2 shows ammonia- and nitrite-oxidation and concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  on operation days 29 and 62 during Phase I and days 118, 139, 162 and 168 during Phase II. There was no variation in activity during the two phases.

During Phase I, ammonia-oxidization was  $0.231 \pm 0.005 \text{ mgNH}_4^+\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$ , nitrite-oxidization was  $0.049 \pm 0.001 \text{ mgNO}_2^-\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$ . and  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiency was  $31 \pm 1\%$ . During Phase II, when the carbonaceous substrate was  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , ammonia-oxidization decreased by 90% to  $0.018 \pm 0.002 \text{ mgNH}_4^+\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$ , nitrite-oxidization decreased 76% and  $0.010 \pm 0.002 \text{ mgNO}_2^-\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiency was  $28 \pm 4\%$ .

The pH values ( $9.22 \pm 0.29$ ) and ammonia concentrations (208-331 mg/L) may be the main factors for the lower ammonia- and nitrite-oxidization values. Shammass (1986) showed that a pH level between 8 and 9 is optimal for nitrification and that when pH increases to 9.6 nitrification drops almost zero. In this study, during the Phase II pH values reached over 9.6, at which level nitrite was not detected in the process. These results concur with

those of Ruiz et al. (2003), who found a complete inhibition of nitrification in an AS system without nitrite accumulation at a pH level higher than 8.95. Campos et al. (2007) found a reduction from 0.4 to 0.2 mgNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N/gVSS·min of ammonia-oxidation when the system was subjected to a pH level of 11. However, specific nitrite-oxidation remained constant at around 0.7 g NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/gVSS d when pH was recovered. Moreover, nitrate accumulation and NH<sub>3</sub> were in the effluent. Willke and Vorlop (1996) found a nitrite-oxidizing bacteria resistant to pH variations, indicating that activity is affected when pH is in the range 4.5 and 10, among others. In this way Suthersand and Ganczarzyk (1986) found that a pH shock reduces nitrite-oxidation by 14% less than ammonia-oxidation.

While ammonia and nitrite serve as energy sources for the microorganisms responsible for oxidation, they can inhibit biological activity in their unionized forms, NH<sub>3</sub> and HNO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The concentrations of free nitrous acid and free ammonia are functions of temperature, pH and ammonia and nitrite concentrations, respectively (Villaverde et al., 1997). The free ammonia concentration increases to basic pH while the nitrous acid concentration increases to acid pH (Gerardi, 2002).

NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations increase with higher temperatures (Emerson et al., 1975). From Phase I to II, the pH level increased by 1.2 points (from 7.7 to 8.9) and temperature increased by 2 degree °C (from 14.9 to 16.9 °C). Under these conditions 20% of the total ammonia in the system is in the form of NH<sub>3</sub> in the system. The maximum pH was 9.75 and under these conditions 64% of ammonia was NH<sub>3</sub> (Hansen et al., 1997). At these levels of NH<sub>3</sub> ammonia- and nitrite-oxidation are inhibited (Fontenot et al., 2007).

Table 2. Ammonium-oxidation in sludge, influent and effluent ammonia concentration (mg/L), and percentage reduction of total ammonia during operation of the activated sludge system

Phase	Time (d)	Ammonium-oxidation (mgNH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N/gVSS·min)	Nitrite-oxidation (mgNO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N/gVSS·min)	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N concentration		
				Influent (mg/L)	Effluent (mg/L)	Reduction (%)
I	29	0.233 ± 0.008	0.049 ± 0.001	695 ± 10	485 ± 10	30
	62	0.229 ± 0.002	0.049 ± 0.001	700 ± 10	475 ± 10	32
II	118	0.013 ± 0.003	N. D.	750 ± 20	590 ± 20	21
	139	0.017 ± 0.001	N. D.	702 ± 10	512 ± 5	28
	162	0.020 ± 0.002	0.008 ± 0.002	695 ± 5	475 ± 5	31
	168	0.023 ± 0.001	0.012 ± 0.001	685 ± 5	465 ± 5	32

Note. N.D.: Not determined.

Table 3 shows the nitrogen mass balance. The tendency of the nitrogen balance evolution concurs with the analysis of the ammonia-oxidizing and nitrate-oxidizing bacteria. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N load in the influent of the AS system during Phase I and II was 0.355 ± 0.012 g/d, while the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N load in the effluent was 0.502 ± 0.039 g/d. The effluent loads of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N decreased from Phase I to Phase II, to a non-detectable level for NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and to 92% for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N. The effluent load increased from Phase I (0.001 g/d) to Phase II (0.135 ± 0.018 g/d). NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N removal was over 40%, in both phases.

Table 3. Evolution of nitrogen matter balance in an activated sludge system during the two operating phases

Phase	Time (d)	Input (g/d) NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N	Reactor (gO <sub>2</sub> /d)	Output (g/d)			
				NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N	NH <sub>3</sub> -N
I	29	0.347	0.596	0.242	0.011	0.021	0.001
	62	0.350	1.440	0.237	0.004	0.007	0.001
II	118	0.375	0.010	0.295	N.D.	0.001	0.122
	139	0.351	0.006	0.256	N.D.	0.001	0.165
	161	0.348	0.045	0.238	N.D.	0.001	0.133
	168	0.343	0.018	0.233	N.D.	0.001	0.120

Note. N.D.: Not Detected.

#### 4. Conclusions

The maximum  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiency was 49.7% in Phase I, during which  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations were  $37.1 \pm 14.0$  and  $2.9 \pm 1.1$  mg/L, respectively. In Phase II, the maximum  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  removal efficiency was 45% and  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations were  $2.8 \pm 0.3$  mg/L and  $210 \pm 49$  mg/L, respectively. Ammonia-oxidizing and nitrite-oxidation decreased from  $0.231 \pm 0.005$   $\text{mgNH}_4^+\text{/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$  to  $0.018 \pm 0.004$   $\text{mgNH}_4^+\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$  in Phase I and from  $0.049 \pm 0.011$   $\text{mgNO}_2^-\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$  to  $0.010 \pm 0.002$   $\text{mgNO}_2^-\text{-N/gVSS}\cdot\text{min}$  in Phase II.

#### Acknowledgements

This work is supported by grants from Patagonia Seed (210.310.055-1SP) and CONICYT/FONDAP/15130015. The authors thank the Doctoral Network REDOC.CTA, MINEDUC Grant UCO1202 from the University of Concepcion. As well, they thank G. Pozo and M. Jarpa for their valuable support during the experimental work.

#### References

- Ahn, Y.-H. (2006). Sustainable nitrogen elimination biotechnologies: A review. *Process Biochemistry*, 41(8), 1709-1721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2006.03.033>
- Anthonisen, A. C., Loehr, R. C., Prakasam, T. B. S., & Srinath, E. G. (1976). Inhibition of nitrification by ammonia and nitrous acid. *Water Pollution Control Federation*, 48(5), 835-852.
- Antileo, C., Aspe, E., Urrutia, H., Zaror, C., & Roeckel, M. (2002). Nitrifying biomass acclimation to high ammonia. *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, 128(4), 367-375. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9372\(2002\)128:4\(367\)](http://dx.doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9372(2002)128:4(367))
- APHA-AWWA-WPCF. (1998). *Standard methods for examination of water and wastewater* (19th ed.). Washington, DC: American Public Health Association.
- Austin, B. (1988). *Methods in aquatic bacteriology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Boaventura, R., Pedro, A. M., Coimbra, J., & Lencastre, E. (1997). Trout farm effluents: characterization and impact on the receiving streams. *Environmental Pollution*, 95(3), 379-87. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0269-7491\(96\)00117-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0269-7491(96)00117-0)
- Campos, J. L., Garrido, J. M., Mosquera-Corral, A., & Méndez, R. (2007). Stability of a nitrifying activated sludge reactor. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 35(1), 87-92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2007.01.002>
- Campos, J. L., Mosquera-Corral, A., Sánchez, R., Méndez, R., & Lemma, J. M. (2002). Nitrification in saline wastewater with high ammonia concentration in an activated sludge unit. *Water Research*, 36(10), 2555-2560. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354\(01\)00467-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(01)00467-5)
- Chen, S., Ling, J., & Blancheton, J. P. (2006). Nitrification kinetics of biofilm as affected by water quality factors. *Aquacultural Engineering*, 34(3), 179-197. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2005.09.004>
- Chiu, Y. C., Lee, L.-L., Chang, C.-N., & Chao, A. (2007). Control of carbon and ammonium ratio for simultaneous nitrification and denitrification in a sequencing batch bioreactor. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 59, 1-7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2006.08.001>
- Cripps, S. J., & Bergheim, A. (2000). Solids management and removal for intensive land-based aquaculture production systems. *Aquacultural Engineering*, 22, 33-56. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0144-8609\(00\)00031-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0144-8609(00)00031-5)
- Emerson, K., Russo, R. C., Lund, R. E., & Thurston, R. V. (1975). Aqueous ammonia equilibrium calculations: Effect of pH and temperature. *Journal of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada*, 32, 2379-2383. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1139/f75-274>
- Fontenot, Q., Bonvillain, C., Kilgen, M., & Boopathy, R. (2007). Effects of temperature, salinity, and carbon: Nitrogen ratio on sequencing batch reactor treating shrimp aquaculture wastewater. *Bioresource Technology*, 98, 1700-1703. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2006.07.031>
- Gerardi, M. H. (2002). *Nitrification and denitrification in the activated sludge process*. New York: John Wiley and Sons. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/0471216682>
- Hansen, K. H., Angelidaki, I., & Ahring, B. K. (1998). Anaerobic digestion of swine manure: Inhibition by ammonia. *Water Research*, 32(1), 5-12. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354\(97\)00201-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(97)00201-7)
- Jegatheesan, V., Shu, L., & Visvanathan, C. (2011). Aquaculture effluent: Impacts and remedies for protecting the environment and human health. In N. Jerome (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of environmental health* (pp.



- 123-135). Burlington: Elsevier Science. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-52272-6.00340-8>
- Leu, S.-Y., Libra, J. A., & Stenstrom, M. K. (2010). Monitoring off-gas O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> to predict nitrification performance in activated sludge processes. *Water Research*, 44(11), 3434-3444. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2010.03.022>
- Li, B., & Irvin, S. (2007). The comparison of alkalinity and ORP as indicators for nitrification and denitrification in a sequencing batch reactor (SBR). *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 34(3), 248-255. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2006.12.020>
- López-Fiuza, J., Buys, B., Mosquera-Corral, A., Omil, F., & Méndez, R. (2002). Toxic effects exerted on methanogenic, nitrifying and denitrifying bacteria by chemicals used in a milk analysis laboratory. *Enzyme Microbial Technology*, 31(7), 976-985. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229\(02\)00210-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00210-7)
- Michael, Jr. J. (2003). Nutrients in salmon hatchery wastewater and its removal through the use of a wetland constructed to treat off-line settling pond effluent. *Aquaculture*, 226(1-4), 213-225. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0044-8486\(03\)00479-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0044-8486(03)00479-4)
- Ruiz, G., Jeison, D., & Chamy, R. (2003). Nitrification with nitrite accumulation for the treatment of wastewater with high ammonia concentration. *Water Research*, 37, 1371-1377. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)EE.1943-7870.0000682](http://dx.doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0000682)
- Shammas, N. Kh. (1986). Interactions of temperature, pH, and biomass on the nitrification process. *Water Pollution Control Federation*, 58(1), 52-59.
- Stewart, N., Boardman, G., & Helfrich, L. (2006). Treatment of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) raceway effluent using baffled sedimentation and artificial substrates. *Aquacultural Engineering*, 35(2), 166-178. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2006.01.001>
- Suthersand, S. & Ganczarzyk, J. J. (1986). Inhibition of nitrite oxidation during nitrification: some observations. *Water Pollution Research Journal of Canada*, 21, 257-266.
- Vidal, G., Nieto, J., Mansilla, H. D., & Bornhardt, C. (2004). Combined oxidative and biological treatment of separated streams of tannery wastewater. *Water Science and Technology*, 49, 287-292.
- Villaverde, S., Garcia-Encina, P. A., & Fdz-Polanco, F. (1997). Influence of pH over nitrifying biofilm activity in submerged biofilters. *Water Research*, 31(5), 1180-1186. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354\(96\)00376-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(96)00376-4)
- Wang, F., Ding, Y., Ge, L., Ren, H., & Ding, L. (2010). Effect of high-strength ammonia nitrogen acclimation on sludge activity in sequencing batch reactor. *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 22(11), 1683-1688. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1001-0742\(09\)60306-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1001-0742(09)60306-5)
- Willke, T., & Vorlop, K. D. (1996). Nitrification in PVAL Beads: Influence of pH and temperature on nitrite oxidation. In R. H. Wijffels, R. M. Buitelaar, C. Bucke & J. Tramper (Eds.), *Immobilized Cells: Basics and Application* (pp. 718-724). Elsevier. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0921-0423\(96\)80097-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0921-0423(96)80097-9)
- Xia, S., Li, J., & Wang, R. (2008). Nitrogen removal performance and microbial community structure dynamics response to carbon nitrogen ratio in a compact suspended carrier biofilm reactor. *Ecological Engineering*, 32(3), 256-262. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2007.11.013>

## Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>).