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1 Abstract

2 This study compared reactor performance and the respective microbial community dynamics
3 in the conventional single-stage and 2-phase anaerobic digestion (AD) systems, treating
4 municipal sludge to generate methane. The 2-phase system's COD and VS reduction, and
5 methane production could be maintained throughout the three HRTs tested ($p = 0.05$), which
6 was associated with an increase in organic loading (30 d = 1.5 g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹, 20 d = 2.2 g
7 COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹ and 10 d = 3.5 g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹); but this was not so in the single-stage system
8 where it deteriorated at HRT of 10 d ($p = 0.05$) due to impairment of particulate COD
9 reduction. qPCR, DGGE and the subsequent phylogenetic analysis revealed that microbial
10 adaptation occurred as the seed sludge formed a different community in each reactor at 30 d
11 HRT; however, no further significant microbial shift occurred at lower HRTs. The presence
12 of specific hydrolytic and acidogenic *Flavobacteriales* and *Clostriales* in the acidogenic
13 reactor may have allowed for enhanced hydrolysis and acidogenesis, leading to higher
14 organic loading tolerance at 10 d HRT. Methanogenic activity in the acidogenic reactor may
15 have been performed by *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanosarcinaceae*. Operation of the
16 acidogenic reactor at neutral pH may have to be considered to ensure the cultivation of
17 propionate oxidising bacteria, which could in turn, prevent reactor "souring" during high load
18 conditions.

1 **Comparison of Single-stage and Two-phase Anaerobic Sludge Digestion Systems**
2 **- Performance and Microbial Community Dynamics**

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19 **Keywords**

20 Two-phase anaerobic digestion; municipal sludge; biogas; microbial community;

21 DGGE; qPCR

22 **Abbreviations**

23 AD anaerobic digestion

24 CSTR continuously stirred tank reactor

25 DGGE denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis

26 DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

27 HRT hydraulic retention time

28 OLR organic loading rate

29 PCR polymerase chain reaction

30 qPCR quantitative polymerase chain reaction

31 rRNA ribosomal ribonucleic acid

32 SRT solid retention time

33 TS total solids

34 VFA volatile fatty acids

35 VS volatile solids

36 VSS volatile suspended solids

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Municipal sludge is an inevitable by-product in current state-of-the-art of municipal
40 wastewater treatment. Anaerobic digestion (AD) has commonly been applied to
41 reduce the solids content and the pathogenic and vector attraction potential, while
42 recovering renewable source of energy in the form of methane. AD involves a series
43 of biological steps, namely hydrolysis, acidogenesis, acetogenesis and finally,
44 methanogenesis (Angelidaki et al., 2000). Hydrolysis, often the rate-limiting step
45 during sludge AD, would initially disintegrate and solubilise protein, carbohydrates
46 and lipids into their simpler derivatives by physicochemical dissolution and microbial
47 enzymatic reaction. The next two steps would then be performed by
48 chemoorganotrophic microorganisms which obtained energy by fermentation or
49 respiration reactions, utilising amino acids, saccharides, LCFAs, glycerol or different
50 species of VFA as electron donor. Methanogenic bacteria then utilise acetic acid and
51 hydrogen as the main electron donor for methane and carbon dioxide production
52 (Angelidaki et al., 2000). Hence, stabilisation of organic solids and liquid components
53 is achieved, yielding carbon dioxide and methane. However, high concentration of
54 VFA may accumulate during sludge digestion in a single-stage AD configuration
55 operated at high organic loading rate (OLR) or shortened hydraulic retention time
56 (HRT). The accumulated VFA would decrease system pH, and ultimately cause
57 process failure.

58 Optimisation of the AD process to achieve more efficient sludge stabilisation led to
59 phased AD system (Ghosh et al., 1995). Acidogenic bacteria have growth rates which
60 are magnitudes faster than the methanogenic bacteria. In the conventional high-rate
61 AD reactor, an extended SRT is necessary to accommodate for the cultivation of
62 slower growing methanogenic bacteria. However, reactor operation at extended SRTs

63 and neutral pH may suppress the acidogenic bacteria's capacity to produce VFA, the
64 intermediates for methanogenesis (Ghosh, 1987). Physical separation of the AD
65 process into its acidogenesis and methanogenesis phases can alleviate this problem,
66 and also help in controlling VFA conversion by the acetogenic and methanogenic
67 bacteria, avoiding "sour digestion". Process improvements in terms of solid and
68 pathogen reduction, biogas production and foaming alleviation, compared to the
69 conventional high-rate single-stage AD, had been reported previously (Ghosh et al.,
70 1995; Bhattacharya et al., 1996).

71 Besides solids reduction, process stability is another key parameter to be considered.
72 Fluctuating OLR and especially during sharp high excursions could affect process
73 performance. Methanogenic bacteria are slow-growing and at short SRTs may be
74 washed out from the reactor. The imbalance between acidogens and methanogens can
75 then lead to accumulation of VFA at inhibitory levels (Ghosh et al., 1995). The
76 opportunity to shorten SRTs while still maintaining digestion performance is
77 welcomed because it would allow reduction of reactor size for a given load.

78 Understanding the complex interactions of microorganisms involved in the AD
79 process is of interest for better process control. Previous studies had focused on
80 characterising the microbial population in the single-stage sludge AD process (Raskin
81 et al., 1995; Rivière et al., 2009; Shin et al., 2010b), but rarely in the phased AD
82 configuration (Zhang and Noike, 1991; Shin et al., 2010a), and especially for phased
83 AD treating sewage sludge (Shimada et al., 2011). Microbial characterisation of 2-
84 phase microbial community had been attempted using clone library technique at a
85 single organic loading (Shimada et al., 2011); but, varied organic loadings would
86 likely impact on the microbial dynamics.

87 Therefore, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the performance of two municipal
88 sludge digestion systems - single-stage and 2-phase AD configurations operated at
89 various organic loading conditions. The consequent microbial dynamics and systems'
90 performance would then be correlated.

91

92 **2. Materials & Methods**

93 *2.1. Reactor start-up and operation*

94 The single-stage reactor set was a single 50 L working volume digester vessel. The 2-
95 phase setup had a 7.5 L acidogenic reactor (phase 1) preceding a 42.5 L methanogenic
96 reactor (phase 2). The reactor operating conditions are as summarised in Table 1. The
97 working volumes of the 2-phase reactors were adjusted as HRTs were reduced from
98 30 d to 20 d, and finally to 12 d. As the HRTs were reduced, the OLR had increased
99 from 1.5 to 2.2 and 3.5 g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively. The reactors were operated in
100 CSTR fashion, so the HRT = SRT. Temperature of all reactors was controlled at 35
101 °C; pH of the acidogenic reactor was pH 5.5, while the single-stage and methanogenic
102 reactors were controlled at pH 7.0. pH was maintained by automated dosing of 1 M
103 hydrochloric acid or 1 M sodium hydroxide. All reactors were seeded with anaerobic
104 sludge collected from an anaerobic digester at a local wastewater reclamation plant.
105 The sludge substrate used was a mixture of municipal primary and secondary sludge
106 from the same water reclamation plant. Its characteristic was 42,300 ± 3,600 mg total
107 COD L⁻¹; 2,500 ± 1,000 mg soluble COD L⁻¹; 32.1 ± 2.6 g TS L⁻¹; 25.7 ± 2.0 g VS L⁻¹;
108 and pH 5.9 ± 0.2. Sludge substrate was collected weekly and stored at 4 °C before
109 use.

110 *2.2. Analytical methods*

111 Samples were collected twice weekly from all reactors. Chemical oxygen demand
112 (COD), total solids (TS), total suspended solids (TSS), volatile solids (VS), volatile
113 suspended solids (VSS) were measured according to procedures in Standard Methods
114 (APHA, 2005). Daily biogas volume produced was measured with a thermal-based
115 gas flowmeter (McMillan, USA), fitted on the bioreactor. Biogas composition was

116 assessed using gas chromatography (GC) (7890A, Agilent, USA) with a thermal
117 conductivity detector. Various volatile fatty acids (VFA) and their concentrations
118 were measured using the same GC model (Agilent, USA) but fitted with the ZB-
119 FFAP column (Phenomenex, USA) and a flame ionisation detector. VFA samples
120 were prepared by centrifuging a sludge sample at 13,000 xg for 5min before filtering
121 through a 0.2 µm nylon membrane.

122 *2.3. DNA extraction and storage*

123 Before extraction, the sludge sample was diluted to reduce TS concentration to below
124 2 g L⁻¹ to ensure maximum extraction efficiency. 1 mL duplicates of the sample were
125 then washed twice with phosphate buffered saline by centrifugation (20,000 xg for 2
126 min) and resuspension. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) was extracted using an
127 automated DNA extraction kit (MagNA Pure, Roche Diagnostic GmbH, Germany)
128 following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. Extracted DNA was stored at -
129 20 °C before PCR amplification was performed.

130 *2.4. DGGE and phylogenetic identification*

131 Bacterial and archaeal community structures were studied by targeting the 16s
132 ribosomal ribonucleic acid (rRNA) gene. Touch-down PCR protocol and the
133 bacterial- (GC-BAC338F, BAC805R), archaeal-specific (GC-ARC787F, ARC1059R)
134 primers and their respective GC clamps followed those used by Shin et al. (2010a).
135 PCR product was run on DGGE using DCode system (Bio-Rad, USA) with 8% (w/v)
136 acrylamide, where the 100% denaturant contained 7 M urea and 40% (v/v)
137 formamide. Bacterial DGGE was run on 30-60% denaturing gradient, while archaeal
138 DGGE on 40-70% gradient. The gel was run at 85 V for 14 h in TAE buffer (1X). The

139 gel was subsequently stained with ethidium bromide and documented using GelDoc™
140 XR+ system (BioRad, USA).

141 Bands of interest were cut and eluted in 50 µL of nuclease-free water overnight. 2 µL
142 of eluted DNA solution was amplified using the same bacterial and archaeal primers
143 as above, without the GC clamps (Shin et al., 2010a). PCR products were purified
144 from 2% agarose gel, cloned into pGEM-T Easy vector (Promega, USA) and
145 sequenced. Resulting sequences were compared against reference database in the
146 GenBank, using BLAST ([http:// http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/](http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/)). Neighbour-joining
147 trees were then constructed with MEGA5 software using Jukes-Cantor algorithm and
148 bootstrapped 1,000 times.

149 2.5. qPCR

150 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was performed using primer/probe
151 sets targeting the same 16s rRNA genes, specific for *Bacteria* and *Archaea* as
152 mentioned above, but without the GC clamps. The two-step PCR amplification
153 protocol, the primers and TaqMan probes of 16s rRNA genes for identifying archaeal
154 orders *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanomicrobiales*; and families *Methanosarcinaceae*,
155 *Methanoaetaceae* followed those described by Yu et al. (2005). qPCR was performed
156 using LightCycler 480 (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Germany) with LightCycler480
157 TaqMan Probe Master (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Germany) system. Each extracted
158 DNA duplicate was analysed by qPCR. Standard curves for the qPCR analysis were
159 prepared as previously described (Yu et al., 2005). The calibrated number of DNA per
160 gram VSS would give an estimated measure of quantitative abundance.

161

162 **3. Results**

163 *3.1. The performance of single stage and 2-phase sludge AD systems*

164 The two systems were operated for 402 d at 3 different OLR. Table 1 summarises the
165 operating parameters and performances. Student's t-test was used to evaluate the
166 COD, VS reduction and methane production data between the single-stage and 2-
167 phase systems and these were only significantly different at 12 d HRT ($p < 0.05$, $n =$
168 16). Mean COD and VS reduction in the single-stage AD system during 30 and 20 d
169 HRT was around 39% and 32%, before it decreased to 30.8% and 26.3% at 12 d HRT,
170 respectively. On the other hand, mean COD and VS reduction in the 2-phase system
171 could be maintained at between 40.7% to 42.3% and 31.6% to 35.5%, respectively,
172 even when the HRT was decreased from 30 to 12 d. The mean methane production
173 gradually increased due to increasing OLR, ranging from 9.4 to 11.7 and 15.6 L d⁻¹ at
174 30, 20 and 12 d HRT in the single-stage reactor. On the contrary, mean methane
175 production in the 2-phase system was similar to single-stage AD at 30 and 20 d HRT
176 (10.0 and 12.7 L d⁻¹, respectively); but was higher at 12 d HRT (20.6 L d⁻¹).

177 ***(insert table 1 here)**

178 The acidogenic reactor contributed 20% to 24% of all the methane generated in the 2-
179 phase system (Table 1). Despite methanogenesis being commonly known to proceed
180 between pH 6.6 to 7.8, previous researchers have also reported methanogenic activity
181 in the acidogenic reactor at pH 5.8 (Ghosh et al., 1995). The biogas composition in
182 the single-stage and methanogenic reactors was 64% - 67% methane, 30% - 34%
183 carbon dioxide, while the acidogenic reactor was 48% - 49% methane and 48% - 50%
184 carbon dioxide. There was low hydrogen partial pressure found in all the anaerobic

185 reactors (< 0.01%). This demonstrated that there were active methanogens in the
186 acidogenic reactor.

187 ***(insert table 2 here)**

188 Table 2 presents the distribution of VFA in the sludge substrate and acidogenic
189 reactor. The most abundant VFA species in the acidogenic reactor was propionic acid,
190 followed by isovaleric, butyric and acetic acid. The acetic acid concentration in the
191 acidogenic reactor was lower than it was at in the sludge substrate as acetic acid was
192 converted into methane. Table 2 also shows that total VFA in the acidogenic reactor
193 decreased as the HRT was reduced. However, calculating the sum of the COD
194 reduced and residual VFA in the acidogenic reactor resulted in values of 27.5, 28.4
195 and 36.6 g COD for the 5, 3 and 2 d HRTs, respectively. These values represented the
196 amount of substrate COD converted into residual VFA and biogas in the acidogenic
197 reactor. The total amount of substrate COD converted into VFA and biogas were at
198 least maintained as HRT was decreased, and showed that acidogenesis was not
199 adversely affected upon the reduction of HRT.

200 *3.2. Bacterial and archaeal profiles*

201 DGGE and subsequent phylogenetic identification were performed to reveal the
202 microbial diversity and community dynamics in the single-stage and 2-phase AD
203 systems. Microbial characterisations of *Archaea* (Fig. 1A) and *Bacteria* (Fig. 1B)
204 were conducted when the anaerobic processes were stable and had undergone at least
205 4 HRT cycles. A total of 30 bands from both the bacterial and archaeal DGGE gels
206 were sequenced and the nearest taxonomic identification from the database were
207 identified (Table 3). Phylogenetic trees were also constructed for *Archaea* (Fig. 2) and
208 *Bacteria* (Fig. 3).

209 ***(insert figure 1 here)**

210 Fig. 1A shows that the archaeal population of different reactors were similar in all
211 samples tested, irrespective of the HRT. Two methanogenic orders were identified by
212 the phylogenetic analysis, namely *Methanomicrobiales* and *Methanosarcinales* orders
213 (Demirel and Scherer, 2008). The bands A1 to A11 appeared in the sludge substrate,
214 seed sludge and the 3 anaerobic reactors on all HRTs tested. These bands sequences
215 were found to be closely related to *Methanospirillum hungatei*, *Methanolinea*
216 *mesophila* and *Methanoregula formicicum*. These species were of
217 *Methanomicrobiales* order and utilised hydrogen or formate as electron acceptor to
218 produce methane (Demirel and Scherer, 2008). A13 and A14 appeared in the single-
219 stage and methanogenic reactors when the system HRT was reduced to 20 d and 12 d.
220 A13 and A14 were closely related to *Methanoculleus receptaculi*, another species of
221 *Methanomicrobiales* order. A15 was affiliated to *Methanosarcina barkei* which
222 seemed to decrease in intensity over decreasing HRTs in the methanogenic reactor.
223 *Methanosarcina* tend to be more flexible and can utilise a wider range of substrates as
224 electron donor (Demirel and Scherer, 2008).

225 ***(insert table 3 here)**

226 ***(insert figure 2 here)**

227 The bacterial DGGE gel in Fig. 1B shows that the bacterial profiles of sludge
228 substrate, seed sludge and the various anaerobic reactors were distinct. Acidogenic
229 reactor population did not seem to change significantly as HRT decreased. There were
230 also bands which consistently appeared in all the samples as well as those which were
231 distinct for a particular sample. For instance, B3 to B6 appeared in all samples, while
232 B9, B12 and B15 were observed only in the acidogenic reactor. Phylogenetic
233 identification demonstrated that *Clostridiales*, *Flavobacteriales*, *Pseudomonadales*

234 and *Syntrophobacteriales* were the four bacterial orders identified in the anaerobic
235 reactors. Unfortunately, many of the bacterial sequences could not be affiliated to
236 cultured, classified microorganism. B3 was closely related (97%) to *Enhydrobacter*
237 species of *Pseudomonadales* order. B4 and B6 matched (99%) to uncultured
238 *Bacteroidetes* bacterium in sludge AD (Table 3) and Uncultured *Fluviicola* sp. from
239 membrane bioreactor biofilm which were of *Flavobacteriales*. B5 matched (98%) to
240 uncultured *Ruminococcaceae* bacterium identified in wetlands of the *Clostridiales*
241 (Table 3).

242 Of those bands only found in the acidogenic reactor, B9, B12 were closely related to
243 uncultured bacterium identified in AD process treating coking wastewater and full-
244 scale sludge AD process, respectively (Table 3). These sequences seemed to cluster
245 within *Flavobacteriales* class. B15 had 97% maximum identity to Uncultured
246 *Clostridiales* bacterium identified in AD treating swine manure (Table 3).

247 Additionally, B1 and B2 were present in the acidogenic reactor as well as the sludge
248 substrate. Both sequences matched (100%) for *Cloacibacterium normanense*, a
249 facultative anaerobic bacterium of *Flavobacteriales* order. This organism was isolated
250 from the influent municipal wastewater, capable of hydrolysing starch and gelatin
251 (Allen et al., 2006).

252 There were also bands which were found to be present only in the single-stage and
253 methanogenic reactors. B7 was closely related (96%) to *Smithella propionica*, a
254 known syntrophic oxidiser, which cooperated with hydrogenotrophic microorganisms,
255 such as hydrogenotrophic methanogen to convert propionic acid to acetic acid (Liu et
256 al., 1999). *Clostridiales* and *Flavobacteriales* orders could also be found in these
257 anaerobic reactors. B10 and B13 were affiliated to *Saccharofermentans acetigenes*
258 (98%) and uncultured *Firmicutes* bacterium in full-scale AD treating sludge (99%),

259 respectively, which were both clustered within the *Clostridiales*. *Saccharofermentans*
260 *acetigenes* was isolated from an anaerobic reactor, capable of fermenting saccharides
261 (Chen et al., 2010). Lastly, B14 was closely related (99%) to uncultured *Bacteroidetes*
262 in full-scale AD treating sludge, which came under the *Flavobacteriales* order.

263 ***(insert figure 3 here)**

264 3.3. Microbial quantitative analysis by qPCR

265 The quantitative dynamics over different operational HRTs of the bacterial and
266 methanogenic population was assessed by qPCR. The qPCR analysis targeted
267 universal *Bacteria*, *Archaea* and 4 methanogenic orders and families, commonly
268 found in the sludge AD process (Shin et al., 2010b). Fig. 4 shows the average
269 quantification of microbial population during each HRT when the process was stable
270 and had undergone at least 4 HRT cycles. The mean bacterial 16s rRNA genes of the
271 sludge substrate reduced from 1×10^{10} to c. 5×10^9 DNA copies mg VSS⁻¹ in the
272 single-stage and methanogenic reactors regardless of HRT, indicating cell lysis as
273 microbial cells decayed during the AD process. Quantitative shift was observed when
274 the biomass was adapted from the seed sludge into single-stage, acidogenic and
275 methanogenic reactor biomass (Fig. 4). However, there was no obvious quantitative
276 shift of the bacterial and methanogenic population tested as the HRT was decreased.
277 Total methanogenic population in the seed sludge (3.6×10^8 DNA copies mg VSS⁻¹)
278 was lower than the single-stage and methanogenic reactors (c. 6×10^8 DNA copies
279 mg VSS⁻¹), but was slightly higher than the sludge substrate and acidogenic reactor (1
280 $\times 10^8$ DNA copies mg VSS⁻¹) (Fig. 4A).

281 ***(insert figure 4 here)**

282 Hydrogenotrophic *Methanomicrobiales* dominated in all samples, between 80 to 90%
283 in abundance to all the methanogens, but at varying concentrations (Fig. 4B). The
284 results also demonstrated that the mean 16s rRNA gene concentration of
285 *Methanomicrobiales* (Fig. 4B) and *Methanosaetaceae* (Fig. 4C) declined as the seed
286 sludge (3×10^8 and 9×10^6 DNA mg VSS⁻¹, respectively) evolved to the acidogenic
287 reactor biomass (ca. 1×10^8 and 1×10^6 DNA mg VSS⁻¹, respectively). Meanwhile,
288 the mean 16s rRNA gene concentration of *Methanobacteriales* (Fig. 4B) and
289 *Methanosarcinaceae* (Fig. 4C) increased as the seed sludge (3×10^6 and 2×10^5 DNA
290 mg VSS⁻¹, respectively) formed the acidogenic reactor biomass (c. 1×10^7 and 1×10^6
291 DNA mg VSS⁻¹, respectively). *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanomicrobiales* (Fig. 4B)
292 and *Methanosaetaceae* (Fig. 4C) were in the similar range for both the single-stage
293 and the methanogenic reactors (3×10^7 , 5×10^8 and 1×10^7 DNA copies mg VSS⁻¹,
294 respectively). Only the mean 16s rRNA gene concentration of *Methanosarcinaceae*
295 (Fig. 4C) was found to be one magnitude higher in the methanogenic reactor (3×10^7
296 DNA copies mg VSS⁻¹) than any other samples.

297

298 4. Discussion

299 This study compared application of the single-stage and 2-phase AD configurations in
300 treatment of municipal sludge. The same working conditions in terms of the seed
301 sludge source, substrate and temperature were applied to both configurations. The
302 effect of decreasing HRT which inevitably increased the OLR was evaluated. The
303 competitive advantage of using the 2-phase configuration at the shortened HRT of 12
304 d was shown to maintain sludge digestion and biogas production.

305 Stable COD, VS reduction and methane yield could be maintained at the OLR from
306 1.5 to 3.5 g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹ in the 2-phase AD configuration (Table 1). On the contrary,
307 the single-stage AD configuration could not maintain the same performance once the
308 OLR increased from 2.2 to 3.5 g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹. To determine if methanogenesis was
309 the limiting factor in the single-stage reactor AD, mean residual VFA of both single-
310 stage and methanogenic reactors in the mixed liquor were compared, but both were
311 found to be low (< 100 mg COD L⁻¹), irrespective of HRT. VFA was directly
312 consumed to produce biogas here and implied that methanogenesis was not restricted
313 in the single-stage reactor (Table 1). However, higher mean particulate COD
314 concentration was found in the single-stage (28,500 mg COD L⁻¹) than the
315 methanogenic reactor (24,000 mg COD L⁻¹) at 12 d HRT (Table 1). Student's t-test
316 confirmed that the difference between these two values was statistically significant (p
317 < 0.05, n = 16). Hydrolysis of particulate organics, which require longer reaction
318 (Mahmoud et al., 2004), seemed to be retarded in the single-stage reactor at 12 d
319 HRT. These results showed that the 2-phase AD system could tolerate shorter HRTs
320 and higher organic loadings than the single-stage AD configuration. This agreed with
321 a previous AD system which treated other starch-rich or proteinaceous substrates
322 (Zhang and Noike, 1991; Bhattacharya et al., 1996; Lv et al., 2010).

323 This improved performance in the 2-phase system could be due to chemically and
324 biologically induced reasons. By maintaining the acidogenic reactor at pH 5.5, protein
325 may lose its conformational structure and be denatured as the protein was protonated
326 (Neyens et al., 2004); or break glycosidic linkages of carbohydrates and deform their
327 tertiary structure. All this, and disruption to the extracellular matrix, would leave the
328 biodegradable polymers exposed for extracellular enzymes to hydrolyse (Sheng et al.,
329 2010). Some biological cells themselves lose their viability and turgor pressure under
330 acidic condition, hence assisting the lysis of microbial cells (Neyens et al., 2004).
331 Secondly, the physical separation of phases in the 2-phase system may enhance the
332 activity of hydrolytic/acidogenic bacteria as their growth condition was optimised
333 under the shortened HRT and pH 5.5 (Ghosh, 1987). Acidogenic bacteria were known
334 to have maximum specific growth rate (μ_{\max}) of 5.1 d^{-1} , while methanogenic bacteria
335 was 0.6 d^{-1} (Angelidaki et al., 2000). Cultivating the acidogenic bacteria under
336 extended SRTs to accommodate the methanogenic bacteria in a single-stage
337 configuration is disadvantageous, as acidogenic bacteria would then lose their optimal
338 microbial activity under this stationary growth phase. This study hence also focused
339 on the use of molecular techniques to evaluate the microbial community significance
340 between the phase-separated and single-stage AD process.

341 Microbial community profiling by DGGE revealed that the seed sludge, sludge
342 substrate, single-stage and 2-phase AD reactors showed distinct bacterial fingerprints
343 (Fig. 1B), but similar archaeal fingerprints (Fig. 1A). First of all, a core bacterial
344 group was observed in all the anaerobic reactors (B3 – B6), which were
345 *Flavobacteriales*, *Clostridiales* and *Enhydrobacter*-related *Bacteria* (Table 3) and
346 appeared to contribute to acidogenic activity (Sneath et al., 1986; Kirchman, 2002;
347 Lynd et al., 2002). Other acidogenic *Flavobacteriales* and *Clostridiales* species (B10,

348 B13 and B14) were also identified in the single-stage and methanogenic reactors. The
349 phyla *Bacteroidetes*, *Proteobacteria* and *Firmicutes* which contained
350 *Flavobacteriales*, *Pseudomonadales* and *Clostridiales* orders, respectively, formed the
351 most abundant taxonomy identified in the full-scale AD process (Rivière et al., 2009),
352 and the findings in this study (Table 3) were similar. The accumulation of propionic
353 acid in the acidogenic reactor could be explained by the absence of B7, a sequence
354 closely matching the syntrophic propionate oxidiser *Smithella propionica*. The growth
355 condition in the acidogenic reactor was unfavourable for *Smithella propionica*, as it
356 was not able to grow below pH 6.3 (Liu et al., 1999). Nevertheless, the overall 2-
357 phase AD system was not affected as *Smithella propionica* was detected in the
358 methanogenic reactor, consuming propionic acid to < 0.1 mM. Excessive propionic
359 acid in the acidogenic reactor can be detrimental as reactor pH could then drop and
360 the level of undissociated acids rise, inhibiting the methanogenic population in the
361 acidogenic reactor, and subsequently also affecting the methanogenic reactor
362 (Angelidaki et al., 2000). Further investigation where the acidogenic reactor would be
363 operated at around neutral pH to ensure the cultivation of the propionate oxidisers is
364 desirable to determine if this would impact on the improved sludge digestion
365 performance, as obtained during the operation of the 2-phase against the single-stage
366 AD system.

367 The microbial differentiation between the reactors was more obvious with the
368 acidogenic reactor, where B9, B12 and B15 of *Flavobacteriales* and *Clostridiales*
369 were detected (Fig. 1B). Even though they could not be affiliated to known species,
370 members of these orders were known to be chemoorganotrophic heterotrophs, and
371 would most likely be involved in the degradation and fermentation of organic matters
372 (Kirchman, 2002; Lynd et al., 2002). The uncultured *Flavobacteriales* of B9 seemed

373 to play a more important role as suggested by its thick band intensity in all HRTs
374 tested in the acidogenic reactor. Since B9, B12 and B15 only appeared in the
375 acidogenic reactor, these acidogenic bacteria were presumably suppressed in a single-
376 stage AD system, but could maximise their acidogenic potential upon cultivation in
377 the acidogenic reactor at 2 to 5 d HRT, with pH 5.5. Their presence may have been
378 the reason for the better overall digestion performance of the 2-phase AD system.

379 A methanogenic bacterial population shift could be observed as the seed sludge
380 adapted to single-stage, acidogenic and methanogenic operation at 30 d HRT (Fig. 4).
381 Acetic acid is widely regarded to be the most important VFA species in the AD
382 process (Angelidaki et al., 2000), but was not the major VFA in this acidogenic
383 reactor (Table 2). Acetate could be converted into hydrogen and carbon dioxide by
384 syntrophic acetate oxidising bacteria, before methanogenesis by hydrogenotrophic
385 methanogenesis (Angelidaki et al., 2000); but no such microbial group was detected
386 by DGGE and the subsequent phylogenetic identification. The most abundant
387 methanogenic order in all the anaerobic reactors, including in the sludge substrate,
388 was the hydrogenotrophic *Methanomicrobiales* (Fig. 4), suggesting the importance of
389 hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis as the main metabolic pathway in this AD system.
390 Other studies had previously revealed *Methanomicrobiales* to be the most abundant
391 methanogenic group in a sludge AD process by dot-blot hybridisation or qPCR
392 (Raskin et al., 1995; Shin et al., 2010b). DGGE analysis also supported this
393 observation as most of the high-intensity archaeal bands present in all samples were
394 identified as of *Methanomicrobiales* order (Table 3), closely related to
395 *Methanospirillum hungatei* and *Methanolinea mesophila*.

396 Amongst the aceticlastic methanogen in the acidogenic reactor, acetate was
397 presumably converted into methane by the acetaticlastic *Methanosarcinaceae* family.

398 *Methanosarcinaceae* increased by almost one log difference from the start to when
399 the acidogenic reactor had stabilised, while another acetoclastic methanogenic family,
400 *Methanosaetaceae* decreased by close to one log difference (Fig. 4C). *Methanosaeta*
401 sp. grow in the pH range of 6.5 and 8.5, while *Methanosarcina* sp. does so between
402 pH 5 and 8; and could tolerate higher acetate concentration (up to 250 mM acetate)
403 than *Methanosaeta* (De Vrieze et al., 2012). DGGE analysis correspondingly found a
404 band sequence which was closely related to *Methanosarcina barkeri*, while no band
405 was found for *Methanosaetaceae*. The band appeared weakly in the acidogenic
406 reactor but more strongly in the methanogenic reactor samples (Fig. 1A), as
407 confirmed by the qPCR data (Fig. 4C). *Methanosarcina barkeri* had been reported to
408 utilise a wide range of substrates other than acetate, such as hydrogen and carbon
409 dioxide, methanol and methylamines (Demirel and Scherer, 2008). It is possible that
410 the acidic pH and shortened HRT in the acidogenic reactor generated such compounds
411 as by-product, which was then transferred to the methanogenic reactor and stimulated
412 the proliferation of *Methanosarcina barkeri*. Another methanogen which was able to
413 grow in the acidogenic reactor was the hydrogenotrophic *Methanobacteriales*
414 (Demirel and Scherer, 2008), rising by almost one log difference from the start to
415 when the acidogenic reactor had stabilised (Fig. 4). These results seemed to indicate
416 the contribution of *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanosarcinaceae* for the
417 methanogenesis step in the acidogenic reactor. Unfortunately, no *Methanobacteriales*
418 species was indicated by the DGGE analysis. The presence and activity of
419 methanogenic bacteria in the acidogenic reactor and the presence of acidogenic
420 bacteria in the methanogenic reactor showed that complete phase separation
421 (acidogenesis and methanogenesis) could not be achieved in a 2-phase AD process
422 treating municipal sludge.

423 The effect of decreasing the operational HRT on AD could be drastic and reduce the
424 sludge digestion performance. However, shortening the HRT is advantageous in
425 sizing the reactor volume, especially in places with limited land space or operational
426 capacity of existing anaerobic reactors. Fluctuations in the influent substrate volume
427 could also affect process HRT. Too short HRT would wash out slow-growing
428 microorganisms with growth rates shorter than the operational HRT applied. For
429 instance, B9 appeared to decrease in intensity as the HRT reduced from 3 to 2 d in the
430 acidogenic reactor, suggesting that this species may have been washed out at the
431 shorter HRT of 2 d (Fig. 1B). Fortunately, the reduction of this bacterial species did
432 not seem to affect the overall 2-phase system digestion performance. Secondly, the
433 increase in OLR associated with the HRT reduction in the system in this report could
434 also create an unfavourable condition for the sensitive methanogenic bacteria, as more
435 potentially inhibitory compounds would be present in the reactor. Such situation is
436 normally associated with the accumulation of VFA in the anaerobic reactor whereby
437 the conversion of acetic acid into methane is inhibited. However, the VFA
438 concentrations in the single-stage and the methanogenic reactor were almost
439 negligible, which indicated both systems' methanogenic populations could tolerate the
440 increase in OLR. Evaluation of the methanogenic bacteria quantity by qPCR showed
441 that each methanogenic group was not affected by the decreasing HRT. The presence
442 of methanogenic bacteria in the sludge substrate may have helped in maintaining the
443 reactors' methanogenic population, and hence, methanogenesis reaction could be
444 preserved (Fig. 1A and 4A). Thirdly, reducing the HRT could also impair the
445 degradation of particulate compounds which require extended reaction time to
446 complete. As previously discussed, this was the case with the single-stage process at
447 12 d HRT. On the other hand, the 2-phase process performance could still be

448 maintained due to the specific chemoorganotrophic bacterial population (B9, B12 and
449 B15) cultivated in the acidogenic reactor. There was no significant change in the
450 bacterial and archaeal population in the acidogenic reactor as the HRT was reduced
451 (Fig. 1 and 4). This implied that the acidogenic reactor selected for a specialised
452 community structure which could tolerate the reduction in HRT from 5 to 2 d.

453 **5. Conclusion**

454 The 2-phase AD system maintained COD and VS reduction, and methane production
455 when operated at 30, 20 and 10 d HRT; while the single-stage system performance
456 deteriorated as the HRT was reduced from 20 to 10 d. The latter was due to the
457 decrease in particulate COD reduction efficiency. Microbial community analysis
458 revealed distinct microbial profiles in the single-stage, acidogenic and methanogenic
459 reactors, which generally persisted as the HRT was decreased. The identification of
460 hydrolytic and acidogenic *Flavobacteriales* and *Clostridiales* only in the acidogenic
461 reactor could possibly explain the enhanced sludge digestion performance of the 2-
462 phase over the single-stage system at 10 d HRT. This study also discovered the
463 inability of propionate oxidising bacteria to grow in the acidogenic reactor, and hence,
464 suggested reconsideration for the latter to be operated at neutral pH.

465

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470 in the qPCR analysis.

471

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538

539

1 **List of Tables**

2 **Table 1.** Summary of reactor operating parameters and performance in single-stage and 2-
 3 phase AD.

		Single-stage			2-phase system		
HRT (d)		30	20	12	30	20	12
pH			7.0		-		
OLR COD (g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹)		1.5 ± 0.2	2.2 ± 0.2	3.5 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.2	2.1 ± 0.3	3.5 ± 0.3
OLR VS (g VS L⁻¹ d⁻¹)		0.9 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.2
Soluble COD (mg COD L⁻¹)		490 ± 50	620 ± 100	460 ± 70			
		27,300 ±	25,600 ±	28,500 ±			
Particulate COD (mg COD L⁻¹)		1,500	2,200	1,500			
Total COD reduction (%)		38.6 ± 5.1	39.2 ± 6.5	30.8 ± 6.1	42.3 ± 5.6	40.9 ± 4.7	40.7 ± 5.7
VS reduction (%)		31.7 ± 6.4	32.2 ± 5.5	26.3 ± 6.1	31.8 ± 6.9	31.6 ± 4.8	35.5 ± 6.6
Total VFA (mg COD L⁻¹)		26 ± 18	20 ± 12	18 ± 10			
Methane production (L d⁻¹)		9.4 ± 1.2	11.7 ± 1.5	15.6 ± 2.0	10.0 ± 1.5	12.7 ± 0.9	20.6 ± 1.9
Methane yield (L g COD added⁻¹)		0.13 ± 0.04	0.12 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.02	0.14 ± 0.02	0.14 ± 0.03
Methane yield (L g VS added⁻¹)		0.22 ± 0.08	0.2 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.04
Biogas composition							
	Methane (%)	66 ± 1	64 ± 1	65 ± 1			
	Carbondioxide (%)	32 ± 1	34 ± 1	34 ± 1			
	Nitrogen (%)	1 ± 1	2 ± 1	1 ± 1			
		Acidogenic 2-phase			Methanogenic 2-phase		
HRT (d)		5	3	2	25	17	10
pH			5.5			7.0	
OLR COD (g COD L⁻¹ d⁻¹)		9.2 ± 1.0	14.3 ± 1.6	20.9 ± 2.0	1.7 ± 0.2	2.2 ± 0.1	3.5 ± 0.2
OLR VS (g VS L⁻¹ d⁻¹)		5.3 ± 0.6	8.7 ± 0.7	12.8 ± 1.2	1.0 ± 0.08	1.3 ± 0.08	2.2 ± 0.2
Soluble COD (mg COD L⁻¹)		4,800 ± 1,000	4,400 ± 700	2,900 ± 510	440 ± 50	580 ± 110	450 ± 70
		37,600 ±	33,400 ±	32,200 ±	25,800 ±	24,600	24,000 ±
Particulate COD (mg COD L⁻¹)		3,500	2,000	2,200	1,100	± 960	1,400
Total COD reduction (%)		7.5 ± 6.8	11.4 ± 6.0	15.4 ± 6.0	37.6 ± 5.4	33.3 ± 2.8	29.9 ± 4.7
VS reduction (%)		9.4 ± 6.7	12.9 ± 5.0	12.5 ± 3.7	24.7 ± 5.2	21.5 ± 4.0	26.3 ± 6.6
Total VFA (mg COD L⁻¹)		2,706 ± 546	2,471 ± 258	1,667 ± 410	32 ± 24	44 ± 17	94 ± 62
Methane production (L d⁻¹)		2.4 ± 0.4	3.1 ± 0.6	4.1 ± 0.4	7.8 ± 1.4	9.6 ± 0.8	16.5 ± 2.1
Methane yield (L g COD added⁻¹)		0.04 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.002	0.13 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.02
Methane yield (L g VS added⁻¹)		0.06 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.002	0.22 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.03
Biogas composition							
	Methane (%)	48 ± 2	48 ± 2	49 ± 2	67 ± 1	67 ± 1	66 ± 3
	Carbondioxide (%)	48 ± 3	50 ± 1	48 ± 2	30 ± 1	32 ± 1	30 ± 3
	Nitrogen (%)	4 ± 2	2 ± 1	3 ± 2	2 ± 2	1 ± 1	3 ± 4

5 **Table 2.** Total VFA and species concentrations in the sludge substrate and acidogenic reactor
 6 at various HRTs.

HRT (d)	Sludge substrate	Acidogenic 2-phase		
		5	3	2
TVFA (mg COD L⁻¹)	1,806 ± 501	2,706 ± 546	2,471 ± 258	1,667 ± 410
Acetic acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	707 ± 194	83 ± 36	117 ± 25	201 ± 77
Propionic acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	513 ± 121	1,382 ± 207	1,330 ± 180	744 ± 256
Isobutyric acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	78 ± 19	221 ± 69	181 ± 25	112 ± 29
Butyric acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	200 ± 99	246 ± 142	147 ± 36	122 ± 32
Isovaleric acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	155 ± 39	469 ± 102	404 ± 52	254 ± 68
Valeric acid (mg COD L⁻¹)	117 ± 54	251 ± 93	195 ± 34	153 ± 38

7

8 **Table 3.** Archaeal and bacterial identification of the DGGE band sequences.

Band(s)	Closest related sequence	Order/Class	Max identity (%)
A1-5	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> (NR_074177.1)	<i>Methanomicrobiales</i>	98-100
A6-10	<i>Methanolinea mesophila</i> (AB447467.1)	<i>Methanomicrobiales</i>	97-98
A11-12	<i>Methanoregula formicicum</i> (NR_102441.1)	<i>Methanomicrobiales</i>	97
A13-14	<i>Methanoculleus receptaculi</i> (NR_043961.1)	<i>Methanomicrobiales</i>	99
A15	<i>Methanosarcina barkeri</i> (NR_025303.1)	<i>Methanosarcinales</i>	99
B1-2	<i>Cloacibacterium normanense</i> (NR_042187.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	100
B3	<i>Enhydrobacter</i> sp. (JF792358.1)	<i>Pseudomonadales</i>	97
B4	Uncultured <i>Bacteroidetes</i> bacterium in sludge AD (CU919567.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	99
B5	Uncultured <i>Ruminococcaceae</i> bacterium from wetlands (JX505387.1)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	98
B6	Uncultured <i>Fluviicola</i> sp. from membrane bioreactor biofilm (GU257757.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	99
B7	<i>Smithella propionica</i> (NR_024989.1)	<i>Syntrophobacterales</i>	96
B8	Uncultured bacterium in AD treating microcystis bloom (GU559846.1)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	89
B9	Uncultured bacterium in AD treating coking wastewater (JQ446286.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	99
B10	<i>Saccharofermentans acetigenes</i> (AY949857.1)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	98
B11	<i>Clostridiaceae</i> bacterium in AD treating cattle waste (AB298771.2)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	99
B12	Uncultured bacterium from Evry sludge digester (CT574084.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	97
B13	Uncultured <i>Firmicutes</i> bacterium in full-scale AD treating sludge (CU925891.1)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	99
B14	Uncultured <i>Bacteroidetes</i> in full-scale AD treating sludge (CU925607.1)	<i>Flavobacteriales</i>	99
B15	Uncultured <i>Clostridiales</i> bacterium treating swine manure (JN173177.1)	<i>Clostridiales</i>	97

9

Figure1

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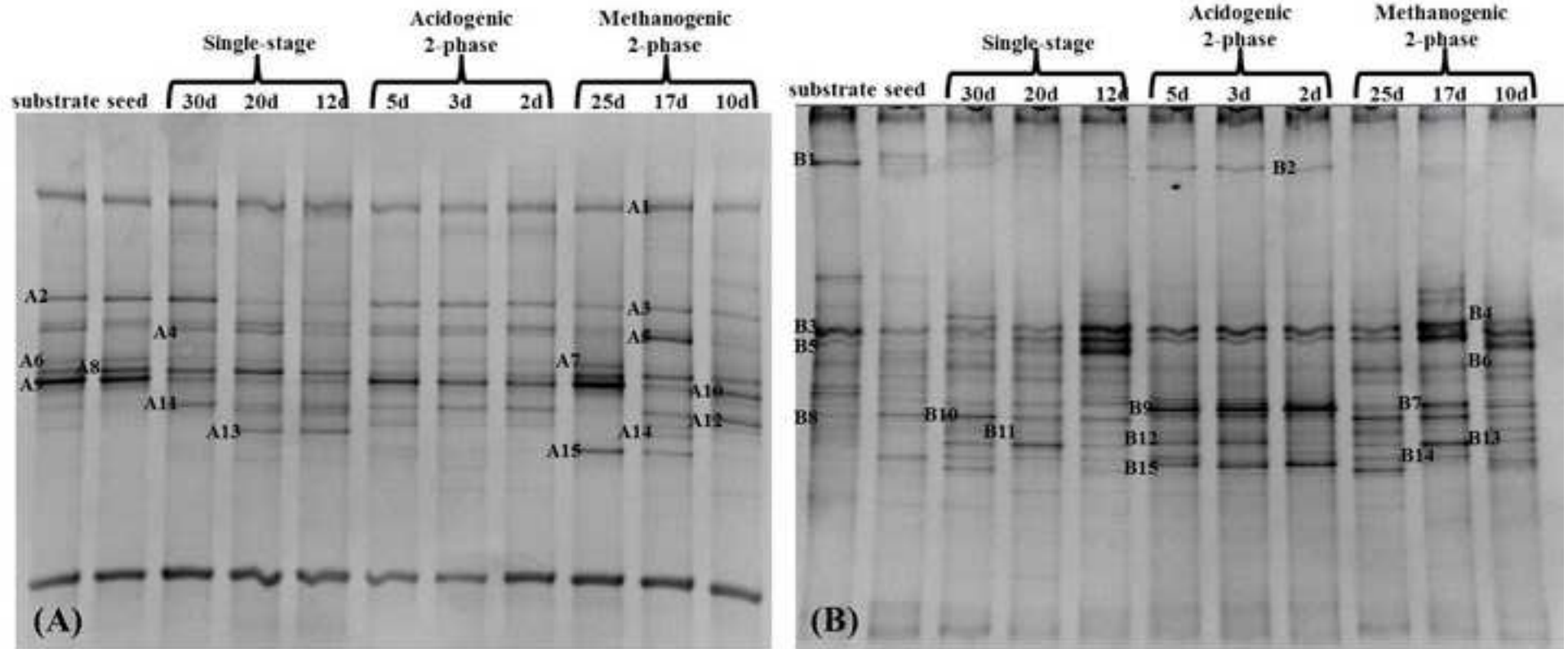


Figure2

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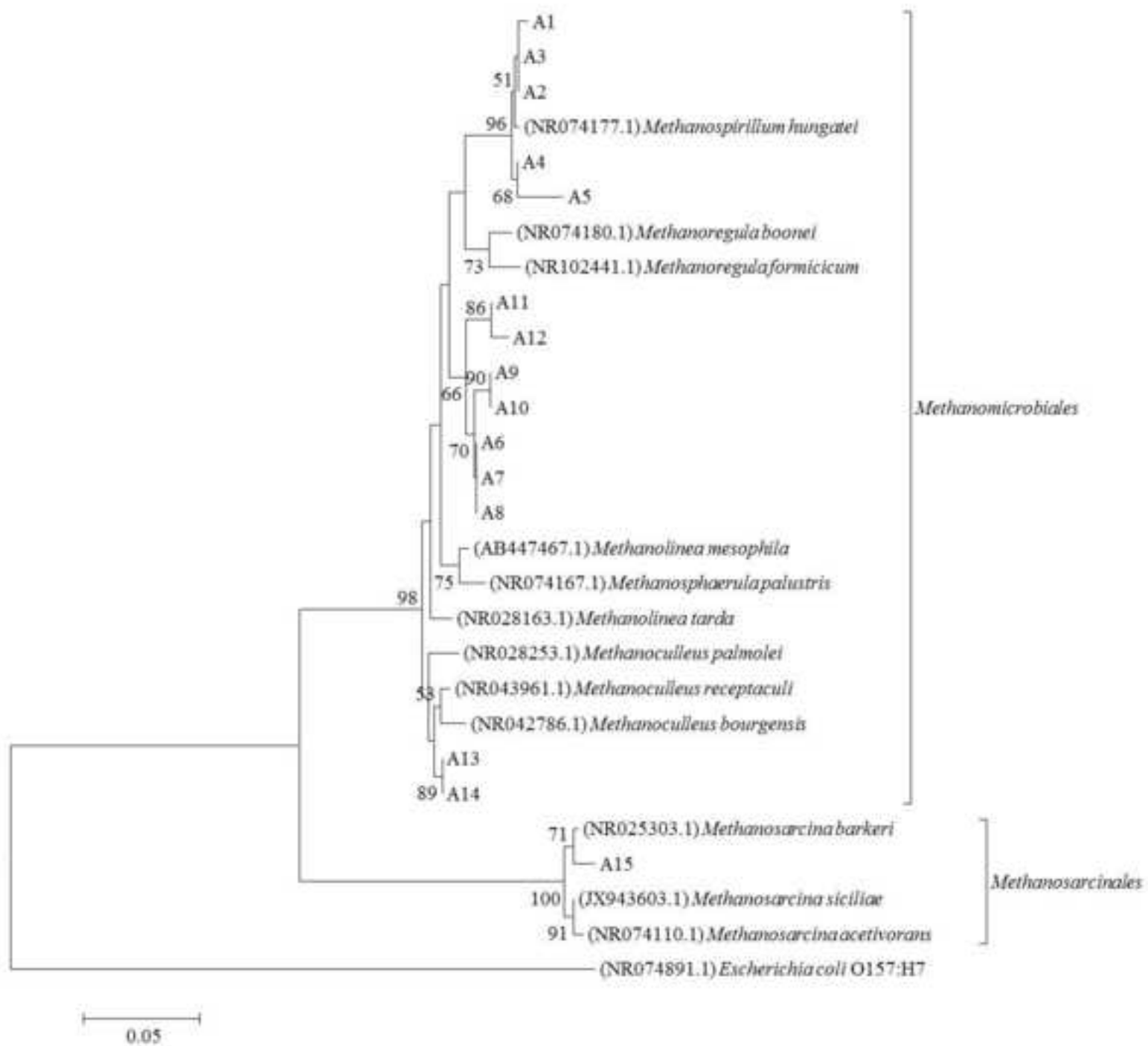
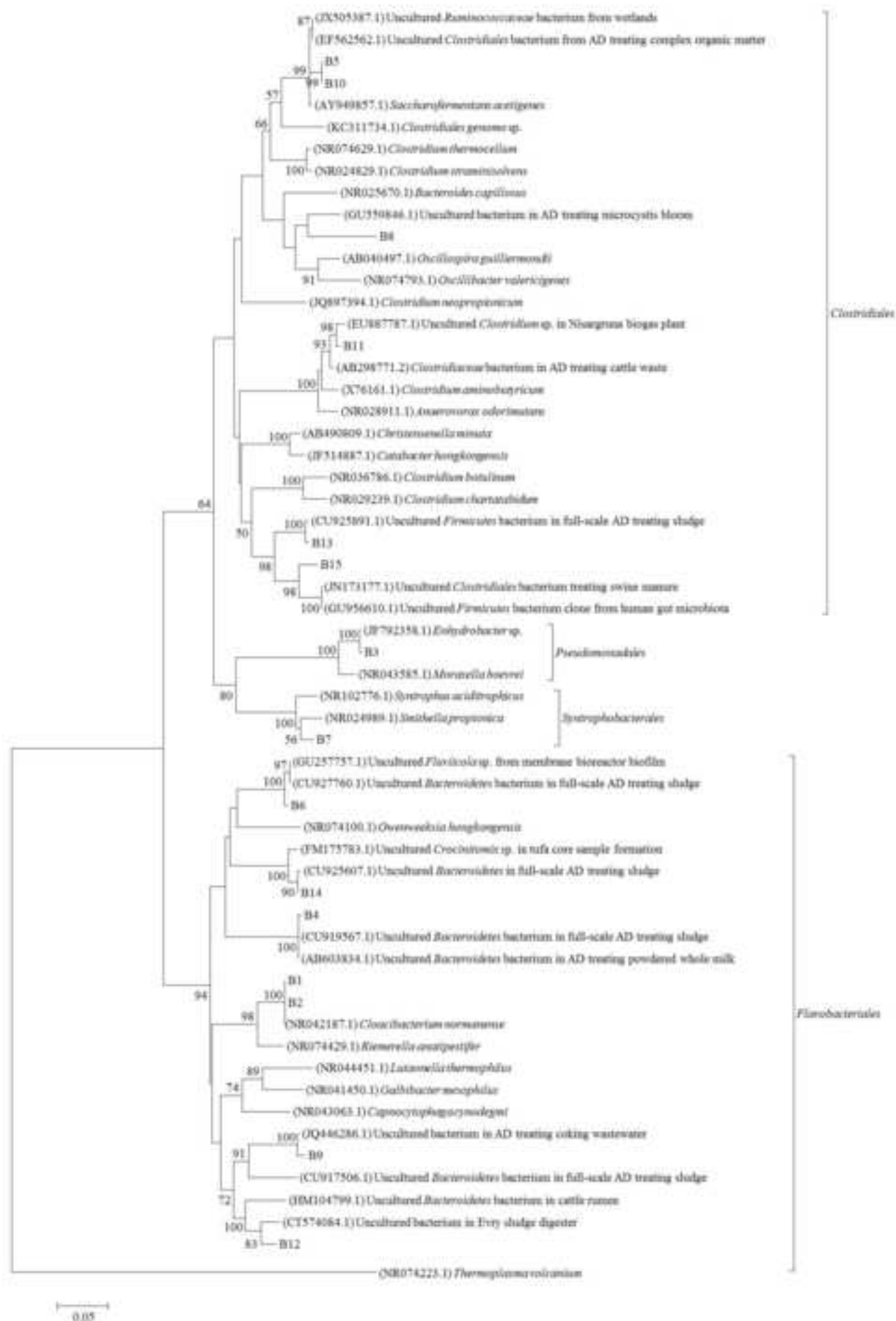
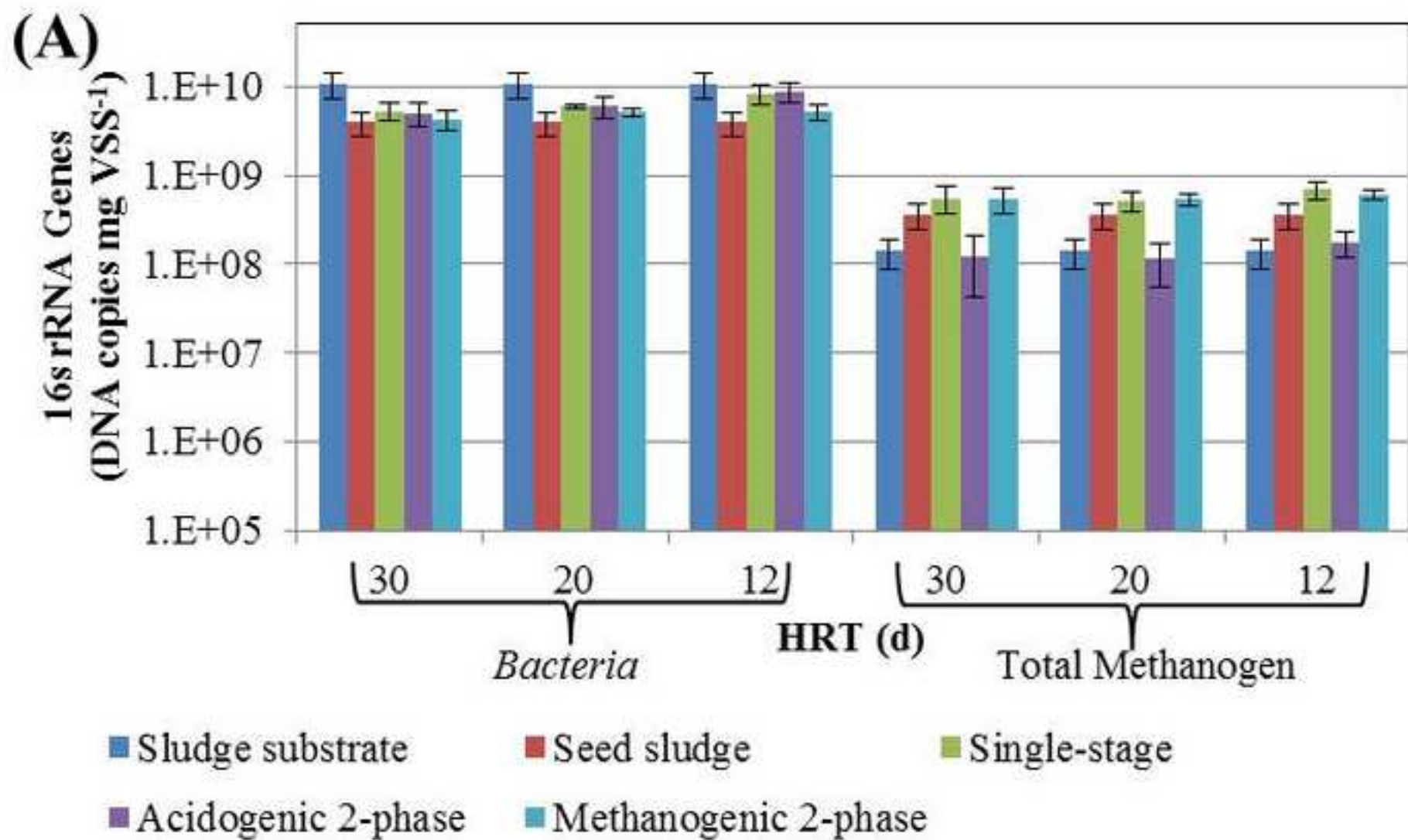


Figure3
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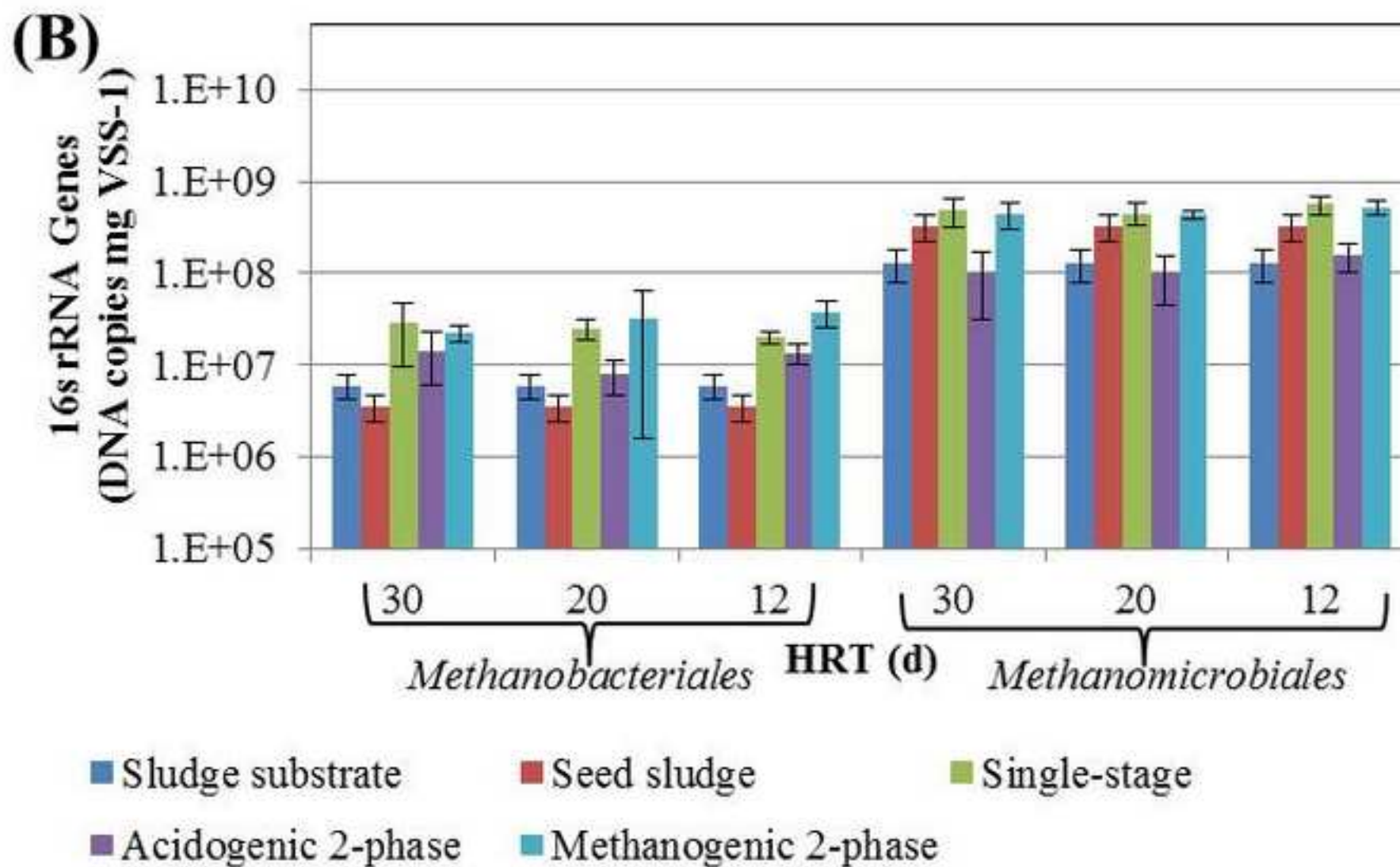
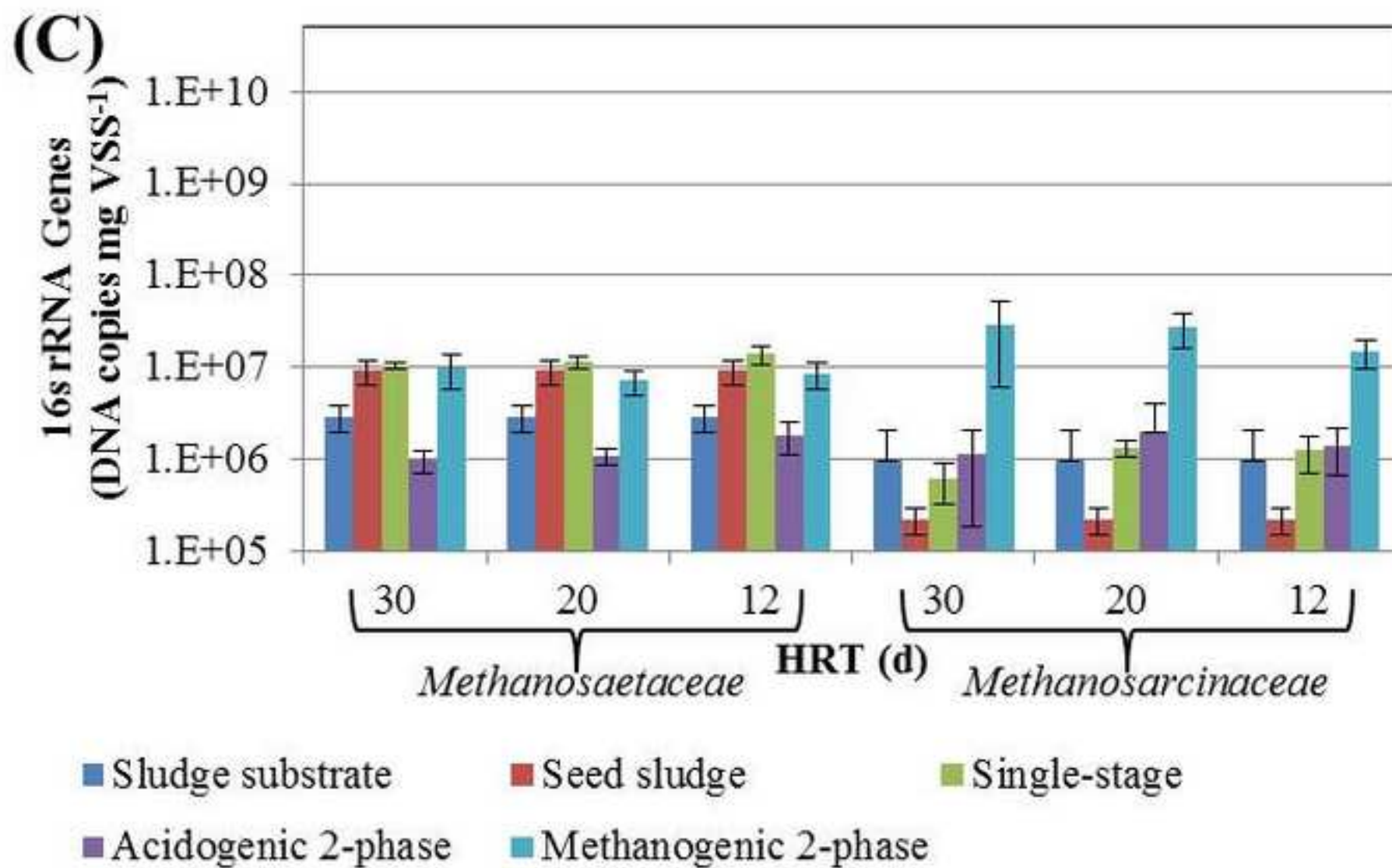


Figure4cR1

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1 **Tables and Figures Captions**

2 **Table 1.** Summary of reactor operating parameters and performance in the single-stage and
3 2-phase system; and in the acidogenic and methanogenic 2-phase reactors.

4 **Table 2.** Total VFA and species concentrations in the sludge substrate and acidogenic reactor
5 at various HRTs.

6 **Table 3.** Archaeal and bacterial identification of the DGGE band sequences.

7 **Fig. 1.** DGGE gel of the (A) archaeal and (B) bacterial population in the sludge substrate,
8 seed sludge and each anaerobic reactor at various HRTs.

9 **Fig. 2.** Neighbour-joining tree presenting the archaeal phylogenetic affiliation to the DGGE
10 band sequences.

11 **Fig. 3.** Neighbour-joining tree presenting the bacterial phylogenetic affiliation to the DGGE
12 band sequences.

13 **Fig. 4.** Quantification of the Bacteria and methanogenic groups in the sludge substrate, seed
14 sludge and anaerobic reactors by qPCR: (A) *Bacteria* and total methanogens; (B)
15 *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanomicrobiales*; (C) *Methanosaetaceae* and
16 *Methanosarcinaceae*.