

2 Volatile fatty acid production from saline
3 cooked mussel processing wastewater at low
4 pH

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6 *Andrea Fra-Vázquez, Alba Pedrouso*, Angeles Val del Río and Anuska Mosquera-*

7 *Corral*

8 CRETUS Institute, Department of Chemical Engineering, Universidade de Santiago de

9 Compostela, Rua Lope Gomez de Marzoa, s/n, Campus Vida, E-15782, Santiago de

10 Compostela, Galicia, Spain.

11

12 * Corresponding author: alba.pedrouso@usc.es, Tel.: +34 881816779.

13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 The production of VFA using as substrate the wastewater produced in a cooked

16 mussel processing factory, containing large COD (13.7 ± 3.2 g COD/L) and salt

17 concentrations (21.8 ± 2.8 g NaCl/L) and characterized by low pH (4.6 ± 0.6) was

18 evaluated. This wastewater was fed to a 5-L completely stirred tank reactor operated

19 in continuous mode. The conversion efficiency of its COD content into volatile fatty

20 acids (VFA) was evaluated. The maximum acidification of 43 % (total VFA on

21 soluble COD basis) was obtained when an organic loading rate of 2.5 ± 0.4 g

22 COD/(L·d) was applied to the reactor and corresponded to a VFA volumetric

23 productivity of 0.72 ± 0.07 g COD_{VFA}/(L·d). Under steady-state conditions, the
24 obtained mixture of VFA was composed by 80:18:2 as acetic:propionic:butyric acids
25 (percentage of VFA on soluble COD basis). Carbohydrates were degraded up to 96 %
26 while protein fermentation did not take place, probably due to the low pH value,
27 limiting the maximum acidification of the wastewater. Batch experiments showed that
28 the increase of the pH from 4.2 to 4.9 by the addition of NaHCO₃ resulted in the
29 improvement of the acidification and changed the VFA mixture composition. Thus,
30 this study demonstrates the opportunity of using complex substrates, as cooked mussel
31 processing wastewater, to produce rich-VFA streams under unfavorable operational
32 conditions, such as high salinity and low pH.

33 **Keywords:** Anaerobic fermentation; Biorefinery; Industrial wastewater; Protein
34 degradation; Salinity; VFA.

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36

37 **1. INTRODUCTION**

38 The fish and seafood canning industry is a crucial economic sector in Galicia (North-West of
39 Spain) which nowadays amounts to 67 % and 80 % of the European and Spanish production,
40 respectively (FAO, 2019). Indeed, Galicia is the third producer worldwide just after Thailand
41 and China. More specifically, mussels are one of the most popularly consumed seafood, and
42 Galicia represents 50 % of the worldwide production (OPMEGA, 2020). This industrial sector
43 consumes an enormous amount of water, either freshwater and/or seawater, which on average is
44 above 10 m³/tonne of raw mussel processed. As a consequence similar large volumes of highly
45 polluted wastewater are generated (Bello Bugallo et al., 2012). The main environmental
46 problem associated with this produced wastewater relates to the high organic matter (up to 42
47 g/L), comprising proteins (15 - 20 % of wet weight) (Tay et al., 2005), and salt concentrations
48 that could reach values over 20 g NaCl/L (Méndez et al., 1992). The discharge to the
49 environment of these streams without appropriate treatment could provoke continual oxygen
50 depletion, due to the contained organic matter, which causes the death of the aquatic life.
51 Furthermore, the discharge of nitrogen from proteins favours algae overgrowth leading to the
52 eutrophication of the receiving water body. In addition, if salty wastewater is not withdrawn
53 directly into the sea but to freshwater water bodies is responsible for the increase of salinity of
54 these ecosystems, similarly if it is treated in municipal wastewater treatment plants that
55 discharge in interior areas.

56 The treatment of the fish and seafood processing wastewater is particularly challenging due to
57 its complex characteristics (high organic matter and salt concentrations). In addition, the
58 seasonal activity of the factories and the fact that they commonly process different products
59 within one single week involves the generation of wastewater streams with different
60 composition in the same facility. The wastewater characteristics depend on the processing step
61 where it was generated: preliminary operations (reception, washing, brining, cutting...),
62 processing (cooking, canning and trimming), final operations (sealing and sterilization) or
63 auxiliary operations such as steam generation (Carrera et al., 2019; Cristóvão et al., 2016;
64 Méndez et al., 1992). For example, a high volume of diluted washing wastewater is generated

65 while the volume of cooking process wastewater is highly polluted is low. Nevertheless, the
66 different generated wastewater types are usually treated together after being homogenized in a
67 tank (Cristóvão et al., 2016). The most common technologies applied for the treatment of fish
68 and seafood processing wastewater are based on physical-chemical (membrane separation,
69 chemical destabilization and electrochemical methods) and biological (anaerobic and aerobic)
70 processes (Carrera et al., 2019; Cristóvão et al., 2012). Biological processes enable the recovery
71 of resources from wastewater especially when the valorized stream contains large
72 concentrations of organic matter, as it is the case of the fish and seafood canning processing
73 wastewater attracting great interest.

74 Anaerobic digestion is suggested as a suitable treatment for seafood wastewater due to its high
75 organic matter removal capacity, low energy consumption, low sludge production and energy
76 production as biogas (mainly CH₄ and CO₂) (Chowdhury et al., 2010). Anaerobic processes
77 with high removal efficiencies (55 - 97 %) and treating organic loads of 1 - 4 kg COD/(m³·d)
78 have been applied to treat these effluents (Méndez et al., 1992; Panpong et al., 2014; Prasertsan
79 et al., 1994; Sillapacharoenkul and Sinbuathong, 2020). In the frame of the circular economy,
80 the waste conversion into volatile fatty acids (VFA), which are short-chain fatty acids obtained
81 as metabolic intermediates in the anaerobic digestion, has recently gained attention due to their
82 wide variety of applications (Kleerebezem et al., 2015). VFA are intermediate products of the
83 anaerobic digestion process. Thus, VFA-rich streams are produced in fermentation processes
84 where the methanogenic step is suppressed (Wainaina et al., 2019). Application alternatives of
85 the waste-derived VFA are the generation of biofuels, bulk chemicals, the biological removal of
86 nutrients from wastewater and the production of bioplastics or food additives. For example,
87 VFA can be used as a carbon source during the denitrification or the biological phosphorus
88 removal processes. VFA act also as substrate in the production of polyhydroxyalkanoates
89 (PHA), a type of bioplastic, by mixed microbial cultures (Atasoy et al., 2018; Wainaina et al.,
90 2019).

91 Operational conditions of the anaerobic systems significantly influence the concentration, yield
92 and composition of the VFA produced from wastes. Organic acid production is strongly

93 affected by the pH of the reaction media since it has a great influence on the growth rate of the
94 microorganisms involved in the anaerobic digestion (Wainaina et al., 2019). Indeed, methane
95 production is barely observed out of its optimal pH range (6.5 - 8.5). Nevertheless, hydrolytic
96 and acidogenic microorganisms operate at an optimal pH range of 5 - 11 and cannot survive in
97 extremely acidic (pH 3) or alkaline (pH 12) conditions (Jankowska et al., 2015; Wainaina et al.,
98 2019). The optimal pH to maximize the acidification efficiency varies according to the waste
99 characteristics and the operational conditions. Jankowska et al. (2015) observed that, in
100 unbuffered systems, acidic pH promoted the VFA production at short retention time (5 days)
101 while alkaline pH (10 - 11) maximized VFA accumulation at longer retention times (15 days).
102 Wainaina et al. (2019) stated that acidic pH is suitable to produce VFA from a variety of easily
103 degradable wastes while alkaline pH values are recommended when complex substrates are
104 used. For example, different optimal pH values to obtain VFA were reported: from cheese whey
105 is 5.2 - 5.5 (Bengtsson et al., 2008), from food waste and the organic fraction of municipal solid
106 waste is 9.0 (Cheah et al., 2019; Moretto et al., 2019), from kitchen waste is 7.0 (Zhang et al.,
107 2005) and from wasted activated sludge ranges from 9.5 to 11.0 (Chen et al., 2007; Liu et al.,
108 2020).

109 Since most cooked mussel processing factories use seawater in their processes, another primary
110 concern with the produced wastewater is its high salinity (Xiao and Roberts, 2010). Significant
111 salt concentrations can inhibit the anaerobic processes, especially the methanogenesis step at
112 concentrations above 10 g NaCl/L (Panpong et al., 2015). However, the adaptation of the
113 anaerobic biomass to high salt concentrations (Artiga et al., 2008; Sudmalis et al., 2018; Zhang
114 et al., 2017), or the use of halophilic inoculum (Aspé et al., 1997; Scoma et al., 2017; Tan et al.,
115 2019) are suitable strategies to develop an anaerobic treatment process for saline wastewater.

116 The purpose of this study was to evaluate the suitability of the wastewater generated in a cooked
117 mussel processing factory as feedstock to produce a VFA-rich effluent, with the novelty of
118 operating the continuous acidifying reactor at very low pH and high salt concentration. Batch
119 experiments were also performed to investigate the effect of the pH on the productivity and
120 composition of the produced VFA.

121 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

122 2.1 Cooked mussel processing wastewater characterization

123 The wastewater used in the present study was taken directly from the cookers of a mussel
124 processing factory (Cocedero Suárez, Vilanova de Arousa, Spain). The pH of the mussel
125 cooking wastewater at the time of the collection was approximately 7 but it dropped to 4 - 5
126 (Table 1) after a couple of days stored at 4 °C. Wastewater was stored at low temperature to
127 prevent the degradation of the organic matter. Carbohydrates were the predominant organic
128 compounds (50 % of the soluble COD), followed by proteins (30 % of the soluble COD). The
129 concentration of proteins and carbohydrates as chemical oxygen demand (COD) was calculated
130 using the following factors: 1.5 g COD_{protein}/g protein and 1.1 g COD_{carbohydrates}/g carbohydrate
131 (Mahmoud et al., 2004). The lipid concentration was not significant. The wastewater
132 composition fluctuated due to changes in the factory process, and its variability defined the
133 three operational stages carried out in the acidification reactor, as indicated in Table 1.

134

135 **Table 1.** Average values of the main characteristic parameters of the wastewater treated and
136 reactor operational conditions.

Parameters	Units	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
		0 - 59 days	60 – 279 days	280 - 400 days
OLR	g COD/(L·d)	7.3 ± 0.5	2.6 ± 0.4	2.2 ± 0.2
HRT	d	3.1	6.3	6.3
pH	--	4.7 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.5	5.1 ± 0.7
sCOD	g/L	18.3 ± 1.3	13.1 ± 0.4	11.1 ± 1.1
Carbohydrates	g/L	ND	5.5 ± 1.6	5.3 ± 1.3
Proteins	g/L	ND	2.8 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.2
VFA	g COD _{VFA} /L	0.7 ± 0.3	2.2 ± 1.3	1.7 ± 0.7
Ammonium	g NH ₄ ⁺ -N/L	0.09 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.06	0.19 ± 0.05
NaCl	g/L	19.1 ± 2.1	22.7 ± 2.4	22.1 ± 3.0

137 OLR: organic loading rate; HRT: hydraulic retention time; COD: chemical oxygen demand; VFA: volatile
138 fatty acids; ND: Not determined.

139

140 **2.2 Experimental set-up**

141 *2.2.1 Continuous reactor for VFA production*

142 A continuous stirred tank reactor with a working volume of 5 L was used to produce VFA. It
143 was directly fed with raw cooked mussel processing wastewater (Table 1). The temperature was
144 maintained in the mesophilic range (37 ± 1 °C) using a thermostatic bath (Techne Inc., USA).
145 The reactor was inoculated with anaerobic granular sludge from a pilot-scale up-flow anaerobic
146 sludge blanket (UASB) reactor that treated mimicked municipal wastewater (Silva-Teira et al.,
147 2017). Short solid retention times (SRT) were imposed to washout the methanogenic
148 microorganisms from the anaerobic mixed culture as they present growth rates lower than the
149 acidogenic bacteria (Khan et al., 2016). The gas-phase composition was measured during the
150 first days of Stage I to check the absence of methane production due to the inhibition of
151 methanogenic microorganisms.

152 The operation of the reactor lasted 400 days, divided into three different stages (Table 1).
153 During Stage I (the first 59 days) an organic loading rate (OLR) of 7.3 ± 0.5 g COD/(L·d) was
154 applied, with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 3.1 days. Then in Stage II (days 60 to 279),
155 the OLR was diminished to 2.6 ± 0.4 g COD/(L·d) by increasing the HRT to 6.3 days. Finally,
156 the OLR was further decreased in Stage III (days 280-400) to 2.2 ± 0.2 g COD/(L·d) while HRT
157 was maintained. The SBR operated under complete mixing conditions by means of the action of
158 a mechanical stirrer at 120 rpm (Heidolph, Germany); therefore, the SRT was equal to the HRT.
159 The pH of the media was not controlled.

160

161 *2.2.2 Acidification batch tests*

162 The acidification batch assays were carried out in 500 mL Pirex-glass bottles (400 mL of
163 working volume), following the methodology described by Silva et al. (2013). The bottles were
164 filled in with the corresponding volumes of substrate, macro- and micro-nutrients solutions and
165 acidifying biomass from the continuous acidification reactor (Table 2). The substrate
166 composition corresponded to Stage I of Table 1. The substrate to biomass ratio was set at 3 g
167 COD/g VSS.

168 In total, 6 bottles were prepared with 3 different conditions (duplicates): two as control
 169 experiments without inoculum addition for measuring the abiotic disappearance of the substrate
 170 (E1); two without alkalinity addition (E2) and two containing NaHCO₃ in a ratio of 1:1 with
 171 respect to VSS (E3). After the addition of the substrate, biomass and medium, the headspace of
 172 each vial was bubbled with N₂ and the bottles were sealed with rubber stoppers and capped with
 173 plastic seals. Then, bottles were incubated in a shaker (120 rpm) at 37 °C. VFA production was
 174 monitored throughout time by the analysis of the periodically collected samples from the liquid
 175 phase of each bottle. Before collecting these liquid samples, 1 mL-gas sample was taken and
 176 measured by gas chromatography (Hewlett Packard 5890 Series II instrument) to assess the
 177 occurrence of methane production. The evolution of the concentration of VFA (expressed as g
 178 COD_{VFA}/L) versus time was plotted. The specific acidogenic activity (g COD_{VFA}/(g VSS·d))
 179 was estimated as the ratio between the maximum slope of the appearance of VFA (g
 180 COD_{VFA}/(L·d)) and the concentration of biomass present in the bottles (g VSS/L).

181 **Table 2.** Initial operational conditions of the acidification batch experiments.

Volumes added of different compounds	Experiment		
	Control (E1)	No alkalinity (E2)	Alkalinity (E3)
Acidifying sludge (mL)	0	23	23
Wastewater (mL)	61.2	61.2	61.2
Macronutrients solution (mL)*	66	66	66
Micronutrients solution (mL)*	13	13	13
10 g NaHCO ₃ /L solution (mL)	0	0	28

182 *Compositions of macro- and micronutrient solutions described in Silva et al. (2013).

183

184 2.3 Analytical methods

185 Total suspended solids (TSS), volatile suspended solids (VSS), alkalinity and COD were
 186 analysed according to *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater*
 187 (APHA-AWWA-WEF, 2017). Liquid samples were filtered through a cellulose-ester filter of
 188 0.45 µm of pore size (Advantec, Japan) for the quantification of total organic carbon (TOC),

189 ammonium (NH_4^+), soluble chemical oxygen demand (sCOD), proteins, carbohydrates, VFA
190 and other ions to determine salt concentration. Ammonium concentration was determined
191 according to the Bower and Holm-Hansen method (Bower and Holm-Hansen, 1980). TOC
192 concentration was determined by catalytic combustion (Analyser model TOC-L CSN,
193 Shimadzu, Japan). VFA concentration was determined by gas chromatography (GC) (Hewlett
194 Packard, USA). Protein and carbohydrate concentrations were measured according to Lowry et
195 al. (1951) and Loewus (1952) methods, respectively. Anions (e.g. Cl^-) and cations (e.g. Na^+)
196 were determined by ion chromatography (861 Advanced Compact IC system, Metrohm,
197 Switzerland).

198

199 **2.4 Calculations**

200 The individual acid concentrations for acetic acid (HAc), propionic acid (HPr), butyric acid
201 (HBu) and valeric acid (HVa) were converted to COD units by the application of corresponding
202 coefficients: 1.07 g $\text{COD}_{\text{HAc}}/\text{g HAc}$, 1.51 g $\text{COD}_{\text{HPr}}/\text{g HPr}$, 1.82 g $\text{COD}_{\text{HBu}}/\text{g HBu}$ and 2.04 g
203 $\text{COD}_{\text{HVa}}/\text{g HVa}$. The acidification percentage was calculated as the sum of the individual VFA
204 measured by GC, converted to COD units (g COD_{VFA}), and divided by the amount of COD at
205 the beginning of the experiment (COD_i), as indicated in the following equation:

$$\text{Acidification (\%)} = \frac{\text{g COD}_{\text{VFA}}}{\text{g COD}_i} \cdot 100$$

206 Statistical analysis of data was carried out using the software R version 3.5.1. The normality and
207 homogeneity of variance were evaluated by means of the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests,
208 respectively. ANOVA parametric test was used when both tests could be confirmed, and if not,
209 non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. Differences in the experimental values of the
210 pH, acidification percentage and VFA concentration obtained in the acidification batch tests
211 were compared with the calculation of the area under the curve (AUC) using the package PK.

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215 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

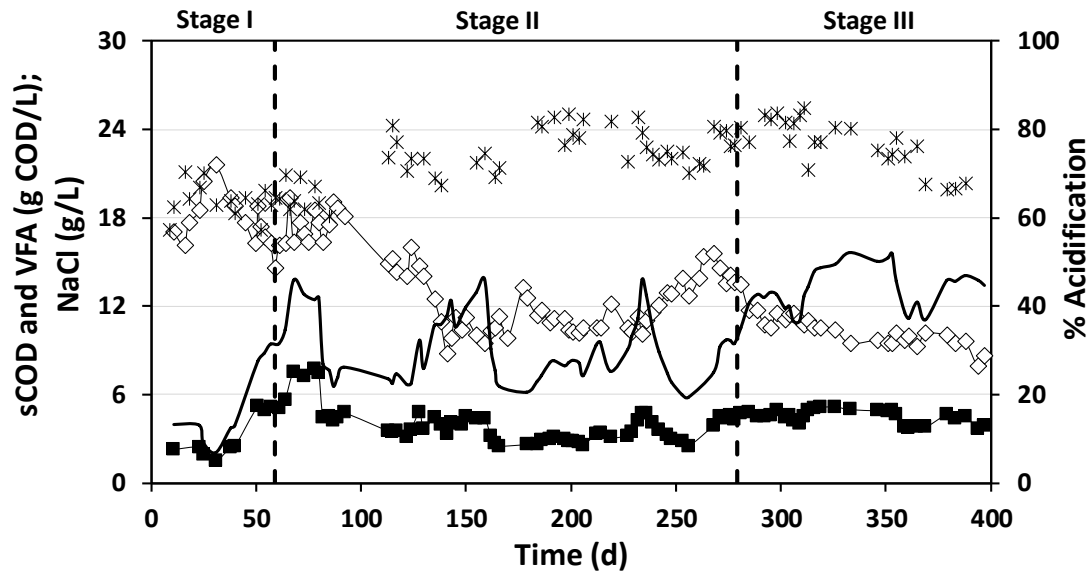
216 3.1 Operation of the completely stirred acidogenic reactor

217 3.1.1 VFA production at low pH

218 The 5-L acidification reactor was operated for 400 days fed with wastewater from a cooked
219 mussel processing factory (Table 1). Both in the raw wastewater and the effluent of the
220 acidification reactor, the soluble COD (sCOD) corresponded approximately to 97 % of total
221 COD (tCOD). Therefore, during the whole operation, the COD was expressed as sCOD.
222 Although anaerobic biomass was used as inoculum, methane was not detected in the gas phase.
223 Indeed, the mass balances of sCOD indicates a non-significant difference between influent and
224 effluent, below 10 % that can be attributed to biomass growth and to inaccuracies in analytical
225 determination. The acidogenic reactor was operated without pH control that, due to the low pH
226 of the wastewater fed, was maintained below 5. Acidogenic populations are significantly less
227 sensitive to pH than methanogenic ones. In this way, the low pH values achieved in the reactor
228 favoured the natural selection of acidogenic over methanogenic microorganisms (Wainaina et
229 al., 2019). Chen et al. (2007) reported the influence of pH on methane and VFA production and
230 they observed a complete methanogenic activity inhibition at pH 4 and the acidification of 20 %
231 of sCOD. In the present research work, the acidic conditions were caused by the accumulation
232 of VFA in the reactor and the low buffer capacity of the wastewater (approximately 170 mg
233 CaCO_3/L).

234 The VFA production highly fluctuated during the 400 days of operation of the acidification
235 reactor due to continuous variations in the substrate composition (Figure 1 and Table 3). During
236 the first operational days, the VFA production was low (average 19 % of acidification),
237 probably due to the high applied OLR ($7.3 \pm 0.5 \text{ g COD}/(\text{L}\cdot\text{d})$), which was then half reduced on
238 day 60 of operation. From that day onwards, the acidification efficiency was enhanced, and the
239 average productivity reached a value of $0.62 \pm 0.19 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{L}\cdot\text{d})$ in Stage II. In Stage III, the
240 operational conditions remained stable, with an average acidification percentage of 42.9 ± 5.6
241 %, which corresponded to a VFA productivity of $0.72 \pm 0.07 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{L}\cdot\text{d})$. Both values were
242 higher than in the previous operational period. This indicated that continuous operation allowed

243 the acclimation of the acidifying microorganisms to the unfavourable operational conditions
 244 (low pH and high salinity). Statistical analysis showed no significant differences in the amount
 245 of VFA produced between Stages I and II ($p = 0.08$), but significant ones between Stages II and
 246 III ($p = 0.0002$), with 95 % confidence.



247 **Figure 1.** Evolution of sCOD (\diamond), VFA (\blacksquare) and NaCl ($*$) concentrations, and acidification
 248 percentage (-) in the effluent throughout the operation of the acidification reactor.

249

250 **Table 3.** Average values of the parameters measured in the effluent throughout the operation of
 251 the acidification reactor.

Parameters	Units	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
		0 - 59 days	60 - 279 days	280 - 400 days
pH	--	4.4 ± 0.2	3.8 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.1
sCOD	g/L	17.7 ± 1.8	13.1 ± 2.8	10.5 ± 1.3
VFA	g COD/L	3.3 ± 1.5	3.9 ± 1.2	4.5 ± 0.4
Acidification	%	18.7 ± 9.9	30.6 ± 7.6	42.9 ± 5.6
Carbohydrates	g/L	ND	1.7 ± 1.0	0.3 ± 0.2
Proteins	g/L	ND	2.8 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.4
Ammonium	g N/L	0.17 ± 0.04	0.23 ± 0.06	0.20 ± 0.04
TSS	g/L	3.5 ± 0.4	3.4 ± 0.8	3.4 ± 0.3
VSS	g/L	2.5 ± 0.2	2.2 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.3
VSS/TSS	%	70.5 ± 7.9	64.4 ± 8.8	68.9 ± 3.9
NaCl	g/L	19.2 ± 1.1	22.2 ± 1.9	23.0 ± 1.6

252 ND: Not determined

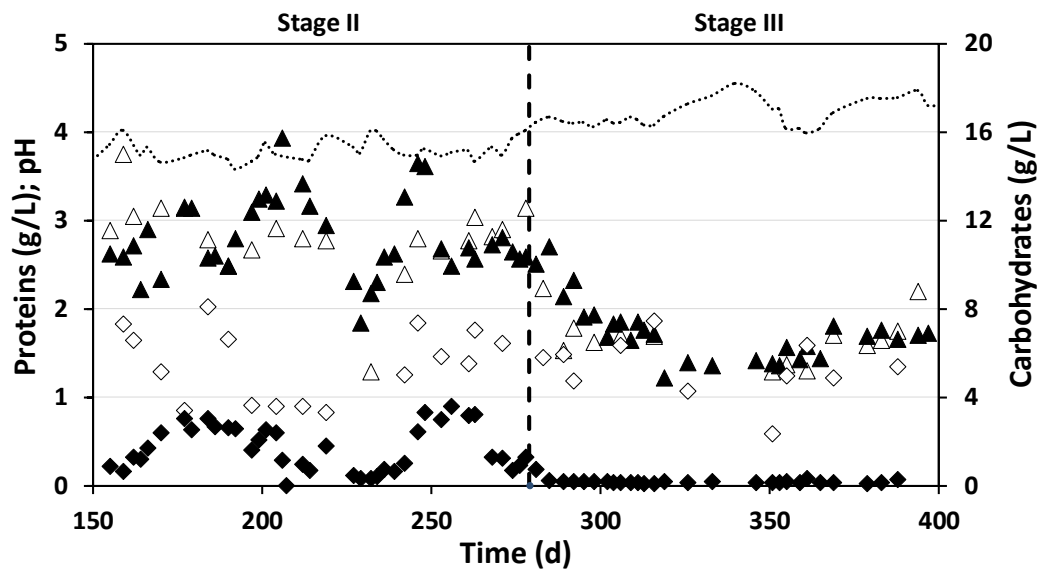
253 Differences between Stages II and III can be explained by different factor variations such as pH,
254 OLR, salt, ammonium, carbohydrate or protein concentration in the fed wastewater (Table 1).
255 Among these parameters only pH, OLR and protein concentration change significantly from
256 Stage II to III, being the pH value the one that showed the highest increase, while the OLR
257 remained in a quite small range and protein concentration are not relevant as they are neither
258 degraded nor causing an inhibitory effect on acidification.

259 The effect of pH on the acidogenesis of different substrates was researched in previous studies.
260 Most of them focused on the improvement of the solubilisation of solid wastes at alkaline
261 conditions, such as tuna processing waste (Bermudez-Penabad et al., 2017), food waste (Cheah
262 et al., 2019) or waste activated sludge (Chen et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2020). Alkaline conditions
263 favoured the organic matter solubilisation as the hydrolysis of proteins and carbohydrates
264 increases fostering the potential VFA production (Wainaina et al., 2019).

265 Acidic pH values (above 5) were demonstrated to promote the growth of acidogenic bacteria,
266 with an inhibitory effect at pH values below 3 (Khan et al., 2016). Few studies have evaluated
267 the acidification at pH values below 5, and different results were obtained. For example,
268 Bengtsson et al. (2008) operated a chemostat reactor using cheese whey as substrate and they
269 reported an acidification efficiency of 30 % at pH 3.6, which increased up to 84 % when the pH
270 value rose to 6.0 in a chemostat reactor. Gouveia et al. (2017) also treated cheese whey
271 obtaining an average acidification value of 64 % when pH varied from 5 to 7, but the VFA
272 production decreased by 18 % when the pH dropped to 4.

273 In the present research work, the pH in the reactor was below 4.5 during most of the operational
274 period, which could limit the acidogenic activity. Moreover, the cooked mussel processing
275 wastewater consisted of 50 % carbohydrates and 30 % proteins, on sCOD basis. The
276 carbohydrate concentration in the substrate slightly varied and showed an average value of $5.5 \pm$
277 $1.4 \text{ g}_{\text{carbohydrate}}/\text{L}$, but the removal efficiency varied during the reactor performance (Figure 2 and
278 Table 3). Until day 280 the average pH value was 3.8 ± 0.2 and the degradation of
279 carbohydrates was approximately 68 %. Then, from day 280 of operation onwards an increase

280 of the pH of the substrate (an average value of 5.04) provoked the increase of the pH inside the
281 reactor up to 4.2 ± 0.1 , which favoured the carbohydrate removal up to 96 %.



282 **Figure 2.** Evolution of the concentration of proteins in the influent (\triangle) and effluent (\blacktriangle),
283 carbohydrates in the influent (\diamond) and effluent (\blacklozenge), and pH in the effluent (\cdots) of the acidification
284 reactor throughout the operational period of 150 - 400 days.

285

286 The protein concentration in the feeding was of 2.3 ± 0.7 g_{protein}/L until day 280, and 1.7 ± 0.3
287 g_{protein}/L from that day onwards (Table 2). However, compared to carbohydrate removal, the
288 protein degradation was almost negligible during the whole reactor performance (Figure 2 and
289 Table 3). Thus, the VFA production from proteins was not considered. Since proteins are the
290 second most important organic component of the substrate, its lack of degradation contributed
291 to a low VFA production concerning the global sCOD in the wastewater. Previous studies
292 demonstrated that hydrolytic and acidogenic microorganisms could degrade proteins more
293 effectively under neutral or alkaline conditions using sewage sludge as substrate (Liu et al.,
294 2012). Duong et al. (2019) found, using gelatine for mimicking a protein-rich stream, protein
295 degradation inhibition when pH was shifted from 7 to 5. The low conversion of proteins under
296 acidic conditions could be attributed to the decrease of enzymatic activity (Duong et al., 2019).
297 Carbohydrate hydrolases are active at an optimal pH of 5, whereas the protease activity has an

298 optimal pH at higher values (6 - 7) (Parawira et al., 2005). The degradation efficiency of
299 carbohydrates was demonstrated to be less pH-sensitive than that of proteins at pH 4 using dairy
300 wastewater with a high carbohydrate and protein content (Yu and Fang, 2002), as the substrate
301 of the present study. Thus, the acidic conditions of the present study could limit the protein
302 degradation and therefore the maximum acidification throughout the performance of the reactor.

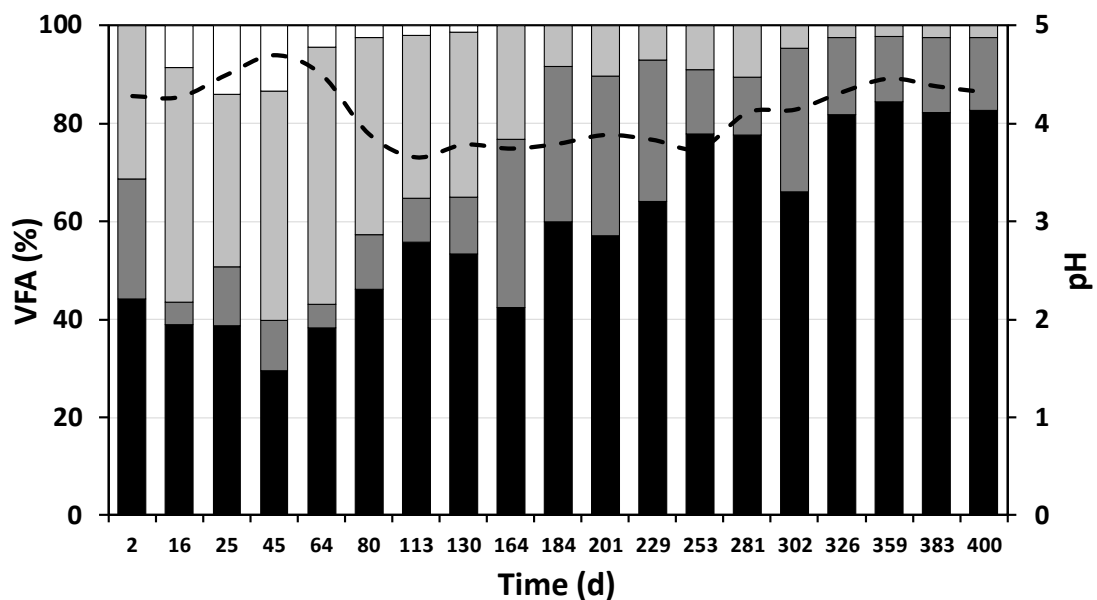
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304 *3.1.2 The composition of the VFA mixture*

305 Apart from the variable acidification percentage, different mixtures of VFA were generated
306 during the operation of the acidification reactor (Figure 3). Acetic, propionic and butyric acids
307 were the dominant compounds produced during the acidogenesis of the wastewater from mussel
308 cookers. These short-chain fatty acids can be directly formed by degradation of carbohydrates,
309 whereas the presence of higher molecular-weight VFA, such as valeric and caproic acids, is
310 attributed to acidogenesis of proteins (Yu et al., 2018). In this way, the lack of protein
311 degradation correlated with the low production of these acids. Operational conditions such as
312 pH value, OLR or HRT, among others, not only affect the acidification degree but also the VFA
313 composition (Atasoy et al., 2019; Wainaina et al., 2019). In the present study, HRT was only
314 increased on day 60 (Table 3) while VFA composition varied throughout the reactor operational
315 period. Thus, other parameters, such as the pH of the reactor medium, could be driving the VFA
316 distribution in the following Stages.

317 During Stage I, the pH remained at an average value of 4.5. In terms of VFA composition,
318 results indicated that the operational conditions promoted the production of butyric acid, which
319 became the dominant VFA. At the end of Stage I the composition of the acids produced
320 corresponded to 30:2:62:6 as HAc:HPr:HBU:HVa expressed as a percentage of VFA on COD
321 basis. After the decrease of the HRT and, thus, the OLR on day 60, a shift of the VFA produced
322 was clearly observed (Figure 3). During this stage, the production of acetic and propionic acid
323 production increased, while the butyric acid concentration decreased. The VFA composition on
324 day 281 of operation was of 78:12:10:0, corresponding to HAc:HPr:HBU:HVa. Results seem to
325 indicate that the increase of the HRT from 3.1 to 6.2 days promoted a shift of the VFA

326 distribution. Bengtsson et al. (2008) investigated the effect of the retention time on the VFA
 327 composition, and also observed a higher production of acetic and propionic acids when the
 328 retention time was increased from 11 to 24 h, using paper mill wastewater. Similary, Jankowska
 329 et al. (2015) obtained a decrease of butyrate and an increase of acetic and propionic acid
 330 production during acidification of primary and waste activated sludge, when the retention time
 331 was prolonged from 5 to 15 days and the pH was maintained at 4. Zhang et al. (2006) observed
 332 evidence of wash-out effect on propionate producing populations after the shortening of the
 333 HRT.
 334



335 **Figure 3.** Evolution of the composition of the VFA produced in the acidification reactor and the
 336 pH value throughout the operational period. Percentages corresponding to HAc: acetic acid (■),
 337 HPr: propionic acid (■), HBu: butyric acid (■) and HVa: valeric acid (□); and pH (- - -) value.

338
 339 From day 281 onwards (Stage III) the VFA composition was relatively stable, which correlated
 340 with the improvement of the acidification shown in Figure 1 due to the increase of the pH value
 341 above 4. During this period, the dominant component was acetic acid with an average
 342 concentration in the effluent of 3.5 ± 0.3 g COD_{HAc}/L, followed by propionic acid (0.8 ± 0.2 g
 343 COD_{HPr}/L) and butyric acid (0.2 ± 0.1 g COD_{HBu}/L). Even though the reactor was subjected to

344 changes in the composition of the cooked mussel processing wastewater during the whole
345 operation, it showed more stability during the Stage III when the acidification degree and
346 composition of the mixture of VFA remained relatively constant.

347

348 **3.2 Alkalinity effect on VFA production: proteins degradation**

349 Batch tests were performed to evaluate the influence of the pH value on the VFA production
350 from cooked mussel processing wastewater (Figure 4 and Table S1 in Supporting Material).

351 Acidifying biomass from the reactor was collected on day 76 and used as inoculum. An
352 experiment without acidifying sludge or alkalinity addition was carried out as control (E1).

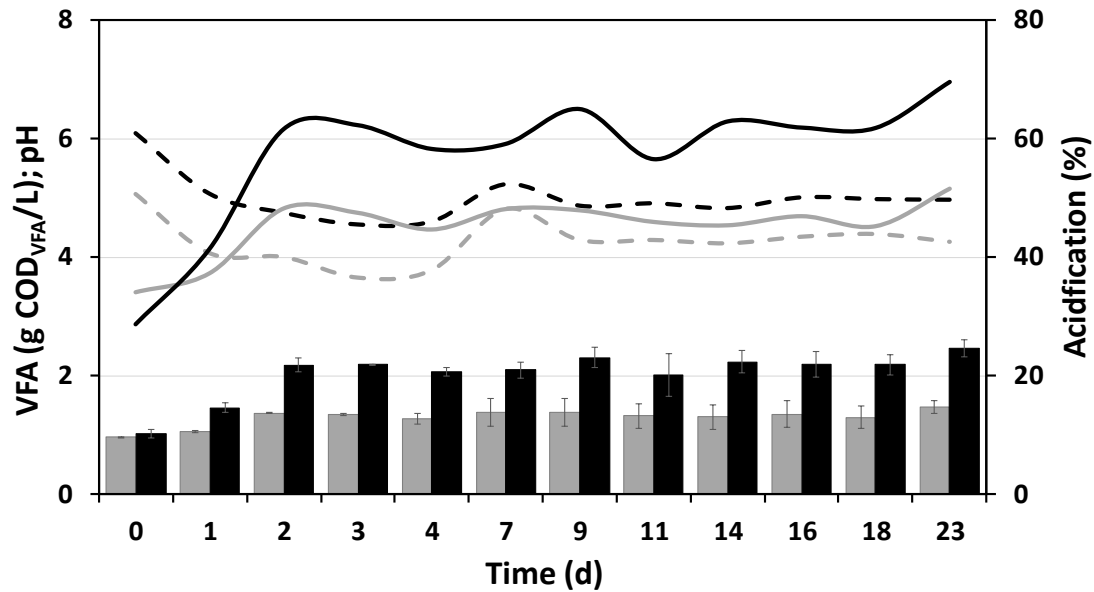
353 Then, the effect of the alkalinity was studied without (E2) and with (E3) the external addition of
354 NaHCO_3 , in batch experiment that already contained the same inoculum and substrate
355 concentrations. The initial VFA concentration in all bottles (E1, E2 and E3) was approximately
356 $900 \text{ mg COD}_{\text{VFA}}/\text{L}$. Even though the biomass collected from the acidification reactor was
357 washed before the experiment, the inoculum media contained a remaining amount of VFA ($<$
358 $0.1 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/\text{L}$). In all the bottles, no methane production was observed during the tests.

359 In the control flasks (E1), where only substrate was added, no differences in the VFA
360 concentrations were observed throughout the batch test. Experiments E2 and E3 with substrate
361 and acidifying biomass showed an increase of the VFA concentration during the first days of the
362 batch experiment (Figure 4). However, the increase of the acidification in experiment E2 was
363 lower than in E3 and the acidification values on day 2 were 48.2 % and 61.6 %, respectively.

364 From that day onwards the VFA concentration remained at approximately $1.4 \pm 0.2 \text{ g}$
365 $\text{COD}_{\text{VFA}}/\text{L}$ in E2, whereas in E3 reached a value of $2.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/\text{L}$ after 23 days of
366 experiment. This latter value corresponded to an acidification degree of 70 % of initial COD.

367 Statistical analysis was applied by comparing the area under the curve (AUC) described by the
368 VFA produced throughout the batch test and showed significant differences in the acidification
369 percentage between the flasks without (E2) and with (E3) alkalinity ($p = 0.061$), with 90 %
370 confidence.

371



372 **Figure 4.** Evolution of the VFA concentrations (columns), percentage of acidification
 373 (continuous lines) and pH value of the liquid media (discontinuous lines) in the acidification batch
 374 experiments using cooked mussel processing wastewater. Grey colour corresponds to experiment
 375 E2 and black colour to experiment E3. The error bars of the columns represent the standard
 376 deviation of the point.

377

378 The specific acidogenic activity of $0.79 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{g VSS}\cdot\text{d})$ in E3, was almost three times
 379 higher than in E2 ($0.27 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{g VSS}\cdot\text{d})$). The main difference in both experiments was the
 380 pH value. Without alkalinity (E2) the pH value was 4.2 ± 0.3 , whereas in E3 the addition of
 381 NaHCO_3 promoted the maintenance of higher pH (4.9 ± 0.1). These results were in accordance
 382 with the specific activities estimated for the acidifying reactor. During Stage I the acidogenic
 383 activity was $0.24 \pm 0.11 \text{ g COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{g VSS}\cdot\text{d})$, which was very similar to the value obtained in
 384 E2. This value increased during Stage III when a higher pH was measured in the reactor and
 385 correlated with an increase of the acidogenic activity, being the average value of $0.33 \pm 0.03 \text{ g}$
 386 $\text{COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{g VSS}\cdot\text{d})$. Therefore, batch results indicated that the increase in the pH, by addition of
 387 alkalinity, had a positive effect in terms of conversion of VFA from the cooked mussel
 388 processing wastewater. Yu and Fang (2002) also observed changes in the VFA production from

389 dairy wastewater at variable pH and obtained an increase of the microbial activity from 0.146 g
390 COD/(g VSS·d) at pH 4 to 0.320 g COD/(g VSS·d) at pH 5.5.

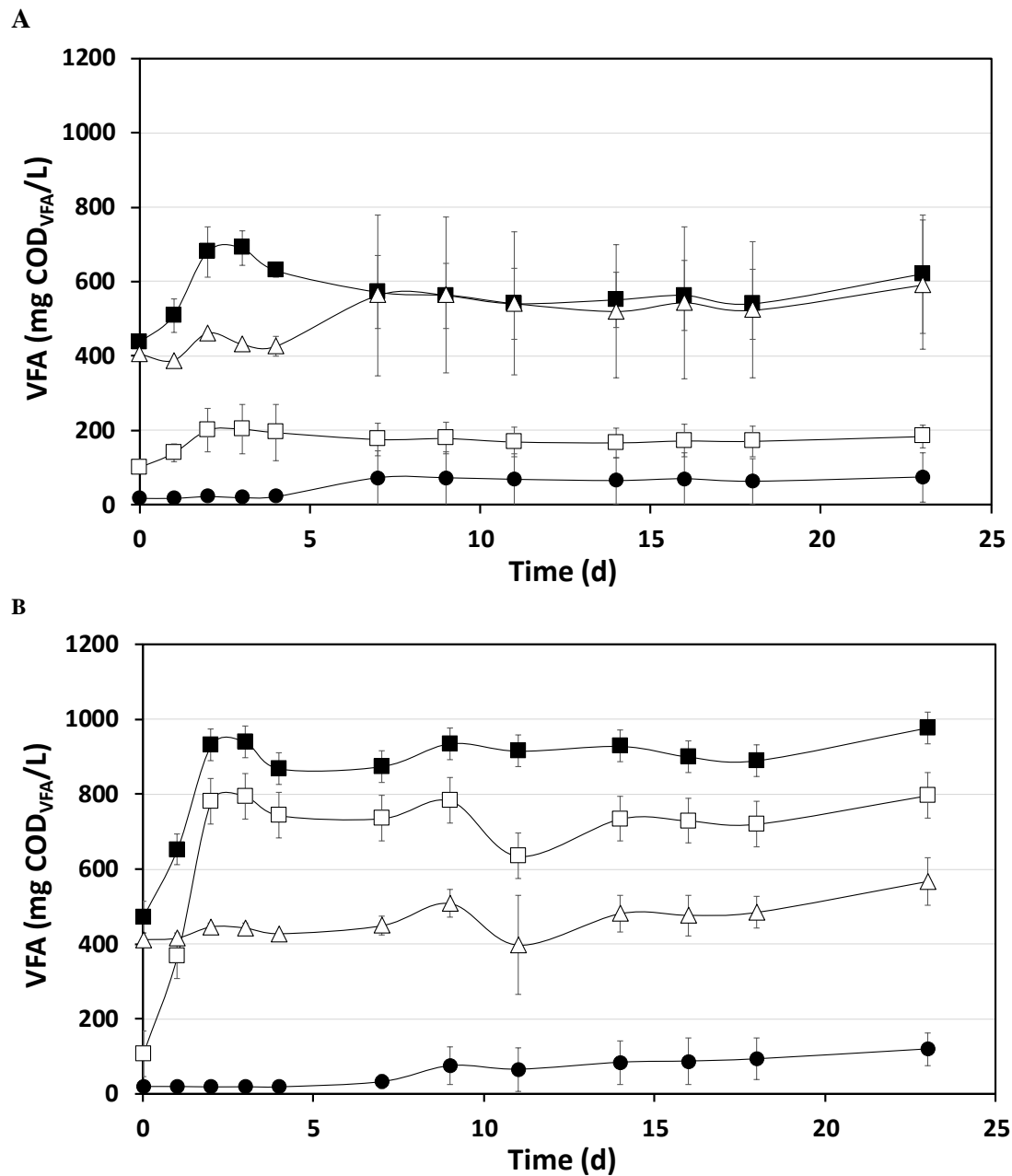
391 A shift of the VFA distribution was observed in experiments at different operational pH (Figure
392 5 and Table S1 in Supporting Material). During the acidification experiments without (E2) and
393 with (E3) alkalinity, acetic acid was the dominant organic acid, whereas valeric acid was
394 produced at the lowest concentration. However, propionic and butyric acids showed inverse
395 behaviour in the two experimental conditions (Figure 5). In E2 (lower pH), the butyric acid
396 concentration increased and reached the same value as acetic acid from day 7 onwards (Figure
397 5A). Propionic acid concentration slightly increased during the first days, and it remained stable
398 during most part of the experiment. In E3 (higher pH), butyric acid concentration did not
399 experience the same evolution as in E2 and approximately the same concentration was
400 maintained until the end of the experiment. However, propionic acid production increased at the
401 beginning of the assay and became the second most-produced acid after acetic (Figure 5B).

402 Previous studies have reported the influence of the pH not only on the concentration of VFA
403 produced but also on the metabolic pathways in acidogenic fermentation and, therefore, of the
404 product distribution. However, there are no consistent conclusions on the influence of pH on the
405 composition of VFA (Zhou et al., 2018). In the batch experiments of the present research work,
406 butyric acid production was improved under low pH conditions. These results agreed with
407 previous studies that reported that the butyrate metabolic pathway was enhanced under acidic
408 conditions (González-Cabaleiro et al., 2015; Jankowska et al., 2017; Temudo et al., 2007).

409 A positive effect of the acidic pH was observed in the reactor to select acidifying bacteria and
410 wash out methanogenic microorganisms from the anaerobic mixed culture used as inoculum.

411 However, the acidogenic activity was limited by the low pH values (below 4 during most of the
412 operational time). Results of the batch experiments showed that the addition of alkalinity
413 improved the VFA production and modified the obtained products, with respect to the
414 experiments without NaHCO₃ addition. However, the increase of pH up to 5 was insufficient to
415 achieve complete acidification of the substrate. Even though the protein concentration was not

416 measured during the batch experiment, the 30 % of non-acidified COD probably corresponded
417 mainly to the protein content of the substrate.



418 **Figure 5.** Concentrations of VFA produced in the batch assays without-E2 (A) and with-E3 (B)
419 alkalinity. Acetic acid (■), propionic acid (□), butyric acid (△) and valeric acid (●). The error
420 bars represent the standard deviation of the point.

421

422 Residual carbohydrate concentration is also expected due to kinetic and energetic or

423 thermodynamic conversion limitations (González-Cabaleiro et al., 2015). Considering the

424 carbohydrate affinity for the process of 1 mM (expressed as glucose) (González-Cabaleiro et al.,

425 2015), 0.2 g COD/L would remain as carbohydrates. Thus, protein partial degradation is
426 suggested to contribute to the achievement of the 70 % of acidification in E3. If only
427 carbohydrate were degraded, the acidification efficiency would be limited to 64 %. A more
428 detailed study is required to optimise the pH via the long-term addition of NaHCO_3 to the
429 feeding of the reactor and to evaluate its effect on protein degradation and, eventually, on the
430 amount of VFA produced.

431 To sum up, obtained results suggested that an increase in the pH of the reactor media could
432 promote protein degradation fostering VFA production. However, a techno-economical study
433 would be required to evaluate the process benefits in terms of acidification efficiency and
434 increase of operational costs due to the addition of chemicals to adjust the pH value. Other
435 factors like HRT and OLR should be considered to define the best operational strategy and set
436 the optimal pH value. The obtained VFA-rich stream could be used to produce PHA, as carbon
437 source for nutrient removal or purified to use the VFA as platform chemicals, among other
438 applications. Depending on the final use, the composition of the VFA mixture will be relevant
439 (as platform chemical or affecting the obtained PHA properties) or not (for nutrient removal)
440 (Atasoy et al., 2018). The final application will also determine the downstream processes
441 required to obtain the final product and a clean effluent for discharge. In the present study, it
442 was demonstrated that mussel cooking wastewater is a good candidate to produce VFA-rich
443 streams. Thus, this wastewater could be valorised, under uncontrolled pH conditions, instead of
444 being just treated consuming resources like energy or chemicals. As in the present study the aim
445 is to produce VFA subsequent treatment/processing steps are required to produce an effluent
446 with the required composition to be discharged to the environment.

447

448 **4. Conclusions**

449 Acidogenic fermentation of cooked mussel processing wastewater resulted in a significant VFA
450 productivity of 0.72 ± 0.07 g $\text{COD}_{\text{VFA}}/(\text{L}\cdot\text{d})$, considering the complex composition of the
451 substrate, mainly characterized by high organic matter content (13.8 ± 3.2 g COD/L), high
452 salinity (21.8 ± 2.8 g NaCl/L) and low pH (4.6 ± 0.6). The maximum acidification percentage

453 obtained was 43 % and the composition of the VFA mixture obtained was of 80:18:2 as
454 HAc:HPr:HBu. Carbohydrate conversion reached up to 96 % and contributed to the production
455 of VFA. However, the acidification efficiency was hindered by a deficient protein degradation,
456 probably associated to the acidic conditions inside the reactor.
457 Batch experiments showed that the increase of the pH from 4.2 to 4.9 by the addition of
458 NaHCO₃ resulted in a higher acidification efficiency. In addition to increasing VFA production,
459 the composition of the mixture switched from containing mostly acetic and propionic acids to
460 containing mostly acetic and butyric. Nevertheless, part of the COD remained as non-acidified
461 COD even at pH 5, probably due to the slight degradation of proteins.

462

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470

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