Modeling Versatile and Dynamic Anaerobic Metabolism for PAOs/GAOs Competition Using Agent-based Model and Verification via Single Cell Raman Micro-spectroscopy

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ABSTRACT

Side-stream enhanced biological phosphorus removal process (S2EBPR) has been demonstrated to

improve performance stability and offer a suite of advantages compared to conventional EBPR design.

Design and optimization of S2EBPR require modification of the current EBPR models that were not able

to fully reflect the metabolic functions of and competition between the polyphosphate-accumulating

organisms (PAOs) and glycogen-accumulating organisms (GAOs) under extended anaerobic conditions as

in the S2EBPR conditions. In this study, we proposed and validated an improved model (iEBPR) for

simulating PAO and GAO competition that incorporated heterogeneity and versatility in PAO sequential

polymer usage, staged maintenance-decay, and glycolysis-TCA pathway shifts. The iEBPR model was first

calibrated against bulk batch testing experiment data, being proved to perform better than the previous

EBPR model for predicting the soluble orthoP, ammonia, biomass glycogen, and PHA temporal profiles in

a batch starvation testing under prolonged anaerobic conditions. We further validated the model with

another independent set of batch anaerobic batch testing data that included high-resolution single-cell

and specific population level intracellular polymer measurements enabled by the single-cell Raman

micro-spectroscopy technique. The model accurately predicted the temporal changes in the intracellular

polymers at cellular and population levels within PAOs and GAOs, and further confirmed the proposed

mechanism of sequential polymer utilization, and polymer availability-dependent and staged

maintenance-decay in PAOs. These results indicate that under extended anaerobic phases as in S2EBPR,

the PAOs may gain competitive advantages over GAOs due to the possession of multiple intracellular

polymers and the adaptive switching of the anaerobic metabolic pathways that consequently lead to the

later and slower decay in PAOs than GAOs. The iEBPR model can be applied to facilitate and optimize

the design and operations of S2EBPR for more reliable nutrient removal and recovery from wastewater.

KEYWORDS: EBPR, S2EBPR, Agent-based modeling, Cell maintenance, Cell decay, Glycolysis-TCA pathway

switch

INTRODUCTION

The enhanced biological phosphorus removal (EBPR) process has been recommended as a promising

strategy to achieve sustainable wastewater P removal and facilitate P recovery (Gu et al., 2018). Current

EBPR systems are designed to enrich a key functional group, namely the phosphate-accumulating

organisms (PAOs) and *Ca. Accumulibacter phosphatis* is one of the most found PAOs in EBPR systems.

Glycogen-accumulating organisms (GAOs) are often observed to coexist with PAOs, who possess a

similar glycogen-based VFA-PHA metabolism without the polyphosphate (polyP) storage ability

(Oehmen et al., 2006; Zeng et al., 2003) and are therefore concerned to be niche VFA (carbon source)

competitors with PAOs consequently impacting EBPR performance. PAO-GAO competition could be

kinetically affected by pH, temperature, substrate type, dissolved oxygen, solids retention time (SRT),

hydraulic retention time (HRT), feeding strategy (Filipe et al., 2001a; Gu et al., 2008; Lopez-Vazquez et

al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2011; Neethling et al., 2006; Oehmen et al., 2005a, 2005b; Onnis-Hayden et al.,

2020a; Rodrigo et al., 1996; Whang et al., 2007), etc. Although the proliferation of GAOs has been

associated with EBPR performance deterioration in many cases (Gu et al., 2008; López-V et al., 2007;

Oehmen et al., 2007), the coexistence of GAOs presence is not necessarily detrimental to EBPR

performance as long as PAOs are kinetically favored (Gu et al., 2018; Nielsen et al., 2019; Onnis-Hayden

et al., 2020b).

The performance stability of EBPR has been a concern hindering its wider applications. An emerging

technology that has been demonstrated to successfully address the common stability challenge with

EBPR is side-stream RAS and mixed liquor hydrolysis/fermentation-based side-stream EBPR (S2EBPR)

(Barnard et al., 2010; Copp et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2018; Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020b; Stevens et al., 2015;

Stroud and Martin, 2001; Vale et al., 2008; Vollertsen et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2019b). S2EBPR refers to

modified EBPR configurations that include a diversion of RAS or anaerobic mixed liquor to a side-stream

reactor, where simultaneous VFA production via sludge hydrolysis and fermentation and PAO activity-

related P release and carbon uptake occur. Compared to conventional EBPR design, the S2EBPR offers a

suite of advantages, including influent-carbon-independent VFA sources for PAO feast, eliminating the

influences of fluctuating influent loads, more controllable lower-redox environments, more complex

VFA compositions that likely favor the selection of PAOs over GAOs, flexible configurations and potential

reduction of carbon footprint and denitrification enhancement by diverting more influent carbon to

denitrifiers (Gu et al., 2018; Lanham et al., 2013; Mielczarek et al., 2013; Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020b;

Srinivasan et al., 2021; Stokholm-Bjerregaard et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019b).

While full-scale processes demonstrated the potential promises and advantages of S2EBPR (Barnard et

al., 2010; Copp et al., 2012; Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020b; Stevens et al., 2015; Stroud and Martin, 2001;

Vale et al., 2008; Vollertsen et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2019b), existing knowledge gaps in the

fundamental understanding of the biochemical mechanisms and microbial ecology involved in S2EBPR

hampers its wider application and implementation. Design and optimization of S2EBPR require adequate

EBPR models that can capture the underlying key mechanisms involved in the S2EBPR such as the VFA

production via hydrolysis and fermentation, and PAO and GAO competition in the extended anaerobic

side-stream reactor. A few recent modeling efforts failed to predict either this competitive advantage or

the performance superiority observed in S2EBPR systems compared to the conventional EBPR systems

(Dunlap et al., 2016; Houweling et al., 2010). This suggested that there are still critical aspects in the

current EBPR models that cannot reflect the metabolic functions of and competition between the PAOs

and GAOs under the S2EBPR conditions, particularly the seemingly more pronounced differential

metabolic versatility and dynamics among PAO and GAO subphenotypes under the prolonged anaerobic

condition that involve cell maintenance, biomass decay and the associated versatility in the utilization of

various intracellular polymers (Guedes da Silva et al., 2020; Lanham et al., 2014; G. Li et al., 2018; Santos

et al., 2020).

First, PAO and GAO's cell maintenance and cell decay are two processes that are highly relevant in

S2EBPR, yet they are not fully understood or accurately modeled in previous EBPR models such as ASM

(Henze et al., 2001). Cell maintenance is an observation-driven, hypothesized metabolic process. It was

evidenced by continuous consumption of related intracellular polymers in PAO and GAO cells to produce

ATP at a constant rate, throughout both short-term (i.e. ≤ 10 hrs) (Filipe et al., 2001a, 2001b; Houweling

et al., 2010; Mino et al., 1998; Smolders et al., 1994a; Wentzel et al., 1989; Zeng et al., 2003) and long-

term (≥5 days) (Vargas et al., 2013) anaerobic conditions while their known EBPR-related metabolisms

are in idle. Previous models (e.g. ASM2 and ASM3+BioP (Henze et al., 2001)) often disregard the

constant APT production rate but use a first-order polymer degradation to approximate, potentially

causing deviated prediction of polymer consumption in cell maintenance. Evidence from previous

literature (Carvalheira et al., 2014; Nielsen et al., 2016) and our recent studies (Gu et al., 2018; Wang et

al., 2019b) suggested that the possession and ability of PAOs to utilize both polyP and glycogen offer

them competitive advantages over GAOs that rely solely on glycogen, in terms of its survival time length,

delayed decay, on-set time, and overall lower decay rates under extended anaerobic conditions as those

in S2EBPR processes. This indicates that models such as Barker&Dold and UCTPHO+ (Barker and Dold,

1997; Hu et al., 2007), which do not account for the contribution of glycogen in PAO cell maintenance,

can potentially underestimate PAOs' competitive advantage. Recent models introduced a *sequential*

polymer usage strategy to simulate cell maintenance (Lanham et al., 2014; G. Li et al., 2018; Santos et

al., 2020) at constant ATP rates, and a *staged maintenance-decay* mechanism to approximate delayed

cell decay when PAO and GAO have ample intracellular polymer for maintenance (G. Li et al., 2018;

Santos et al., 2020). The previously observed lower-than-expected PAO and GAO decay rates (G. Li et al.,

2018; Li et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2020) could potentially be explained by this maintenance survival

hypothesis. However, two potential issues remain. First, the preference order of polyP and glycogen

consumption is critical in the sequential polymer usage strategy, and both PAO subphenotypes may exist

(Lopez et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2007). Conventional population-level models often assume one priority

order (usually glycogen-prioritized) and ignore the other (Lanham et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2020),

instead of considering both subphenotypes. Second, accurate simulation of cell decay among different

PAO subphenotypes depends on the intracellular polymer's availability at the cell level with the staged

maintenance-decay strategy, which would be difficult to capture with conventional bulk measurements

of aggregated polymer content in the biomass. Validating these proposed mechanisms requires both

finer resolution measurements and simulation of the cellular polymer consumption heterogeneity

among PAO subphenotypes.

Second, both overall microbial community and PAOs diversity in S2EBPR were found to be higher than

conventional EBPRs (Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020b; Srinivasan et al., 2021). The recent discoveries pointed

to highly varying and versatile anaerobic metabolic strategies among PAO subphenotypes (Guedes da

Silva et al., 2020). (Santos et al., 2020) introduced the modeling of pathway switching for better

simulating PAO metabolism. One of the most debated aspects related to the Accumulibacter's anaerobic

metabolism is the source of reducing power (NAD(P)H), which is required to reduce VFA into PHA

monomers. Early studies suggest glycolysis and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle to be possible sources,

resulting in different PAO metabolic models per experimental evidence, including using sole glycolysis

(referred to as Mino model) (Mino et al., 1987; Smolders et al., 1994a), sole TCA (referred to as Comeau-

Wentzel model, C-W model) (Comeau et al., 1986; Maurer et al., 1997; Wentzel et al., 1989) or a mixture

of the two in various ratios (Pereira et al., 1996; Pijuan et al., 2008; Yagci et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2009).

The switch between glycolysis and TCA-oriented metabolisms was hypothesized and implied to be

triggered by intracellular polymer availability and depletion (Damir Brdjanovic et al., 1998; Guedes da

Silva et al., 2020; Pijuan et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2009).

In this study, to improve the EBPR model to better predict the S2EBPR processes, we proposed a revised

EBPR model that better captures the PAO-GAO competition under extended anaerobic conditions, by

incorporating staged maintenance-decay and glycolysis-TCA pathway shifts that are linked to the

heterogeneity and versatility of PAO metabolism involving dynamic intercellular polymers usage. In

addition, we employed an agent-based model to overcome the limitations in the current EBPR model

that cannot capture the evidenced higher diversity of PAOs in S2EBPR than conventional EBPR

(Srinivasan et al., 2021). The higher phylogenetic and phenotypic diversity of PAOs in the S2EBRP system

compared to the conventional systems (Srinivasan et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019b) likely resulted from

more complex substrates and higher anaerobic SRT in the side-stream reactors and, they play a key role

in the mechanisms underlying the PAO-GAO competition in S2EBPR. Agent-based modeling can capture

the detailed PAO-GAO competition that involves the heterogeneity of subphenotypes (Y. Li et al., 2018;

Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2020, 2010) beyond those evaluated at aggregated and bulk

estimates as in most previous studies (Guedes da Silva et al., 2020; Lopez-Vazquez et al., 2009).

Furthermore and most importantly, we experimentally verified the proposed model with observations

on cell-level, quantitative polymer dynamics by leveraging the power of single-cell Raman micro-

spectroscopy technology (Bucci et al., 2012; Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2011). To our knowledge,

this was the first-time effort to verify the improved metabolic model using experimentally obtained

single-cell intracellular polymer measurements from full-scale S2EBPR systems. The proposed model,

referred to as iEBPR, outperformed the previous model in predicting the experimentally observed trends

of intracellular polymer biomass content under anaerobic conditions and was proven to be more

effective in simulating PAO and GAO maintenance behavior under those extended anaerobic conditions

than conventional models. The proposed mechanism can be incorporated into future EBPR models to

reveal the overall EBPR performance and PAO-GAO competitive dynamics more accurately as observed

in S2EBPR systems.

METHODOLOGY

Agent-based EBPR Model Structure

An agent-based EBPR model (named iEBPR) was developed based on our previous iAlgae model

developed by (Bucci et al., 2012). In this study, three population groups were included, namely PAOs,

GAOs, and OHOs. OHOs stand for ordinary heterotrophic organisms that account for all non-PAO and

non-GAO species. The same fundamental metabolic framework in iAlgae was used, including

Accumulibacter-PAOs and OHOs taken from the International Water Association's Activated Sludge

Model 2 (ASM2) (Henze et al., 2001), and Competibacter-like GAOs coded for anaerobic VFA-uptake,

PHA synthesis and aerobic biomass growth PHA-degradation and glycogen-accumulation (Filipe et al.,

2001b; Houweling et al., 2010; Zeng et al., 2003). Note that iAlgae simplified VFAs to acetate and PHAs

to PHB, which were kept in iEBPR and similar to (Santos et al., 2020). In addition, this study focused on

PAO-GAO competition under extended anaerobic conditions; and denitrifiers, nitrifiers, and other

anoxic-related organisms were not included. Similar to iAlgae, the inert organic matter was not tracked,

and released matter from cell lysis would instantly transform into rbCOD (VFA) (Bucci et al., 2012)

assuming the hydrolysis of inert organic matter is instant. The Gujer matrices of PAO, GAO, and OHO are

shown in **Table S1-3**.

Representation of population phenotype heterogeneity. Each modeled species, i.e. PAO, GAO, or OHO

was simulated in 10,000 independent agents known as the approach of agent-based modeling. Agents

have independent polymer and biomass values and randomly assigned kinetic parameters to

approximate metabolic heterogeneity among subphenotypic groups as in real activated sludge.

Stoichiometric (yield) parameters were theoretically determined and were not randomized. Kinetic

parameters, including rates and affinity parameters, were randomized by normal distributions, with

their means representing the bulk-level aggregated values (for calibration to data, using literature values

(Filipe et al., 2001b; Lopez-Vazquez et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2003) or ASM2 defaults (Gujer, 1994)), and

standard deviations for calibration. Invalid and exotic values (e.g. negative rates) from randomization

were discarded and regenerated. In agent-based modeling, the number of agents is an important

parameter to balance between simulating heterogeneity and computational time. We found that 1,000-

10,000 agents per species were adequate considering this trade-off. In addition, all agents were updated

synchronously at the end of each elapsed time step, known as the *discrete-event simulation* (Kurve et

al., 2013).

197 Polymer Availability-dependent Agent-level Energy Derivation for Cell Maintenance and Decay

Based on the fundamental metabolic framework from iAlgae, sequential polymer usage and staged

maintenance-decay process were incorporated to replace the first-order decay mechanism. Unlike the

population-level models in previous studies (Lanham et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2020), this calculation

was performed at the agent level, allowing heterogenic cell maintenance and decay concerning the

heterogeneity in polymer storage.

Cell maintenance with flexible and sequential polymer usage. PAO and GAO cell maintenance were

simulated to fulfill a targeted ATP production rate, denoted as m^{ATP}, expressed in mol-ATP/(C-mol

biomass.hr). The equivalent polymer consumption rates to generate this ATP (in mg polyP-P/(mg

biomass COD.day) and mg glycogen-COD/(mg biomass COD.day)) were calculated based on known

stoichiometry and yield coefficients reported in the previous studies (Filipe et al., 2001b; Lu et al., 2007;

Smolders et al., 1994a; Zeng et al., 2003). When the polymer(s) are ample, the actual maintenance is

hypothesized to achieve the targeted rate (m^{ATP}) without surplus; when polymer(s) are depleted,

insufficient cell maintenance will occur and cause cell decay. This calculation is followed by both PAO

and GAO biomass. In addition, as PAO has two polymers utilizable for cell maintenance, sequential

polymer usage calculation is further incorporated to determine the individual ATP contribution from

glycogen and polyP respectively. (Lanham et al., 2014) and (Santos et al., 2020) showed an example of

this sequential usage calculation assuming using polyP prior to glycogen:

$$r_{polyP} = M_{polyP} m^{ATP}$$

$$r_{glycogen} = M_{glycogen}\left(m^{ATP} - r_{polyP}\right)$$

215 , where: r_{polyP} and $r_{glycogen}$ are the per polymer ATP contribution; m^{ATP} is the target cell-maintenance

216 rate; M_{polyP} and $M_{glycogen}$ are Monod functions as rate modifiers based on per-polymer utilization

217 affinity and availability. In this study, the other glycogen-preferring phenotype was also included

$$r_{glycogen} = M_{glycogen} m^{ATP}$$

$$r_{polyP} = M_{polyP}\left(m^{ATP} - r_{glycogen}\right)$$

, for enabling more flexibly simulating of the observed cases in various studies (Lopez et al., 2006; Lu et

al., 2007; Vargas et al., 2013). The selection of polyP-glycogen priority is designed to be a calibratable

parameter.

Staged and linked cell maintenance and decay. Previous EBPR models considered cell decay as an

intrinsic process at a constant specific rate i.e., first-order decay, and as a process independent of cell

maintenance. Several studies have shown evidence of accelerated biomass decay after depletion of

their intracellular polymers. Since cell maintenance consumes polymers, this implies a linkage between

biomass decay and cease of maintenance (Lu et al., 2007; Vargas et al., 2013). In our previous work (G. Li

et al., 2018), we first introduced the process to link these two processes, hypothesizing that cells will

aim to use the intracellular polymer(s)-derived energy for maintenance first to survive, before initiating

decay when the energy can no longer satisfy the need for maintenance. Briefly, we treat the proportion

of insufficient cell maintenance as the switch function to enable cell decay, making the PAO and GAO

agents avoid decaying when their polymers are ample for cell maintenance, and start decaying when

depleted:

$$b_r = b_{max}\left(1 - \frac{r^{ATP}}{m^{ATP}}\right)$$

, where: b_r is the actual specific decay rate; b_{max} is the maximum specific decay rate. The formulation

took into consideration of mathematical simplicity. The decayed biomass then proportionally

regenerates as rbCOD (VFA) based on the empirical PAO/GAO biomass formula $CH_{1.93}O_{0.53}N_{0.2}$ (Zeng et

al., 2003). Although ammonia release was not direct tracked in the model, it could still be estimated

using the above empirical biomass formula, which could be compared with experimental ammonia

measurements used as an indicator of biomass decay (Lu et al., 2007). Linking cell maintenance to cell

decay effectively models cell maintenance as an endogenous metabolic process that "precedes and

inhibits" cell decay, making it a "survival strategy" for PAO and GAO species (Santos et al., 2020).

Agent-level Glycolysis and TCA Cycle Pathway Switching

Based on our current knowledge, PAO's glycolysis-oriented PHA synthesis will cease upon

glycogen depletion, then the TCA-oriented PHA synthesis can continue as it doesn't require glycogen

(Guedes da Silva et al., 2020; Yagci et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2009). The C-W model was chosen (Comeau

et al., 1986; Wentzel et al., 1989) as the representative stoichiometry of TCA-oriented metabolism for its

wide adoption in other EBPR models. The Mino model (Mino et al., 1998; Smolders et al., 1995) was

used as the glycolysis-oriented stoichiometry. Note that both the Mino model and C-W model require

the presence of polyP for PAO's anaerobic PHA synthesis, making the same restriction in iEBPR. This

implies that iEBPR does not allow GAO-like, polyP-independent metabolism in PAO cells, though it is still

controversial in observation (Acevedo et al., 2012; Guedes da Silva et al., 2020). Furthermore, the

glycolysis-oriented pathway was assumed to be prioritized due to its higher carbon efficiency than the

TCA-oriented PHA synthesis (Guedes da Silva et al., 2020). To model the leveraged PHA synthesis rate,

the following modifications are applied:

$$q_{PHA,glycogen} = M_{glycogen} M_{other} q_{PHA}$$

$$q_{PHA,TCA} = s(1 - M_{glycogen}) M_{other} q_{PHA}$$

, where $q_{PHA,glycogen}$ and $q_{PHA,TCA}$ are the adjusted PHA synthesis rates contributed by glycolysis-

oriented and TCA-oriented metabolism respectively; $M_{glycogen}$ is the Monod function related to

glycogen availability; M_{other} is an aggregated term of other applicable rate modifiers used in ASM2; and

q_{PHA} is intrinsic PHA synthesis rate. The combined effect of these two PHA synthesis rates can simulate

the employment of these two metabolism pathways in various degrees observed in previous studies

(Comeau et al., 1986; Hesselmann et al., 2000; Lanham et al., 2013; Maurer et al., 1997; Mino et al.,

1998; Pereira et al., 1996; Pijuan et al., 2008; Smolders et al., 1995; Wentzel et al., 1989; Yagci et al.,

2003; Zhou et al., 2009). The binary parameter s (possible values are 0 and 1) is a phenotype indicator,

for which 1 indicates an agent that can switch from glycolysis to TCA-oriented metabolism and 0 for

being restricted to glycolysis-only. The relative abundance of agent subphenotypes can represent the

relative abundance of PAO subphenotypes in real sludge, which enables the simulation of the

coexistence and competition between these two subphenotypes. To our knowledge, this feature is

exclusive to agent-based modeling and iEBPR is the first model to incorporate this into EBPR modeling.

iEBPR Model Calibration

iEBPR was first calibrated with a set of data retrieved from a previous 8-day anaerobic starvation study

in a lab-scale Accumulibacter-enriched (~85% reported abundance) EBPR system (Lu et al., 2007). The

initial contents of glycogen, PHA, and polyP were derived from the above literature using the empirical

PAO biomass formula $CH_{1.93}O_{0.53}N_{0.2}$ (Zeng et al., 2003). Gradient descent was used to automate the

calibration of PAO and GAO anaerobic kinetic parameters. Briefly, the root mean square errors (RMSEs)

of PHA, glycogen, orthoP, and MLVSS lysis (estimated by NH_4^+-N release) were calculated respectively;

their geometric mean was used as the aggregated loss function (error measure). Geometric mean was

used rather than arithmetic mean to arise the sensitivity of MLVSS lysis (NH_4^+-N release), which is two-

magnitude smaller than orthoP. The calibration process takes a randomly generated parameter set as

the start point and keeps adjusting the parameter values by small steps to reduce RMSE until no better

parameter set can be found nearby (i.e. reached local minimum). Since local minima are sensitive to the

initial parameter set, the above process was repeated 10,000 times with random initialization, and the

best result was considered as the optimized parameter set. Other coefficients not subject to this

calibration such as yields, were set the values from previous studies or the ASM2 model defaults (Lopez-

Vazquez et al., 2009; Smolders et al., 1994b; Zeng et al., 2003). **Table S4-6** shows the final parameter set

for PAOs and OHOs respectively, and unit conversions are shown in **Note S7**. The performance of the

iEBPR model with calibrated parameter set was compared to conventional EBPR (calibrated separately).

Cellular-level Experimental Observations via Single-cell Raman Micro-spectroscopy for Model

Verification

Previous studies proposed single-cell Raman micro-spectroscopy (SCRS) to be a promising technology in

estimating the glycogen, PHA, and polyP in individual cells, to further reveal the polymer distributions at

both cellular and population levels (Y. Li et al., 2018; Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2020, p. 20,

2010). This phenotypic survey data is comparable with the polymer distribution predicted by agent-

based modeling (Bucci et al., 2012).

SCRS dataset acquisition. An SCRS dataset was first acquired individually for each sludge sample based

on the method detailed in previous studies (Gu et al., 2018; Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2011;

Wang et al., 2019a). Briefly, 1 mL of MLSS was washed twice with 0.9% (w/v) NaCl solution and

homogenized by passing in and out of a 26-gauge needle and syringe for at least 20 times to obtain

uniform distribution of cells, as described previously. Then 6-8 drops of the disrupted sample were

spread and dried on aluminum-coated slides (EMF Corp., Ithaca, US). After that, the slide was dipped

into ice-cold Milli-Q water several times to remove salt particles and dried with filtered nitrogen gas. For

each sample, Raman spectra for at least 80 single cells were acquired using a multiline confocal Raman

spectrometer (LabRam HR Evolution, Horiba Jobin Yvon, Kyoto, Japan) configured with a 532 nm Nd:YAG

laser and a 600 gr/mm grating. A 100× long working distance objective with a numerical aperture (NA)

of 0.9 and a working distance of 0.21 mm was used to observe and collect Raman signals from single

cells. The acquisition time for each spectrum was 20 seconds per cell and the laser power was set to

10%. Spectra were collected with scans from 400 cm^{-1} to 1800 cm^{-1}.

SCRS data processing. Raman spectra processing and polymer relative abundance calculation were

detailed in previous studies (Gu et al., 2018; Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2011; Wang et al.,

2019a). All Raman spectra were processed using cosmic spike removal, smoothing, background

subtraction, and baseline correction using LabSpec 6 software (Horiba Jobin Yvon, Kyoto, Japan). Quality

control was conducted by excluding the spectra showing unexpected signals (damaged) or low SNR, or

lack of major characteristic peaks from bacterial components such as phenylalanine (~1002 cm^{-1}) and

amide I (~1657 cm^{-1}). The candidate PAO and GAO populations were quantified based on the different

combinations of intracellular polymeric inclusions, including poly-P (band at 690-700 cm^{-1} for P-O-P

vibrations and band at 1168-1177 cm^{-1} for PO_2^- stretching band), PHAs (bands at ~434 cm^{-1},~839 cm^{-1},

and ~1723 cm^{-1}), and glycogen (bands at ~480 cm^{-1},~852 cm^{-1}, and ~938 cm^{-1}), as described previously

(Majed and Gu, 2020). The relative content of poly-P, PHAs, and glycogen in each candidate PAO and

GAO cell were evaluated based on the intensity of the bands at 1168-1177 cm^{-1}, ~1723 cm^{-1}, and ~480

cm^{-1}, respectively (normalized against the intensity of the amide I band). The polymer distribution in

PAO and GAO species was then estimated based on the polymer relative abundances within PAO and

GAO candidate cells collected in each sample respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

iEBPR Model Calibrations against Anaerobic Starvation Batch Testing Results

iEBPR was calibrated against the temporal profile of orthophosphate and residual ammonia

concentration and bulk measurements of intracellular glycogen and PHA using data extracted from (Lu

et al., 2007, p. 200) (**Figure 1, Table 1**). The results showed that the sequential polymer usage and

staged maintenance-decay as incorporated by the iEBPR performed quantitatively better than

iAlgae/ASM2, in predicting the temporal profiles of orthoP release, cell lysis (NH_4^+-N release), glycogen,

and PHA. Based on the experimental observations (**Figure 1**), the 8-day anaerobic starvation could be

divided into 4 phases: (1) Glycogen degradation phase featuring fast glycogen reservoir depletion within

the first day, accompanied by corresponding quick PHA formation and a relatively small amount of P

release from polyP consumption; (2) Accelerated polyP consumption and P release, coupled with

continuous glycogen degradation until its depletion. The majority of PHA accumulation (>90%) was done

by the end of this phase in comparison to the final value observed at the end of this 8-day testing. The

biomass (85% PAO) decay was also slight in this phase; (3) Deceleration of phosphate release indicated

the slowing-down utilization of polyP, likely due to its near-depletion. The acceleration of NH_4^+-N release

also indicated a transition of PAO endogenous metabolism and a starting of cell lysis. The acceleration

then deceleration of orthoP release from Phase (1)-(3) resembled an S-shaped curve of orthoP

concentration profile (**Figure 1**), indicating a transition in ATP source from glycogen to polyP based on

glycogen availability. This transition was predicted by iEBPR but not by iAlgae/ASM2 which lacks the key

mechanisms, such as sequential polymer usage.

Figure 2 shows the detailed ATP productions suggesting a preference for glycogen priority over polyP for

cell maintenance in this sludge. This was accompanied by the transition from glycogen-oriented to

polyP-oriented cell maintenance, combined to achieve a cell maintenance rate at 2.1×10^{-3} mol

ATP/(C-mol VSS·hr), which was comparable with values from other studies (**Table 1**). Calibration also

suggested that only a very small portion of PAOs (< 1%) can switch to TCA-oriented PHA synthesis in this

particular sludge, in agreement with the results found in the original experiment where no significant

PHA formation was observed after glycogen depletion (Lu et al., 2007).

Figure 1. Model comparison between iEBPR and conventional EBPR in predicting the temporal profile of (A)

orthoP and NH_4^+-N (cell decay indicator), and (B) intracellular glycogen and PHA, with experimental data

acquired from an acetate-fed lab-scale EBPR system with approximately 85% Accumulibacter-PAOs during an

8-day anaerobic starvation batch test by (Lu et al., 2007). Time phases (1)-(4) indicate the four stages

observed during the batch test: (1) rapid glycogen degradation; (2) transition stage from glycogen to polyP;

(3) polyP utilization; and (4) polyP depletion stage with on-set of significant NH_4^+-N release (cell lysis).

356 **Table 1.** Modeling accuracy comparison in root mean square error (RMSE) between iEBPR and conventional

357 EBPR (iAlgae/ASM2). Observation data was acquired from an 8-day anaerobic starvation test of an acetate-

358 fed PAO-enriched (about 85%) lab-scale sludge by (Lu et al., 2007).

Model	RMSE			
	PO_4-P	NH_4^+-N	PHA	Glycogen
	mgP/L	mgN/L	C-mol/L	C-mol/L
iEBPR* (this study)	5.98	0.18	0.34	0.12
iAlgae/ASM2(Bucci et al., 2012; Henze et al., 2001)	33.0	1.08	0.34	0.19

* Improved with staged maintenance-decay, sequential polymer usage in anaerobic cell maintenance, and

glycolysis-TCA pathway switching.

Sequential polymer usage predicted PAO-GAO competition more accurately. Sequential polymer usage

proposed a correction to the overestimation of anaerobic PAO intracellular polymer degradation. In

comparison to the iAlgae which uses first-order decay kinetics, iEBPR estimated significantly less polyP

degradation in the first three days during the batch testing (**Figure 1A**). The first-order polyP usage (used

by iAlgae/ASM2) in cell maintenance failed to reflect the observed ATP production transition from

glycogen to polyP-dependent, resulting in excessive polyP degradation when glycogen was still ample.

The maximum polyP degradation overestimation was around 56 mgP/L in comparison to the

observation data at the end of day 2 (**Figure 1**). This overestimation could significantly underestimate

the PAO's competitive advantage against GAO, particularly in the first 24 hrs. This could potentially

explain the reason for conventional models like ASM2 to underestimate full-scale S2EBPR performances

where prolonged anaerobic conditions are more relevant. A dedicated sequential polymer usage can

therefore correct this overestimation and predict PAO anaerobic competition advantages more

accurately.

Figure 2. Comparison of model predictions and experimental observations of glycogen-contributed (A) and polyP-contributed (B) ATP during an 8-day anaerobic starvation testing with acetate-fed lab-scale EBPR system containing about 85% as Accumulibacter-PAOs (used as calibration dataset) by (Lu et al., 2007). The iEBPR developed in this study is designed with sequential anaerobic maintenance polymer usage, staged maintenance-decay, and glycolysis-TCA pathway switch; conventional EBPR (iAlgae/ASM2 (Bucci et al., 2012; Henze et al., 2001)) uses the same first-order decay.

Staged maintenance-decay predicted PAO-GAO competition more accurately. The staged maintenance-decay mechanism predicted more accurate cell decay kinetics, indicating an improved PAO anaerobic competitive advantage in comparison to first-order cell decay in iAlgae/ASM2 (**Figure 1&2,**

Table 1) The observation data showed an acceleration in NH_4^+-N release at the end of day 4, which is

adopted by other studies as a cell lysis indicator (Gujer, 1994; Lu et al., 2007). iEBPR could account for

this acceleration using the hypothetical staged maintenance-decay mechanism, as shown in **Figure 1**.

The calibrated PAO specific decay rate was 0.007/d, close to the reported value of 0.006/d from the

literature. In comparison, iAlgae/ASM2 using conventional first-order decay cannot come up with a

parameter value to comply with both short-term and long-term NH_4^+-N release predictions. For long-

term (at the end of day 8) fit, a decay rate of 0.0028/d had to be used. Despite that this value was 53%

below the literature value of 0.006/d, it caused a significant NH_4^+-N release overprediction of 1.91mg/L

on day 4 (**Figure 1**) at the same time due to the assumption of always-occurring cell lysis implied by the

first-order decay. In comparison, the relevant iEBPR prediction was 0.89mg/L, being much closer to the

observed value of 0.60mg/L. Therefore, using more detailed cell decay kinetics, such as staged

maintenance-decay could be crucial to improving the model performance and accuracy to simulate

S2EBPR systems that have extended anaerobic incubation SRT.

iEBPR Model Validation Case Study: Simulating PAO and GAO Competition under Extended Anaerobic

Incubation Using Full-scale S2EBPR Sludge

Model prediction at the bulk level. The calibrated model was then used to simulate an independent

anaerobic incubation batch testing similar to the conditions in the side-stream reactor in S2EBPR

systems (Gu et al., 2018). The testing sludge was sampled from the side-stream fermentation reactor (in

SSR configuration) of the South Cary Water Reclamation Facility (Apex, North Carolina) as described by

(Gu et al., 2018) and (Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020a). It was estimated to contain 6.9% biovolume as

Accumulibacter-PAOs and 1.1% as known GAOs by fluoresces *in situ* hybridization (FISH) (Gu et al.,

2018). The model results were compared against the results from the batch tests that were conducted

as a 72-hr anaerobic incubation without external VFA feeding, and the residual orthoP, residual VFA,

MLSS glycogen, and PHA were monitored and measured at 0, 6, 12, 18, 24, 36 and 72 hours since the

beginning of this incubation. The model was fitted to these temporal profiles with adjustment on the

PAO/GAO/OHO composition, polymer contents, and the proportion of glycolysis-TCA switchable PAO

phenotype. In addition, OHOs' cell decay rate was also adjusted to the experimentally identified value.

All other kinetic and stoichiometric parameters were set identical to the lab-scale sludge calibration

results as described above in the previous section without further calibrations. GAO's kinetic and

stoichiometric parameters were set identical to PAO's except for the yield ratio of PHA from VFA uptake,

for which literature value derived from their glycogen-only metabolism was used (Lopez-Vazquez et al.,

2009; Zeng et al., 2003).

Figure 3. iEBPR simulation results of (A) residual orthoP and residual VFA, and (B) intracellular PHA and

intracellular glycogen temporal profile in comparison to the experimental observations in a 72-hour

anaerobic incubation batch testing. The tested activated sludge was sampled from a full-scale S2EBPR system

(SSR configuration, South Cary WRF, Apex, NC), containing 6.9% as Accumulibacter-PAO, 1.1% as GAOs

(estimated in biovolume by FISH). iEBPR incorporates three improved mechanisms: sequential polymer usage

in cell maintenance, staged maintenance-decay, and PAO glycolysis-TCA pathway switch, all designed for

S2EBPR-like extended anaerobic incubations.

Figure 3 shows that the observed bulk measurements agreed well with the predicted temporal profiles

of residual orthoP, residual VFA, total intracellular PHA, and glycogen during the anaerobic batch testing

with S2EBPR sludge. The OHO decay rate was calculated to be 0.0076/d based on the VFA requirement

to fit observed anaerobic metabolism, balanced by the stoichiometry of P release, glycogen

consumption, and PHA formation. The model predicted a transitioning at around 45 hours from the

high-rate active P release coupling a significant PHA synthesis phase to the second phase with a slower

increase in both PHA and residual P. Calculated yield ratio of the active P release to PHA formation from

0-36 hours was 1.16 mol-P/C-mol PHA, which is comparable and within the range of 0.78-1.22 mol-P/C-

mol PHA reported for S2EBPR sludge (Lanham et al., 2013) and it is higher than the typical range 0.36-

0.77 mol-P/C-mol PHA for conventional A/O enriched sludge (Filipe et al., 2001a; Hu et al., 2007;

Smolders et al., 1994a; Yagci et al., 2003). This high orthoP release is likely related to PAO metabolism as

the orthoP release transition correlated with PHA formation, and potentially calls for adjustments and

updates to the conventional PAO PHA synthesis stoichiometry for S2EBPR alike conditions. Overall,

these bulk-level assessments demonstrated the general agreement of the model with mixture culture-

level observations, though more detailed insights into the polymer fate and distribution at population

and cellular levels that better reflect the competition between PAOs and GAOs could not be deduced.

Model prediction at the cell group level. The capability of inspecting intracellular polymer distribution at

cell group resolution provided by the agent-based model enables an explicit way to further validate the

proposed mechanisms related to polymer-dependent maintenance and staged maintenance-decay.

SCRS was employed to measure and reveal the dynamics of intracellular polymers in PAOs and GAOs

that ultimately dictate their competition, and they were compared against the agent-based model

results. The initial distributions of PAOs' and GAOs' intracellular polymers, namely polyP and glycogen in

PAOs and glycogen in GAOs, were fitted to the observed distribution following (Bucci et al., 2012)

protocol. The model predicted polymer distributions were summarized from the agent polymer contents

at 0, 6, 12, 24, 36, and 72 hours, and were compared with the SCRS observations at respective time

points (Y. Li et al., 2018; Majed et al., 2009; Majed and Gu, 2010). The comparison between the model-

predicted distributions against RCRS observations were shown in **Figure 4**. The accurate prediction of

the EBPR-related intracellular polymer distribution changes indicates that the agent-based simulation in

iEBPR can effectively track those polymer dynamics, emphasizing that our proposed maintenance-delay

mechanism can be applied at the cell-group level and resolution.

 Figure 4. Comparison of model predicted polyP and glycogen dynamics in PAO and GAO cells with the observed

 dynamics acquired by Raman single-cell micro-spectroscopy (dots) during a 72-hr anaerobic incubation batch

 testing (this study). Tested sludge was sampled from a full-scale S2EBPR system (SSR configuration, South Cary

 WRF, Apex, NC)

 Figure 5. Comparison of model predicted polyP and glycogen dynamics in PAO and GAO cells with the observed

 dynamics acquired by Raman single-cell micro-spectroscopy during a 72-hr anaerobic incubation batch testing (this

 study). Polymer contents were normalized to their initial content at the beginning of this batch testing. Tested

 sludge was sampled from a full-scale S2EBPR system (SSR configuration, South Cary WRF, Apex, NC).

 PAO's competitive advantage with polymer utilization versatility. It was hypothesized that the

 extended anaerobic condition and other factors in S2EBPR give PAOs more competitive advantages over

 GAOs (Carvalheira et al., 2014; Tooker et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019b) Our results suggested that PAO's

 more versatile polymer storage and metabolism were probable contributing factors to this advantage.

 Figure 5 showed a glycogen depletion in GAO cells at around 36 hrs, with 97.2% of the initial storage

already consumed. GAOs, therefore, transitioned into the decay status earlier than PAO because

glycogen is the only energy source for their cell maintenance. In comparison, 33.9% of initial polyP and

25.3% of initial glycogen (19.3% and 30.3% as predicted by iEBPR respectively) were still available to

PAOs for cell maintenance at 36 hours, with ~92% and ~16% of PAO cells still had detectable

intracellular polyP and glycogen for cell maintenance as confirmed by the SCRS measurements. This

indicated that the majority of PAO cells remained in the cell maintenance phase rather than

transitioning into decay and lysis at 36 hrs. The model predicted ~1.6% cumulative GAO biomass loss, in

comparison to ~1.2% PAO biomass decay. The possession and ability of PAOs to sequentially use

multiple polymers enable its endurance to prolonged anaerobic conditions as shown in our study and

previous studies (Carvalheira et al., 2014; Onnis-Hayden et al., 2020a; Vargas et al., 2013) likely

contributed to PAOs' competitive advantage over GAOs under S2EBPR conditions.

Modeling glycolysis-TCA pathway switch and PAO phenotype relative abundances. iEBPR provides a

direct way to model, calibrate, and simulate the proportion of different PAO subphenotypes. Two PAO

subphenotypes were modeled in iEBPR, (1) the glycolysis-TCA switchable PAO phenotype which

switches to TCA-oriented metabolism and continues PHA synthesis when polyP is present, but glycogen

is depleted, and (2) the glycolysis-only phenotype which the PHA synthesis will cease and transition into

cell maintenance/decay when glycogen is depleted. The two subphenotypes coexist in iEBPR and by

calibrating the abundance parameter of respective phenotype agents we can explicitly investigate and

estimate the relative abundances of these two PAO subphenotypes within the activated sludge. Our

result showed a dominance of glycolysis-TCA switchable phenotype, being calibrated to be 98.5%. The

PHA accumulation would have been significantly less than the experiment observation when the cells

were assumed to be strictly glycolysis-dependent, especially after the depletion of glycogen (**Figure 6**),

in comparison to the calibrated fit when allowing glycolysis-TCA switching (**Figure 3**). This result agreed

with previous observations that S2EBPR conditions potentially favor such PAO subphenotypes indicated

by high anaerobic TCA cycle activity (Lanham et al., 2013). It is worth noting that iEBPR chose the C-W

model to represent the TCA-oriented metabolic stoichiometry. In reality, it is a much more complex

metabolic network composed of various shunts and branches (D Brdjanovic et al., 1998; He and

McMahon, 2011; Hesselmann et al., 2000; Martin et al., 2006; Schuler and Jenkins, 2003; Wilmes et al.,

2008; Yagci et al., 2003). A major challenge to modeling this complex metabolic network is to reliably

determine the relative contribution of reducing power from each shunt and branch, which requires

further elucidation by further experimental evidence.

Figure 6. Modified iEBPR simulation restricting PAO cells to use glycolysis-only PHA synthesis resulted in

significantly underpredicted PHA accumulation than observation. The tested activated sludge was sampled

from a full-scale S2EBPR system (SSR configuration, South Cary WRF, Apex, NC), containing 6.9% as

Accumulibacter-PAO, 1.1% as GAOs (estimated in biovolume by FISH). iEBPR incorporates three improved

mechanisms: sequential polymer usage in cell maintenance, staged maintenance-decay, and PAO glycolysis-

TCA pathway switch (disabled in this simulation), all designed for S2EBPR-like extended anaerobic

incubations.

In addition, we acknowledge the limitations of iEBPR as an assessment tool to further resolve PAO

phenotypes. First, non-Accumulibacter PAOs are not considered in iEBPR, such as the genus

Tetrasphaera which does not accumulate PHA anaerobically (Fernando et al., 2019; Kristiansen et al.,

2013). Therefore, we made the model framework expandable to incorporate new species in the future.

Second, iEBPR does not account for "inert" polyP content that is experimentally observed (Barker and

Dold, 1997). This could partially explain the remaining detectable polyP content persisted through the

entire 72-hr incubation period (**Figure 4**). Third, iEBPR highly relies on measurements at the single-cell

level resolution to accurately model the metabolic activity of an integrated microbial population.

Breakthroughs in SCRS-based polymer quantification methods were still in demand to improve detection

sensitivity and accuracy. Finally, competition on the substrates is the only modeled interaction between

agents in iEBPR. Other interactions, either mutualistic or competitive, intraspecies or interspecies, are

not considered in iEBPR but are common in the microbial ecology of activated sludge. More

sophisticated SCRS datasets are required to reveal their effects which are beyond the scope of this

study.

CONCLUSION

iEBPR, an agent-based model that incorporates the sequential polymer usage, staged maintenance-

decay processes, and glycolysis-TCA pathway shift, was developed, calibrated and validated using both

bulk batch test experimental data and high-resolution cellular and population-level measurements

enabled by SCRS.

• iEBPR improves the simulation accuracy on S2EBPR systems, where a longer anaerobic S2EBPR

SRT may lead to more pronounced PAO-GAO anaerobic competition mechanisms that differ

from those in play in conventional EBPR systems (e.g. A2O configuration).

• iEBPR revealed that under extended anaerobic conditions as in S2EBPR, the possession and

versatile ability of PAOs to sequentially use different intracellular polymers (glycogen and polyP)

as energy sources give them the competitive advantages over GAOs, as the results of longer

survival with longer maintenance state and later on-set of cell decay than GAOs that can only

utilize glycogen.

• iEBPR incorporates three newly proposed aspects, namely sequential polymer usage, staged

maintenance-decay processes, and glycolysis-TCA pathway switch, which allows more accurate

and higher-resolved simulation of the competition between PAO subphenotypes under

anaerobic conditions.

• The combination of the agent-based model of coexistence of PAO subphenotypes of key

populations and, SCRS-resolved intracellular polymer quantification allowed experimental

verification of the proposed metabolic mechanisms at both population and cell group levels in

activated sludge.

• iEBPR can be applied to facilitate and optimize the design and operations of S2EBPR for

improved simulations of nutrient removal and recovery from wastewater.

Further studies are still in demand to improve iEBPR, including non-Accumulibacter PAOs, nitrogen-

related metabolism and organisms, and modeling more diverse and comprehensive biological

interactions between organisms.

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