Bioflocculant BF-R1 production by Bacillus sp. R1 using wheat bran hydrolysate and its application in wastewater treatment

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Abstract: Bioflocculants are commonly used in wastewater treatment. In this study, an efficient bioflocculant-producing strain, Bacillus sp. R1, was isolated and identified; strain R1 could efficiently produce bioflocculant BF-R1 with wheat bran hydrolysate. The characteristics and flocculation mechanisms of BF-R1 were determined and it was then applied for the granular carbon particles treatment in wastewater. Notably, 3.71 g of BF-R1 were produced when 200 mL/L wheat bran hydrolysate was used as the sole carbon and nitrogen source. BF-R1 contained polysaccharides, proteins, and glycoproteins and showed a good flocculating efficiency of 91.00% for granular carbon particles in contaminated wastewater when 3.50 g/L BF-R1 was added, thus achieving successful recycling of fine particle-contaminated wastewater. Taken together, our findings for the first time demonstrate that BF-R1 fermented using WBH can probably be a promising candidate agent for wastewater management processes.

Keywords: Bioflocculant, Bacillus sp. R1, wheat bran hydrolysate, granular carbon particles, flocculation efficiency

1 Introduction

Granular carbon is an inexpensive material frequently serving as bio carrier or adsorbent for heavy metals and organic compounds in wastewater treatment process (Cornelissen et al., 2005). Granular activated carbon addition into the batch-mode anaerobic sludge digestion reactor could significantly accelerate substrate consumption and methane production (Yang et al., 2017). Biochar derived from rice straw can form carbon-bacteria complexes (Zhao et al., 2015). Hence, fine particle grading, separation, and recycling, related to economic benefits and environmental effects, require great attention and in-depth study.

Fine carbon particles may act as a condensation nucleus of organic substances, therefore, flocculation or coagulation can alternatively be used to increase the particle sizes and then enhance the settling rates and separation process (Vijayalakshmi and Raichur, 2003). Flocculating agents are widely used in various industrial fields including wastewater treatment, dredging, and fermentation processes (Kurane et al., 1986). Flocculants synthesized by conventional chemical methods, such as aluminum sulfate and polyethyleneimine, have many drawbacks (e.g., biotoxicity, narrow applicability, and lack of degradability). Whereas, bioflocculants, secreted by microbes during their growth, are usually biodegradable and environmentally friendly and are adaptable to pH variation (Salehizadeh and Shojaosadati, 2001). They have wide industrial applications in various wastewater treatment processes including sludge dewatering and swine wastewater pretreatment (Guo and Ma, 2015), heavy metal treatment (Abdel-Halim and Al-Deyab, 2011), and tannery wastewater containing organic materials (Yang et al., 2015). For example, Wu et al. reported that granular activated carbon in the hybrid microfiltration process appeared to release micro- and nanoscaled fine carbon particles, which would form potential foulants (Wu et al., 2015). These fine carbon particles are cut down by hydrodynamic shear forces and form carbon-bacteria complexes (Zhao et al., 2015). Hence, fine particle grading, separation, and recycling, related to economic benefits and environmental effects, require great attention and in-depth study.

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suspended fine particles.

Despite these advantages, the practical application of bioflocculants for the remediation of toxins in polluted aquatic environments has been proven challenging. Effective strains that can be cultivated in low-cost medium with maximum rates of bioflocculant production and auto-flocculating strains that can be harvested are both attractive research topics (Zhuang et al., 2012; Lee and Chang, 2018). The bioflocculant fermentation of *Rhodococcus* sp. R3 was optimized by active sludge alkaline-thermal treatment, with chemical oxygen demand and ammonium removal rates of 87.9% and 86%, respectively (Guo et al., 2013). Hydrolysates of other agricultural wastes, such as corn stover (Wang et al., 2013) and peanut hulls (Liu et al., 2016), have also been applied as inexpensive carbon sources for bioflocculants production. Guo et al. prepared a bioflocculant from hydrolysed rice stover using diluted sulfuric acid and hypothesized that the charge neutralization and inter-particle bridging led to the enhanced performance (Guo et al., 2015).

The increasing global demand for sustainable resources necessitates the effective utilization of agro-wastes. Wheat bran, an inexpensive substrate, is produced worldwide in large quantities (approximately > 150 million tons) as a by-product of white wheat flour milling for human consumption (Prückler et al., 2014; Bergmans et al., 1996). Moreover, wheat bran contains nutrients, such as non-starch polysaccharides, starch, proteins, and lignin (Maes and Delcour, 2001). *Clostridium beijerinckii* ATCC 55025 could produce 11.8 g/L ABE (acetone, butanol and ethanol) with the hydrolysate of wheat bran pretreated with dilute sulfuric acid as the substrate (Liu et al., 2010). Moreover, it was reported that alkali pretreated wheat bran could be a great potential alternative feedstock with no further detoxification for polyhydroxybutyrate production (Annamalai and Sivakumar, 2016). However, there was little research focused on using wheat bran hydrolysate as an economical and environmental friendly way for bioflocculant production.

In this study, we isolated a novel bioflocculant-producing strain, *Bacillus* sp. R1, from activated sludge sludge, determined the optimal fermentation conditions with wheat bran hydrolysate as substrate, evaluated the characteristics of the bioflocculant BF-R1, and subsequently examined its applications in granular biochar particles removal. According to our literature research, no previous report has investigated the use of wheat bran hydrolysate in bioflocculant production.

### 2 Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Materials

NP (CAS 84852-15-3, molecular weight: 220.35) was purchased from Aladdin Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Wheat bran and granular carbon were purchased from Jinhua (Zhejiang, China). All other general compounds were of analytical grade.

#### 2.2 Isolation and Identification of the Bioflocculant-Producing Strain

Activated sludge was collected from a wastewater treatment plant (Wenzhou, Zhejiang, China) and used to isolate strains capable of producing bioflocculants. Generally, one millilitre of sludge sample was serially diluted using sterilized distilled water, and then spread onto 0.5×-Luria-Bertani (LB) medium agar plates containing (per L) 5.0 g tryptone, 2.5 g yeast extract, 5.0 g sodium chloride, and 20 g agar. The formed single colonies were inoculated into 100 mL liquid flocculating strain screening (FSS) medium and incubated in a rotary shaker at 200 rpm and 30 °C for 24 h. The FSS medium was prepared as previously described (Yang et al., 2015) and contained (per L): 0.5 g glucose, 0.5 g starch, 0.5 g yeast extract, 0.5 g peptone, 0.5 g casein, 0.3 g K₂HPO₄, and 0.05 g MgSO₄·7H₂O (pH 7.0). Ultimately, four large and viscous colonies were chosen and stored at -80 °C in 20% glycerol.

The strain showing the highest flocculation efficiency, named R1, was selected for further investigation. The genomic DNA of R1 was extracted using a Genomic DNA Kit (Sangon Biotech Co. Ltd.) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Universal bacterial primers 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGCTCAG-3') and 1492R (5'-TACGGTTACCTGTTACGACTT-3') were used to amplify the 16S rDNA gene with the following PCR program: predenaturation at 95 °C for 5 min; 30 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 55 °C for 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 90 s; and a final step at 72 °C for 5 min. After purification, the PCR product was sequenced (Sangon Biotech Co. Ltd., Shanghai, China). And the acquired sequence was blasted against the references sequences in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database. Multiple sequence alignments were conducted using CLUSTALX 2.0 software and a phylogenetic tree was then constructed using the neighbor-joining method with MEGA 6.0 software.

#### 2.3 Flocculating Activity Assay

The flocculating activity was determined by measuring the flocculation efficiency in jar tests according to previous studies (Zhuang et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2015). 15 mg CaCl₂ and 2.0 mg bioflocculant were added to a 100 mL kaolin suspension (5.0 g/L) after the pH adjustment to 7.5 using NaOH or HCl. The reaction mixture was stirred thoroughly for 5 min and then allowed to settle for 5 min. Following this, the optical density (OD) of the clarified solution was measured using a spectrophotometer (7320G; Shanghai, China) at 550 nm. A control experiment was conducted in the same manner without the bioflocculant addition. Flocculation activity was
calculated as described:

\[ FE(\%) = \left( \frac{A_0 - A_t}{A_0} \right) \times 100 \]  

(1)

Where: \( A_0 \) and \( A_t \) are the OD_{550} values of control and the sample experiment, respectively; FE is the flocculation efficiency of the specified bioflocculant.

### 2.4 Preparation of the Wheat Bran Hydrolysate and Bioflocculant Production

Dried wheat bran was crushed into powder, sieved through 100-mesh screen, and stored in desiccators prior to hydrolysis by diluted sulfuric acid (1.7%, w/w) with a solid-liquid ratio of 1:10 (w/v) at 121 °C for 1.5 h. After cooling down, the slurry mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min. Then the supernatant was neutralized to 7.0 by Ca(OH)\(_2\) and the generated precipitates was removed by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm, 4 °C for 5 min. Subsequently, the supernatant was stored at 4 °C and used as the sole carbon and nitrogen source for bioflocculant production.

Strain R1 cultured in 0.5×LB medium at 30 °C overnight was treated as the seed broth. Two milliliters of seed culture were then inoculated into 500 mL of fermentation medium, which was consisted of different concentrations of wheat bran hydrolysate in minimum salt medium (MSM) prepared according to a previous study (Bai et al., 2016). The fermentation product was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm, 4 °C for 5 min to remove the cells after 12h’s incubation. Two volumes of pre-chilled ethanol were added into the supernatant to precipitate the bioflocculant. The resulting precipitate was washed with 75% ethanol and lyophilized to obtain the purified bioflocculant.

### 2.5 Characterization of the Bioflocculant

Saccharide, protein, and glycoprotein contents were identified according to the methods described by Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2016). Chemical characterization of the samples was analyzed by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR; Nicolet AVATAR 370; Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). And the sample spectrum was recorded on the spectrophotometer over a wave number range of 500–4000 cm\(^{-1}\). Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis (Q2000 V24.11) was conducted to characterize the thermal behaviors of the bioflocculant under a nitrogen gas flow of 80 mL/min and a heating rate of 20 °C/min from 20 °C to 280 °C.

### 2.6 Fine Carbon Particles Removal in Wastewater

The dried carbon was crushed into powder and sieved through a 100-mesh screen. Then 150 mg/L granular carbon was poured into flasks containing 500 mg/L NP and cultured at 150 rpm and 25 °C for 30 min. Next, different amount of bioflocculant was added; the flasks were stirred at 150 rpm for 10 min and then allowed to settle for 30 min. The upper phase was then sampled in order to measure the residual amount of NP in the aqueous phase after absorption and flocculation by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) as previously described (Bai et al., 2017). All measurements were conducted in triplicate. Flocculation activity was observed by measuring the absorbance variation at 550 nm. Furthermore, the morphologies of BF-R1 and the flocculated/non-flocculated granular carbon were characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (JEOL JSM 5600 LV, Japan).

### 2.7 Statistical Analysis

Results were presented as mean value ± standard deviation (SD) of the three replicates. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Least Significant Difference (LSD) test was performed using SPSS 16.0 software (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA) to determine significant differences in all the parameters. Values were considered to be statistically significant at \( p < 0.05 \). Figures were prepared using ORIGIN 8.0 (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA).

### 3 Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Isolation and Identification of Bioflocculant-Producing Strain

In this study, a bacterial strain, possessing relatively high flocculant productivity was isolated from activated sewage sludge (NCBI database accession number MH470262). After 16S rDNA alignment and BLAST, it showed that this strain was phylogenetically closely related to Bacillus amyloliquefaciens (Figure 1). Thus, we named this bacterium strain was phylogenetically closely related to Bacillus amyloliquefaciens as BF-R1. Bacteria strains capable of fermenting biofloculants, including Rhodococcus erythropolis (Guo and Ma, 2015), Ochrobacterum ciceri (Wang et al., 2013), Paenibacillus jamilae (Zhong et al., 2018), Sphingomonas yabuuchae (Zhong et al., 2014), Pseudomonas veronii (Liu et al., 2016), and Bacillus subtilis (Wu and Ye, 2007), have been previously reported. Different fungi have also been shown to produce biofloculants, such as Levure casseeuse (Poelmans and Swinnen, 2011) and Aspergillus parasiticus (Deng et al., 2005). Different types of biofloculants can be applied in the disposal of heavy metal ions, drinking water, wastewater, and polluted soil. Guo et al. demonstrated that the biofloculant with a main backbone of polysaccharides efficiently removed 99.2% 2 mg/L arsenite (at 60 min) through bridging mechanisms (Guo and Chen, 2017).

#### 3.2 The Effect of Wheat Bran Hydrolysate Concentration on BF-R1 Production

Bioflocculant characteristics usually depends on the bacterial internal features, the compositions of culture medium, and environmental conditions (Giri et al., 2015). Higher
Agricultural waste is rich in lignocelluloses and its hydrolysate can be used as the sole carbon and nitrogen source for bioflocculant production. Notably, too high concentrations of wheat bran hydrolysate resulted in significant decrease of bioflocculant production, which may be due to inhibition of microbial activities by toxic by-products in the hydrolysate. It was found that the highest yield of bioflocculant (4.32 g/L) was achieved when 500 mL/L peanut hull hydrolysate and 3 g/L yeast extract were added to the fermentation medium (Liu et al., 2016); while the bioflocculant yield was only 1.25 g/L when the hydrolysate was reduced to 200 mL/L. Swine wastewater was used as raw materials and yielded 3.11 g/L bioflocculant after fermentation for 60 h at 30 °C and 150 rpm (Guo and Chen, 2017). Thus this procedure can be a novel way to reduce the material cost of bioflocculant production.

Figure 1. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree based on 16S rDNA gene sequences showing the evolutionary position of R1 using MEGA 6.0 software. Bootstrap values (percentages of 1000 replications) are shown at the branch points. The scale bar indicates 0.02 substitutions per nucleotide position (evolutionary distance).

The effect of pH on flocculant production was evaluated and presented in Figure 2C. Bacillus sp. R1 produced BF-R1 at a pH range of 5.0–8.5, with the highest flocculant production (3.71 g/L) at neutral pH. Cell growth may be inhibited under acidic or alkaline conditions, thus resulting in reduced concentrations of the extracellular flocculant. *Pseudomonas veronii* L918 exhibits the highest flocculating activity (91.67%) at pH 7.0 (Liu et al., 2016). The optimal conditions for *Sphingomonas yabuuchiae* SW-2 bioflocculant fermentation were 425 mg/L CODCr of chromotropic acid wastewater, an initial pH of 6.9, and inoculum size of 7.74% (Zhong et al., 2014). The salt-tolerant, alkaliphilic strain *Bacillus agaradhaerens* C9 exhibited the highest bioflocculant activity at pH 10.2 (Liu et al., 2015). Though different strains produced bioflocculant at specific pHs, too acidic or alkaline conditions may cause cellular stress, consequently leading to inhibition of bioflocculant production. Therefore, cultivation of bioflocculant-producing strain R1 using wheat bran hydrolysate had both economic and environmental benefits.

3.4 Characterization of Bioflocculant BF-R1

The Molisch’s test showed the purple ring between the concentrated H$_2$SO$_4$ layer and the bioflocculant layer in the test tube, indicating saccharides existence in BF-R1 (Table 1) (Yang et al., 2015). Saccharides generate furfural or its derivatives via dehydration by concentrated H$_2$SO$_4$; the derivatives would correspondingly react with $\alpha$-naphthol and generate purple substances. Saccharides are macromolecules and therefore their presence in the bioflocculant may help the bioflocculant bind with pollutants, such as granular carbon, in wastewater (Zhao et al., 2016). Many researches pointed that the bioflocculant main backbone was polysaccharides or proteins. For example, the bioflocculant fermented by *Bacillus* megaterium G04 with swine wastewater was composed of 85.5% polysaccharides, 14.3% proteins, and 0.2% sugars (Guo and Chen, 2017). Similarly, in this study, BF-R1 contained saccharides, proteins, and glycoproteins.

FTIR analysis (Figure 3) revealed a broad stretching peak near wavelength 3276.6 cm$^{-1}$, indicating the presence of pri-
Bioflocculant BF-R1 production by Bacillus sp. R1 using wheat bran hydrolysate and its application in wastewater treatment

Table 1. List of possible functional groups from fungal, wood, and wood-immobilized biomass involved in Pb(II) sorption.

| Identification experiment | Observed phenomenon | Interpretation       |
|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Molisch reaction          | Positive           | Contained saccharides|
| Biuret reaction           | Positive           | Contained proteins   |
| Anthrone reaction         | Positive           | Contained glycoproteins|

mary amino groups (–NH–), one of the main protein groups. Furthermore, the bending vibration peak for the primary amino group (–NH–) at wavelength 835.1 cm\(^{-1}\) indicated the presence of protein in the bioflocculant (Zhao et al., 2016). There was a peak of asymmetrical stretching vibration for –C=O– at 1652.8 cm\(^{-1}\), a peak of stretching vibration for –C–O– at 1066.5 cm\(^{-1}\), and a peak of bending vibration for –O–H– at 927.6 cm\(^{-1}\) (Guo et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2014; Ugbenyen et al., 2015). The peak at 1539.0 cm\(^{-1}\) for N-O bound indicated nitro compounds in BF-R1. An additional peak of stretching vibration for methyl and methylene at 2933.3 cm\(^{-1}\) and a peak of bending vibration for –C–H– around 1456.1 cm\(^{-1}\) were also detected (Zhao et al., 2016). In conclusion, FTIR analysis indicated the possible presence of proteins, saccharides, and lipids in the BF-R1 of Bacillus sp. R1 (El-Salam et al., 2017) and that the functional groups induced high binding capacity.

Thermal-stable bioflocculants are preferred for industrial applications (Shahadat et al., 2017). Thus, DSC analysis was performed to examine the thermal characteristics of BF-R1. DSC thermal analysis demonstrated a characteristic endothermic transition at 151.3 °C, which also indicated the melting point of the bioflocculant. Degradation began above 243.71 °C, indicating that the bioflocculant had good thermal stability, which enables an advantageous bioflocculant under various thermal conditions. The melting point of the bioflocculant from B. licheniformis WSF-1 was determined to be 200–207.5°C, suggesting that BF-R1 was more stable than previously reported bioflocculants (Jenny et al., 2018).

3.5 Application of BF-R1 for the Flocculation of Granular Carbon Particles

The micrographs of the morphological structure of granular carbon particles, purified BF-R1, and flocculated granular carbon particles covered by BF-R1 were analyzed using SEM (Figure 5). The pure BF-R1 appeared as relatively loose granular structure (Figure 5B), the interaction between BF-R1 and the granular carbon particles resulted into compacted floc formation (Figure 5C-D). Granular carbon particles were attached on the binding site of BF-R1, aggregated by the flocculant, and then precipitated into agglomeration of larger flocs.

BF-R1 was added to the reaction system after granular carbon absorbing NP in MSM for specific time periods. Both absorption and flocculation efficiency of granular carbon and the bioflocculant were measured. After 30–40 min, NP was almost completely cleared (99.85%) from the sample flasks (Figure 6). In terms of NP removal, there was a synergistic effect between BF-R1 and the granular carbon particles, as no flocculation on NP was observed with only BF-R1 (data not shown). The flocculant aggregated and precipitated the granular carbon particles and the carbon fines to a three-dimensional structure with a better settling capacity, thus accelerating NP absorption efficiency. The interaction of phenolic compounds with
activated carbon surface was site definite and monolayer adsorption (Hamdaoui and Naffrechoux, 2007); therefore, the addition of BF-R1 may facilitate granular particle flocculation and increase the surface area of the complex, thus promoting NP adsorption. Alternatively, the change of the net charge of the bioflocculant-carbon particle complex may also contribute to NP removal (Liu et al., 2016).

Nearly all of the fine particles (91.00%) were separated from the water at the dosage of 3.5 g/L BF-R1. Notably, the carbon fines were also significantly precipitated. Further increase of BF-R1 addition led to a gently decrease of flocculation activity (Figure S1), which may be caused by the increased electrostatic repulsion between the excessive bioflocculant chains. Additionally, the formerly formed flocs could be deflocculated due to the stronger repulsion force (Guo and Chen, 2017). Granular carbon particles are effective in adsorbing a wide range of organic compounds; meanwhile, carbon fines would reduce water quality because of turbidity and bacterial colonization (Zhao et al., 2015; Campe et al., 1986). Therefore, BF-R1 is capable of controlling the risk posed by granular carbon particles and carbon fines.

4 Conclusion

In this study, an efficient bioflocculant-producing strain, *Bacillus* sp. R1, was isolated; this strain fermented wheat bran hydrolysate into a highly efficient and absorbent bioflocculant. Our findings demonstrate, for the first time, bioflocculant production using wheat bran hydrolysate and its effective application in the flocculation of granular carbon particles and carbon fines, which are widely used in the treatment of organic pollutants. A yield of 3.71 g/L BF-R1 bioflocculant was achieved when 200 mL/L hydrolysate was used as the sole carbon and nitrogen source in 12 h; this would definitely reduce both raw material and time costs. Moreover, BF-R1 aggregated and precipitated the granular carbon particles and the carbon fines to a three-dimensional structure with a better settling capacity, thus accelerating NP absorption efficiency. As the characteristics and flocculation efficiency were examined at the lab-scale in this study, large-scale application tests are essential for industrial application of BF-R1.

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Conflict of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare. This study did not involve any human participants.

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3.6 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

Possible functional groups of fungal, wood, and wood-immobilized biomass applied in Pb(II) sorption were assessed through infrared spectroscopy seen in Figure 4. The FTIR spectra shown in Figure 5 depicts plausible Pb(II) binding sites in comparison to the biomass before and after Pb(II) treatment.
Bioflocculant BF-R1 production by *Bacillus* sp. R1 using wheat bran hydrolysate and its application in wastewater treatment

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