



Towards the biofilm characterization and regulation in biological wastewater treatment

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Abstract

There is an increasing need for application of biofilm process in the upcycling of wastewater treatment plants all around the world in recent years, yet there are few literatures on summarizing wastewater biofilm during the life cycle. In particular, there is a vacancy on characterization at various stages of biofilm and its regulation. This review provided a whole look at biofilm formation and its development, accompanied by microbial physiology, ecology, and activity, where the initialization of biofilm formation and its characterization were stressed. The new progresses on biofilm physio-ecology analysis and methods on evaluating microbial activity were summarized, while it is worth mentioning that the concept of aging biofilm was also presented. Furthermore, regulations methods of biofilm were reviewed and future research trends on biofilm control were prospected, aiming at guiding biofilm control in biofilm-based wastewater treatment.

Keywords Biofilm · Wastewater treatment · Biofilm formation · Microbial physio-ecology · Microbial activity · Biofilm regulation

Introduction

Biofilms are complex biostructures which adhere to surfaces of carriers (George et al. 2000). A biofilm consists of mixed microbes such as yeasts, fungi, and protozoa, and associated deposits enclosed in a self-produced extracellular polymeric substances (EPS). The presence of biofilms may have a harmful impact on a broad range of areas, specifically in the food, environmental, and biomedical fields (Flint et al. 1997; Maukonen et al. 2003; Sihorkar and Vyas 2001); however, it can be used beneficially in biological wastewater treatment. The biofilm provides structural integrity, bacterial protection of critical and sensitive microorganisms, intercellular communication, formation and maintenance of the microcolony, and capturing and consumption of nutrients, and is of vital importance for the performance of biofilm processing system (Boltz et al. 2017).

Biofilm process (also known as attached-growth process) has been widely used in biological wastewater treatment in the past few decades. In the biofilm wastewater treatment process, biofilms are attached to biocarriers and substrates such as biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), ammonia nitrogen, nitrate, dissolved O₂, and so on, and are delivered from bulk liquid to the interface. And then, the nutrients supplied are exploited to synthesize new generations of microbes and for metabolic consumption; thus, contaminants in the wastewater are removed. A wide variety of biofilm reactors have been developed and applied to deal with domestic sewage and a variety of industrial wastewater (Andreottola et al. 2002; Odegaard et al. 1993), such as biological contact oxidation tank (Zhang et al. 2015), biological rotating disc (Visscher et al. 2013), biological aerated filter (BAF), biological fluidized bed, moving bed biofilm reactor (MBBR), and integrated fixed-film activated sludge reactor (IFAS) (Boltz et al. 2017). In general, biofilm reactors have several advantages such as strong adaptability, high removal rate of organics and nitrogen, low excess sludge production, and convenient operation management, resulting in an increasing need for application in the upcycling of wastewater treatment plants around the world (Escudie et al. 2011). In recent years, with the development of anaerobic ammonium oxidation (ANAMMOX), autotrophic denitrification and other biofilm-based technologies (Augusto

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et al. 2018; Jiang et al. 2018; Li et al. 2016), and gradual improvement of wastewater discharge standards in many countries and regions, the biofilm process has become as a hot spot in the aspects of advanced wastewater treatment, water reuse, and the upgrading and reconstruction of wastewater treatment plants. However, there are few literatures on summarizing wastewater biofilm during the life cycle. In particular, there is a vacancy on characterization at various stages of biofilm and its regulation.

In order to fill knowledge gaps in the above fields and offer effective guidance for the innovative application of biofilm process, this review provided a whole look at biofilm formation and its affecting factors, development of biofilm accompanied by microbial physiology, ecology and activity especially emphasized on the initialization formation, and characterization of biofilm. Recent studies about biofilm physioecology analysis and methods on evaluating microbial activity were summarized, and the concept of aging biofilm was also presented to outline the entire life cycle of biofilm. Furthermore, regulation methods of biofilm were reviewed, and future research trends on biofilm control were prospected, aiming at offering guidelines on biofilm control in biofilm-based wastewater treatment.

Biofilm formation and its affecting factors

Biofilm formation process

Formation and development of biofilm usually can be summarized into the following four stages based on the previous studies (Fig. 1): initial adsorption of macromolecules (e.g., protein, polysaccharide) to surfaces of carriers, microbes adhesion, biofilm development and maturity, and biofilm aging (Derlon et al. 2013a; Huang et al. 2014; Simões et al. 2010). Initial adsorption of macromolecules to surfaces triggers the whole process of biofilm formation and creates conditions for bacterial cells colonization on biocarrier surfaces. On awareness of this, we systematically investigated deposition behaviors of soluble pollutants (prepared by real and synthetic wastewaters with different configurations of model macromolecules) on model carriers by using a quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation monitoring (QCM-D). Moderate concentrations of calcium ion and rhamnolipid were proved to have a promoting effect on macromolecular deposition which has important implications for regulating biofilm formation (Huang et al. 2015, 2018a). Microbe adhesion stage includes two circumstances: One is nonselective adhesion includes adhesion and aggregation of bacteria to carriers and other bacteria mediated by high-affinity adhesion factors (membrane transport protein, viscous polysaccharide, extracellular DNA) or accessory structure (i.e., flagellum, pili) of bacteria surface; the other is specific adhesion that is adhesion

triggered by the recognition of specific adhesion protein on the surface of bacteria to surface receptors (i.e., glycoprotein and glycolipid) (Jefferson 2004; Verstraeten et al. 2008). Development and maturity of biofilm mainly include the growth and accumulation of microbes, with the operation of biofilm system, the biofilm gets thicker and thicker and then the nutrient transfer is hindered, leading to decrease of biofilm activity and treatment efficiency, which is called aging biofilm state. The detachment of aging biofilm caused by the erosion and sloughing is vital to the recovery of biofilm activity.

Affecting factors

Biofilm formation is a very complex process, and a variety of factors contribute an impact to this process which can be concluded as three types: biocarrier surface properties, interface fluid characteristics, and cell properties (Jefferson 2004; Shen et al. 2015; Simões et al. 2010) as illustrated in Table 1.

In general, attachment of microorganisms occurs more commonly on surfaces that are rougher, more hydrophobic, and coated by conditioning films (Shen et al. 2015). There is an electrostatic repulsion between negative organic molecules of carriers and the bacteria which makes it difficult for bacteria to attach to the surfaces. Increasing the interface fluid velocity which is below the critical velocity or the nutrient concentrations properly can also promote bacteria adhesion (Paul et al. 2012; Simões et al. 2010).

As studies have shown, pH value can influence bacterial surface charge characteristics. When pH value in liquid phase is higher than isoelectric point of bacteria, bacterial surfaces show electronegativity due to amino acids' ionization. Otherwise, bacterial surfaces show electropositivity; pH-induced changes of bacterial surface electrical behavior influence the dynamics of bacterial adhesion directly. Liu (Liu 1995) applied the colloidal stability theory to explain influences of liquid pH to nitrobacteria fixed rate. Stable electric double layer or solvation structures are formed around the electriferous bacteria in the presence of Zeta potential and hinders the effective contact between bacteria and surfaces. Besides, the solvation structures can lead to steric hindrance among bacteria which will do harm to bacterial adherence to carriers. Zeta potential of bacterial surfaces tends to be zero, and surface solvation structures almost disappear when bacteria are in the isoelectric-point environment. Microorganisms in liquid phase are in an extreme stable state under this circumstance and would adhere to the carriers or gather together to decrease surface free energy and reach a new stable state.

Bacterial extracellular appendants (i.e., flagella and pilus) are also necessary for their adhesion and aggregation (Jefferson 2004; Sauer and Camper 2001; Simões et al. 2010). In general, there will be a repulsion between bacteria and surfaces when the contact distance is 10–20 nm. If bacteria can use the mentioned appendants to overcome this

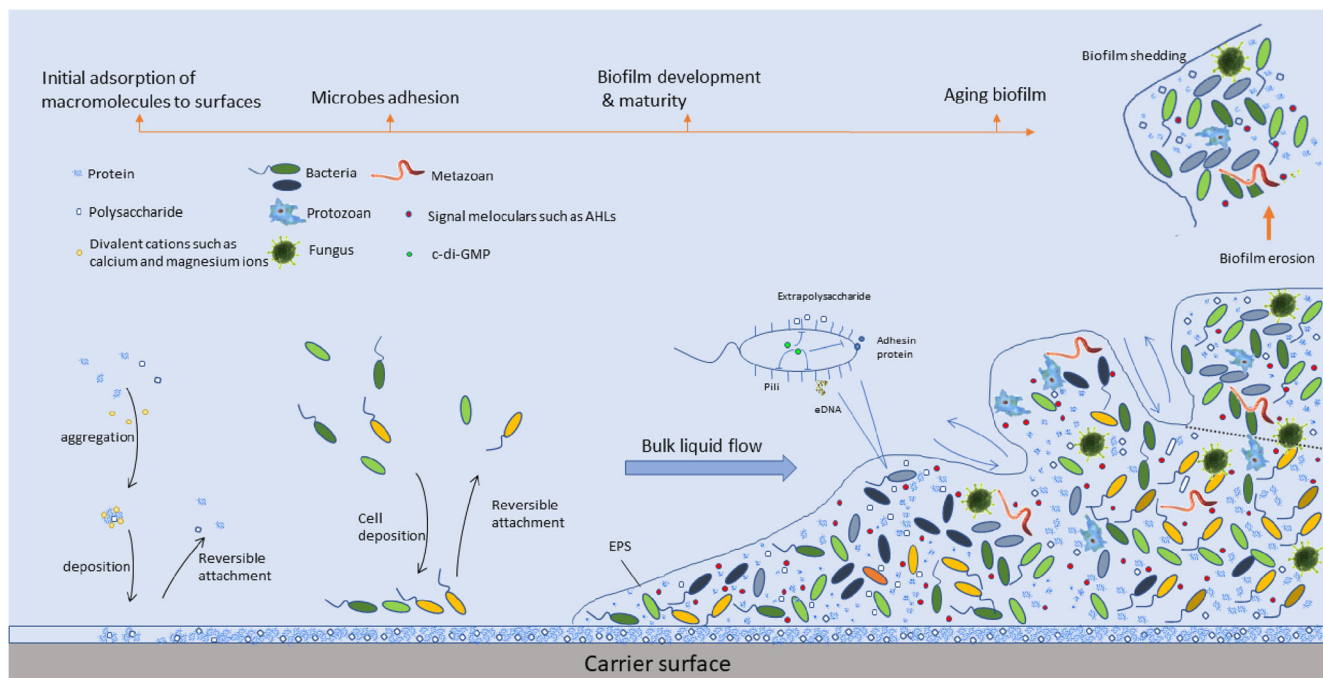


Fig. 1 Formation, development, and aging of biofilm in wastewater treatment

repulsion and make the distance lower than 1 nm, a strong attraction will exist between the surfaces of carriers and bacteria which could promote the adhesion (Sauer and Camper 2001). Extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) secreted by microorganisms can aid in the adhesion of microorganisms to carrier surface. EPS can bind the free cells and ions in the wastewater together and protect microbes from toxic heavy metal and organic pollutants (Cao et al. 2011; Lai et al. 2018). Thus, the production of EPS has a significant impact on the formation of biofilm.

In recent years, bacterial quorum sensing (QS) gradually attracts much attention in wastewater treatment field. For example, Shrouf and Nerenberg (2012) summarized bacterial quorum sensing theory and its regulation in wastewater treatment biofilm. Ren et al. (2013) verified that N-acyl-homoserine lactones (AHLs) produced by aerobic granular sludge have effects in the formation of *Escherichia coli* K12 biofilm. They found AHL degrading enzyme activity in the activated sludge and concluded that quorum quenching and quorum sensing exist at the same time. In a recent study, we also found that distribution of QS signaling molecules displayed significant positive relationship with the concentration of EPS, providing a potential method for improving biofilm formation (Wang et al. 2018a).

As a kind of second messenger, intracellular c-di-GMP also plays a critical role in biofilm formation and its shedding, which was first identified to be an important factor that participates in the biosynthesis of cellulose (Ross et al. 1987). Then, it was discovered that c-di-GMP was associated with the phenotypes regulation in some bacteria (Tischler and

Camilli 2004). It was also reported that extracellular matrix components such as polysaccharides, pili, adhesins (e.g., LapA is a kind of large adhesive protein that promotes microorganisms attachment and biofilm formation in *Pseudomonas putida*), and extracellular DNA can be regulated by c-di-GMP (Hinsa et al. 2003; Irie et al. 2012; Jain et al. 2012; Ueda and Wood 2010) through specific targets, while all these substances contribute to biofilm formation and its three-dimensional structure. In the meantime, c-di-GMP also take part in the dispersal of biofilm, for example, increased c-di-GMP levels enable *BalA* protein activation which was identified to be necessary for the biofilm dispersion of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Petrova and Sauer 2012). Generally, increased concentration of intracellular c-di-GMP promotes surface attachment and the formation of biofilm, while the decreasing concentration of intracellular c-di-GMP can cause biofilm dispersal. However, research also showed that high level of c-di-GMP can promote the production of polysaccharide, while it may suppress the quorum sensing-dependent biofilm formation (Schmid et al. 2017). And, a relatively high concentration (200 μ m) of extracellular c-di-GMP inhibits intercellular interactions and reduces biofilm formation of *Staphylococcus aureus* (Karaolis et al. 2005). The regulation of biofilm by regulating the content of c-di-GMP may be a promising research direction in the field of wastewater biofilm treatment, while a more precise relationship between biofilm formation and c-di-GMP remains to be ascertained.

Based on the knowledge of quorum sensing, the effect of exogenous AHLs on microbial adhesion of high ammonia

Table 1 Main affecting factors in biofilm formation

| Factors | | Brief description | Reference |
|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Biocarrier surface properties | Roughness | Surface roughness can be measured by Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) taking both the peaks and valleys into account. Cell adhesion could be enhanced by surface roughness since that it can protect bacteria from detachment by creating larger low shear stress zones | Shen et al. 2015 |
| | Hydrophobicity | The hydrophobic group acts by removing the water film between two surfaces, bringing the bacteria and surface close to each other, so hydrophobicity is beneficial to biofilm formation. | Kumar and Ting 2016 |
| | Surface charge characteristics | Anode surface charge influences biofilm development while positively charged surfaces were more selectively to electroactive microbes (e.g. <i>Geobacter</i>). | Guo et al. 2013 |
| | Conditioning films | For example, the hydrophilicity of natural organic matter (NOM) conditioning film lead to better adhesion of microbes. | BinAhmed et al. 2018 |
| Interface fluid characteristics | Flow rate | Thinner and denser biofilms under high flow rate while more porous and loosely biofilms at low flow rate. | Liu et al. 2016 |
| | Salinity | Low salinity (less than 0.25%) enhances biofilms formation, virulence, and quorum sensing. | Jahid et al. 2015 |
| | Temperature | Low temperature influences the activities of microorganisms and the composition of biofilm community. | Gilbert et al. 2015; Young et al. 2017 |
| | Cations | High ionic strength decelerate cell deposition rate due to cell aggregation in the bulk. | Kang et al. 2004 |
| | Nutrient | Nutritional limiting condition such low organic loading or VFA accumulation are harmful to biofilm formation. | Cresson et al. 2006 |
| | pH | The optimum pHs varying among different bacteria while they are most favorable at pH 7–8 | Villaverde et al. 1997 |
| Cell properties | Cell surface hydrophobicity | Cell surface hydrophobicity can be represented by water contact angle and it could be the main factors involved in adhesion of bacteria. | Roosjen et al. 2006 |
| | EPS | EPS of biofilm is a mixture of polysaccharides, proteins that act as a “glue” to bind microbial cells together. | Wei and Ma 2013 |
| | c-di-GMP (cyclic diguanosine-5'-monophosphate) | As a kind of secondary messengers, high internal level of c-di-GMP induce the production of adhesion and extracellular matrix components which promote biofilm formation, it can also regulate the dispersal of biofilm. | Liang 2015 |
| | cAMP | cAMP may inhibit the transition from reversible to irreversible attachment and can alter the cell surface hydrophobicity. | Ono et al. 2014 |
| | AHLs (N-acyl-L-homoserine lactones) | AHLs as a kind of quorum sensing (QS) signal molecules can be self-generated and can be used to mitigate the biofilm biofouling. | Ham et al. 2018 Ren et al. 2013 |

nitrogen wastewater was investigated in our recent study with the help of QCM-D. Interesting results were obtained, which indicated that the addition of exogenous AHLs, especially *N*-octanoyl-*L*-homoserine lactone, improved microbial adhesion to surfaces of carriers, deposition amount, and thus the formation of biofilm, suggesting that exogenous AHLs might be potential in accelerating the startup process of biofilm formation in high ammonia nitrogen wastewater treatment systems (Peng et al. 2018b).

Biofilm physic-ecology and its characterization

In the field of microbial physiological and ecological research, with the help of microelectrodes (He et al. 2017; Zhou et al. 2011), electron microscopy (Fu et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2011), atomic force microscope (AFM) (Zhang et al. 2011; Zhu et al.

2015), and modern molecular biology techniques, such as PCR-DGGE (He et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2011), FISH (Persson et al. 2014) and high-throughput sequencing (Lu et al. 2014; Peng et al. 2014), biofilm morphology, internal mass transfer, and microbial community, etc., have been effectively characterized.

Biofilm structure

The macrostructure of biofilm is the common result of biofilm growth and hydraulic shear. Two typical biofilm structure models are “heterogeneous Mosaic structure” model and “mushrooms or tulip” model (Wimpenny et al. 2000; Zhou et al. 2011), both formed by the random combination and attachment of independent accumulations or communities. The “mushroom or tulip model” is a structure resembling a mushroom or tulip shaped by a micro colony and the bottom of which is narrower than the top. Furthermore, there are water

Table 2 A comparison of various methods for estimation of biofilm activity

| Method | Type of samples | Conversion | Sensitivity | References |
|--------|-----------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|
| OUR | Environmental bacteria | 100 $\mu\text{g O}_2/\text{h g DW}$ | 4.5 μg ($\pm 5\%$) ^a | White et al. 1979 |
| | Actinomycete foams | 109–762 $\text{mg O}_2/\text{g VS/day}$ | | Awong et al. 1985 |
| ATP | Environmental bacteria | 1 mg/g DW | 1 μg ($\pm 10\%$) ^a | White et al. 1979 |
| | Biofilms | 0.33–0.6 mg/g VS | | Kang et al. 1983 |
| | Moving bed biofilms | 0.05–0.12 mg/g DW | | Gikas and Livingston 1993 |
| | Fixed bed biofilms | 0.13–0.36 $\mu\text{g/mg VS}$ | | Nouvion et al. 1987 |
| DHA | Environmental bacteria | 0.58–2.06 $\mu\text{g INTF}/\text{cm}^2\text{h}$ | ($\pm 5\%$) ^a | Blenkinsopp and Lock 1990 |
| | | 18–68 $\text{pg INTF}/\text{cell}$ | | Blenkinsopp and Lock 1990 |
| | Fixed bed biofilms | 3.1–5 $\mu\text{g TF}/\text{mg VS}$ | Nouvion et al. 1987 | |
| DNA | Bacterioplankton | 1.8–2.86 $\text{ag}/\text{cell h}$ | 0.5 ng/mL | Paul et al. 1987 |
| | Freshwater bacteria | 3.68 fg/cell | 0.01 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | Ellenbroek and Cappenberg 1991 |
| PN | Environmental bacteria | 5.3–14 fg/cell | | Jeffrey and Paul 1988 |
| | Moving bed biofilms | 170–180 mg/g VS | 0.5 mg | Zhu et al. 2015 |
| | Sequencing batch reactor biofilms | 27–29 mg/g SS | | Dong et al. 2017 |
| PS | Moving bed biofilms | 70–75 mg/g VS | 2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | Zhu et al. 2015 |
| | Sequencing batch reactor biofilms | 14–17 mg/g SS | | Dong et al. 2017 |

^a Method precision

channels around these colonies to transport nutrients, enzymes, metabolic products, and discharged wastes since the aqueous solution can continuously flow and circulate in the channels.

During the process of substrates utilization by microbes, the thickness of biofilm increases. Since dissolved oxygen can only spread to a certain area of biofilm, the anaerobic zone is formed in the inner biofilm close to the carriers. According to the diffusion of substrates, biofilm can be divided into two parts in functional structure: One is the substrates utilization area that directly exposed to wastewater, and the other is microbial hunger area that close to the surface of carriers since the substrates are almost utilized by the microbes in the outer layer. Microorganisms in the hunger area have to take advantages of energy from metabolism of their own cells to maintain their biological activities and usually lose the ability of adhering to carriers which lead to the shedding from the surfaces (Jefferson 2004; Paul et al. 2012; Verstraeten et al. 2008).

The team led by Paul Etienne is one of the most representative group focusing on the structure of biofilms (Coufort et al. 2007; Derlon et al. 2008; Derlon et al. 2013a; Marcato-Romain et al. 2012; Ochoa et al. 2007; Paul et al. 2012; Ras et al. 2011). They studied the effects of hydrodynamic and growth conditions (electron donor and receptor, C/N ratio,

etc.) on the physical and chemical properties of biofilms by using Couette-Taylor reactors, and put forward the hierarchical (stratification) model of biofilm. It is believable that biofilm is composed of the basal layer and the outer layer under the action of the shear stress, where the base is compacted and the bonding layer is easy to fall off. Furthermore, the effect of specific centrifugal forces on biofilm structures was also reported in our group that three different fractions of biofilms could be divided under different centrifugal forces (Wang et al. 2018a).

Biofilm biophase

Biofilm is mainly composed of biophase and surrounding EPS. Biophase in biofilm is very abundant, and it forms a complex ecosystem composed of bacteria, fungi, algae, protozoa, and metazoan (Sudo 1988). As a functional organism, the distribution of biophase is not a simple combination among microbes, but an organic configuration based on the optimization principle of the whole metabolism function of organism, and can serve as biological indicators to inspect and judge operation conditions and wastewater treatment effects of the biofilm reactor (Derlon et al. 2013a).

Table 3 Common analysis methods for biofilm characterization

| Method | Brief description | Application circumstances | Reference |
|--|---|---|--|
| Microscope | Scanning electron microscope (SEM) | SEM is a type of electron microscope that produces images of a sample by scanning it with a focused beam of electrons | Bacteria adhesion, mature biofilm morphology Hu et al. 2013b Ma et al. 2017a, b |
| | Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) | CLSM scans the three dimensional surface of an object point-by-point by means of a focused laser beam, and creates the over-all picture by electronic means similar to those used in SEM | Bacteria adhesion, mature biofilm morphology Hoang et al. 2014 Piculell et al. 2016 |
| | Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) | AFM is suitable for a quantification of the interaction forces and can provide a 3D surface profile that does not require any special treatments that would irreversibly change or damage the sample. | Bacteria adhesion, mature and aging biofilm morphology Yu et al. 2016 Zhu et al. 2015 |
| Spectroscopy | Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) | EDX is used to determine the elements contained in the sample by analyzing the X-ray wavelength and intensity of the sample. | Elemental analysis of biofilm Han et al. 2017 Tomczyk-Zak et al. 2017 |
| | Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) | FTIR is a spectral analysis instrument which uses infrared spectrum to analyze the concentration of samples by Fourier transform. | Component analysis of the protein layer or the EPS from biofilm Hu et al. 2013b |
| | Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) | SPR is a real-time analysis technique that can be used to monitor interactions between biomolecules easily and quickly. | Monitoring the whole biofilm formation process Filion-Cote et al. 2017 Zhang et al. 2016 |
| Microelectrode | Microelectrode | Microelectrodes have a tip diameter less than 10 μm and it is a nondestructive in situ technique. | Investigating the stratification of microbial processes in biofilm He et al. 2017 Zhou et al. 2011 |
| Biotechnology and molecular biological technique | 16S rRNA sequence analysis technique | The 16S rDNA, due to its moderate size about 1.5 kb, can reflect the differences between different strains and can be sequenced and analyzed easily. | Systematic classification of bacteria in biofilm. He et al. 2017 Hoang et al. 2014 Ma et al. 2017a, b Zhu et al. 2015 |
| | Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) | PCR is a kind of rapid amplification of DNA fragments in vitro. | Amplifying extracted DNA from biofilm samples Hoang et al. 2014 Ma et al. 2017a, b |
| | quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR) | qPCR is a quantitative method for real-time monitoring the whole PCR process by adding fluorescent groups to the PCR reaction system. | Expression of relative gene in biofilm Juhlin et al. 2017 Persson et al. 2014 |
| | Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) | Fish use the specific oligonucleotide fragment of fluorescence markers as a probe hybridizing the DNA molecules in the environmental genome. | Existence and abundance detection of the specific microbial in biofilm Persson et al. 2014 Piculell et al. 2016 |
| | Proteomics and functional genomics | Proteomics is the large-scale study of proteins, particularly their structures and functions. Functional genomics is a field of molecular biology that attempts to make use of the vast wealth of data produced by genomic projects to describe gene (and protein) functions and interaction. | Describing structures, functions and interactions of specific genes and proteins Herschend et al. 2017 Wen and Burne 2003 Zhang et al. 2015 |
| | Molecular Hybridization Detection Technology | The process of complementary nucleotide sequences through the Watson-Crick base pair to form a stable hybrid double stranded molecular DNA molecule is called hybridization and the hybridization process is highly specific. | Specific target sequence detection of biofilm microbes by DNA probe Feres et al. 2018 Violant et al. 2014 |
| | Genetic | Denaturing Gradient Gel | Illustrating the microbial community He et al. 2017 |

Table 3 (continued)

| Method | | Brief description | Application circumstances | Reference |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|--|
| fingerprinting techniques | Electrophoresis (DGGE) | DGGE is a microbial fingerprinting technique that separates amplification of roughly the same size based on sequence properties. | structures | Zhang et al. 2011 |
| | Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) | RFLP is a molecular biology technique for profiling of microbial communities based on the position of a restriction site closest to a labeled end of an amplified gene. | Bacterial community structure analysis of biofilms | Fish et al. 2017 Takada et al. 2018 |
| | Single Strand Conformation Polymorphism (SSCP) | SSCP is a technology for separating nucleic acids which can separate nucleic acids with the same length but different sequences. | Abundance and composition quantification of biofilm communities | Bellucci et al. 2015 Saur et al. 2017 |
| | Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) | MRI is an on-line and non-invasive method which can monitor the composition of a sample by measuring the distribution of mobile nuclei in any slice of the specimen. | Measuring mass transport of metabolically active biofilms | Cao et al. 2012 Herrling et al. 2017 |
| Real-time Online method | Ultrasonic Time-Domain Reflectometry (UTDR) | UTDR is a real-time detection method using the interaction with ultrasonic wave and membrane component for physical measurement. | In-situ monitoring of biofilm formation process | Li et al. 2014 Wang et al., 2018a |
| | Electrical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) | EIS applies a sinusoidal potential waveform to measure the real impedance (resistance) and imaginary impedance (capacitance) of an electrochemical system over a range of frequencies. | Monitoring of microbial adhesion and biofilm growth | Dheilly et al. 2008 |
| | Quartz Crystal Microbalance with Dissipation (QCM-D) | QCM-D provides a real-time tool for quantifying relatively low levels of deposition and characterizing biomolecular binding events on the solid–liquid interface. | Initial attachment of soluble macromolecules and bacteria | Guo et al. 2015 Huang et al. 2015, 2018a Peng et al. 2018b |
| Imaging technology | Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) | OCT is based on the principle of weak coherent light interferometer. It can detect the reflected or scattered signals from different depth layers of biological tissue, and can get two-dimensional or three-dimensional structure images of biological tissue by scanning | Structural observation above the micro-scale | Desmond et al. 2017 Wang et al., 2018 |

Bacteria are the principal part of the biophase in biofilm and EPS produced by them establishes the foundation for biofilm structure. The presence and dominance of bacteria are usually related to their growth rates, wastewater qualities, and environmental conditions, such as nutrition, attachment growth conditions, dissolved oxygen supply, and temperature. Heterotrophic bacteria are the main type of bacteria in biofilm, who can gain sufficient energy substrates from water flowing through the biofilm surface. According to the demand of oxygen, heterotrophic bacteria can be divided into aerobic heterotrophic bacteria, anaerobic respiration heterotrophic bacteria, anaerobic heterotrophic bacteria, and facultative anaerobes. The common species of heterotrophic bacteria in biofilm include *Sphaerotilus*, *Zoogloea*s, *Thiobacillus*, *Alcaligenes*, *Pseudomonas*, *Nocardias*, *Sarcinas*, *Streptococcus faecalis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Nitrosations*, and *Bacillus* (Kim et al. 2015b; Tang et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2018b). In addition, fungi such as filamentous bacteria will appear in biofilm under

specific circumstances (i.e., composition change of organic matter in sewage, increase of load, decrease of temperature, etc.) and common species of which include *Subbaromyces splendens* and *Trichosporon cutaneum*. Algae are not the main microorganism population in biofilm; thus, their function of purifying wastewater is little. The common species of algae in biofilm include *Chlorella*, *Chlorococcum*, *Oscillatoria*, *Stigeoclonium*, and *Circumfili*. Protozoa are the lowest unicellular animals in the Animalia. In the mature biofilm, protozoa feed on bacteria, playing a positive role on the physical activity state of biofilm. The common species of protozoa include *Flagellates* (i.e., *Oikomonas termo*), *Sarcodina* (i.e., *Amoeba*, *Vahlkampfia*, and *Arcella*) and *Ciliates* (i.e., *Opercularia microdiscum*, *Vorticella convallaria*, and *Opercularia coarctata*) (Dopheide et al. 2011). Metazoan are multicellular animals, which belong to the invertebrate. The common species of metazoan in biofilm include *Rotifera*, *Nemata*, *Oligochaeta*, and insects and their larva (Derlon et al. 2013b).

Table 4 Recovery methods and rapid formation of biofilm activity

| Recovery method of biofilm activity | | Condition | Types of biofilms | Effect | References | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|---|--|---|----------------------------|
| Physical method | Heating | Treat 24 h at 45–65 °C | Biofilms in MBBR process | Biofilm removal rate: 25–35%. | Hu et al. 2013b | |
| | | Treat 20 min at 65 °C | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | The biofilm roughness decreased from 700 nm to 250 nm. | Oh et al., 2009 | |
| | | Treat 30s at 71 °C | <i>Salmonella enteritidis</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 95%. | Yang et al. 2017 | |
| | Hydraulic shear force | To increase the hydraulic load rate from 3.9 to 5.0 m ³ /(m ² h) | Biofilms in aerated submerged fixed-bed biofilm reactor | The biofilm thickness decreased from 450 um to 180 um. | Trojanowicz et al. 2011 | |
| | | The shear stress was controlled between 0.1 and 13 Pa | Biofilms in Couette Taylor Reactor | When the shear force was less than 2 Pa, the biofilm was off. | Paul et al. 2012 | |
| Chemical method | Oxidizing biocide | chlorine | 200 ppm, 5 min | <i>Salmonella enteritidis</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 66–81%. | Yang et al. 2017 |
| | | NaClO | Concentration of 0–3% for 1,3,5,7 min | <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> | The removal rate of biofilm was over 90% when the concentration was up to 1%. | Chau et al. 2015 |
| | Non-oxidation-bactericide | Glutaraldehyde | 100,200,500,1000 mg/L | <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 38–75%. | Simões et al. 2005 |
| | | Acid | Treat with 0.5–5% of HCl for 24 h | Biofilms in MBBR process | Biofilm removal rate: 15–85%. | Hu et al. 2013b |
| | Antibiotic | Ampicillin | 5000 µg/mL, 4 h | <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 34%. | Stewart and Costerton 2001 |
| | | | 1000 mg/mL, 75–90 min | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> and <i>klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 63–79% of biofilm protein was removed, 32–37% viable cells were killed. | Chen and Stewart 2000 |
| | Surfactant | Sodium dodecyl sulfate | 0.5,1,3,7 mM | <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 60–80%. | Simões et al. 2005 |
| | | Sodium dodecyl benzene sulfonate | 3000 ppm, 80 min | Biofilms in membrane bioreactor | The membrane flux recovered to 92%. | Chen et al. 2015 |
| | | Lipopeptide | 2 mg/mL,4 h | <i>Bacillus</i> and <i>salmonella</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 74%. | Banat et al. 2014 |
| | | Rhamnolipid | 0.5–100 mM | <i>Bacillus pumilus</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 46–99%. | Dusane et al. 2010 |
| 300 mg/L, 6 h | | | Biofilms in membrane bioreactor | The membrane flux increased 20%. | Kim et al. 2015a | |
| 300 mg/L, 2 h | | | Biofilms in membrane bioreactor | Biofilm EPS polysaccharide and protein removal rate: 31.6% and 79.6% respectively. | Kim et al. 2015b | |
| Biological method | Enzyme method | Cellulase | 1–20 mg/mL, 2 h | Aging biofilm in biological aerated filter <i>Salmonella</i> | Aging biofilm detachment rate: 54.5%. | Yu et al. 2016 |
| | | Proteinase or amylase | 3% proteinase, 8 h or 1% amylase, 8 h | Aging biofilms in MBBR process | Biofilm removal rate: 85%. | Wang et al. 2016 |
| | | | | | The removal rates of mixed liquor suspended solids of the biofilm pellets were 26% and 18%, respectively. | Huang et al. 2014 |

Table 4 (continued)

| Recovery method of biofilm activity | | Condition | Types of biofilms | Effect | References | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|--|---|--|--------------------|
| Bacteriophage | Proteinase or deoxyribonuclease | 0.02 mg/mL proteinase or deoxyribonuclease cultured with vanilline, 24 h | Biofilms in wastewater treatment | Biofilm removal rate: 88% and 72%, respectively. | Si and Quan 2017 | |
| | | 9.0×10^9 PFU/mL, 200 min | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | Biofilm removal rate: 85%. | Sillankorva et al. 2004 | |
| | | 37 °C, 10^7 PFU/mL | <i>Escherichia coli</i> | Biofilm removal rate: over 99%. | Bai et al. 2016 | |
| Quorum quenching | Quorum quenching bacteria | Cultured <i>Pantoea stewartii</i> with quorum quenching bacteria | <i>Pantoea stewartii</i> | Biofilm formation inhibition rate: 51–58%. | Oh et al. 2017 | |
| | N-acetylcysteine | 1.5 mg/mL, 1–2 day | <i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i> , <i>pseudomonas putida</i> and <i>serratia marcescens</i> | Biofilm formation inhibition rate: 70%. | Kappachery et al. 2012 | |
| Rapid Formation of Biofilm Activity | | Condition | Types of biofilms | Effect | References | |
| Biological method | Quorum sensing | AHLs | 10 μ m, 30 °C | Bioelectrochemical system | Biofilm biomass were 1.36 and 1.5 times of the control group with C6-HSL and 3OC12-HSL addition. | Fang et al. 2018 |
| | | AI-2 | 0 μ m, 5 μ m, 10 μ m, 20 μ m, and 40 μ m pre-AI-2 molecule | <i>S. epidermidis</i> RP62A | The intensity of biofilm increased as the concentration of AI-2 increased. | Ma et al. 2017a, b |
| | | c-di-GMP | 21.01 pmol/mg (intercellular) | CANON biofilm | The polysaccharide (PS) content in EPS showed the same trend as the increased content of c-di-GMP. | Wang et al. 2017 |
| Chemical method | Rhamnolipid | 20 mg/L, HRT: 12 h | Biofilms in MBBRs | COD and ammonia nitrogen removal rate increased 15.7% and 22.6% respectively. | Peng et al. 2018a | |

Generally, the morphology and chemical constituents of biofilm can be characterized using microscopy, spectroscopy, and microelectrode technology (details are shown in Table 1). Furthermore, emerging in situ monitoring techniques such as ultrasonic time-domain reflectometry (UTDR) have been developed for biofilm monitoring so that they can provide more information about the actual and dynamic process about the absorption and accumulation of biofilm. Initial adherence, reversible adhesion, and irreversible adhesion during the initial biofilm formation process could be successfully distinguished by the UTDR measurement in our recent study (Wang et al. 2018a). Biotechnologies have been also widely used in this research area. The currently and commonly used combined applications of quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR), fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH), advanced 2-D microscopy, and micro-scale chemical sensors have facilitated researchers to obtain a better vision of biofilm composition including both the cellular matter and their excretions

than ever before (Boltz et al. 2017). To explore the microbial composition of biofilms, phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis has been employed in different environmental samples such as soil and wastewater treatment, for PLFAs can be biomarkers to characterize microorganisms (Amir et al. 2008), for instance, fungus, protozoa, Gram-negative, and Gram-positive bacteria can be identified through this method. With the development of biological analysis technology, 16s rRNA sequence analysis gradually becomes the main analytical tool for applications since it can make systematic classification of bacteria in biofilm (Zhu et al. 2015). Meanwhile, it is foreseeable that the proteomics and functional genomics technologies, describing structures, functions, and interactions of specific genes and proteins, will play an important role in biofilm research in the near future (Herschend et al. 2017; Hu et al. 2016; Tang et al. 2016).

In the future, research on biofilm formation and its structure or biofilm will remain the focus in biofilm studies. In situ

and real-time monitoring methods, such as QCM-D and OCT, will attract more attention. Especially for OCT, it is easy to obtain physical characteristics on macro- and mesoscales in a visual way (Wagner et al. 2010). Furthermore, multiple parameter monitoring such as a combination of optical, electrochemical, acoustic, and microbial community information will be a trend in biofilm analysis.

Biofilm activity

Biofilm activity is the objective basis of wastewater purification and the basic guarantee for the normal operation of biofilm process, leading to the degradation of pollutants through physical absorption, biochemical actions, and classified degradations of biophase in biofilm (de Assis et al. 2017; Laurenzi et al. 2015). Currently, biofilm activity indicators are mainly composed of total solid and volatile solid content, oxygen uptake rate, adenosine triphosphate content, dehydrogenase activity, deoxyribonucleic acid content, etc. Table 2 compares various methods for estimation of biofilm activity.

Constrained by testing conditions in the previous studies, biofilm activity evaluation methods generally lack biological response. Along with the advance of modern biotechnologies, bio-driven biofilm activity from different scales (i.e., molecular level, bacterial populations, and biological communities) can be well characterized. Additionally, the study of aging biofilm evaluation is inadequate. According to the literatures, generation and consumption of ATP correspond to the internal energy charge state of the cells (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov 2013; Huenken et al. 2005; Xiao et al. 2015), i.e., the ATP generation process is suppressed and the utilization of ATP is stimulated under a high energy charge state, while the effect is the opposite when the energy charge state is relatively low. The content of ATP directly reflects the activity of biofilm communities. In actual wastewater treatment, aging biofilm may decrease the efficiency of biofilm treatment and collapse the whole system. Therefore, the effective regulation of aging biofilm on carriers is an important and urgent issue in the field of biofilm-based wastewater treatment (Yu et al. 2016). Some preliminary results on basic characteristics, chemical and enzymatic treatments, and regenerations towards aging biofilm have also been conducted in our previous studies (Hu et al. 2013a, b; Huang et al. 2014, 2018b). Even so, biofilm activity evaluation based on biological response and the activation of aging biofilm still need to be further explored in the context of biological wastewater treatment.

Regulation methods of biofilm

The formation and aging of biofilm in wastewater treatment is a series of complex processes, and effective regulation

towards the processes according to the actual situation is the only way to achieve the best performance of biofilm reactors.

In the early stages of biofilm formation, it is needed to create a good adhesion condition which can promote the formation of biofilm and subsequent activity. Except for the conventional affecting factors list in Table 3, quorum sensing caused by AHLs also can be employed to regulation the biofilm formation. Once the biofilm is developed and mature, the biophase is synergistic to achieve the metabolic transformation of the pollutants. For the biofilm that reaches the aging state, it is necessary to be removed and activated. There are many approaches reported which are mainly composed of physical, chemical, and biological methods. The conditions, objectives, and effects of different approaches are shown in Table 4. It was worth noting that rhamnolipids can not only be used for activity recovery of aging biofilm but can also be used to promote biofilm formation and improve the treatment efficiency of biofilm process under low concentration (i.e., 20 and 50 mg/L), as reported in our recent study (Peng et al. 2018a). Generally speaking, related researches on aging biofilm control were mainly focused on traditional hydraulic shear method and chemical sterilization method. There are few studies on the application of economically efficient and environmentally friendly methods for activity recovery of aging biofilm in wastewater treatment systems, which should be paid more attention to in the future research.

Conclusions and prospects

This article reviewed wastewater biofilm from four main aspects: formation and its affecting factors, characterization, activity, and regulation. Further investigations are still needed: (1) specific and feasible methods for shortening biofilm formation in refractory wastewater treatment; (2) revealing the characteristics of biofilm from a more microscopic point of view through molecular biology technologies (i.e., macroproteomics and metagenomic approaches) and in situ monitoring techniques; (3) recovery of aging biofilm by cost-effective and environmentally friendly regulation methods. Moreover, novel biofilm reaction principles and technologies are continuing to inspire people's interest to meet the increasing requirements of pollutants removal and lower energy consumption.

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Compliance with ethical standards

This article contains no studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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