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1 **Title**

2 Co-digestion of wastewater sludge: choosing the optimal blend

3

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19 **Declarations of interest:** none

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Anaerobic co-digestion (AcoD) is a promising strategy to increase the methane production of
23 anaerobic digestion plants treating wastewater sludge (WAS). In this work the degradability
24 of six different mixtures of WAS with fish waste (FW) or garden-grass (GG) was evaluated
25 and compared to the three mono-digestions. Degradation performances and methanogenic

26 pathways, determined with the isotopic signatures of biogas, were compared across time. Fish
27 and grass mono-digestion provided a higher final methane production than WAS mono-
28 digestion. In co-digestion the addition of 25 % of fish was enough to increase the final
29 methane production from WAS while 50 % of grass was necessary. To determine the optimal
30 blend of WAS co-digestion two indicators were specifically designed, representing the
31 maximum potential production (ODI) and the expected production in mono-digestion
32 conditions (MDI). The comparison between these indicators and the experimental results
33 showed that the most productive blend was composed of 75% of co-substrate, fish or grass,
34 with WAS. Indeed, the final methane production was increased by 1.9 times with fish and by
35 1.7 times with grass associated to an increase of the methane production rate by 1.5 times.
36 Even if the same succession of methanogenic pathways across time was observed for the
37 different mixtures, their relative proportions were different. Sewage sludge degradation was
38 mostly achieved through hydrogenotrophic pathway as confirmed by the archaeal analysis
39 while acetoclastic archaea were identified for fish and grass degradation.

40

41 **Keywords**

42 Anaerobic digestion - methanogenic pathways – grass – fish – carbon-isotopic fractionation

43

44 1. Introduction

45 Anaerobic Digestion (AD) is a multistep biological process allowing to convert various
46 types of organic waste into a renewable energy, the biogas (composed of CH₄ and CO₂) and
47 digestate. This bioprocess has been used for more than a century, in particular to stabilise the
48 wastewater sludge (WAS) obtained from wastewater treatment plants (Astals et al., 2012). It
49 is particularly attractive as it allows to simultaneously produce energy in the form of biogas
50 and to reduce the volume of sludge (Luostarinen et al., 2009). However, the benefit of using

51 only WAS to produce methane by AD is limited by its low C/N ratio and low digestion
52 efficiency, leading to low CH₄ production yield (Astals et al., 2013; Park et al., 2016).

53 A way to overcome this major drawback is to balance the low C/N ratio by mixing
54 wastewater sludge with other substrates richer in carbon. This strategy of mixing different
55 types of substrates, or performing anaerobic co-digestion (AcoD), has multiple advantages as:
56 1) improving the performances of digesters treating wastewater sludge (Mata-Alvarez et al.,
57 2014), 2) treating several types of waste at the same time and 3) limiting the risk of inhibition
58 that can occur during mono-digestion with the production of inhibitors for example (Borowski
59 and Kubacki, 2015). Almost any type of organic waste can be treated by AD but each of them
60 has specific properties which can bring some advantages and disadvantages. For example,
61 animal manure and slaughterhouse waste have a high organic content but usually cause
62 process disturbances in mono-digestion because of their high proteins and/or lipids content.
63 This can lead to the accumulation of ammonia, volatile fatty acids (VFA) and long chain fatty
64 acids (LCFA) (Hansen et al. 1998; Pitk et al. 2013, Borowski & Kubacki 2015) known to be
65 responsible of process failure. WAS as a co-substrate for these waste allows to dilute
66 compounds potentially leading to inhibition, such as proteins and lipids and limit the risk of
67 inhibition by a too fast acidification thanks to the high buffer capacity of the WAS (Prabhu
68 and Mutnuri, 2016).

69 Different waste have already been successfully tested to improve WAS anaerobic
70 digestion. In association with slaughterhouse waste, Borowski & Kubacki (2015) succeeded
71 in increasing the specific methane production by 2-fold when 50 % of slaughterhouse waste
72 was mixed to WAS at an organic loading rate (OLR) of 4 kgVS/m³d. Neither ammonia nor
73 LCFA inhibition was observed and an effect of VFA accumulation was observed only when
74 the OLR was superior to 4 kgVS/m³d. Wickham et al. (2016) tested several waste such as
75 food waste, paper pulp, fat-grease-oil (FOG) waste and dehydrated *Ulva* macroalgae. Each

76 substrate was mixed at different ratio with WAS (5, 10 and 15 % by weight). Final methane
77 production was increased by three to six times thanks to the co-digestion compared to mono-
78 digestion of WAS.

79 In this study, different mixtures of wastewater sludge (WAS) with garden-grass (GG) or
80 fish waste (FW) as co-substrates were tested to determine the optimal blend allowing for the
81 most efficient CH₄ production. Total fish production in the world has expanded since the last
82 five decades from 20 million tons in 1960 to 167.2 million tons in 2014 mainly due to the
83 increase of the aquaculture production (FAO, 2016). The amount of waste provided by the
84 fishery industries (as canneries) is important. Some authors evaluated the possibility to use
85 different parts of the fish (skins, viscera, bones ...) (Donoso-Bravo et al., 2015), or different
86 fish species (Eiroa et al., 2012) for methane production with high biodegradability level.
87 However, this type of waste can be rich in protein and/or lipids inducing ammonia and/or
88 LCFA inhibition as observed by Eiroa et al. (2012). Literature on the possibility to use fish
89 waste as co-substrate in AD is still scarce and to the best of our knowledge co-digestion of
90 fish waste with wastewater sludge was not studied yet.

91 Grass has a high potential as renewable biomass source due to its high biodegradability
92 and biogas production potential (Dai et al., 2016; Prochnow et al., 2009). Using grass as a
93 feedstock can lead to an ammonia accumulation due to the high protein content of certain
94 types of green waste (Prochnow et al., 2009; Ward et al., 2008). Several investigations were
95 conducted on the anaerobic co-digestion (AcoD) of WAS and grass and showed an
96 enhancement of methane content (Dai et al., 2016; Hidaka et al., 2013). Nonetheless further
97 studies are needed to understand the effect of the grass addition in order to optimise the
98 methane production.

99 The aim of this study is to investigate the possibility for improving wastewater sludge
100 degradation during anaerobic co-digestion with fish waste or garden grass. Degradation

101 performances and methanogenic pathway, determined with the isotopic signatures of biogas
102 (Conrad, 2005), were compared across time. Two biodegradation indicators were specifically
103 designed to determine the mixes enabled to improve the methane production. As far we know
104 the impact of the anaerobic co-digestion on the methanogenic pathway monitored by the
105 isotopic analysis has not been studied yet.

106

107 2. Methods

108 2.1. Feedstock preparation and characterisation

109 Wastewater sludge came from an industrial wastewater treatment plant (Valenton,
110 France). Two organic co-substrates were tested. Fish waste was collected from a fish shop and
111 grass from the mowing of the Institute's lawn. Both waste were crushed and the solid part was
112 stored at 4°C during two days before they were used.

113 The inoculum came from a mesophilic full scale anaerobic digester treating primary
114 sludge at the Valenton (France) wastewater treatment plant. In order to degrade the residual
115 organic matter in excess it was stored at 35°C during two weeks in anaerobic condition
116 without feeding before being used.

117 All substrates and inoculum were characterised by different chemical analyses and the
118 results are summarised in the Table 1.

119 2.2. Co-digestion experimental set-up

120 In total 27 anaerobic batch bioreactors were set-up using 1 L glass bottles (700 mL
121 working volume). Each digester was inoculated with methanogenic sludge and fed with a
122 mixture of a main substrate (wastewater sludge) and one co-substrate (fish waste or grass) to
123 reach a substrate/inoculum ratio of 12 gCOD/ 1.2 gCOD. Different ratios of main substrate
124 /co-substrate were tested (25/75, 50/50, 75/25) as detailed in the supplementary Table A.1.
125 Controls with 100 % of wastewater sludge, fish waste or grass were also carried out. All the

126 digesters were complemented with a biochemical potential buffer (International Standard ISO
127 11734 (1995)) to reach a final working volume of 700 mL. All incubations were performed in
128 triplicate. The bioreactors were then sealed with a screw cap and a rubber septum. The
129 headspaces were flushed with N₂ (purity > 99.99 %, Linde gas SA) and the bottles were
130 incubated at 35°C in the dark and without agitation.

131 Weekly, 6 mL of liquid phase were sampled through the septum using a syringe and
132 centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 minutes. The supernatant and the pellet were snap frozen and
133 kept at -20°C for chemical analysis and -80°C for microbial analysis.

134 2.3. Biochemical Methane Potential (BMP) experimental setup

135 BMP tests were carried out for each substrate in mono-digestion to assess their methane
136 maximal production under optimal parameters. The ratio substrate/inoculum used in BMP test
137 was 0.7 gCOD/7 gCOD to limit the latency due to the microbial growth. The biochemical
138 potential buffer previously mentioned was used to reach a final volume of 500 mL in 1L glass
139 bottles. As for the batch experiment, bottles were sealed, flushed with N₂ and incubated at
140 35°C in the dark without agitation. The experiment was made in triplicate. Gas production
141 and composition were followed over time. A control containing only the inoculum was
142 carried out in parallel and the biogas production of this control was taken into account to
143 calculate the substrates gas productions. The mixtures details are presented in the
144 supplementary Table A.1.

145 2.4. Gas production and stable carbon isotope signature

146 The biogas accumulation in the headspace was measured using a differential manometer
147 (Digitron 2082P). The biogas was then analysed directly in the headspace using a micro gas
148 chromatograph (CP4900, Varian) as described in Chapleur et al. (2014). Data were used to
149 calculate the biogas production at standard temperature and pressure. Different parameters

150 used to quantify the methane production potential were calculated using R CRAN software
151 and the Gompertz equation with Grofit package as described in Poirier et al. (2016):

$$y(t) = A \cdot \exp \left[- \exp \left(\frac{\mu \cdot e}{A} (\lambda - t) + 1 \right) \right]$$

152 Where $y(t)$ is a cumulative CH_4 production (mL), A is the ultimate CH_4 yield (mL), μ is the
153 maximum production of CH_4 production rate (mL/day), and λ is the lag phase (day).

154 The methanogenic pathways during the substrates degradation (acetoclastic
155 methanogenesis or hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis) were determined by the gas isotopic
156 signature analysis. Periodically gas was sampled into a 7 mL vacuumed serum tubes for
157 analysis of $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ and $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$. A Trace Gas Chromatograph Ultra (Thermo Scientific)
158 attached to a Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer via a GC combustion III (Thermo
159 Scientific) was used to carry out the analysis. The principle of the method was described by
160 (Brand, 1996; Sugimoto et al., 1991). The uncertainties, determined by replicate
161 measurement, for $\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4$ and $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ analysis was around 0.5 ‰. As indicator of the
162 methanogenic pathway, the apparent isotopic factor (α_{app}) was calculated as presented in the
163 following equation:

$$164 \quad \alpha_{\text{app}} = (\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2 + 10^3) / (\delta^{13}\text{CH}_4 + 10^3)$$

165 It is usually assumed that if the α_{app} is superior to 1.065, the hydrogenotrophic way is
166 the most important. On the contrary if the α_{app} is inferior to 1.055, the methanogenesis is
167 dominated by the acetoclastic way (Conrad, 2005; Whiticar et al., 1986).

168 2.5. Chemical analysis

169 Volatile Fatty Acids (VFA) concentrations were measured using ionic chromatography
170 (ICS 5000+, Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with IonPAC ICE-AS1 column. The mobile
171 phase was composed of heptafluorobutyric acid (0.4mmol/L) and tetrabutylammonium
172 (5mmol/L). The VFA quantified were acetate, propionate, butyrate, valerate, formate, lactate
173 and caproate.

174 Ammonium (NH₄⁺) concentration was measured using the Nessler's colorimetric
175 method following the French standard (NF T 90-105) in spectroscopic tanks using Hach
176 spectrometer DR2800. The link between Free Ammonia Nitrogen (FAN), Total Ammonia
177 Nitrogen (TAN), pH and temperature can be summarized with the following equation
178 (Anthonisen et al., 1976):

$$FAN = \frac{10^{pH}}{\left(\exp\left(\frac{6344}{T}\right) + 10^{pH}\right)} \times TAN$$

179 Where T is the temperature in Kelvin.

180 Dissolved organic and inorganic (DOC and DIC) carbons were measured following the
181 French standard NF EN 1484 using a DOC analyser TOC-L Shimadzu.

182 Chemical oxygen demand (COD) was measured with LCK514 kit (Hach Lange)
183 according to the manufacturer's instructions.

184 The carbon and nitrogen quantities contained in the substrates and inoculum were
185 analysed on the crushed and dried sample. 10 mg of the sample was placed on sampler tin and
186 analysed using an elementary analyser (VARIO EL III, Bioritech).

187 2.6. RNA extraction and 16S RNA sequencing analysis

188 Based on the methane production (Figure 2), a total of 19 samples were selected. Total RNA
189 was extracted using the commercial kit FastRNA Pro™ Soil-Direct (MP Biomedicals)
190 following the manufacturer's specifications. Then, DNA co-extracted was removed using
191 TURBO™ DNase (Ambion) kit following the manufacturer's instructions. The RNA was
192 denatured by 2 min at 85°C in a dry bath and was then stored on ice. RNA purification was
193 carried out using the Agencourt AMPure RNA magnetic beads purification system (Beckman
194 Coulter) by adding 1.8 volumes of beads by volume of RNA. After mixing by pipetting and 5
195 min of incubation, beads were captured using a magnetic rack on one side of the tube and then
196 washed by adding 500µL of 70% cold ethanol (diluted in DEPC-water). After incubation of

197 the tube during 30 seconds at room temperature, the ethanol was removed. This washing step
198 was repeated 3 times. Once ethanol finally evaporated, beads were resuspended with DEPC-
199 water to eluted RNA from the beads. Finally beads were removed using the magnetic rack and
200 RNA was recovered in the supernatant. The integrity and quantity of the RNA was evaluated
201 using the Hight Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape and 4200 TapeStation (Agilent Technologies)
202 following the manufacturer's protocol.

203 A reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) was carried out on the RNA using the mix iScript
204 Reverse Transcription Supermix (Biorad) and the following thermocycler program: 5min at
205 25°C, 30min at 42°C and 5min at 85°C. The cDNA was quantified using Qubit 2.0
206 fluorometer (ssDNA assay kit, Invitrogen, Life Technologies).

207 Archaeal hyper variable region V4-V5 of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified on the cDNA
208 according to the protocol described by Madigou et al (Madigou et al., 2018).

209 16S rRNA tags reads were imported in FROGS. FROGS (Find Rapidly OTU with
210 Galaxy Solution) is a galaxy/CLI workflow designed to produce an OTU count matrix from
211 high depth sequencing amplicon data (Escudié et al., 2018). FROGS abundance file was
212 examined using R CRAN software (version 3.4.4). Considering the dispersion in the total
213 number of reads identified in each sample, archaeal OTUs abundances were normalized with
214 total sum scaling. Only OTUs that exceeded 1% in at least one sample have been taken into
215 account for the analysis.

216

217 3. Results and discussion

218 3.1. Physico-chemical characteristics of the substrates and inoculum

219 The physico-chemical characteristics of the different substrates and the inoculum are
220 summarised in Table 1. The C/N ratio of fish was lower than the C/N ratio of sludge and grass
221 which were similar. Two key information can be drawn from these analyses. The first one is

222 the higher amount of nitrogen (N) in fish waste (9.5 %) compared to sludge and grass (2.46
223 and 2.2 % respectively), explaining the low C/N ratio. This result implies a higher potential to
224 produce ammonia during the fish degradation compared to sludge and grass. The second
225 information is the lower quantity of dissolved organic carbon in sludge (1250 mgC/L)
226 compared to fish (7921 mgC/L) and grass (7692 mgC/L). It suggests that even if the C/N ratio
227 was similar between grass and sludge, the CH₄ production could start earlier in fish and grass
228 because more readily available carbon was present.

229 **[[insert table 1]]**

230 A BMP test was carried out to determine the maximal CH₄ production potential for the
231 different substrates. The kinetics production parameters determined after modelling of the
232 data with Gompertz equation are presented in the Table 2. Degradation started immediately
233 for all the substrates as expected according to the substrate/inoculum ratio used. Sludge-BMP
234 degradation was the slowest (2.09 mgC/D/gCOD) and the less important (44.35 mgC/gCOD
235 of CH₄ was produced). The slow degradation of the sludge was in accordance with the lower
236 DOC initial value observed for the sludge. Fish-BMP and Grass-BMP degradation produced
237 almost the same final amount of CH₄ (circa 119 mgC/gCOD) and at a similar rate (circa 8
238 mgC/D/gCOD).

239 **[[insert table 2]]**

240 3.2. Mono-digestion of the substrates

241 The specific methane production of wastewater sludge (S-100), fish waste (F-100) and
242 grass (G-100) mono-digestion are presented in the Fig. 1 and the kinetics parameters of
243 production determined after modelling with Gompertz equation are presented in the Table 2.
244 Between 30 to 50 % of the initial quantity was transformed into biogas. Wastewater sludge in
245 the experimental batch mono-digestion produced the lowest final CH₄ quantity (46.62
246 mgC/gCOD) despite a similar COD amount fed to the bioreactor at the beginning of the

247 experiment. The highest final CH₄ production was observed for fish (F-100, 87.55
248 mgC/gCOD, compared to respectively 68.43 and 46.62 mgC/gCOD for G-100 and S-100)
249 while the production began earlier and was faster when grass was used as a single substrate
250 (G-100). The faster CH₄ production rate estimated by Gompertz modelling for G-100 can be
251 explained by the higher amount of DOC present in the grass (supplementary Figure B.1-A).
252 Because dissolved organic carbon was readily available, the CH₄ production could start earlier
253 and be faster. It is interesting to notice that the kinetic of CH₄ production differed between
254 fish and grass during mono-digestion experiment while they were similar during the BMP
255 test. Because the only difference between the mono-digestion experiment and the BMP test
256 was the Substrate/Inoculum ratio, respectively 12/1.2 and 0.7/7 gCOD, it can be hypothesised
257 that the concentration of the methanogenic biomass at the beginning of the experiments
258 played a non-negligible role in the kinetics of the CH₄ production. This assessment was
259 already described in several publications (Hobbs et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2011).

260 Biogas productions observed in our experiment was compared to the values described in
261 the literature for similar substrates. Abendroth et al observed a higher performance of
262 methane production from WAS mono-digestion (250-300 mL/gCOD) (Abendroth et al.,
263 2017) than in our study (95 mL/gCOD). This difference can be explained by the difference of
264 WAS quality according to the preprocess. Indeed it was already described that industrial
265 digesters treating WAS present different performances (Rivière et al., 2009; Sundberg et al.,
266 2013). In the same way grass anaerobic digestion performances will greatly depends of its
267 type, treatment or freshness (Prochnow et al., 2009). Fish mono-digestion methane
268 performances will also depends of the type and the part of fish digested (Donoso-Bravo et al.,
269 2015). However in our study the final methane production (198 mL/gCOD) was comparable
270 to the methane performances obtained by Donoso-Bravo et al which was around 200-300
271 mL/gCOD.

272 **[[insert figure 1]]**

273 The concentration of acetic and propionic acids for all batches are presented in the
274 supplementary figure B.1-B. The acetate maximum accumulation during sludge mono-
275 digestion S-100 was the lowest (47 mgC/L/gCOD) and acetate took around 40 days to be
276 degraded. In comparison, fish and grass mono-digestion (F-100 and G-100) degradation
277 produced a similar level of acetate in 7 days (circa 90 mgC/L/gCOD) suggesting that organic
278 carbon in fish and grass was more readily degradable. However the total acetate degradation
279 occurred in 13 days for G-100 and in 43 days for F-100. These results coupled to the
280 difference in the final methane production between G-100 and F-100 indicated a lower
281 degradability across time of the grass compared to the fish. No butyrate was produced during
282 the sludge degradation while butyrate accumulation was mainly observed in F-100 (maximum
283 30 mgC/L/gCOD compared to 10 mgC/L/gCOD in G-100). The propionate maximum
284 accumulation was more important for F-100 (47 mgC/L/gCOD) compared to G-100 (37
285 mgC/L/gCOD). For G-100, the degradation of the propionate started after all the acetate had
286 been totally degraded. In F-100 the degradation was not completed at day 72. An increase of
287 15 mgC/gCOD of CH₄ was observed between day 70 and the end of the experiment
288 suggesting that a part of the 25 mgC/gCOD of propionate present at day 70, started to be
289 degraded after day 70. Propionate is one of the most important precursors in methane
290 production after acetate (Lawrence and McCarty, 1969) but it is also reported to accumulate
291 easily and cause process inhibition in some cases (Gallert and Winter, 2008; Wang et al.,
292 2009). Anaerobic oxidation of propionic acid is thermodynamically unfavorable and depends
293 on acetate and H₂ content (Boone and Bryant, 1980; Mawson et al., 1991). It is only
294 performed by specific microorganisms. The major pathway for the anaerobic propionate
295 degradation is a syntrophic degradation of propionate linked to H₂ transfer via a methanogen
296 (Ariesyady et al., 2007). Delays observed in the degradation of the propionate for fish mono-

297 digestion F-100 could be explained by the time needed by the appropriate microorganism to
298 grow and by the syntrophy to take place.

299 The evolution of NH_4^+ , pH and NH_3 values during the substrates degradation are
300 presented in the supplementary figure B.1-C. F-100 produced in 7 days around 1300 mg/L of
301 NH_4^+ compared with 350 mg/L for G-100 and S-100 corresponding to a respectively amount
302 of 140 and 30 mg/L of NH_3 . Ammonia nitrogen is known to be an inhibitor of the AD,
303 especially free ammonia (NH_3) (Fotidis et al., 2013; Rajagopal et al., 2013). However a wide
304 range of half inhibitory concentrations has been reported between 1.7 to 19 g/L of NH_4^+
305 (Chen et al., 2008; Poirier et al., 2016) and 50-1400 mg NH_3 /L (Rajagopal et al., 2013)
306 depending on multiple factors such as the microbial community, temperature... The highest
307 free ammonia accumulation observed for F-100 was 140 mg/L at day 50. The amount of
308 ammonia observed in F-100 was under the inhibitory values described in the literature. It
309 cannot be excluded that the microbial community was partly inhibited, particularly the
310 methanogens and the propionate degrading acetogenic bacteria which are known to be
311 sensitive to free ammonia (Calli et al., 2005; Westerholm et al., 2011).

312

313 3.3. Co-digestion of the substrates

314 3.3.1 Performances of wastewater sludge co-digestion with fish waste

315 Evolution of the cumulated CH_4 production over time for the different mixtures is
316 presented in Figure 2 and the Table 2 details the results of the Gompertz modelling for each
317 mixture. In all cases the addition of fish enabled to increase the final CH_4 production
318 compared to S-100. For example, F-25, which contains 25 % of fish and 75 % of sludge,
319 produced 65.58 mgC/gCOD of CH_4 , *ie.* 18 mgC/gCOD more than S-100. According to the
320 Gompertz modelling the latency before CH_4 production start was not significantly modified
321 between the different mixtures, but the production rate was increased from 2.31 to 3.00

322 mgC/D/gCOD for F-25 and F-75 respectively. Dissolved organic carbon accumulation
323 (supplementary figure C.1-A) between days 0 to 7, representative of the solid carbon
324 degradation during the early hydrolytic phase, increased when more than 25 % (gCOD) of
325 fish was mixed to WAS. This could be explained by the presence of a higher quantity of
326 easily degradable carbon or by a hydrolysis step faster when fish was present than for S-100.

327 Volatile fatty acids accumulation, presented in the supplementary figure C.1-B show a
328 similar VFA pattern evolution for the mixtures F-25 and F-50 than for S-100. The acetate
329 accumulation profile in F-75 was also similar to S-100 while the propionate maximum
330 accumulation was closed to F-100 (45 mgC/L/gCOD). The consumption of the propionate in
331 F-75 was completely achieved after day 60 while in F-100 the propionate degradation had not
332 started yet. Regarding the butyrate production no significant effect of AcoD was observed.
333 The ammonia accumulation presented in the supplementary figure C.1-C shows an increase of
334 the NH_4^+ level proportional to the amount of fish added in the feeding, indicating that
335 ammonia production was mainly due to fish. Use wastewater sludge to dilute fish waste
336 decreased the NH_4^+ level which seemed to reduce the inhibition of the propionate degrading
337 population observed on the fish mono-digestion. This allowed to increase the propionate
338 degradation rate and to produce the CH_4 faster.

339 3.3.2 Performances of wastewater sludge co-digestion with garden-grass

340 In the case of co-digestion with grass, the final CH_4 production was increased only
341 when more than 50 % of grass was mixed with sludge compared to sludge mono-digestion
342 (Fig. 2). G-25 presented an earlier CH_4 production but a final production similar to S-100.
343 The more the proportion of grass was important the more the latency to produce CH_4 was
344 reduced (from 4.5 days to 2.6 for G-25 and G-75 respectively). Mixing grass and sludge
345 increased the amount of dissolved organic carbon accumulated during the 7 first days. All the
346 mixtures presented the same evolution of acetate accumulation than G-100 with a higher and

347 faster accumulation than in S-100. However, propionate final accumulation was 2 times
348 higher for the mixtures than for S-100 (20 mgC/L/gCOD) and G-100 (37 mgC/L/gCOD) but
349 propionate degradation for all bioreactors was achieved in 30 days. For all bioreactors of grass
350 co-digestion, the ammonia level stayed stable along the experiment closed to 350mg/L such
351 as the level in S-100 and G-100.

352 **[[insert figure 2]]**

353

354 3.4. Influence of the co-digestion on the methanogenic pathways

355 Measurement of the biogas carbon stable isotopic composition allowed to follow the
356 evolution of the methanogenic pathway across time (Conrad, 2005). The results are presented
357 in the figure 3.

358 The methane production in S-100 was carried out during the first 20 days mostly by the
359 hydrogenotrophic pathway (α_{app} superior to 1.065). After 20 days, the methanogenic pathway
360 changed progressively from hydrogenotrophic to acetoclastic pathway (α_{app} inferior than
361 1.055 after 30 days).

362 In the fish mono-digestion the gas production at the beginning of the experiment was
363 dominated by the acetoclastic pathway. During the first week of the experiment, the
364 methanogenic pathway increased from 1.04 to 1.06, namely from acetoclastic pathway to a
365 mix of methanogenic pathways. This can be explained by a high hydrolytic activity producing
366 H_2 and CO_2 and favouring the gas production by the hydrogenotrophic pathway. During the
367 next 20 days the α_{app} decreased due to the consumption of the acetate by the acetoclastic
368 methanogens. Finally, when all the acetate was degraded, the α_{app} increased again due to the
369 syntrophic oxidation of the propionate during which methane was produced by acetoclastic
370 and hydrogenotrophic pathways. The evolution across time of the methanogenic pathways for
371 the mixtures of the co-digestion with fish followed the same evolution than F-100 but with the

372 values of the α_{app} corresponding to an intermediate between F-100 and S-100. Because the
373 propionate was not degraded at the same time for the different fish mixtures, the α_{app} evolved
374 differently between the different mixtures. This study shows that addition of fish waste
375 influenced strongly the methanogenic pathway during the co-digestion.

376 The mono-digestion of grass presented a similar evolution across time of the
377 methanogenic pathway. The beginning of the experiment started in the acetoclastic pathway.
378 After a first increase followed by a decrease of the α_{app} induced by the production of CO_2 then
379 the consumption of the acetate, the α_{app} stabilised at 1.055 due to the propionate degradation.
380 Contrary to the fish mixtures, the co-digestion mixtures of grass presented a distinction
381 between two groups. The methanogenic pathway evolution for G-25 was closer to S-100 with
382 a beginning in the hydrogenotrophic pathway while the methanogenic pathways evolution of
383 G-50 and G-75 was similar to G-100. This differentiation in the methanogenic pathways for
384 the grass mixtures can explain the difference observed in the methane production.

385 **[[insert figure 3]]**

386 In support of the isotopic fractionation results the active archaeal community was
387 analysed using 16S RNA sequencing during the methane production phase. *Methanosarcina*
388 genus was the most abundant archaea in all the digesters independently of the feeding
389 composition. This archaea has a versatile methanogenesis metabolism but in regards with the
390 isotopic results the acetoclastic pathway seemed to be dominant. Indeed, except for sludge
391 mono-digestion, the methane was mostly produced by the acetoclastic pathway since the
392 beginning of the experiments. Other hydrogenotrophic archaea were found in the digesters.
393 *Methanoculleus* and *Methanobacterium* genera were found in digesters fed with sludge and/or
394 fish. Their abundances were higher in sludge mono-digestion at the beginning of the methane
395 production (day 14) than in fish fed digesters. This result is in accordance with the isotopic
396 fractionation which showed that hydrogenotrophic pathway was dominant in sludge mono-

397 digestion during the 20th first days. *Methanospirillum* were relatively abundant in digesters fed
398 with grass and sludge, reaching up to 25% in G25 bioreactors. Archaea of *Methanofollis* and
399 *Methanocorpusculum* were found specifically in digesters fed with more than 25 of grass but they
400 remained minority.

401 **[[insert figure 4]]**

402

403 3.5. Estimation of the optimal blend of the co-digestion using indicators

404 In order to evaluate the benefit of the co-digestion, the experimental values of the CH₄
405 production measured for the bioreactors were compared to two indicators that we built. The
406 first one is the empirical maximum production that could be obtained under optimal
407 conditions (determined with BMP) and called thereafter Optimal Digestion Indicator (ODI).
408 For the different mix, ODI was calculated as a linear combination of the BMP experimental
409 values obtained for Sludge-BMP, Fish-BMP and Grass-BMP using the percentage of each co-
410 substrate as coefficient. The second indicator is the empirical production that could be
411 obtained under experimental conditions and called Mono-Digestion Indicator (MDI). MDI
412 was calculated in the same way than ODI but using the linear combination of the mono-
413 digestion experimental values. Figure 5 represents the comparison of the experimental CH₄
414 production profiles to the indicators for each mixture. The Table 2 summarises the kinetics
415 production parameters determined after modelling the data with Gompertz equation for all the
416 experiments and indicators.

417 The comparison of the experimental mono-digestion (F-100, G-100 and S-100) to the
418 Optimal Digestion Indicator was already described in details in the section dedicated to the
419 mono-digestion. The ODI was higher than the experimental methane production but the co-
420 digestion with fish or grass allowed to get close to the final methane production and/or the
421 production rate of the mixtures to the ODI.

422 For the co-digestion with fish waste the comparison showed no significant differences
423 between the experimental final methane production and the MDI. However the methane
424 production rate for the F-75 (3.00 mgC/days/gCOD) was increased comparing to the MDI
425 (2.33 mgC/days/gCOD). This result, taken with the chemical results (propionate) and the
426 methanogenic pathway analysis, indicates that use of 75 % of fish seemed to be the optimal
427 proportion to enhance the methane production from sewage sludge. Indeed, the propionate
428 was consumed earlier and was associated to a faster return to the acetoclastic methanogenic
429 pathway. On an industrial point of view if the aim is to enhance the final CH₄ production from
430 wastewater sludge, fish waste is a good candidate even at a low quantity. The other advantage
431 to treat fish waste in co-digestion is to limit the risk of an inhibition by the ammonia and the
432 propionate which are accumulated during the degradation in mono-digestion. The high
433 potential of VFA production from fish was already studied (Bermúdez-Penabad et al., 2017).
434 Even if no such inhibition was observed in our system, the potentiality of ammonia and VFA
435 accumulation was observed. However, in case of CH₄ production enhancement, the VFA
436 production can inhibit the system and the co-digestion can be a solution to overcome this
437 inhibition (Xu et al., 2017).

438 Regarding the co-digestion with grass, G-25 maximal methane production was slightly
439 lower than the one estimated by the MDI. In contrast, G-50 and G-75 allowed to increase the
440 maximal production by 1.2 times and the CH₄ production rate from 1.2 and 1.3 respectively.
441 Because the experimental CH₄ production was higher than the MDI prediction during all the
442 experiment for G-50 and G-75, it can be supposed that a synergistic effect occurred between
443 grass and wastewater sludge at these proportions. The mixture improving the AD
444 performances the more in term of CH₄ production is G-75. The substrate degradation started
445 earlier, the methane production rate was improved by 1.2 times and the maximal production

446 was increased by 1.7 times compared to the mono-digestion of wastewater of sludge and 0.9
447 compared to the mono-digestion of grass.

448 **[[insert figure 5]]**

449

450 4. Conclusion

451 Increasing the fish concentration in co-digestion with wastewater sludge gradually
452 improved the final methane production up to 1.9 times when 75 % of fish was added. On the
453 contrary grass enabled to improve the final methane production from WAS only when more
454 than 25 % of grass was added. Adding more than 50 % of grass improved both the production
455 rate and the final production by to 1.5 and 1.7 times respectively. Specifically built indicators
456 showed that using 75 % of fish or grass as co-substrate with sewage sludge enabled to obtain
457 the maximum final methane production. In nearly all the bioreactors, archaea from
458 *Methanosarcina* genus accounted for more than 75% of the archaeal diversity. No significant
459 difference in the methanogenic pathways was observed across time between fish and grass
460 mono-digestion. It was mostly acetoclastic while wastewater sludge mono-digestion changed
461 from hydrogenotrophic to acetoclastic methanogenesis pathway. The anaerobic co-digestion
462 allowed to limit the variation between the methanogenesis pathway of the sludge.

463

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468

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473

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614

615 **Table 1. Characteristics of substrates and inoculum**

	Wastewater Sludge	Fish	Grass	Inoculum
NH ₄ ⁺ (mgN/L)	299	899	438	628
DOC (mgC/L)	1250	7921	7692	149
DIC(mgC/L)	99	346	424	753
COD (gO ₂ /L)	103	310	95	13
C (%)	41.58	43.67	42.55	22.58
N (%)	2.46	9.50	2.20	2.19
C/ N	16.89	4.60	19.37	10.29
Dry matter (DM) (%)	5	24	11	1
Volatile matter (VM) (%)	81	79	84	61
Lactate (mgC/L)	0.00	0.00	398.80	23.40
Formate (mgC/L)	0.00	138.52	0.00	0.00
Acetate (mgC/L)	537.08	62.88	11.08	2.08
Propionate (mgC/L)	441.83	0.00	0.00	0.00
Butyrate (mgC/L)	199.20	0.00	0.00	0.00
Valerate (mgC/L)	43.88	0.00	0.00	0.00

616

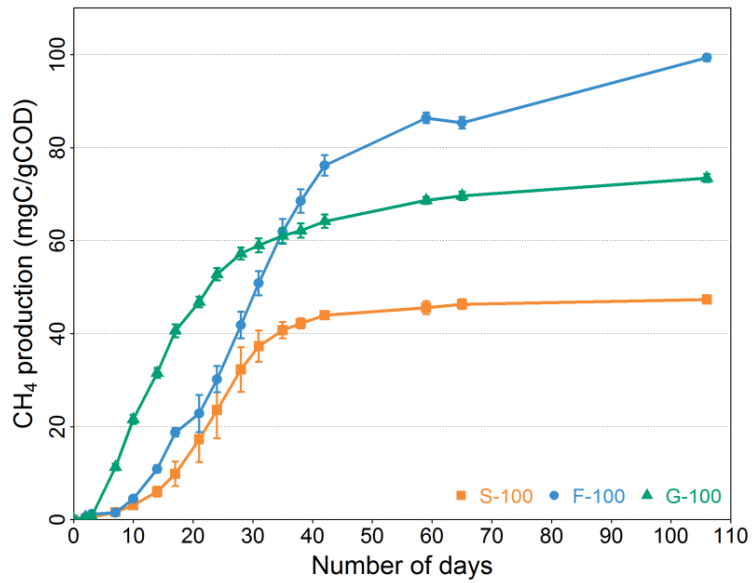
617

618 **Table 2. Kinetics parameters for CH₄ production using Gompertz model for the**
619 **different mixtures of substrates, BMP tests and the biodegradation indicators.** The data
620 are the mean values for the triplicate bioreactors, standard deviations are indicated. μ
621 correspond to the CH₄ production rate, λ to the latency and A to the maximum production.

	Name	μ (mgC/day/gCOD)	λ (day)	A (mgC/gCOD)
Experimental Batches	F-100	2.35 (± 0.57)	10.1 (± 0.8)	87.55 (± 13.00)
	F-75	3.00 (± 0.11)	10.8 (± 0.6)	86.31 (± 4.93)
	F-50	2.49 (± 0.35)	7.7 (± 0.8)	72.03 (± 4.49)
	F-25	2.31 (± 0.10)	9.4 (± 0.5)	64.65 (± 1.46)
	S-100	2.26 (± 0.26)	12.8 (± 1.3)	46.62 (± 0.8)
	G-25	1.93 (± 0.10)	4.5 (± 0.6)	42.75 (± 5.41)
	G-50	2.97 (± 0.21)	3.2 (± 1.1)	70.80 (± 4.72)
	G-75	3.45 (± 0.46)	2.6 (± 0.7)	79.30 (± 6.99)
	G-100	2.81 (± 0.12)	3.1 (± 0.2)	68.43 (± 0.97)
	Mono-Digestion Indicator	F75-MDI	2.33 (± 0.49)	10.8 (± 0.9)
F50-MDI		2.31 (± 0.43)	11.5 (± 1.1)	67.09 (± 6.90)
F25-MDI		2.28 (± 0.35)	12.1 (± 0.5)	56.85 (± 3.85)
G25-MDI		2.40 (± 0.24)	10.4 (± 1.0)	52.07 (± 0.84)
G50-MDI		2.54 (± 0.20)	8.0 (± 0.8)	57.53 (± 0.89)
G75-MDI		2.67 (± 0.16)	5.5 (± 0.5)	62.98 (± 0.93)
BMP test	Fish-BMP	8.18 (± 0.24)	0	119.35 (± 15.28)
	Sludge-BMP	2.09 (± 0.17)	0	44.35 (± 18.3)
	Grass-BMP	8.47 (± 3.67)	0	118.33 (± 12.9)
Optimal Digestion Indicator	F75-ODI	6.66 (± 0.22)	0	100.60 (± 16.04)
	F50-ODI	5.14 (± 0.21)	0	81.85 (± 16.79)
	F25-ODI	3.61 (± 0.19)	0	63.10 (± 17.55)
	G25-ODI	6.88 (± 2.80)	0	99.84 (± 14.25)
	G50-ODI	5.28 (± 1.92)	0	81.34 (± 15.60)
	G75-ODI	3.69 (± 1.05)	0	62.85 (± 16.95)

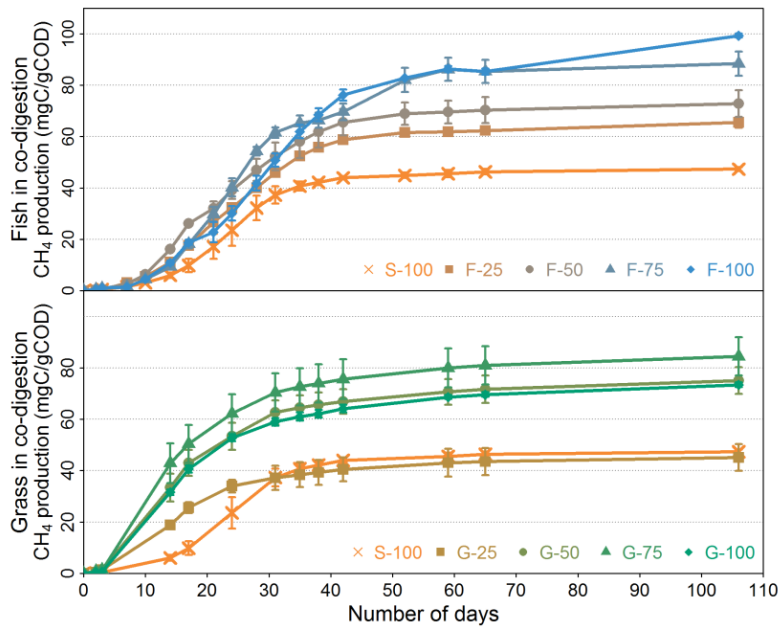
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624

625 **Figure 1. Cumulated CH₄ production (mgC/gCOD) over time (days) for the different**
 626 **substrates in mono-digestion experiments.** Mean values of the triplicate bioreactors for CH₄
 627 productions, error bars represent standard deviation within triplicates. S, F and G stand for
 628 Sludge, Fish and Grass respectively.



630

631 **Figure 2. Cumulated CH₄ production (mgC/gCOD) over time (days) for Fish and Grass**632 **used as co-substrates in co-digestion with wastewater sludge.** Mean values of the triplicate

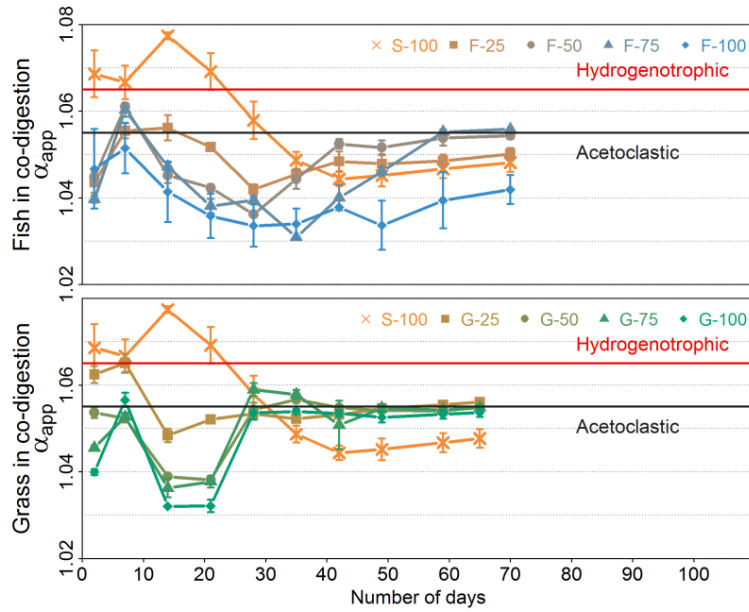
633 bioreactors, error bars represent standard deviation within triplicates. S-100 stands for

634 wastewater sludge alone, F-25, F-50, F-75, F-100 stands for respectively 25, 50, 75 or 100%

635 of fish (F) in co-digestion with sludge, G-25, G-50, G-75, G-100 stands for respectively 25,

636 50, 75 or 100% of Grass (G) in co-digestion with sludge.

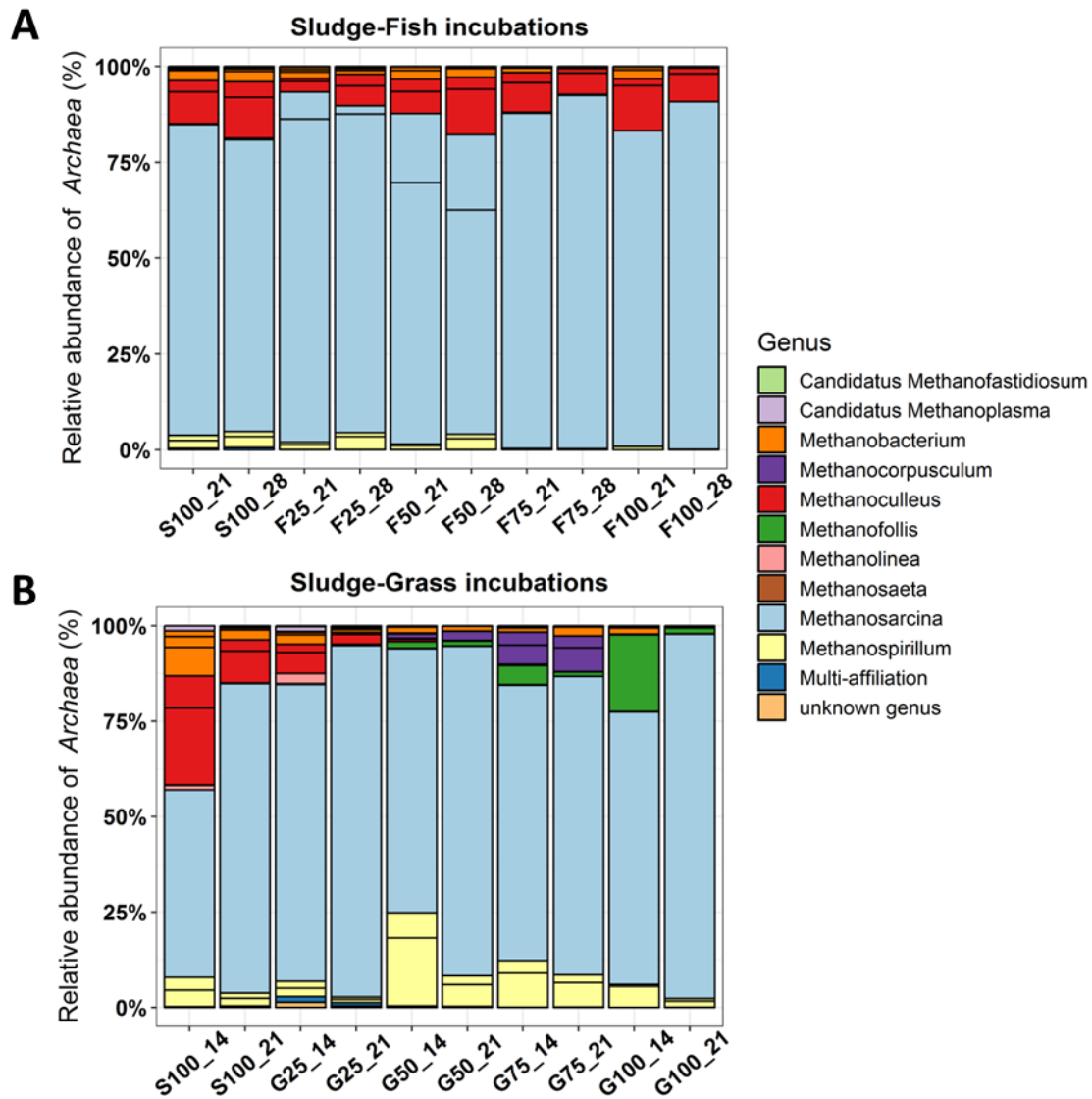
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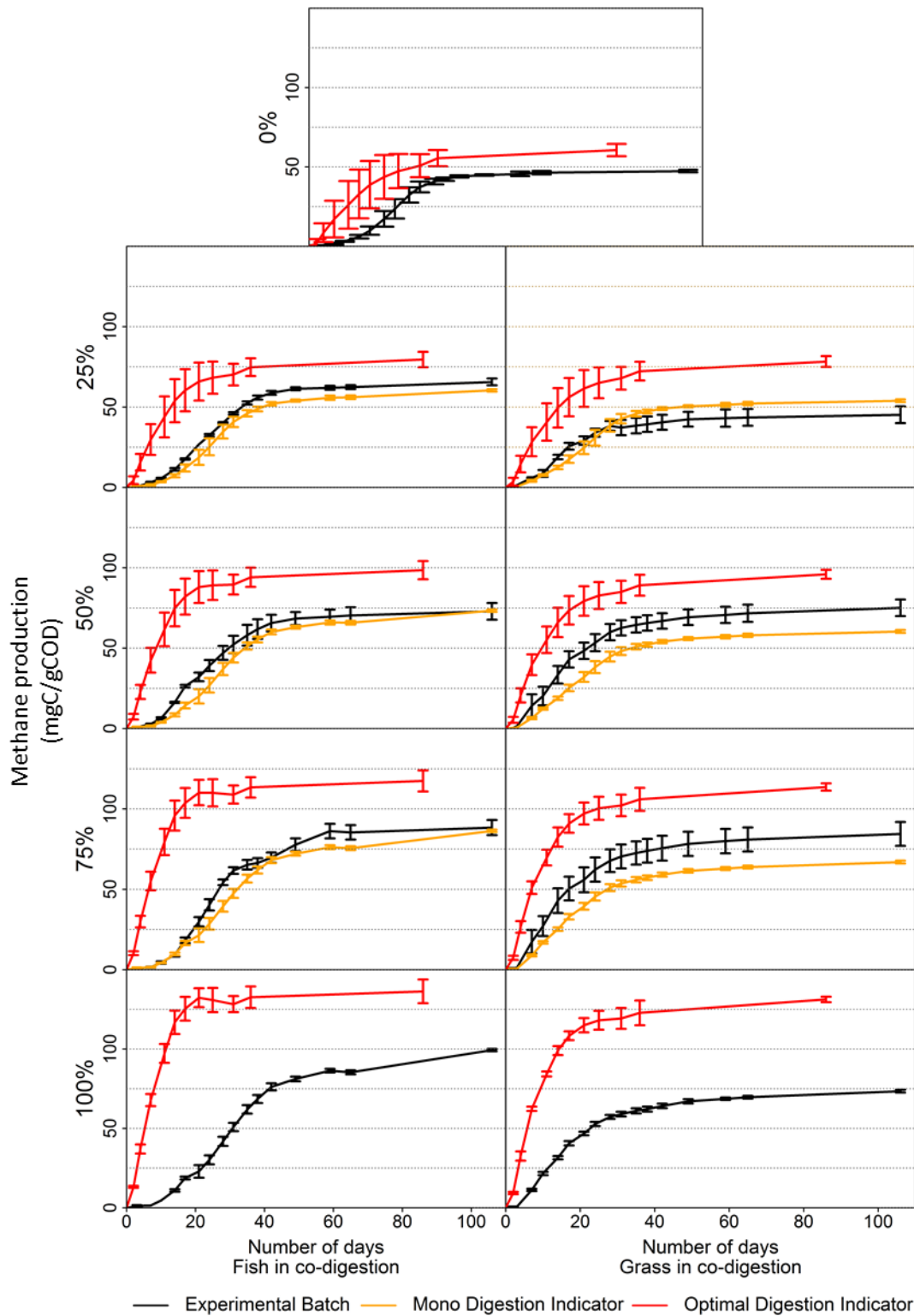
638

641 **Figure 3. Apparent isotope fractionation over time (days) for Fish and Grass used as co-**
642 **substrates in co-digestion with wastewater sludge.** Mean values of the triplicate
643 bioreactors, error bars represent standard deviation within triplicates. S-100 stands for
644 wastewater sludge alone, F-25, F-50, F-75, F-100 stands for respectively 25, 50, 75 or 100%
645 of fish (F) in co-digestion with sludge, G-25, G-50, G-75, G-100 stands for respectively 25,
646 50, 75 or 100% of Grass (G) in co-digestion with sludge.

647



648
 649 Figure 4: Taxonomic composition at genus level based on the 16S archaea-specific amplicon
 650 sequences. (A) Samples from reactors fed with sludge and/or fish at days 21 and 28 of the
 651 experiment (B) Samples from reactors fed with sludge and/or grass at days 14 and 21 of the
 652 experiment. Days were selected to correspond to the methane production phase. S100 stands
 653 for wastewater sludge alone, F25, F50, F75, F100 stands for respectively 25, 50, 75 or 100%
 654 of fish (F) in co-digestion with sludge, G25, G50, G75, G100 stands for respectively 25, 50,
 655 75 or 100% of Grass (G) in co-digestion with sludge.



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657 **Figure 5. Experimental Batch methane production (mgC/gCOD) compared to the**
 658 **Maximal Digestion Indicator and the Optimal Digestion Indicator over time (days) for**
 659 **fish and grass substrates in co-digestion with wastewater sludge. Mean values of the**

660 triplicate bioreactors for CH₄ productions, error bars represent standard deviation within
661 triplicates. S-100 stands for wastewater sludge alone, F-25, F-50, F-75, F-100 stands for
662 respectively 25, 50, 75 or 100% of fish (F) in co-digestion with sludge, G-25, G-50, G-75, G-
663 100 stands for respectively 25, 50, 75 or 100% of Grass (G) in co-digestion with sludge.

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