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1 Energy and nutrient recovery from municipal and industrial 2 waste and wastewater - a perspective

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17 **Keywords:**

18 Anaerobic digestion, biofilm, digestate treatment, carboxylate platform, mixed microbial
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20 **Graphical Abstract and One-Sentence Summary**

21 Graphical Abstract. Created in BioRender. Rachbauer, L. (2024) BioRender.com/c66e108.

22 Multifaceted waste streams as the basis for resource recovery are essential to achieve
23 environmental sustainability in a circular economy, and require the development of next-
24 generation waste treatment technologies leveraging a highly adaptive mixed microbial
25 community approach to produce new biochemicals, biomaterials and biofuels from carbon-rich,
26 organic waste streams.

27

28 **Abstract**

29 This publication highlights the latest advancements in the field of energy and nutrient recovery
30 from organics rich municipal and industrial waste and wastewater. Energy and carbon rich
31 waste streams are multifaceted, including municipal solid waste, industrial waste, agricultural
32 by-products and residues, beached or residual seaweed biomass from post-harvest processing,
33 and food waste and are valuable resources to overcome current limitations with sustainable
34 feedstock supply chains for biorefining approaches. The emphasis will be on the most recent
35 scientific progress in the area, including the development of new and innovative technologies,
36 such as microbial processes and the role of biofilms for the degradation of organic pollutants in
37 wastewater, as well as the production of biofuels and value-added products from organic waste
38 and wastewater streams. The carboxylate platform, which employs microbiomes to produce
39 mixed carboxylic acids through methane-arrested anaerobic digestion, is the focus as a new
40 conversion technology. Nutrient recycling from conventional waste streams such as wastewater
41 and digestate, and the energetic valorization of such streams will also be discussed. The
42 selected technologies significantly contribute to advanced waste and wastewater treatment and
43 support the recovery and utilization of carboxylic acids as the basis to produce many useful and
44 valuable products, including food and feed preservatives, human and animal health

45 supplements, solvents, plasticizers, lubricants, and even biofuels such as sustainable aviation
46 fuel.

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Reimagining our energy and carbon rich waste streams as a valuable resource can support
50 overcoming current limitations with feedstock supply chains for biorefining approaches. Many
51 current bio-based initiatives strongly rely on sugar-, lipid- and starch-based input streams
52 associated with land use change and the food/feed vs. fuel debate. Extrapolations on how much
53 carbon to build a future bioeconomy can be covered solely by sustainable biomass resources
54 have their limitations. Although cascade utilization of the available biomass can counteract this
55 limitation, the question remains where the necessary carbon should come from. A stepwise
56 approach, where materials are the first priority, followed by chemicals production, and lastly fuel
57 production, can enable a sustainable bioeconomy where the term 'waste' is redefined. Carbon
58 waste streams are multifaceted and include municipal solid waste, industrial waste, agricultural
59 by-products and residues, beached or residual seaweed biomass from post-harvest processing,
60 and food waste. The food and beverage industry including breweries, wineries, confectioners,
61 and dairy producers, generates high-strength wastewater that requires treatment or costly
62 disposal, varying by geography and quantity (Bochmann et al., 2020). Traditional treatment
63 processes have low treatment efficiency or high operational costs and often ignore the
64 economic potential of such carbon-rich waste streams. In a circular economy, resource recovery
65 from waste streams is essential to achieve environmental sustainability. This requires the
66 development of next-generation waste treatment technologies that produce new biochemicals,
67 biomaterials and biofuels from carbon-rich organic waste streams rather than simply disposing
68 of them (Steinbusch et al., 2011; Tomás-Pejó et al., 2023).

69 On top of solid waste streams, gaseous carbon sources have attracted scientific interest. Point
70 source streams including industrial emissions from the steel mill industry, CO₂ from biogas and
71 bioethanol plants, as well as initiatives to concentrate CO₂ via Direct-Air Capture open up a new
72 space for a gas fermentation platform. Gasification of various types of biomass allows for
73 syngas production, introducing a new technology on its way to becoming a major contributor to
74 the future bioeconomy. Companies like Lanzatech, its spinoff LanzaJet, Synata BIO - who
75 incorporated Coskata, Inc.'s syngas conversion technology, INEOS Bio, and JUPENG BIO,
76 have been developing gas fermentation technology to convert synthesis gas from low-cost
77 feedstocks into high-value products (Benevenuti et al., 2021; Heijstra et al., 2017; Köpke and
78 Simpson, 2020; Liew et al., 2022). These examples demonstrate the feasibility of reimagining
79 waste streams as a highly valuable resource.

80 Many current initiatives and future funding opportunities like the Sustainable Aviation Fuel (SAF)
81 Grand Challenge Roadmap in the United States tackle challenges in sustainable fuel production
82 and decarbonization efforts, particularly in hard-to-decarbonize sectors (Sustainable Aviation
83 Fuel Grand Challenge Roadmap - Flight Plan for Sustainable Aviation Fuel, 2022). Developing a
84 scalable, and robust bioconversion platform for carbon-rich waste streams contributes to
85 advancing innovative energy technologies, facilitating the transition towards cleaner and more
86 sustainable fuel production. Valorization of waste carbon streams into high-value and high-
87 impact products as sustainable alternatives for the biomaterials, biochemicals, and biofuel
88 sectors reduces environmental impact and promotes energy sustainability. In addition to
89 reducing greenhouse gas emissions, bioconversion improves yield and energy efficiencies by
90 using biogenic rather than fossil-derived inputs. This unique carbon benefit makes
91 biomanufacturing at scale a more appealing alternative for producing most molecules, from the
92 standpoint of CO₂ emissions.

93 This perspective will highlight the latest advancements in the field of energy and nutrient
94 recovery from municipal and industrial waste and wastewater. The emphasis will be on the most

95 recent scientific progress in the area, the development of new and innovative technologies
96 including microbial processes and the role of biofilms in the degradation of organic pollutants in
97 wastewater, the production of biofuels and value-added products from wastewater and organic
98 waste streams with a focus on carboxylic acids production via anaerobic digestion (AD). The
99 authors acknowledge that other cutting-edge approaches such as gas fermentation strategies
100 mentioned above will play a major role in the future circular economy that is based on waste
101 carbon substrates. This highly important topic however, deserves in depth discussion
102 elsewhere.

103

104 Next-generation waste treatment for carbon-rich organic waste streams

105 Industries such as breweries, wineries, confectioners, slaughterhouses, renderers, and dairies
106 generate voluminous amounts of high-strength wastewater that often require a tipping fee for
107 disposal, varying by geography and quantity. For example, the production of 1 kg of cheese can
108 generate 9 to 10 liters of wastewater (Pires et al., 2021), and the production of 1 liter of beer can
109 generate 3 to 10 liters of wastewater (Chen et al., 2016). The high chemical oxygen demand
110 (COD) (15-110 g COD/L) of high-strength wastewater necessitates adequate treatment prior to
111 disposal, but current waste treatment processes have low treatment efficiency or high operation
112 costs. Resource recovery from high strength organic wastewater not only allows the extraction
113 of value-added products and offsets the operational costs of wastewater treatment, but it is also
114 conducive to alleviating adverse environmental issues.

115 The biodegradation of complex high-strength wastewaters requires a highly diverse microbial
116 community structure. AD is an effective treatment process to convert large amounts of organic
117 waste streams such as carbohydrate, protein, and lipid-rich wastewaters and food waste into
118 high value renewable fuels (e.g., renewable methane) and products (e.g., volatile fatty acids)
119 (Holtzapfel et al., 2022). The mixed anaerobic microbial consortium or microbiome can have a
120 significant biological diversity and syntrophic relationships, which enable the integration of

121 multiple metabolic pathways from different kinds of microorganisms. Mixed microbial
122 communities are preferable to pure strains because the diversity of metabolic activities allows
123 adaptation to varied operating conditions and complex feedstocks (Wu et al., 2021a).

124 Hydrolytic bacteria, acidogenic bacteria, acetogens and methanogens are the main microbial
125 communities responsible for AD of organic wastes. The first stage of AD is hydrolysis - complex
126 and large organic molecules (proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids) are broken down into small
127 compounds (amino acids, sugars, long chain fatty acids) by microbes. In the second stage,
128 acidogenesis, microorganisms convert the small molecules into volatile fatty acids, which are
129 organic acids - also classified as short-chain (2 to 4 carbons) and medium-chain (5 to 8
130 carbons) carboxylic acids (acetic, propionic, butyric, valeric, caproic, heptanoic and caprylic
131 acids) (Holtzapple et al., 2022) along with other by-products. In the third stage (acetogenesis),
132 the volatile fatty acids and other simple molecules created by the acidogenesis are converted
133 into hydrogen, carbon dioxide and acetic acid. In the final stage (methanogenesis),
134 microorganisms convert the intermediate products of the preceding stages into methane, water
135 and carbon dioxide.

136 AD technology can be modified for the valorization of organic waste streams to produce short
137 chain- and medium chain carboxylic acids (SCCAs and MCCAs) consistently (Wu et al., 2021a).

138 To this end, the AD process is rewired to produce carboxylic acids via arrested methanogenesis
139 (AM), which is the basis for the carboxylate platform that can make a significant contribution to
140 advanced waste and wastewater treatment (Holtzapple and Granda, 2009). To improve
141 carboxylic acid production, the methanogens must be inhibited to avoid the consumption of
142 SCCAs for methane production. The strategies inhibiting methanogens include inoculum
143 pretreatment, a short sludge retention time and/or short hydraulic retention time, operation at
144 low pH (pH<7.0), and the addition of chemical inhibitors. This modified AD process utilizes
145 highly efficient, robust, and productive mixed microbial community (MMC) structures for the
146 conversion process. This MMC is an adaptable and stable ecosystem, which may not only

147 adapt metabolically, but also microbially. The species present within the MMC fluctuate
148 depending on the feedstocks, available nutrients and operating conditions (e.g., temperature,
149 pH, redox potential, etc). Such an MMC takes advantage of this diversity to efficiently convert
150 any biodegradable material into carboxylic acids, ranging from acetic acid (C2) all the way to
151 caprylic acid (C8). Figure 1A shows the different steps in the AM (or modified AD) conversion
152 process, which starts with hydrolysis of complex molecules, such as carbohydrates, proteins
153 and fats via enzymatic routes present in the MMC. The simpler molecules (sugars, amino acids,
154 glycerol, and fatty acids) resulting from the hydrolysis step are then utilized by the same
155 hydrolytic fermenters or syntrophically metabolized to SCCAs or short-chain fatty acids (formic,
156 acetic, propionic and butyric acid – C1, C2, C3 and C4), as well as hydrogen and CO₂ (and
157 ammonia in the case of proteins) in primary fermentation. Certain other intermediates such as
158 alcohols (e.g., ethanol), lactic acid and succinic acid, are also produced but immediately
159 metabolized. The SCCAs from the primary fermentation may undergo secondary fermentation
160 or chain elongation, where they are elongated into the MCCAs or medium-chain fatty acids
161 (valeric, caproic, heptanoic and caprylic acid – C5, C6, C7 and C8) using the metabolic pathway
162 known as reverse β -oxidation, by organisms affiliated with the Clostridiaceae and
163 Veillonellaceae families, mainly in the Clostridium and Megasphaera genus (Candry and
164 Ganigué, 2021; De Groof et al., 2019). Several metabolic pathways are at play during these
165 transformations as seen in Figure 1B and 1C. In Figure 1B, primary fermentation pathways are
166 depicted, showing the conversion of glucose into pyruvate as the initial step. From pyruvate
167 most other products form, including cellular biomass and acetic (C2) acid, with an acetyl-CoA
168 intermediate, alongside other SCCAs, namely formate (C1), and propionate (C3). In addition,
169 other intermediates such as lactate and ethanol may play a crucial role in secondary
170 fermentations (Fig. 1C) as electron donors for reverse β -oxidation. The oxidation of such
171 electron donors to acetyl-CoA is coupled to the reductive elongation with SCCAs to form
172 MCCAs, i.e., butyric (C4), caproic (C6) and caprylic (C8) acids by adding two carbons in each

173 step. Similar reverse β -oxidation can be observed with propionyl-CoA to form the odd-numbered
174 MCCAs, valeric (C5) and heptanoic (C7) acids also by adding two carbons sequentially. In the
175 anaerobic environment these reactions occur under strongly reducing conditions, both primary
176 and secondary fermentation are needed to provide sufficient free energy to generate ATP and
177 restore NAD⁺/NADH balance in the cells.

178 Although ethanol-consuming chain elongation occurs in a variety of natural environments
179 (including animal feces and anaerobic digesters), the metabolic differentiation of chain
180 elongators is widely unexplored as the microbial diversity seems to differ significantly (Candry et
181 al., 2020). In addition to previously described *Clostridiaceae* and *Veillonellaceae* involved in
182 chain elongation via reverse β -oxidation, a metatranscriptomic study on MCCA formation from
183 lignocellulosic ethanol fermentation conversion residue identified a number of other potential
184 chain elongators (Scarborough et al., 2018). Not previously associated with reverse β -
185 oxidation, *Lachnospiraceae*- and *Eubacteriaceae*-affiliated organisms were predicted to
186 transform primary fermentation products (acetate and lactate) to MCCA. These were the only
187 two families in the metagenome-assembled genomes that contained genes encoding
188 homologues of enzymes known to catalyze chain elongation reactions in the reverse β -oxidation
189 pathway, thus thought to be responsible for MCCA production in this specific microbiome.

190 Using novel AM technology and associated MCCA producing MMCs, high concentrations of
191 organic acids (35-78 g/L) from waste streams were produced at bench-scale digesters ranging
192 from 0.5 to 14 liters (Wu et al., 2021a, 2023, 2024). These values were the highest acid titers
193 reported for organic waste streams in the literature. The most promising conditions were tested
194 to scale-up the process in a 100-gallon digester (Wu et al., 2023). The pilot-scale results
195 showed that the newly developed AM process has the potential for large-scale application and
196 is an exemplary waste-to-energy technology that transforms low- or negative-value waste
197 streams into high-value bioproducts. Experimental data also showed that SCCAs separation
198 can make up to 64% of total SCCA production cost since their separation and purification

199 require energy- and chemical-intensive separation processes with high capital and operating
200 cost. A variety of low-cost and low-carbon intensity separation technologies (resins, membrane
201 and electrochemistry-based technologies) instead of distillation were tested to increase the
202 product titer by 2–10 times and decrease the separation/ purification costs by 75% (Wu et al.,
203 2024, 2021b). High purity SCCAs can be used “as is” or as a platform chemical for producing
204 chemicals and fuels, such as SAF, with a low-carbon footprint.

205 This new waste treatment concept has the potential to disrupt the current waste treatment and
206 management paradigm and can be readily integrated into current organic waste treatment and
207 management practices. AM technology would eliminate the need for fossil-fuel derived
208 feedstocks and introduce a responsible way to manage organic wastes and wastewater
209 economically and environmentally friendly.

210

211 **Nutrient recycling from digestate**

212 Due to the increasing demand for renewable energy and sustainable waste management, AD
213 has become a widespread technology worldwide. This trend is particularly prominent in Europe,
214 where ambitious targets have been set to diversify the energy mix (Lora Grando et al., 2017).
215 Due to its high nutrient content, solid digestate from biogas plants fed with energy crops,
216 organic waste streams, or farm manure is considered a high-quality fertilizer. The quality and
217 quantity of the digestate produced are determined by the substrates used. Direct application of
218 digestate to agricultural land remains the most common and cost-effective method (Fuchs and
219 Drosig, 2010). The nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, and trace elements) in the
220 biogas substrates can thus be returned to the agricultural areas where energy crops or food
221 crops are cultivated. However, compliance with a maximum nutrient load per hectare and year
222 is required, resulting in a corresponding area requirement for the application of biogas digestate.

223 The high water content of digestate demands different treatment technologies to concentrate
224 the nutrients and produce a transportable and marketable fertilizer. (Kovačić et al., 2022)
225 The removal of suspended solids from digestate to purify the liquid fraction of digestate and
226 allow nutrient recycling was evaluated previously (Beggio et al., 2022; Meixner et al., 2015; Soja
227 et al., 2023; Tambone et al., 2017). A pilot test conducted at a biogas plant used a mobile
228 decanter centrifuge (Flottweg C2E-4) for solid-liquid separation of the digestate. The aim was to
229 concentrate the solids and produce a particle-free liquid fraction that could be further treated
230 with membranes (nanofiltration and reverse osmosis) to concentrate the ammonium nitrogen
231 and produce process water. Tests were conducted with varying amounts of flocculant
232 (polyacrylamide) and different g-forces of the decanter centrifuge. The best result was achieved
233 using 8.05 kg of flocculant per ton of dry matter and a g-force of 3,350 g. The total undissolved
234 solids were reduced from 8.15% solids in the original digestate to 1.98% in the liquid phase. The
235 tests showed that a significant proportion of 75.70% of the solids could already be mechanically
236 removed using a decanter centrifuge. However, this mechanical separation alone was
237 insufficient to treat the liquid fraction directly with membranes. The total removal of fine particles
238 was identified as a bottleneck in the treatment of digestate. Flocculation tests were conducted
239 on different digestates from biogas plants using energy crops, manure, and organic waste to
240 better understand the flocculation process and optimize the removal of fine particles. Jar tests
241 were performed with different concentrations of FeCl_3 (as the main flocculant) in combination
242 with various polymers (e.g., polyacrylamide as auxiliary flocculant). To achieve a significant
243 reduction in fine particles in the digestates, high amounts between 4.00% and 8.00% of Fe and
244 between 2.00% and 4.00% of polymer were used relative to the dry matter content of the
245 digestate.
246 The synthetic polymer polyacrylamide (PAM) can have a very high molecular weight due to its
247 synthesis and is the basis for efficient flocculants. There are concerns about the discharge of
248 PAM with biogas digestate into the environment alongside the risk that acrylamide residues

249 remain in the flocculants when PAM is synthesized (Lee et al., 2014). Biopolymers, such as
250 chitosan which is derived from chitinous sources by either chemical or enzymatic treatment,
251 represent a potential alternative for conventional PAM based flocculants. The following chitosan
252 products were tested to flocculate biogas digestate and anaerobic, digested wastewater sludge
253 at a dosage of chitosan and polyacrylamide of 4.00% of dry matter content: medium molecular
254 weight, high molecular weight, acid-soluble, water-soluble, quaternary chitosan, and Biolog-
255 Heppe (Chitosan 85/1000/A1) represent cationic chitosan products, while N-succinyl chitosan,
256 and carboxymethyl chitosan exhibit a negative charge. Particle and flocculant charges are
257 expressed by the zeta potential, an electrical potential that builds up on the particle surface of
258 colloidal particles. This electric potential acts on other particles and exerts a force on them,
259 which is the reason that ions can accumulate on the surface of the charged colloid in the so-
260 called Helmholtz layer. As soon as the particle starts to move, this layer is sheared off and the
261 particles show a charge. The zeta potential determines the magnitude of repulsion between the
262 similar charged particles. (Shammas, 2005)

263 Since most of the colloids in the biogas digestate and anaerobic, digested wastewater sludge
264 are negatively charged, the particles are repelled by their negative charges and remain in
265 suspension for long periods of time. Fine particle distribution was measured (Particle Track
266 G400 Mettler Toledo) after the jar-test and centrifugation in the supernatant. For the tested
267 anaerobic, digested wastewater sludge, centrifugation alone without the addition of flocculant
268 already reduced the original particle sum by 92.75% to ~2,500 particles. Compared to PAM
269 (Donau Multifloc 1023M) as reference flocculent, the cationic chitosan products showed 20-40
270 times better results for residual fine particles sum for anaerobic, digested wastewater sludge
271 after centrifugation (Table 1). However, the negatively charged N-succinyl chitosan and
272 carboxymethyl chitosan showed no effect. This is thought to stem from the strong negative zeta
273 potential of these polymers which results in repulsion from the also negatively charged particles
274 in the sludge (Table 1). For biogas digestate, only a very low particle reduction for all tested

275 chitosan products was achieved, whereas PAM significantly reduced the amount of fine
276 particles in the biogas digestate. The significantly improved performance of PAM is likely linked
277 to the high charge density for the commercially available PAM compared to the tested chitosan
278 products.

279 In addition to a generally high dry matter content in the digestate, a high proportion of fine
280 particles and a high salt concentration in the digestate were identified as the most important
281 adverse factors influencing flocculant efficiency. For biogas plants with a high dry matter
282 content, a 2-stage solids removal process is recommended. This involves the use of a screw
283 press, or a decanter centrifuge (without flocculants) followed by the treatment of the liquid phase
284 with flocculants. Biogas plants using a high proportion of lignocellulose substrates, such as solid
285 manure or straw, increase their fine particle content with the recirculation of digestate to dilute
286 the main digester. To reduce the fine particle content and salt concentration, a portion of the
287 recirculation volume can be replaced with water or substrate fractions with very high salt
288 concentrations can be identified and avoided, especially for waste biogas plants.

289 The direct application of untreated digestate to agricultural land as a high-quality fertilizer
290 remains the preferred solution. However, if distances are too great, digestate processing
291 technology must be employed to reduce volume and concentrate nutrients. Flocculant
292 consumption can be minimized by adjusting the operating mode of the biogas plant, thereby
293 altering the composition of the digestate. Additionally, further research is necessary to enhance
294 the efficiency of alternative biodegradable polymers, such as modified starch or chitosan, with
295 the ultimate goal of replacing polyacrylamide as a flocculant.

296

297 **Biofilm-mediated waste(water) treatment and resource recovery**

298 Biofilms are cell aggregates that adhere to a surface or each other and are embedded in a
299 matrix of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) containing a complex mixture of nucleic

300 acids, carbohydrates, and proteins. Biofilm is prevalent in diverse natural and engineered
301 systems and has attracted interest in multiple applications ranging from bioremediation,
302 agriculture, food industries, medicine, wastewater treatment, and biomanufacturing.
303 Conventionally, a biofilm-based approach has been used in wastewater treatment in rotating
304 biological contactors and trickling filters for decades (Metcalf et al., 1991). Several bioreactor
305 configurations including membrane bioreactors (MBR), moving bed biofilm reactors, granular
306 sludge-based systems, and integrated fixed film activated sludge take advantage of biofilm
307 growth for wastewater treatment and resource recovery. Biofilm-based bioreactors can be used
308 to intensify bioprocesses and improve performance due to high cell density and retention and
309 high mass transfer for improved substrate utilization (Flemming et al., 2016; Philipp et al., 2023).
310 Particularly, with the dynamic and complex composition of wastewater and waste streams,
311 biofilm growth can provide a robust and resilient microbial community for efficient treatment. The
312 EPS traps and concentrates nutrients making them readily available, and protects the microbial
313 community from stressful external environmental conditions and inhibitory compounds typically
314 present in waste(water). Additionally, high microbial diversity and the targeted gene expression
315 controlled by quorum sensing allow the biofilm microbial communities to respond and adapt to
316 the specific waste(water) characteristics ensuring efficient biodegradation (Li et al., 2023;
317 Sahreen et al., 2022). In this context, biofilm-based systems can play an important role in
318 wastewater treatment, especially for processes that rely on slow-growing microbes like
319 anammox (Yuan et al., 2023), nitrifying bacteria (Wei et al., 2023), and anaerobes (Cayetano et
320 al., 2022).

321 Biofilm systems are increasingly being developed for waste(water) treatment with simultaneous
322 resource recovery. Particularly, MBR is a promising wastewater treatment technology due to its
323 small footprint, the potential to produce high-quality and stable effluent, less sludge production,
324 and uncoupling of the hydraulic and solid retention times among others. However, the MBR
325 technology is still at the lab or pilot scales due to the high complexity compared to continuously

326 stirred tank reactor technology and the high capital and operating cost due to membrane fouling.
327 Dynamic membrane bioreactors (DMBRs) have emerged as an attractive alternative to
328 traditional MBRs (Fairley-Wax et al., 2022; Fonoll et al., 2024; Shrestha et al., 2021). The
329 DMBR takes advantage of the in-situ formation of the biofilm cake layer, also known as the
330 dynamic membrane, on an inexpensive support membrane material to filter out particulates.
331 Unlike conventional MBRs using microfiltration or ultrafiltration membranes, the use of cheaper
332 membrane materials such as stainless steel mesh, nylon mesh, and carbon cloth, easier fouling
333 control, and lower energy demand make DMBR an attractive alternative (Fairley-Wax et al.,
334 2022; Fonoll et al., 2024; Samaei et al., 2023; Shrestha et al., 2021). While DMBR technology is
335 still in its infancy, it has already shown wide application for waste(water) treatment with high
336 COD removal and resource recovery using diverse substrates including municipal wastewater
337 (Jiao et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023), high-strength synthetic wastewater (Fairley-Wax et al.,
338 2022), brewery wastewater (Shrestha et al., 2021), waste-activated sludge (Kwon et al., 2023),
339 food waste (Cayetano et al., 2019; Fonoll et al., 2024). However, the suspended solids removal
340 efficiency is not as high as a conventional polymeric membrane due to the larger pore size (10-
341 200 μm) of DMBR membrane, often necessitating an additional filtration step when stringent
342 water quality is required (for instance, water reclamation). Furthermore, more research needs to
343 be done on the physicochemical and biological characterization of the dynamic membrane
344 biofilm layer and develop strategies to achieve stable and long-term operation of DMBR.
345 The biofilm ecology including the microbial composition and structure, the effect of external
346 conditions, and the EPS composition has been well-studied (Candry et al., 2023; Herschend et
347 al., 2017; Shrestha et al., 2021). Due to substrate (nutrient) and oxygen gradient in the biofilm,
348 there is localized niche separation allowing the growth of diverse microbial populations. The
349 niche differentiation in the biofilm can be leveraged to spatially separate microbes with different
350 physiology and achieve the desired function (Jiang et al., 2023; Shahab et al., 2020, 2018).
351 Several studies have reported that biofilm growth led to higher microbial activity compared to

352 planktonic growth leading to an increase in bioproduct formation such as lactic acid (Cuny et al.,
353 2019), SCCAs (Xiros et al., 2019), MCCAs (Shrestha et al., 2021). Similarly, bioelectrochemical
354 systems also employ electroactive biofilm developed on electrodes for several applications
355 including wastewater treatment and the production of biochemicals, bioplastics, and biofuels
356 (Conners et al., 2022). There are still many opportunities and scientific and technological
357 challenges to fully harness the potential benefits of biofilm for biotechnological applications.

358 Biofilm engineering is gaining attention to better control biofilm structure and dynamics and thus
359 improve biofilm-mediated bioprocesses. Quorum sensing signaling molecules, second
360 messengers such as c-di-GMP and cyclic AMP (cAMP), and small RNAs play important roles in
361 regulating biofilm formation in several microorganisms and can serve as potential targets for
362 biofilm engineering (Condinho et al., 2023). Several studies have demonstrated how altering the
363 intracellular concentration of c-di-GMP or quorum sensing signals, exogenous addition of
364 electron mediators such as quinones and flavins, and electrode modification in electrochemical
365 systems can affect biofilm properties (Li et al., 2023; Mukherjee et al., 2018; Wood et al., 2016;
366 Yi et al., 2023). Promoting cell adhesion to enhance biofilm formation in bioelectrochemical cells
367 can improve current generation, while on the contrary, controlling the biofilm thickness can be
368 useful to mitigate membrane biofouling in MBRs. However, engineering multi-species biofilms
369 like those present in wastewater systems is not straightforward as it requires a detailed
370 understanding of the pathways and regulatory system and the inter-species interactions
371 associated with biofilm formation. Therefore, we need improved analytical methods to
372 understand the complex structure, function, and regulation of biofilms and thus develop suitable
373 targets and approaches for effective biofilm engineering.

374

375

376 **Energetic valorization of high strength organic rich wastewater**

377 Not only is material recovery from waste streams crucial, but energy recovery has also emerged
378 as a pivotal issue in striving towards a sustainable, carbon-neutral society (Breach and
379 Simonovic, 2018). Apart from harnessing the thermal energy content, the chemical energy
380 stored in organic constituents can be leveraged. The theoretical potential is derived from the
381 total COD, a parameter correlated to the sum of organic compounds in the effluent. Under the
382 assumption of full extractability, the energy content is 13.9 kJ per g COD (Hao et al., 2019).
383 Biogas formation via AD stands as the conventional and widely utilized method for energy
384 recovery from wastes and wastewater (IEA, 2020). However, its efficiency heavily relies on the
385 concentration of COD. Even with advanced reactor configurations, such as Internal Circulation
386 reactors, COD levels above 2.0 – 3.0 g/L are requisite. A recent advancement is the Anaerobic
387 Membrane Bioreactor (AnMBR), where COD is concentrated through ultrafiltration membranes,
388 enabling efficient treatment of low-strength wastewater (Mahmood et al., 2022). Such concepts
389 are currently under investigation in a European-wide project termed SYMSITES
390 (<https://symsites.eu>) and may allow the direct anaerobic treatment of municipal wastewater for
391 biogas formation. Concerning the efficient utilization of generated biogas, there is a growing
392 trend towards upgrading it to biomethane, suitable for injection into the gas grid, capitalizing on
393 existing infrastructure (Ardolino et al., 2021). Microbial biogas upgrading, employing
394 methanogenic archaea, is an emerging technique utilizing external H₂ for converting CO₂ into
395 additional CH₄. Previously reported results demonstrate the efficiency of this approach, capable
396 of achieving quality standards for grid injection in a single unit operation (Rachbauer et al.,
397 2016). However, in a future scenario where H₂ replaces gaseous fuels, the next significant
398 advancement is the formation of biohydrogen (bioH₂) instead of biomethane. A currently feasible
399 approach involves implementing a two-step process that divides AD into acidogenic and

400 methanogenic reactors. During acidogenesis, a mixture of H₂ and CO₂ is produced, which can
401 be separately collected (Luongo Malave' et al., 2015). However, the H₂ yields based on
402 substrate input remain relatively low. Through collaboration with our research partners, various
403 approaches have been explored to enhance bioH₂ formation, including the use of thermophilic
404 microorganisms (Ergal et al., 2018), synthetic microbial consortia (Ergal et al., 2022), or
405 stimulating biohydrogen production through low-voltage application (Hasibar et al., 2020). Even
406 more sophisticated techniques aim at directly converting chemical energy into electricity using
407 microbiological fuel cells (Munoz-Cupa et al., 2021). Therein electro-active microbes catalyze
408 redox reactions and transfer electrons directly to electrodes. Although this concept has garnered
409 significant research interest and public attention, the complexity of reactor designs hinders
410 practical implementation, and commercialization remains a long-term endeavor (Fuchs et al.,
411 2023). An alternative approach to valorize chemical energy is the biotransformation of organics
412 into extractable liquid energy carriers. Initial efforts focus on high-strength industrial waste
413 streams or sludges from wastewater treatment. For instance, sugar or carbohydrate-rich
414 effluents can be fermented to ethanol or butanol (Kundu et al., 2022). More recent concepts
415 aim at simultaneous wastewater treatment and cultivation of oleaginous microorganisms, such
416 as microalgae, bacteria, yeast, and filamentous fungi (Leong et al., 2019; Muller et al., 2014).
417 Lipid accumulation in these organisms ranges from 20% to up to 80% (dry weight), showing
418 promise as alternative feedstock in second-generation biodiesel production (Patel et al., 2020).
419 In conclusion, a broad spectrum of technologies is either currently available or nearing practical
420 implementation, poised to transform wastewater treatment from predominantly energy-intensive
421 to a significant source of renewable energy.

422

423

424 **Recalcitrant waste streams: Bioconversion of marine seaweed as an**
425 **alternative biorefinery feedstock**

426 Apart from industrial organic waste streams marine seaweed is another abundant, yet
427 underutilized renewable resource for a future low to zero carbon bioeconomy. Marine seaweed
428 has traditionally been used as food for human consumption, feed, and fertilizer, but provides a
429 growing opportunity for renewable algal based biofuels and biochemicals. With an estimated
430 annual production capacity of roughly 500 million dry metric tons in the US, macroalgae could
431 theoretically cover up to 10% the nation's transportation energy demand (Mariner, ARPA-E,
432 2017).

433 While the market for whole seaweed biomass as food and food additive continues to grow (Cho
434 et al., 2021), seaweed based biochemicals production is focused on a single product (e.g.
435 hydrocolloids, phenols, or colorants) (van Hal et al., 2014). For the hydrocolloid industry, mostly
436 red and brown seaweed species serve as substrates to produce various grades of agar,
437 alginate, and carrageenan. The less valued biomass at harvesting and leftover residues from
438 post-harvest processing are considered waste. Whether seaweeds are sourced from
439 cultivation (i.e., onshore and offshore farms) or wild collection, a significant amount of waste
440 materials are generated during harvesting or such post-harvest processing steps (Yun et al.
441 2023). *Sargassum*, a prominent brown seaweed species, has gained increasing attention when
442 it is washed to the tropical Atlantic shores in vast amounts, as beached or near-shore
443 accumulations of *Sargassum* can have detrimental effects (Johns et al., 2020). Harvesting near-
444 shore accumulating *Sargassum* biomass for biochemicals, feed, food, fertilizer, and fuel has
445 been proposed as a potential solution to this seasonal problem (Milledge and Harvey, 2016).
446 The complex polysaccharide structure of such seaweed entails unique properties that make
447 these polymers highly attractive in biotechnological applications. However, it currently prevents

448 its use as a feedstock for biomanufacturing and biofuels production as these polymers are
449 different from those present in terrestrial feedstocks like ligno-cellulosic biomass, and are not
450 directly compatible with existing technologies and process operations, suggesting that much
451 more research is needed to elucidate the structure and associated degradation pathways
452 (Laurens et al., 2020). Alginate, the main polysaccharide in *Sargassum*, makes up to 40.34% on
453 a mass basis (Yudiati and Isnansetyo, 2017), and has dominated research on identifying novel
454 alginate lyase enzymes (Ghadam et al., 2017; Inoue, 2018; Pilgaard et al., 2021; Wang et al.,
455 2017; Yagi et al., 2016). Such alginate lyases are capable of breaking down the seaweed's
456 recalcitrant polysaccharide structure to allow for alginate bioconversion to e.g. poly-3-
457 hydroxybutyrate, a biodegradable polymer that is considered a sustainable plastic alternative
458 (Moriya et al., 2020). Alternative approaches to enzymatic degradation such as seaweed
459 ensiling and biogas production have been reported previously (Herrmann et al., 2015; Jard et
460 al., 2013; Milledge et al., 2019; Murphy et al., 2015; Ramirez, 2015; Vanegas and Bartlett,
461 2013). AD under high salinity conditions as envisioned for a marine seaweed feed was reported
462 to be beneficial to keep sulfur reducing bacteria (SRB) at bay. The presence of SRB is
463 undesirable for the efficient production of methane, given that SRB compete with methanogens
464 for hydrogen and acetate (Muyzer and Stams, 2008). Despite the high concentration of sulfates
465 in a high salinity bioreactor, as expected for seawater, the proportion of SRB was lower in the
466 high salinity bioreactor (35 ppt) compared to a low salinity bioreactor (10 ppt) (Derilus et al.,
467 2019). Thus, a potential method of suppressing SRB numbers may be to modulate the salinity
468 of the bioreactor, when saltwater is used. Certain seaweed species however, are known to
469 inhibit methane formation and have found a niche in preventing methane emissions, a very
470 potent greenhouse gas, in cattle farming (Maia et al., 2016). *Asparagopsis taxiformis* is a type of
471 red seaweed that has been found to reduce methane production in livestock rumen by 99%
472 when ingested with everyday feed, at inclusion rates as low as 2% of total organic matter
473 (Silwer, 2018). This effect could support an AM process as previously described and reroute the

474 carbon flux into SCCAs instead of methane, effectively integrating the carboxylate platform into
475 a seaweed biorefinery (Karunarathne and van Walsum, 2022). SCCAs such as acetic,
476 propionic, butyric, and valeric acid, and the C6 molecule caproic acid have been reported to be
477 biotechnologically produced through anaerobic fermentation via stable microbial communities
478 from organic wastes of agricultural, industrial, or municipal origin (Tomás-Pejó et al., 2023).
479 Marine seaweed remains is a vastly underutilized resource with great potential to serve as an
480 sustainable feedstock for biofuel and biochemical production, thereby wasting a huge
481 opportunity of value addition to the biorefineries (Laurens and Nelson, 2020). Tapping into a
482 conventionally inaccessible substrate like marine seaweed enables a scalable biomanufacturing
483 process that utilizes the carbon contained in seaweed biomass. The anaerobic nature of such a
484 system allows for easy scale-up at reduced energy requirement for oxygen supply, and reduced
485 contamination risk when using a robust MMC which is adapted to high salinity compared to
486 conventional fermentation systems using pure strains. The enhanced metabolic abilities within
487 MMC enriched on *Sargassum* resulting from syntrophic interactions offer a promising potential
488 for converting marine seaweed as low-cost feedstock into various bioproducts or biofuel (Derilus
489 et al., 2019). Utilizing MMC for bioenergy and biofuel production from waste and residue streams
490 is recognized as an environmentally sustainable strategy to reduce greenhouse gas emissions,
491 decrease reliance on fossil fuels, promote sustainable waste management, and foster the
492 transition to a circular economy.

493 494 **Industrial perspective on the carboxylate platform to treat and** 495 **upgrade organic effluents and industry low-value by-products**

496 Although several wastes and byproducts, such as fat, oil and grease, have found a niche in
497 chemical conversion to biodiesel, renewable diesel or SAF, these wastes are limited and
498 demand a high price (Zhang et al., 2020). Other forms of waste, such as food waste, sludge,

499 animal manure, and dairy waste, on the other hand, can be obtained at a significantly lower cost
500 with an order of magnitude greater availability (Badgett et al., 2019). The complexity and high
501 moisture content of these waste feedstocks typically relegate their use to aerobic composting,
502 wastewater treatment, or methane production by AD. The robustness and flexibility of
503 traditional AD makes it a very advantageous process for processing these waste feedstocks.
504 Beyond methanogenic biogas production via AD, it is well known that intermediate carboxylic
505 acids are also produced before being converted into methane and carbon dioxide. Such
506 carboxylic acids demand a much higher price than methane and may be used as building blocks
507 for the production of many useful products, which can serve as food and feed preservatives,
508 human and animal health supplements, solvents, plasticizers, lubricants (Atasoy et al., 2018;
509 Granda and Holtzapfle, 2008; Jadhav et al., 2017; Ramos-Suarez et al., 2021), and even
510 biofuels such as SAF (Huq et al., 2021). AM, therefore, is advantageous but requires adjusting
511 or manipulating the mixed culture or consortium of microorganisms (MMC or microbiome)
512 present in AD to inhibit methanogenesis and to preserve and enhance the production of such
513 carboxylic acids. The production of mixed carboxylic acids by microbiomes is well-known and
514 one of the most ancient fermentation processes, naturally occurring in the gastrointestinal tract
515 of many animals, such as termites and the rumen of ruminants. In those environments, nature
516 has evolved to make the process very efficient, obtaining very high conversion and yields of
517 these carboxylic acids in just a few hours with even difficult-to-degrade complex feedstocks
518 such as lignocellulosic biomass (Weimer et al., 2009). The process requires no sterile
519 conditions, which has presented a significant opportunity for industrial bioconversion processes
520 relying on sterile monocultures, which are typically plagued with high costs due to low culture
521 stability, low flexibility, and high contamination issues. Towards its industrial deployment, the
522 carboxylate platform (Holtzapfle et al., 2022), which employs microbiomes to produce mixed
523 carboxylic acids, and their recovery and utilization to produce many useful and valuable

524 products, has been the subject of R&D and industrial development and implementation for many
525 decades.

526 Production of mixed carboxylic acids at an industrial level began many centuries ago in the mud
527 pits where Chinese Strong liquor (Baijiu) is manufactured. Grains, such as sorghum, are
528 fermented into the World's most consumed liquor. Many of these mud pits and their mixed
529 cultures have been in continuous operation non-stop for centuries, with the oldest ones dating
530 from the 16th century. They have a rich, stable microbiome and produce carboxylic acids,
531 mainly caproic acids, which imparts a strong taste to the liquor and has been the subject of
532 many studies (Fu et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2015). Such a time-honored process attests to the
533 stability and reliability of these MMC or microbiome-based fermentations for producing mixed
534 carboxylic acids.

535 During World War I, with the demand for cordite (smokeless gun powder) and the shortage of
536 acetone - the chemical required for cordite production - American businessmen created a new
537 industry. California's giant kelp, which grew extensively along the coast, was used as feedstock
538 in an AM microbiome fermentation to produce calcium salts of mixed carboxylic acids, mainly
539 acetate, which were then converted to acetone through a dry distillation or pyrolytic process.
540 The complex nature of kelp as a seaweed, which contains complex carbohydrates such as
541 alginate and mannitol, as mentioned in the section 'Recalcitrant waste streams', made AM
542 microbiome fermentation particularly suited for the task (Neushul, 1989). Over 11 million
543 pounds of acetone were made by this industry in the early 20th century. Further industry was
544 established in France from the 1920s to early 1940s, with the company Le Ketol Société
545 Anonyme founded by French engineer Louis Le Franc, who invented and patented a process
546 that converted calcium salts of mixed carboxylic acids obtained from fermentation of sawdust
547 into ketones, which were being commercialized as a solvent for industrial applications and a fuel
548 with the name of Ketol (Le Franc, 1928, 1927). Both of these early 20th century commercial

549 deployments of the carboxylate platform, in California and France, demonstrated the scalability
550 and industrialization potential of the carboxylate platform.

551 Low oil prices put a halt to the carboxylate platform's industrial implementation after World War
552 II, but R&D by many different parties restarted during the oil shortages of the 1970s, with the
553 aim of developing a low-cost bioconversion process that can inexpensively produce biofuels.

554 Extensive research in the U.S. focused on the conversion of seaweed and other complex
555 feedstocks to mixed carboxylic acids, with liquid-liquid extraction of the acids into a mix of
556 kerosene and trioctyl phosphine, and Kolbe electrolysis of the acids into hydrocarbons (Levy et
557 al., 1981). Playne (1980) in Australia focused on lignocellulosic biomass microbiome
558 fermentation into mixed carboxylic acids with extraction by coupled membranes into calcium
559 salts, which were then converted to ketones using pyrolysis. Datta (1981) in the U.S., studied
560 pretreated lignocellulosic biomass conversion to mixed carboxylic acids and recovery of the
561 acids by conversion to esters. Others also performed R&D on mixed carboxylic acid production
562 via AM microbiome fermentation and the carboxylate platform around the same time in other
563 parts of the World, such as de la Torre & Goma (1981) in France.

564 With the climate change mitigation push in the 1990s, a renewed interest in biofuel production
565 also took place. Research on AM microbiome fermentation for producing mixed carboxylic
566 acids and the carboxylate platform occurred at Texas A&M University under Dr. Mark
567 Holtzapple starting in the early 1990s (Holtzapple et al., 1999). The development continued
568 throughout the 2000s (Holtzapple and Granda, 2009), with further innovations on the conversion
569 of carboxylic acids to hydrocarbon fuels and extraction of the carboxylic acids.

570 From this R&D, efforts to commercialize the carboxylate platform began in the mid 2000s,
571 focusing on the conversion of mixed carboxylic acids to hydrocarbon biofuels. The company
572 Terrabon, Inc. built a demonstration facility, with 30,000 gallons of fermentation capacity, which
573 processed 3 tons of food waste per day into mixed carboxylic acid salts and further into
574 hydrocarbon fuels. However, by the 2010s, after stable operation for close to two years, it was

575 clear that a better strategy for deployment of the carboxylate platform would be targeting the
576 chemical markets first for the carboxylic acids and derivatives, which demand a higher price
577 compared to biofuels. Such a strategy would allow for smaller facilities to be constructed and
578 de-risked, as a stepping stone towards a biofuels pipeline. BioVeritas, LLC has followed such a
579 strategy for upcycling low-value byproducts or wastes from the agriculture and food sectors into
580 high-value carboxylic acids for the chemical and food bio-ingredients markets. BioVeritas'
581 development has achieved the control of the acid profile in the AM microbiome fermentation by
582 manipulating different conditions such as nutrients, pH, temperature and other operating
583 conditions, followed by an innovative technology for efficient extraction and recovery of the
584 mixed carboxylic acids from the fermentation effluent.

585 Beyond chemicals, the next step in the carboxylate platform employing AM is the production of
586 biofuels, such as SAF. The platform has demonstrated that biofuels can be effectively produced
587 from organic wastes. However, scale-up will be critical to overcome the lower price point of
588 biofuels compared to biochemicals, necessitating economies of scale. Additionally, the volumes
589 required for biofuels are much larger, meaning production facilities must reach a certain size to
590 make an impact and compete with incumbent fossil fuels. Ideally, the size of these facilities
591 should align with ethanol fuel plants, which on average produce around 90 million gallons of
592 ethanol per year, processing over 870,000 metric tons of corn annually ("Ethanol Producer
593 Magazine," n.d.).

594 Although the AM process may be de-risked through gradual scale-up using the high margin
595 chemicals market as a stepping stone towards the low-cost biofuels sector, the main limitation
596 remains the logistics of collecting and procuring waste feedstocks. The DOE's 2023 Billion-Ton
597 Report highlights the significant amount of distributed waste (71 million tons of waste generated
598 annually on a dry basis, with substantial yearly growth, including animal manure, wastewater
599 sludge, and food waste) (Langholtz, 2024). The report also emphasizes the logistical challenges
600 of collecting such waste, which requires facilities to be located near the waste source, making it

601 difficult to meet the yearly feedstock requirements for a centralized biofuel facility of desired
602 scale. Developing efficient collection logistics is crucial to fully leverage these available wastes.
603 A combination of agricultural residues, including lignocellulosic biomass, with wastes should
604 also be considered as a potential strategy to improve feedstock procurement and logistics
605 (Rughoonundun and Holtzaple, 2017).

606 In summary, tremendous progress has landed industrial innovators like BioVeritas on a steady
607 path towards commercial deployment of the carboxylate platform within the next three years. It
608 should be noted that widespread use of the carboxylate platform for waste feedstocks beyond
609 chemicals into biofuels will require efforts towards improving waste collection and procurement
610 logistics. Nevertheless, as new tools for improving understanding and controlling microbiomes
611 and their interactions with feedstocks, nutrients, operating conditions, and the microbial
612 community itself are becoming available (Lawson et al., 2019), the carboxylate platform
613 anticipates a promising future poised for continuous improvement.

614

615 **Conclusion**

616 This paper clearly outlines the vast potential of organic rich waste utilization in bioenergy,
617 biofuels, and biochemicals as a cornerstone for sustainable development. Organic waste from
618 the food and beverage industry, high-strength wastewater, and marine seaweed biomass are
619 valuable resources from a bioeconomy standpoint. Utilizing MMC as present in AD or
620 wastewater treatment systems for bioenergy, biochemicals and biofuels production from organic
621 waste streams has enormous potential to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, decrease reliance
622 on fossil fuels, promote sustainable waste management, and foster the transition to a circular
623 economy. Pilot-scale results showed that an AM process has the potential for large-scale
624 application to manage high-strength wastewater economically and environmentally friendly. AM
625 is an exemplary waste-to-chemicals or waste-to-energy technology that transforms low- or

626 negative-value waste streams into high-value bioproducts such as carboxylic acids, capitalizing
627 on the carboxylate platform. This technology not only bypasses the generation of methane - a
628 typical end product of AD - but also facilitates the production of valuable biochemicals and
629 biofuels through metabolically versatile microbiomes. The strategic inhibition of
630 methanogenesis to favor the production of SCCAs represents an innovative leap in optimizing
631 the valorization of organic waste streams. The involved microbes demonstrate an impressive
632 metabolic flexibility and, depending on their origin, can be adapted to a variety of waste streams
633 for highly efficient MCCA production. Such developments not only promote the sustainability of
634 industrial processes but also enhance economic outcomes by reducing operational costs and
635 increasing the yield of marketable bioproducts. High purity carboxylic acids can be used "as is"
636 or as a platform chemical for producing chemicals and fuels, such as SAF, with a low carbon
637 footprint. Carboxylate separation and purification cost can make up to 64% of total production
638 cost since their separation and purification require energy- and chemical-intensive separation
639 processes. A variety of low-cost and low carbon intensity separation technologies (resins,
640 membrane and electrochemistry-based technologies) instead of distillation reported promising
641 results, effectively decreasing the separation and purification costs by 75%. However, more
642 work is still needed to bring these technologies to an industrial scale.

643 Biofilm technologies have introduced a robust platform for waste treatment, particularly in
644 configurations such as dynamic MBRs. These systems exploit biofilms to enhance treatment
645 efficiency and stability, facilitating the recovery of resources from wastewater and supporting the
646 sustainability of water-intensive industries. The application of biofilms in waste treatment not
647 only addresses the technical challenges of high-strength waste streams but also provides a
648 scalable solution that can be integrated into existing infrastructure with minimal disruption.
649 When it comes to understanding the complex structure, function, and regulation of biofilms and
650 microbiomes involved, improved analytical methods are required to develop suitable targets and
651 approaches for engineering the involved microbial consortia. Engineering multi-species biofilms

652 like those present in wastewater systems or microbial conversion systems such as AM and
653 wastewater treatment requires a detailed understanding of the pathways and regulatory system
654 and the inter-species interactions, as well as associated biofilm formation. The energetic
655 valorization of wastewater through advanced biogas technologies such as AnMBRs and the
656 microbial upgrading of biogas to biomethane showcases the integration of waste treatment with
657 energy recovery processes. These technologies enhance the efficiency of organic matter
658 conversion and align with the objectives of reducing greenhouse gas emissions and utilizing
659 renewable energy sources. In addition to improved product separation and purification
660 techniques for carboxylates, this is another critical field for future research.

661 A particularly innovative aspect covered in this paper is the treatment of recalcitrant waste
662 streams, specifically through an AM process for the biosynthesis of SCCA from marine seaweed
663 - a complex, and underutilized biomass resource. The anaerobic microbial pathways capable of
664 breaking down the seaweed's complex polysaccharide structure to produce valuable carboxylic
665 acids highlight the potential for tapping into traditionally difficult-to-utilize waste streams. This
666 approach not only enhances the economic viability of marine seaweed as low-cost biomass
667 feedstock but also promotes sustainable waste management.

668 In conclusion, this comprehensive review underlines a multi-dimensional strategy for waste
669 management that harnesses technological innovations across several domains to transform
670 waste into a resource, using MMC. This paradigm shift not only addresses the immediate
671 challenges posed by increasing waste production and environmental degradation but also aligns
672 with broader sustainability goals. The future of waste management, as suggested by this
673 perspective, lies in the continued development and integration of these technologies into a
674 coherent system that promotes environmental integrity, economic viability, and resource
675 sustainability. As these technologies mature and scale, their integration into a global strategy for
676 waste treatment and resource recovery will be pivotal in achieving a sustainable and circular
677 bioeconomy.

678

679 **Competing interests**

680 Cesar Granda is the VP of Innovation & IP for BioVeritas, LLC, a company focused on upcycling
681 wastes and other by-products from the food and agriculture industry into high-value
682 biochemicals and biofuels. All other authors declare no competing interests.

683

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695 **Data Availability Statement**

696 The data underlying this article are available in the article.

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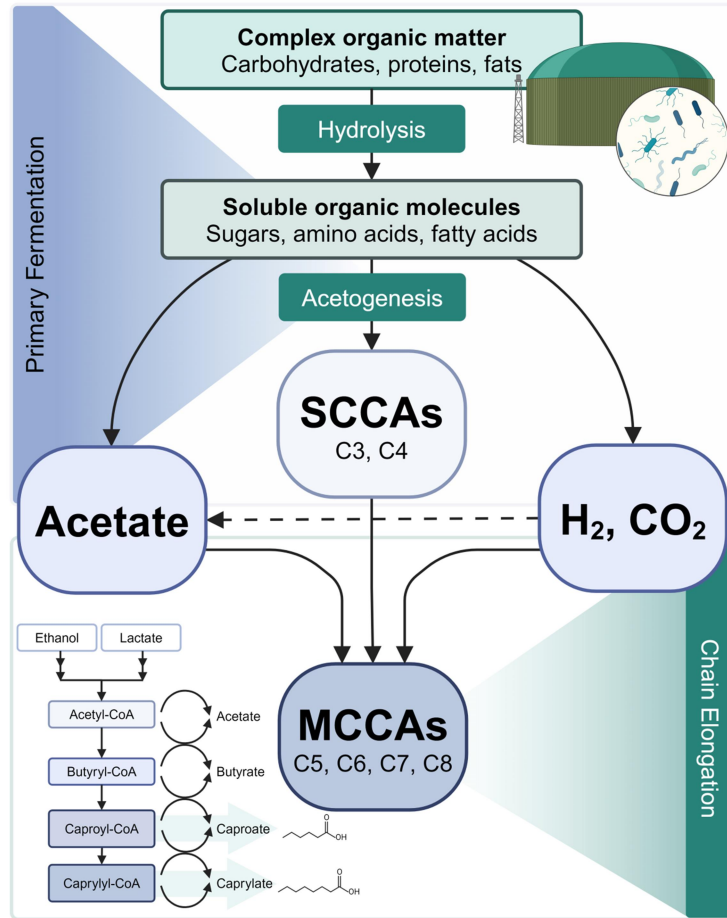
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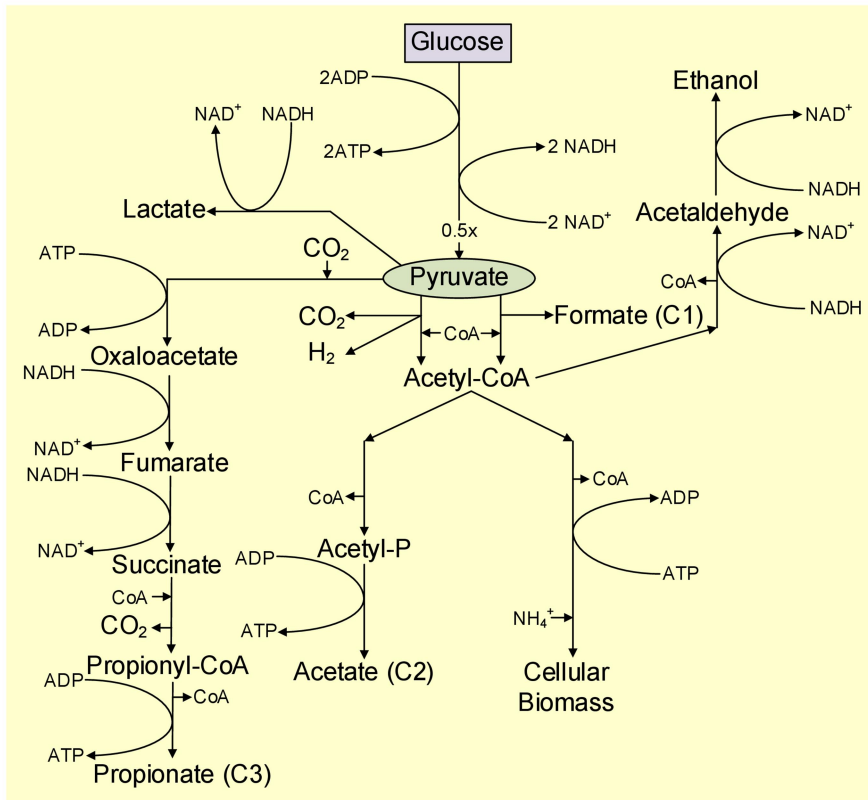
700 **Author Contributions**

701 L. Rachbauer led the project planning and conceptualization. All authors contributed to writing
702 the manuscript with the leads on chapters (including experimental work and data analysis) being
703 M. Urgan-Demirtas for 'Next-generation waste treatment for carbon-rich organic waste streams',
704 W. Gabauer for 'Nutrient recycling from digestate', S. Shrestha for 'Biofilm-mediated
705 waste(water) treatment and resource recovery', W. Fuchs for 'Energetic valorization of high
706 strength organic rich wastewater', L. Rachbauer for 'Recalcitrant waste streams: Bioconversion
707 of marine seaweed as an alternative biorefinery feedstock' (SW. Singer and BA. Simmons were
708 responsible for funding acquisition and involved in conceptualization), and CB. Granda for
709 'Industrial perspective on the carboxylate platform to treat and upgrade organic effluents and
710 industry low-value by-products'.

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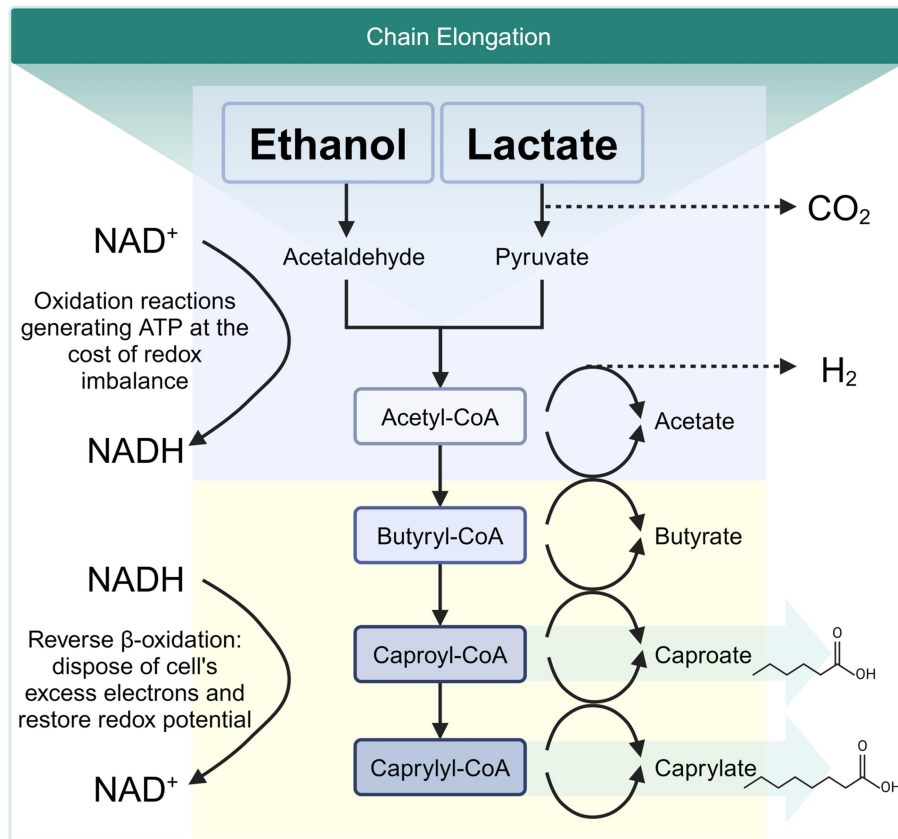


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716 Figure 1. (A) Overall conversion observed in AM acidogenic fermentation. (B) Metabolic
 717 pathways in primary fermentation in AM acidogenic fermentation. (C) Metabolic pathways in
 718 secondary fermentation in AM acidogenic fermentation showing chain-elongation (reverse β -
 719 oxidation) as described in (De Groof et al., 2019). SCCAs: short-chain carboxylic acids, MCCAs:
 720 medium-chain carboxylic acids. Figure 1A and B were created using Biorender.com.

721

722

723 Table 1. Zeta potentials, particle sums, and residual fine particle fractions of tested digestate

724 and wastewater sludge, with tested chitosan flocculants (including PAM as reference material).

Substrate/ flocculant	Zeta potential [mV]	Molecular weight [Da]	Initial particle sum	Residual particle sum after centrifugation
Substrate				
Biogas digestate	-36.5 ± 4.450	NA	-	-
Anaerobic, digested wastewater sludge	-23.5 ± 1.323	NA	33675.7	2449
Flocculant				
Carboxymethyl chitosan	-48.7 ± 0.757	2,146	36947.2	3003.6
N-succinyl chitosan	-45.6 ± 0.709	1,267	37097.8	3909.8
Medium molecular weight chitosan	46.4 ± 0.321	93,294	42393.3	23.0
Quaternary chitosan	47.4 ± 0.265	456,740	25160.8	286.4
Acid-soluble chitosan	56.6 ± 0.265	334,445	35048.1	54.9
High molecular weight chitosan	62.5 ± 1.739	476,749	37472.9	20.3
Biolog-Heppe chitosan	63.8 ± 1.127	416,371	35576.0	10.8
Water-soluble chitosan	66.4 ± 0.889	537,684	37779.2	15.5
PAM (Donau Multifloc 1023 M)	NA	NA	16437.1	408.2

725

726

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