

Effect of inoculum type, packing material and operational conditions on the biofiltration of a mixture of hydrophobic volatile organic compounds in air

Paula Alejandra Lamprea Pineda^a, Kristof Demeestere^a, José Joaquín González-Cortés^{a,b}, Allan A. Alvarado-Alvarado^a, Nico Boon^c, Frank Devlieghere^d, Herman Van Langenhove^a, Christophe Walgraeve^a

^aResearch group EnVOC, Department of Green Chemistry and Technology, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University, Coupure Links 653, 9000, Ghent Belgium.

^bDepartment of Chemical Engineering and Food Technology, Vine and Agri-Food Research Institute (IVAGRO), University of Cadiz, Pol. Río San Pedro s/n, Puerto Real, 11510, Cadiz Spain.

^cCenter for Microbial Ecology and Technology - CMET, Department of Biotechnology, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University, Coupure Links 653, 9000, Ghent Belgium.

^dResearch group FMFP, Department of Food Technology, Safety and Health, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University, Coupure Links 653, 9000, Ghent Belgium

Correspondence to: Christophe Walgraeve (Christophe.Walgraeve@UGent.be). Tel: +32 9 264 59 53

Co-authors: PaulaAlejandra.LampreaPineda@UGent.be, Kristof.Demeestere@UGent.be, JoseJoaquin.GonzalezCortes@UGent.be, Allan.AlvaradoAlvarado@UAntwerpen.be, Nico.Boon@UGent.be, Frank.Devlieghere@UGent.be, Herman.VanLangenhove@UGent.be, Christophe.Walgraeve@UGent.be.

Abstract

The emission of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) into the atmosphere causes negative environmental and health effects. Biofiltration is known to be an efficient and cost-effective treatment technology for the removal of VOCs in waste gas streams. However, little is known on the removal of VOC mixtures and the effect of operational conditions, particularly for hydrophobic VOCs, and on the microbial populations governing the biofiltration process. In this study, we evaluated the effect of inoculum type (acclimated activated sludge (A-AS) versus *Rhodococcus erythropolis*) and packing material (mixture of compost and

wood chips (C+WC) versus expanded perlite) on the removal of a mixture of hydrophobic VOCs (toluene, cyclohexane and hexane) in three biofilters (BFs), i.e., BF1: C+WC and *R. erythropolis*; BF2: C+WC and A-AS; and BF3: expanded perlite and *R. erythropolis*. The BFs were operated for 374 days at varying inlet loads (ILs) and empty bed residence times (EBRTs). The results showed that the VOCs were removed in the following order: toluene > cyclohexane > hexane, which corresponds to their air-water partitioning coefficient and thus bioavailability of each VOC. Toluene is the most hydrophilic VOC, while hexane is the most hydrophobic. BF2 outperformed BF1 and BF3 in each operational phase, with average maximum elimination capacities (EC_{max}) of 21±3 g toluene m⁻³ h⁻¹ (removal efficiency (RE): 100%; EBRT: 82 s), 11±2 g cyclohexane m⁻³ h⁻¹ (RE: 86±6%; EBRT: 163 s) and 6.2±0.9 g hexane m⁻³ h⁻¹ (RE: 96±4%; EBRT: 245 s). Microbial analysis showed that despite having different inocula, the genera *Rhodococcus*, *Mycobacterium* and/or *Pseudonocardia* dominated in all BFs but at different relative abundances. This study provides new insights into the removal of difficult-to-degrade VOC mixtures with limited research to date on biofiltration.

Keywords: Toluene, cyclohexane, hexane, SIFT-MS, 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing.

1. Introduction

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are common pollutants emitted by a variety of industries. Efficient and cost-effective treatment of gaseous streams loaded with VOCs is of great importance due to their negative environmental and health effects (Han et al., 2018). VOCs for instance play a significant role in the formation of tropospheric ozone, photochemical smog and secondary particulate matter. They also cause respiratory disorders, neurological abnormalities and immunological responses, among others (Chen & Chen, 2021; Meena et al., 2020; Sarkar et al., 2022).

Biofiltration is a biological technology considered to be more successful than other conventional and physical-chemical techniques (e.g., chemical oxidation, absorption, condensation and membrane separation, among others) for the removal of gaseous streams that are low to moderately loaded with VOCs ($< 5 \text{ g m}^{-3}$) at relatively high gas flow rates (10^2 - $10^5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$) (Delhoménie & Heitz, 2005; Naha et al., 2022). The operating costs, low energy consumption and minimal secondary pollution are some of the advantages of biofiltration (Dewulf et al., 2001; Rybarczyk et al., 2020). The process consists of passing a gaseous stream loaded with VOCs through a packed bed that serves as support material for the growth and development of microorganisms. The microorganisms grow in a biofilm - covered by water - and are responsible for the removal of VOCs (Sarkar et al., 2022). For this, the VOCs are first transported from the gas phase to the liquid/biofilm phase. Afterwards, the VOCs are sorbed onto the biofilm or the packed bed and/or biodegraded within the biofilm. The VOCs serve as a source of carbon and energy for the microorganisms, and under aerobic conditions, the biodegradation leads to the formation of carbon dioxide (CO_2), water (H_2O) (final mineralization products) and biomass. Depending on the type of VOC and operational conditions, intermediate products can also be emitted (Lamprea Pineda et al., 2021). As a result, the biodegradation of VOCs in biofilters (BFs) and thus, the efficiency of the technique itself, is highly dependent on the availability of VOCs to the microorganisms i.e., on the mass transfer of gaseous compounds to the liquid/biofilm phase. In this sense, hydrophilic VOCs are generally easily removed in BFs compared to hydrophobic VOCs (Ferdowsi et al., 2016).

64 Research in biofiltration has mainly focused on the removal of single pollutants from air, while in reality,
65 gaseous streams emitted into the atmosphere contain a mixture of VOCs, normally with different
66 physical-chemical properties (Rybarczyk et al., 2020). As mentioned by Yang et al. (2018), substrate
67 interactions between compounds can influence the biodegradation rate of an individual compound,
68 either positively, negatively, or neutrally. The effects are more pronounced when the VOC mixture
69 contains compounds with a different affinity to the biofilm. For example, Hu & Wang (2015) evaluated
70 the biofiltration of benzene and hexane, and particularly the interaction between both compounds. The
71 results showed that the addition of hexane did not affect the removal of benzene. However, benzene
72 inhibited the degradation of hexane significantly. The authors concluded that the higher bioavailability of
73 benzene (i.e., a more water-soluble compound), compared to hexane, led to a preferential carbon source
74 use, with a change in microbial composition that was translated into higher benzene removals. Similarly,
75 Amin et al. (2017) observed that in the presence of BTEX (benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylenes)
76 compounds, hexane removal efficiency (RE) dramatically decreased (approximately 3.6 times) because of
77 competitive inhibition. Microbes preferentially degraded BTEX compounds, especially due to their higher
78 bioavailability. On the other hand, Jung & Park (2005) observed that the addition of toluene during the
79 biofiltration of trichloroethylene (TCE) had a positive effect. TCE was a poor source of carbon and energy
80 for the microorganisms and the addition of toluene, a compound that was preferentially used by the
81 microbial population, helped to stimulate the release of an oxidizing enzyme, and supported biomass
82 growth for the degradation of TCE. However, this stimulation was dependent on the TCE/toluene feeding
83 ratio and frequency. Therefore, the removal performance of VOC mixtures will ultimately depend not
84 only on the bioavailability and biodegradability of the individual compounds, but also on the microbial
85 populations present (e.g., co-metabolism), the operational conditions tested (e.g., nutrient supply, VOC
86 concentrations and contact times), and the BF's configuration (e.g., moisture content and surface area of
87 packing material). In fact, the latter is of particular interest to improve the removal of hydrophobic VOCs
88 (Y. Cheng et al., 2016; Ferdowsi et al., 2016; Lamprea Pineda et al., 2021).

In this study, we investigated the effects of packing material, inoculum type and operational conditions on the performance of three BFs (BF1-BF3) treating a mixture of toluene, cyclohexane and hexane. These compounds were chosen as model VOCs given their hydrophobic character and their broad range of low water solubilities (see Table A1), their importance at industrial level (Amin et al., 2017; Cui, 2016), and the lack of studies available on the biofiltration of this VOC mixture. To the best of our knowledge, only six studies deal with the biological gas treatment of cyclohexane (Liu et al., 2009; Rybarczyk et al., 2020, 2021; Salamanca et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2022; Zhanga et al., 2018), with all of them, except for Liu et al. (2009), using biotrickling filters (BTFs). The selection of an appropriate packing material for biofiltration represents a key design parameter, as it influences the biofiltration performance and its cost-effectiveness (Lebrero et al., 2021). Therefore, we evaluated the biofiltration process using: (i) a mixture of compost and wood chips (C+WC) (organic packing material) and (ii) expanded perlite (inorganic packing material). C+WC was chosen because it is the most widely used packing material in biofiltration studies and full-scale installations; among other benefits, it provides a high microbial diversity, it is easily available and has a low cost (Lebrero et al., 2021). On the other hand, perlite was chosen because it provides good attachment properties for various microorganisms, it has a high porosity, a good water holding capacity, and a low cost (Danila, Zagorskis, et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2019). Finally, as inoculum types, a sample of acclimated activated sludge (A-AS) and a specialized microbial strain (*Rhodococcus erythropolis*) were chosen. AS is widely used in biofiltration studies and provides a high microbial diversity, and *R. erythropolis* is a well-known bacterium able to degrade a broad range of hydrocarbons (Cappelletti et al., 2019; De Carvalho et al., 2009; De Carvalho & Da Fonseca, 2005). However, only a few studies (Jeong et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2009) have tested its applicability in real biological systems such as bioreactors. In this sense, BF1 was filled with the mixture of C+WC and inoculated with *R. erythropolis*, BF2 with the mixture of C+WC and A-AS, and BF3 with expanded perlite and *R. erythropolis*. In particular, we aimed to evaluate the ability of *R. erythropolis* to proliferate in the presence of autochthonous microorganisms present in the C+WC media (BF1) compared to the expanded perlite (BF3), which is an inert media that does not provide an active source of microorganisms. The BFs were operated simultaneously for over one year and Selected-Ion Flow Tube Mass Spectrometry (SIFT-MS), a type of direct mass spectrometry that

allows real-time measurements of VOCs, was used for the monitoring of their performance. Moreover, microbial analyses were performed to (i) identify the most dominant bacterial genera within and along each BF, and (ii) evaluate the presence of *Rhodococcus* in the BFs.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Gas generation system

The gas stream containing the mixture of VOCs (toluene, cyclohexane and hexane) to be fed to the BFs was generated using the home-build system illustrated in Figure 1-A and explained in detail in the supplementary material (Text A1). Briefly, a stainless-steel vessel (481 mL) was partially filled with liquid VOC (~300 mL), maintaining a headspace volume in equilibrium with the liquid. A small and controlled air stream was continuously injected into the saturated headspace after which it was further diluted with an additional stream of air to obtain the desired VOC concentration. Afterwards, this stream was humidified (99% relative humidity, room temperature) in a bubble column and directed to the BFs. This generation system allowed us to have a continuous and stable inlet stream loaded with VOCs.

2.2 Biofilters (BFs) design

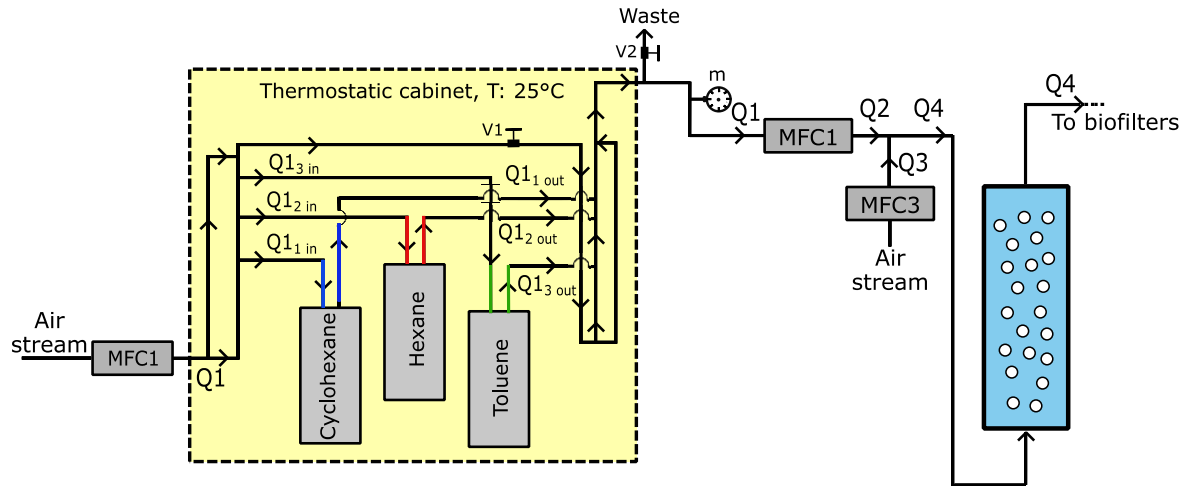
Three BFs (i.e., BF1, BF2 and BF3), containing different packing materials and inocula were assembled (Figure 1-B). Each consisted of 4 cylindrical modules of Plexiglas (each module: 0.16 m height; 0.10 m diameter). Three units (S1, S2 and S3) were filled with packing material whereas the bottom module contained pall rings (2.5 cm; 91% porosity) to enhance the inlet flow mixing and distribution. To evaluate the effect of different packing materials (organic versus inert), BF1 and BF2 were packed with a mixture of C+WC, and BF3 was filled with expanded perlite. The woodchips were humidified (by adding deionized water until saturation) for 24 h before being mixed with compost in a proportion (v/v) of 95% non-inoculated wood chips (mixed with bark-mulch of pine, lark and douglas-fir; granulometry: 20 – 40 mm) (Störk Umwelttechnik, Drensteinfurt, Germany) and 5% universal compost (potting soil: a mixture of peat, extruded wood fiber, composted soft-wood bark and fertilizers) (Makro, Gent, Belgium). Similarly, the expanded perlite (Willems Perlite, Ghent, Belgium) was previously sieved to a particle diameter between

1.70 and 8 mm and also humidified before being used in BF3. The mixture of C+WC was previously characterized (moisture content (Mc), water holding capacity (WHC) and inter-particle porosity (ϕ)) in Lamprea Pineda et al. (2023), while the characterization of the expanded perlite can be found in Bruneel et al. (2020) (Table A2).

The BFs were fed by Q4 (see Section 2.1) and the stream for each BF was controlled by using 3 rotameters (Key instruments, Croydon, USA), respectively. The inlet flow rate was kept at 1 L min^{-1} throughout the entire experimental period. Sample ports were installed along the BFs from the bottom to the top (P1, P2, P3, P4) to measure the inlet/outlet concentrations along the BFs. Therefore, the different ports corresponded to three empty bed residence times (EBRT), i.e., P1-P2: 82 s; P1-P3: 163 s and P1-P4: 245 s.

The top of the BFs was sealed with a small module of Plexiglas that could be opened to add a nutrient solution (see Section 2.5) and/or to take samples of packing material for microbial analysis. Moreover, the design of the BFs allowed us to take representative samples of each unit separately. Similarly, the bottom section allowed the collection of the leachate from the BFs. For further analysis, the leachate was removed before the addition of a fresh nutrient solution.

A



B

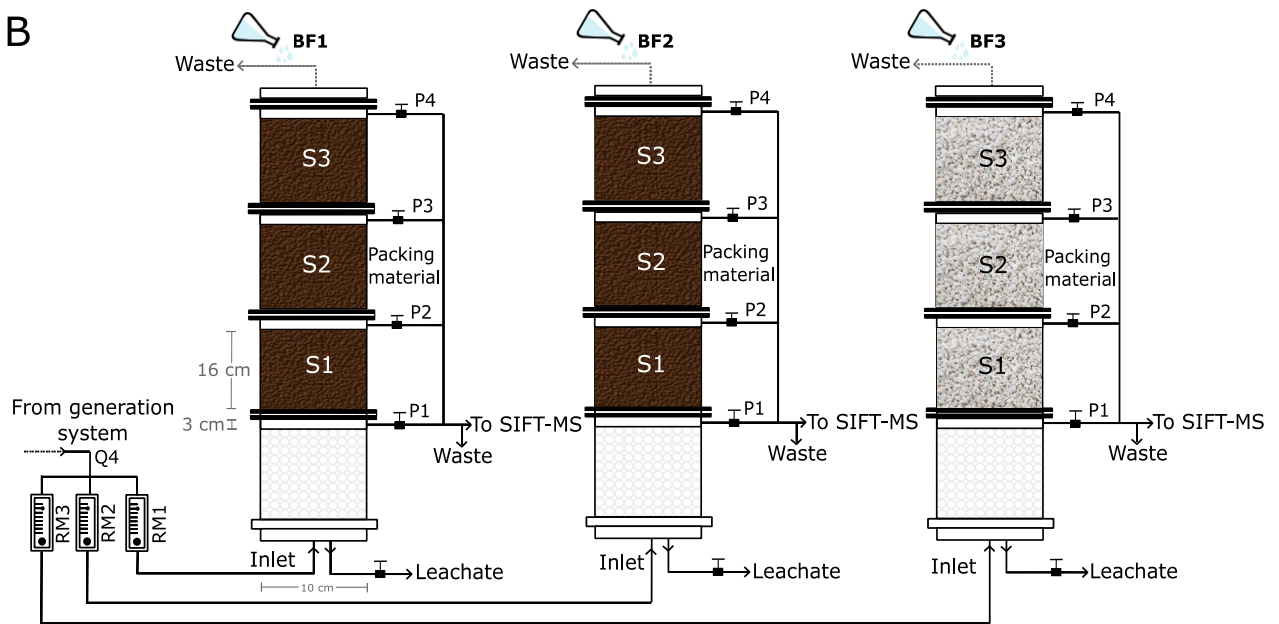


Figure 1. VOCs generation system (A) and biofilters (BFs) set-up (B). BF1: mixture of C+WC inoculated with *R.*

erythropolis, BF2: mixture of C+WC inoculated with A-AS, BF3: expanded perlite inoculated with *R. erythropolis*.

MFC stands for Mass Flow Controller, $V_{1,2}$ for regulatory valve, *m* for manometer, RM_{1-3} for rotameter, S1-S3 for

BF' section, P1-P4 for gas sampling port, and SIFT-MS for Selected-Ion Flow Tube Mass Spectrometry. Note: this

BFs configuration was used for experimental Phases I-IV (see Section 2.5 and Figure A2).

2.3 Inoculation of the biofilters (BFs)

BF1 and BF3 were inoculated with 750 mL of a non-acclimated culture of *Rhodococcus erythropolis*, a strain (LMG 21994) obtained from the Belgian Co-Ordinated Collection of Microorganisms BCCM/LMG (Gray and Thornton, 1928). The strain was originally isolated in Belgium from a hydrocarbon-contaminated sandy soil in 1998 and was selected in this study for its well-known capability of

mineralizing a broad range of hydrocarbons (Cappelletti et al., 2019; De Carvalho et al., 2009; De Carvalho & Da Fonseca, 2005). The cultivation of the species can be found in detail in Text A2.

BF2 was inoculated with 750 mL of a 100-day A-AS. The AS was obtained from the aeration tank of a wastewater treatment plant treating domestic wastewater in Ghent, Belgium. The AS was initially settled, characterized (Text A3, and Table A3) and mixed (1.0:0.5 v/v) with a buffered nutrient solution of pH 7.0 (composition as described in Section 2.5). The mixture (1.5 L) was then placed in an aerated stirred bioreactor, where a continuous stream of gaseous cyclohexane, generated as described in Section 2.1 and previously humidified, was dosed at 47 sccm (Figure A1). The bioreactor was continuously stirred at 600 rpm and maintained at room temperature. The inlet cyclohexane concentration was gradually increased over time from 11±8 (Phase A-I) to 31±3 (Phase A-II) and finally to 55±4 ppm_v (Phase A-III).

2.4 Biofilter (BF) performance evaluation

The performance of the BFs was evaluated mainly by four parameters, namely the EBRT [Eq. 1], the Inlet Load (IL) [Eq. 2], the Elimination Capacity (EC) [Eq. 3] and the Removal Efficiency (RE) [Eq. 4].

$$EBRT = \frac{V_{bed}}{Q} \cdot 3600 \text{ [s]} \quad [\text{Eq. 1}]$$

$$IL = \frac{Q \cdot C_i}{V_{bed}} \text{ [g VOC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}] \quad [\text{Eq. 2}]$$

$$EC = \frac{(C_i - C_o) \cdot Q}{V_{bed}} \text{ [g VOC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}] \quad [\text{Eq. 3}]$$

$$RE = \frac{(C_i - C_o)}{C_i} \cdot 100 \text{ [%]} \quad [\text{Eq. 4}]$$

where V_{bed} (m³) is the reactor volume filled with packing material, Q the gas flow rate (m³ h⁻¹), and C_i and C_o the inlet and outlet VOC concentration (g m⁻³), respectively.

To verify the biological activity in the BFs, the CO₂ concentration of each BF was measured at each port (P1, P2, P3 and P4) using a CO₂ probe (Vaisala GMP222, Vantaa, Finland). The net CO₂ production in the BF was calculated as shown in [Eq. 5]:

$$Net\ CO_2\ production = CO_{2,P2-4} - CO_{2,P1} \quad [Eq. 5]$$

Where $CO_{2,P1}$ is the CO_2 concentration at the inlet of the BF (P1) and $CO_{2,P2-4}$ is the CO_2 concentration at P2, P3 or P4 (i.e., along the BF).

In addition, the pressure drop over the BFs was measured at the beginning and end of the experimentation using a U-tube water manometer.

2.5 Biofilters (BFs) conditions

The three BFs were operated simultaneously for 374 days at room temperature. The gaseous stream containing toluene, cyclohexane and hexane flowed through the BF from bottom to top (i.e., up-flow mode). The inlet flow rate was kept constant while the inlet concentration gradually increased over time till day 299 (i.e., Phase III as shown in Table 1 and Table A4). On day 300 (i.e., Phase IV), toluene was removed from the inlet gas to evaluate if its presence had any inhibitory effect on the biofiltration of cyclohexane and hexane. On day 335 (i.e., Phase V) the flow direction of the gaseous stream containing only cyclohexane and hexane was inverted (i.e., from up-flow mode to down-flow mode; see Figure A2) with a change in the order of the BFs units. This was done to evaluate the effect of nutrients addition on the biofiltration process. From the start-up phase till Phase IV, S3 was the main section exposed to nutrients, while S1 was the less exposed. Therefore, at the start of Phase V, S1 was moved to the top of the BF while S3 to the bottom.

A nutrient solution of pH 7.0 containing KNO_3 ($95.3\ g\ L^{-1}$) (assay: $\geq 97\%$, VWR International, Leuven, Belgium), $Na_2HPO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ ($9.8\ g\ L^{-1}$) (assay: 98.5-101%, Sigma Aldrich, Hoeilaart, Belgium), NaH_2PO_4 ($4.8\ g\ L^{-1}$) (assay: $\geq 99.0\%$, Sigma Aldrich, Hoeilaart, Belgium), $MgSO_4$ ($0.8\ g\ L^{-1}$) (assay: 99-101%, Chemlab-Analytical bvba, Zedelgem, Belgium), $CaSO_4$ ($1.5\ g\ L^{-1}$) (assay: 98%, Sigma Aldrich, Hoeilaart, Belgium) and Stabilox ($2.1\ mL\ L^{-1}$) (Brenntag NV, Deerlijk, Belgium) dissolved in distilled water, was added to each BF every four days at a C:N:P molar ratio of 100:10:1 and at a dosing rate of $10\ L\ m^2$ cross-section of BF. Samples of leachate were taken every four days before adding a new fresh nutrient solution and analyzed in terms of pH, total dissolved solids (TDS) and electrical conductivity (ec). pH was measured by a

potentiometric method using a pH-sensitive glass electrode and a standard reference electrode (VWR International, Leuven, Belgium), while TDS and ec were measured with a multiparameter water quality meter (HI98192, Hanna Instruments, Temse, Belgium). It must be noted that no nutrients were added during the first 20 days of operation of the BFs as the inocula contained nutrients and the packed beds had been previously humidified.

Table 1. Average Inlet Loads (ILs) per operational phase for BF1, BF2 and BF3. SD stands for standard deviation.

Note: ILs calculated from P1-P4 (complete BF, i.e., EBRT: 245 s). Phase 0 corresponds to the start-up phase. Inlet concentrations are shown in Table A4.

Phase	Days of operation	Average IL ($\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) $\pm$ SD								
		Cyclohexane			Hexane			Toluene		
		BF1	BF2	BF3	BF1	BF2	BF3	BF1	BF2	BF3
0	1-103	0.45 $\pm$ 0.06	0.53 $\pm$ 0.07	0.46 $\pm$ 0.06	0.45 $\pm$ 0.05	0.45 $\pm$ 0.06	0.45 $\pm$ 0.06	0.42 $\pm$ 0.08	0.36 $\pm$ 0.11	0.43 $\pm$ 0.16
I	104-147	0.94 $\pm$ 0.04	1.1 $\pm$ 0.1	0.9 $\pm$ 0.1	1.0 $\pm$ 0.1	0.99 $\pm$ 0.07	1.0 $\pm$ 0.1	1.3 $\pm$ 0.1	1.2 $\pm$ 0.1	1.3 $\pm$ 0.1
II	148-248	2.1 $\pm$ 0.3	2.4 $\pm$ 0.4	2.1 $\pm$ 0.3	2.2 $\pm$ 0.3	2.2 $\pm$ 0.2	2.3 $\pm$ 0.3	3.4 $\pm$ 0.6	3.3 $\pm$ 0.5	3.8 $\pm$ 0.5
III	251-299	6.8 $\pm$ 1.9	7.6 $\pm$ 2.3	7.2 $\pm$ 2.4	5.6 $\pm$ 1.1	5.4 $\pm$ 1.2	5.9 $\pm$ 1.0	8.3 $\pm$ 1.7	7.3 $\pm$ 1.7	9.3 $\pm$ 2.2
IV	300-334	7.2 $\pm$ 1.0	8.9 $\pm$ 1.7	8.2 $\pm$ 1.4	6.8 $\pm$ 1.3	7.4 $\pm$ 2.0	7.6 $\pm$ 2.2			
V	335-374	7.4 $\pm$ 0.8	8.7 $\pm$ 1.2	8.0 $\pm$ 0.6	6.5 $\pm$ 1.3	6.2 $\pm$ 0.8	6.9 $\pm$ 1.4			

2.6 Analysis of VOCs using Selected Ion Flow Tube Mass Spectrometry (SIFT-MS)

SIFT-MS was used for the real-time monitoring of the performance of the AS bioreactor and the three BFs. Briefly, SIFT-MS is an analytical technique based on the chemical ionization of gaseous organic compounds using precursor ions (NO^+ , H_3O^+ and O_2^+). The ionization creates product ions (PIs) that are detected by a quadrupole mass spectrometer (Syft Technologies Ltd, 2009). The analysis occurs in real-time with detection limits up to part-per-billion level (by volume – ppb_v). For this study, the following PIs for toluene, cyclohexane and hexane were measured: C_7H_8^+ [92]/ NO^+ , $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{11}^+$ [83]/ NO^+ and $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{13}^+$ [85]/ NO^+ , respectively. The inlet and outlet stream of the aerated stirred bioreactor, as well as the four

ports installed in each BF (P1-P4), were measured daily for at least three minutes. Thus, reported concentrations show an average of more than 150 points.

2.7 Microbial community analysis

To identify the core taxa and evaluate the microbial communities' evolution along the BFs, samples of packing material were taken from each section of each BF at phase IV. Besides this, the core taxa of the mixture C+WC used for BF1 and BF2, along with the A-AS (see Section 2.3) used for BF2, was also identified.

For details on DNA extraction, sequencing and data processing, the reader is referred to Seuntjens et al., (2018, 2020). Briefly, DNA extraction was carried out using the FastPrep® kit PowerSoil Pro (QIAGEN N.V., The Netherlands) to prevent inhibition due to the presence of wood and compost. The DNA extract was sent out to LGC genomics GmbH (Berlin, Germany) for library preparation and sequencing on an Illumina Miseq platform with v3 chemistry using the primers 341F (5'-CCT ACG GGN GGC WGC AG -3') and 785Rmod (5'-GAC TAC HVG GGT ATC TAA KCC-3') (Klindworth et al., 2013). The software package DADA2 R (version 4.2.2) was used to process the amplicon sequence data according to the pipeline tutorial of Callahan et al. (2016). The amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were classified using the Naïve Bayesian Classifier and the DADA2 formatted Silva v138 database (Quast et al., 2013). Finally, the phyloseq package in R was used to generate figures representing the 13 most relative or absolute abundant genera, phyla and families across all samples (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Acclimation of activated sludge (AS) and biofilters (BFs) start-up phase

The acclimation of AS to the continuous gaseous stream loaded with cyclohexane showed a slow and slight increase in RE over time (Figure 2). A RE of 14% was recorded on the second day of operation, and an increase in cyclohexane inlet concentration in Phase A-II (from 11 to 31 ppm_v) did not affect the RE (average RE: 16±5%). A further increase in cyclohexane concentration in Phase A-III (up to 55 ppm_v) slightly increased the RE (23±4%) on days 50-55. On days 56 and 84, nutrients were added to further

stimulate this removal. In this way, a maximum RE of $37\pm 1\%$ was observed in the last three days of operation of the AS bioreactor.

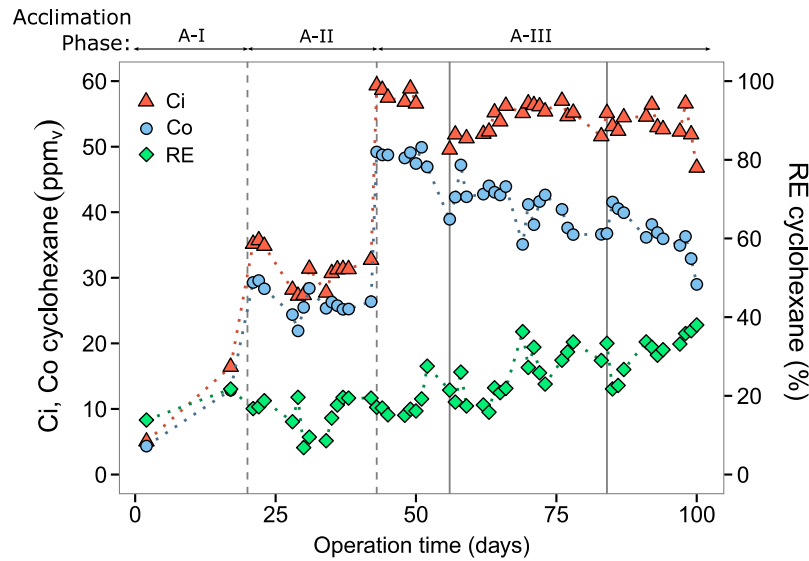


Figure 2. Activated sludge acclimation over time, with inlet (Ci, red triangles) and outlet (Co, blue circles) concentrations of cyclohexane and the respective removal efficiency (RE) (green diamonds). The dashed vertical lines indicate a transition between operational phases (i.e., an increase in inlet concentration), while the solid vertical lines represent an addition of nutrients.

After the acclimation of the AS to cyclohexane, the three BF_s were inoculated as indicated in Section 2.3 and operated in parallel. The start-up phase (Phase 0) of the BF_s lasted 104 days and is shown in Figure A3.

After one day of operation, BF₂ showed complete removal of toluene (RE = 100%) at the top of the BF (P1-P4, S1-S3; EBRT: 245 s). In fact, the RE at P2 (i.e., S1 – EBRT: 82 s) was 56%, and at P3 (i.e., S1-S2 – EBRT: 163 s) 96%. For BF₃ this process took three days, while for BF₁, complete removal at the shortest EBRT was only observed after 67 days of operation. In the case of cyclohexane, BF₂ showed a gradual increase in RE during the first days of operation. Complete removal of cyclohexane in BF₂ was observed already on day 19 at an EBRT of 245 s, and simultaneously, RE > 90% were recorded on day 19 onwards at an EBRT of 163 s. In contrast, S1 showed an increasing trend during the first 30 days of operation and an average RE of $46\pm 6\%$ during the last 41 days. In the case of BF₃, only after 63 days of operation, a

274 significant removal of cyclohexane was observed along the BF. The RE during the first 34 days of operation
275 was below 9% at all EBRTs. After 84 days, 100% removal of cyclohexane was achieved at an EBRT of 245
276 s, while at an EBRT of 163 s and 82 s, the RE was $87\pm4\%$ and $44\pm7\%$, respectively. Contrary to BF3, BF1
277 showed an immediate response to cyclohexane removal throughout the BF already on day one, but the
278 maximum average REs reached after 100 days were only 85 ± 5 , 29 ± 2 and $9\pm3\%$ at 245, 163 and 82 s,
279 respectively. Finally, hexane showed a very similar behavior as cyclohexane in each BF. It was almost
280 completely removed in BF2 at 245 ($99.9\pm0.2\%$) and 163 s ($98\pm2\%$), while the maximum average RE
281 achieved at the end of the start-up was $39\pm6\%$ at 82 s. In BF3, the RE at 245, 163 and 82 s were $99.8\pm0.3\%$,
282 $84\pm5\%$ and $62\pm4\%$, respectively. BF1, in contrast, showed the lowest REs of the three BFs, i.e., $92\pm3\%$ at
283 245 s, $35\pm9\%$ at 163 s and $4\pm3\%$ at 82 s.

284 In general, the order of degradation of VOCs in each BF was toluene > cyclohexane > hexane. BF3 had a
285 lag phase of 34 and 12 days for cyclohexane and hexane, respectively. In the case of BF1 and BF2, such
286 lag phase was shorter or even negligible. This order of VOCs RE may be related to their physical-chemical
287 properties and, therefore, bioavailability to the microorganisms. Toluene is the most water-soluble VOC,
288 while hexane, is the least (see Table A1). Moreover, the acclimation of the AS to cyclohexane could have
289 positively influenced the performance of BF2, which is the BF where the highest RE for all VOCs was
290 achieved. In contrast, even though BF3, inoculated with *R. erythropolis*, also showed high REs for the
291 three VOCs, it was clear that the strain needed adaption, especially to cyclohexane and hexane. The lower
292 performance observed at this stage in BF1 compared to BF2 (same packing material, i.e., C+WC) and BF3
293 (also inoculated with *R. erythropolis*) indicates that the microbial consortium present in this BF was less
294 specialized towards cyclohexane and hexane removal. The possible interaction of *R. erythropolis* with (i)
295 the autochthonous bacteria present in the compost and/or (ii) the media itself (influenced by e.g., pH,
296 humidity, porosity) could have negatively affected the performance of this BF. However, such
297 interpretation is out of the scope of this study.

298 The CO₂ measurements showed that particularly for BF1 and BF2, i.e., BFs packed with organic materials
299 and where autochthonous bacteria were already present, the net CO₂ production was much higher than

the theoretical CO₂ production (i.e., considering complete oxidation and that no carbon was incorporated as biomass) (Figure A4, A & B). In BF1, net CO₂ values up to 1213 ppm_v (P1-P4; S1-S3) were observed on the first day of operation. The CO₂ concentrations decreased over time and stabilized from day 66 onwards (471±44 ppm_v P1-P4). Similarly, BF2 showed CO₂ concentrations between 494-1441 ppm_v (P1-P4) during the first 34 days of operation, with high CO₂ variations along the BF. Afterwards, the CO₂ production stabilized at 696±59 ppm_v (P1-P4). The high CO₂ variations observed in both BFs during the first days of operation are related to the steady increase in RE of mainly cyclohexane and hexane, while the CO₂ stabilization reflects the steady-state performance of the BFs for each VOC. On the other hand, the high CO₂ values recorded in BF1 and BF2 could be related to the interaction of the autochthonous microorganisms with the inocula added (*R. erythropolis* in BF1 and A-AS in BF2) and the possible degradation of the organic matter present in the packed bed. In both cases, this could have contributed to higher CO₂ concentrations. Contrary, BF3 showed peak CO₂ concentrations on the first day of operation (up to 223 ppm_v P1-P4). Afterwards, the values recorded decreased over time and stabilized around day 63 with an average net CO₂ production of 126±14 ppm_v (P1-P4). This CO₂ concentration (Figure A4-C) matched the CO₂ production expected when considering the performance of the BF and complete oxidation of the VOCs. The peak observed in BF3 on day one, but later decrease over time, might be related to the adaptation of *R. erythropolis* to the support media and the VOCs dosed. The bacteria were grown in a liquid medium supplemented with glucose as a source of carbon (Text A2). Therefore, the degradation of residual glucose and the transition from glucose to hydrophobic VOCs (i.e., stress episode), could have induced a CO₂ pulse in the beginning.

Although the start-up time is directly related to the type of compound to be removed, the operational conditions of the bioreactor and the physiological state of the inoculum (Marycz et al., 2022), similar start-up times as those observed in BF1-BF3 have been reported by other authors. For example, Cheng et al. (2016) observed start-up times as short as 6 days for three lava rock BFs (one inoculated with bacteria (AS), another with fungus (*Trichoderma viride*), and another with both bacteria and fungi) treating toluene vapors (53 ppm_v; EBRT: 96 s). In contrast, Kumar et al. (2019) reported a start-up of 18

days for a BF filled with a modified filter bed media (compost mixed with granular activated carbon, NPK fertilizer and multivitamin tablets) and using the microorganisms naturally present in it for the removal of toluene (613-1092 ppm_v; EBRT: 51.2 s). In the case of hexane removal, Valenzuela-Reyes et al. (2014) reported 15 days of start-up in a BF inoculated with acclimated hydrocarbon sludge and packed with granular perlite (hexane concentration: 786±434 ppm_v; EBRT: 60 s). Regarding cyclohexane, the majority of the studies available are with biotrickling filters (BTF) instead of BFs. For example, in a study carried out by Salamanca et al. (2017) with a polyurethane foam BTF inoculated with *Acivodorax* sp. CHX100, the start-up phase lasted 18 days (cyclohexane concentration: 20 ppm_v; EBRT: 37 s).

3.2 Biofilters (BFs) performance analysis

From day 74 up to day 103 (29 days period), stable REs (RSD < 6%) were observed in each BF for all VOCs. This was considered as the end of the start-up phase (Phase 0) and it was presumed that the microorganisms were acclimated to the VOC mixture. Therefore, we proceeded to increase the inlet concentration of each VOC from 18 up to 165 ppm_v (Phase I – Phase III; Table A4).

Under steady-state conditions and after operating the BFs for 44 days (i.e., from day 104 until day 147), the results showed a decrease in performance (i.e., lower REs) for BF1 and BF2 in Phase I compared to the start-up phase (Figure 3 A-B (BF1) D-F (BF2)). In both BFs, this decrease was more pronounced for cyclohexane and hexane, and through the whole packed bed in BF1 (i.e., P1-P2 (S1), P1-P3 (S1-S2) and P1-P4 (S1-S3)). For instance, cyclohexane and hexane RE in BF1 during Phase I decreased between 1.4 – 3.0 times in each section (i.e., cyclohexane: 60±2% at 245 s, 14±4% at 163 s and 4.0±3.4% at 82 s; hexane: 61±3% at 245 s, 12±4% at 163 s and 2.9±2.7% at 82 s) when compared to the start-up phase (i.e., cyclohexane: 85±5% at 245 s, 29±2% at 163 s and 8.5±2.7% at 82 s; hexane: 92±3% at 245 s, 35±9% at 163 s and 4.1±2.7% at 82 s). Interestingly, BF2 that had reached a complete removal of cyclohexane and hexane during the start-up phase at the longest EBRT (P1-P4; 245 s) showed no decrease in performance at the same EBRT. The decrease in RE was only present in the first two sections of the BF (i.e., EBRTs: 163 and 82 s). In the case of toluene, the easiest to remove VOC, a decrease in RE was only observed for BF1 (with a factor of 1.5 compared to the start-up phase) and at an EBRT of 82 s (i.e. S1; from 100 to 67±5%),

which corresponds to the section of the BF where the microorganisms are exposed to the highest VOC concentrations. In contrast to BF1 and BF2, BF3 showed a more stable RE between the start-up phase and Phase I (Figure 3 G-I). A significant decrease was only observed in S1 (EBRT: 82 s), for the three VOCs in the following order: toluene < cyclohexane < hexane. The decrease in toluene RE was minimal (from 100 to 96%) while for cyclohexane and hexane, the RE decreased from 44 ± 7 to $25\pm13\%$ and from 62 ± 4 to $28\pm15\%$, respectively.

In Phase II, the BFs were exposed to higher VOC concentrations (cyclohexane and hexane: ~ 43 ppm_v; toluene: ~ 63 ppm_v). BF1 reached the highest REs for each VOC and through the whole packed bed. An almost complete removal ($98\pm1\%$) of cyclohexane was observed at an EBRT of 245 s, while for hexane a maximum RE of $91\pm2\%$ was obtained at the same EBRT. Complete removal of toluene was achieved throughout the BF. As in Phase I, BF2 kept showing complete removal of the 3 VOCs at an EBRT of 245 s. Moreover, an improvement in cyclohexane RE ($57\pm2\%$) was observed in S1 (EBRT: 82 s) compared to the previous phases (Phase I: $27\pm5\%$; start-up phase: $41\pm5\%$). In contrast, the performance of BF3 decreased dramatically, even for toluene, and throughout the BF (Figure 3 G-I). The highest decrease in performance was observed for hexane (e.g., from 99 ± 1 in Phase I to $50\pm4\%$ in Phase II; EBRT: 245 s), followed by cyclohexane (e.g., from 99 ± 1 in Phase I to $69\pm4\%$ in Phase II; EBRT: 245 s) and toluene (e.g., from 96 ± 3 in Phase I to $41\pm8\%$ in Phase II; EBRT: 82 s). These decreases may be related to (i) a possible detachment of the microorganisms present in the biofilm of the expanded perlite and their subsequent washout, and (ii) osmotic stress, in both cases, induced by the continuous dose of nutrients. The nutrients dosing rate was the same from the beginning of the BFs operation, but its concentration was adjusted according to the total amount of carbon (C) fed to the BFs (see Section 2.5). The increase in VOCs inlet concentration of Phase II in BF3 showed an immediate linear and fast decrease in RE along the BF for each VOC (see Figure A5). Moreover, the analysis of the leachate (Figure A6) showed a slight increase in TDS and ec (same pattern) already starting at the end of the start-up phase but with an abrupt increase in concentrations at the beginning of Phase II (e.g., TDS increased from 7.7 on day 147 till 12.3 g L^{-1} on day 164). This indicates that the nutrients were not consumed by the microorganisms, and if their concentration was

high enough to induce an osmotic stress on the microorganisms, microbial activity could have been reduced, thereby reducing the VOCs' elimination (Ravi et al., 2013). Therefore, on day 192 the nutrients addition was stopped for 25 days and afterwards, the BF showed a stable performance from day 231 onwards.

In Phase III, the inlet concentration of each VOC was further increased (cyclohexane: ~139 ppm_v, hexane: ~107 ppm_v; toluene: ~147 ppm_v) and a decrease in RE was observed for cyclohexane and hexane in the three BFs. Toluene removal in BF1 was only slightly reduced in S1 (EBRT: 82 s), from 99.9±0.3 (Phase II) to 92±6% (Phase III). BF2 proved to be robust enough to withstand the highest concentration of toluene fed even at the lowest EBRT. BF3 in contrast showed an improvement in RE of toluene in S1 compared to Phase II (from 41±8 in Phase II to 82±9% in Phase III).

Since toluene was still present in BF1 (S1) and BF3 (S1 and S2), it was removed from the inlet stream in Phase IV, in order to assess if that would influence the removal of cyclohexane and hexane. The results showed that after operating the BFs for 35 days without toluene and at a cyclohexane and hexane inlet concentration of ~158 and ~138 ppm_v, respectively, hexane removal was significantly reduced in both BF1 (from 63±17 in Phase III to 37±14% in Phase IV; EBRT: 245 s) and BF2 (96±4% in Phase III to 72±13 in Phase IV; EBRT: 245 s), but only in S3. Contrary, cyclohexane RE stayed in the same order of magnitude throughout the BFs as in the previous phase. However, since toluene was being removed mainly in S1 and S2 in the previous phases in both BF1 and BF2, this reduction in hexane RE and at the top of the BFs may be related to the amount of nutrients present in this section. As less carbon was dosed (no toluene) and the C:N:P ratio was kept constant at 100:10:1 (see Section 2.5), the absolute concentration of nutrients was lower compared to Phase III; with S3 being the section directly exposed to the nutrient solution. Regarding BF3, no significant differences were observed between Phase III and IV for cyclohexane or hexane. Overall, this indicates that the presence of toluene throughout the packed bed had a neutral effect on the RE of cyclohexane and hexane in the three BFs and at the conditions tested in Phase III and Phase IV.

403 In the last phase of operation, Phase V, the effect of nutrients addition throughout the BFs was tested at
404 similar VOC inlet concentrations as in Phase IV, i.e., at the highest concentrations tested in this study. So
405 far, the nutrients had been added on top of the BFs, which means that S3 (treating the lowest VOC
406 concentrations) of each BF was the section that was the most exposed to the nutrients, while S1 (treating
407 the highest VOC concentrations) was exposed the least to the nutrients. Therefore, we proceeded by
408 inverting the sections, with S3 now at the bottom and S1 at the top. However, to avoid negative effects
409 on the microbial communities by high loads of VOCs (Rene et al., 2013), the flow direction was also
410 inverted (down-flow mode). With this reorganization, the nutrients kept being added at the same dosing
411 rate and concentration as in Phase IV. The results showed that each BF responded differently. No
412 significant differences were observed for cyclohexane or hexane RE in BF1 at any section. In BF2 a
413 significant reduction of cyclohexane (-11.4%) and hexane (-21%) RE was observed in S3, i.e., the section
414 least exposed to nutrients, with a slight increase in cyclohexane removal (+10.5%) in S1. Contrary, BF3
415 showed positive effects along the whole packed bed. Cyclohexane and hexane RE increased throughout
416 the BF by 13-26% and 5-30%, respectively. This indicates that exposing S1 of BF3 to a higher concentration
417 of nutrients had a positive effect throughout the bed.

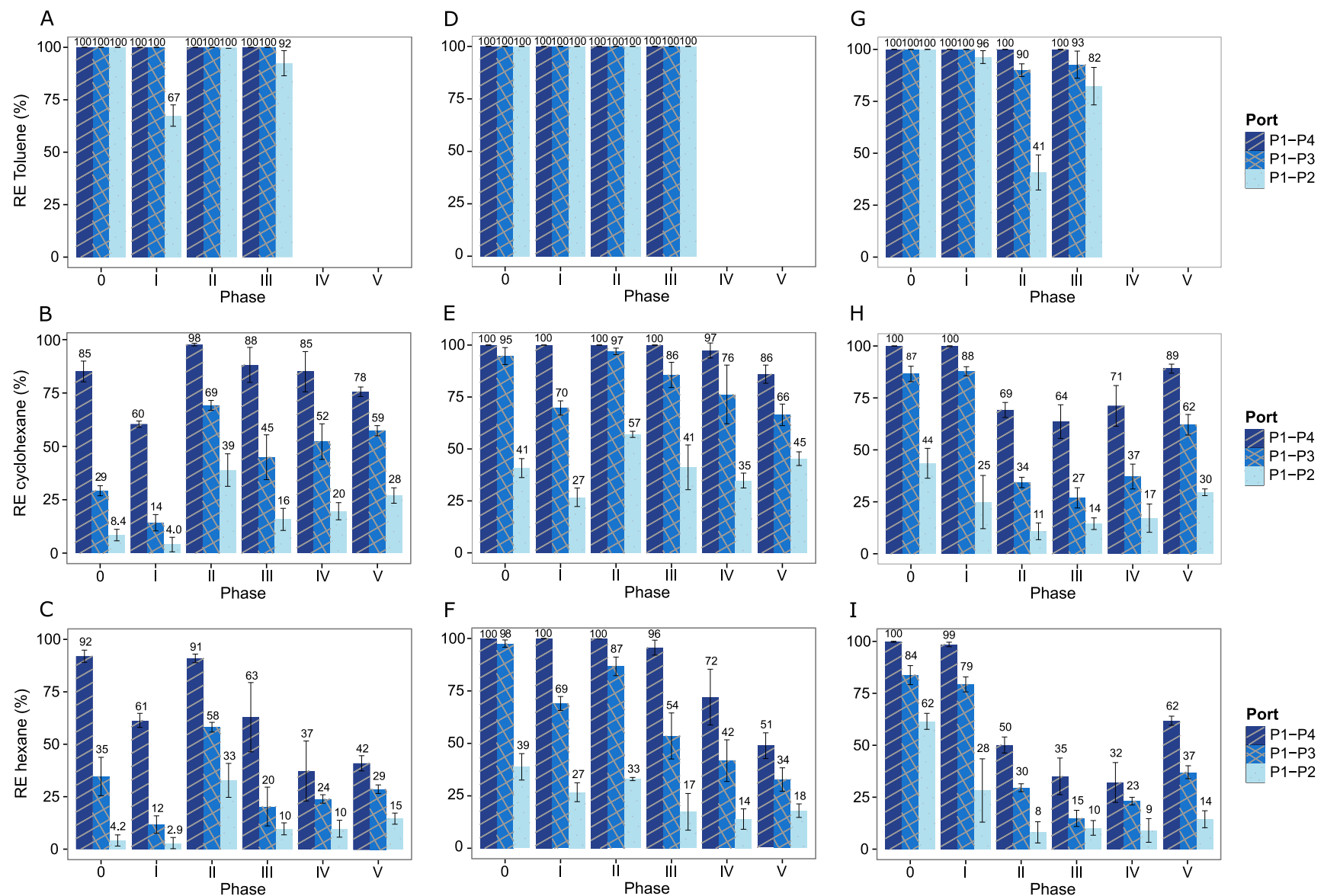


Figure 3. Average Removal Efficiency (RE) per operational phase of toluene (A, D, G), cyclohexane (B, E, H) and hexane (C, F, I) in BF1 (A-C), BF2 (D-F) and BF3 (G-I). RE along each BF, i.e., dark blue: P4-P1 (S1-S4, EBRT: 245 s), medium blue: P3-P1 (S1-S3, EBRT: 163 s) and light blue: P2-P1 (S1, EBRT: 82 s). The number on top of each bar shows the average RE, and the error bar its standard deviation considering the last 5 data points measured (steady-state conditions).

422 In general, the removal of VOCs in each BF was in the following order: toluene > cyclohexane > hexane,
423 with BF2 showing better performance for the three VOCs and in each operational phase. Higher ECs were
424 obtained in Phase III in BF1 and BF2 for the three VOCs (Figure 4 A-C (BF1) and D-F (BF2)). Toluene reached
425 a maximum average EC (ECmax) of $25 \pm 3 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $92 \pm 6\%$, EBRT: 82 s) and $21 \pm 3 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: 100%,
426 EBRT: 82 s) in BF1 and BF2, respectively. For cyclohexane, ECmax of $6.8 \pm 1.2 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $88 \pm 8\%$, EBRT:
427 245 s) and $11 \pm 2 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $86 \pm 6\%$, EBRT: 163 s) were obtained in BF1 and BF2, respectively. For hexane,
428 the most difficult compound to degrade, ECmax in BF1 and BF2 were $4.1 \pm 1.0 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $63 \pm 16\%$, EBRT:
429 245 s) and $6.2 \pm 0.9 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $96 \pm 4\%$, EBRT: 245 s), respectively. For BF3 and except for toluene, the
430 highest ECs were observed in Phase V, after evaluating the effect of nutrients solution addition (Figure 4
431 G-I). Toluene reached an ECmax of $23 \pm 4 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $82 \pm 9\%$, EBRT: 82 s, Phase III), cyclohexane of 7.2 ± 0.6
432 (RE: $62 \pm 5\%$, EBRT: 163 s), and hexane of $3.9 \pm 0.3 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (RE: $62 \pm 2\%$, EBRT: 245 s). In this sense, BF1 and
433 BF3 performed similarly in terms of ECmax for each VOC, despite having different packing materials and
434 inoculum types (compost+ *R. erythropolis* -BF1 versus *R. erythropolis* -BF3).

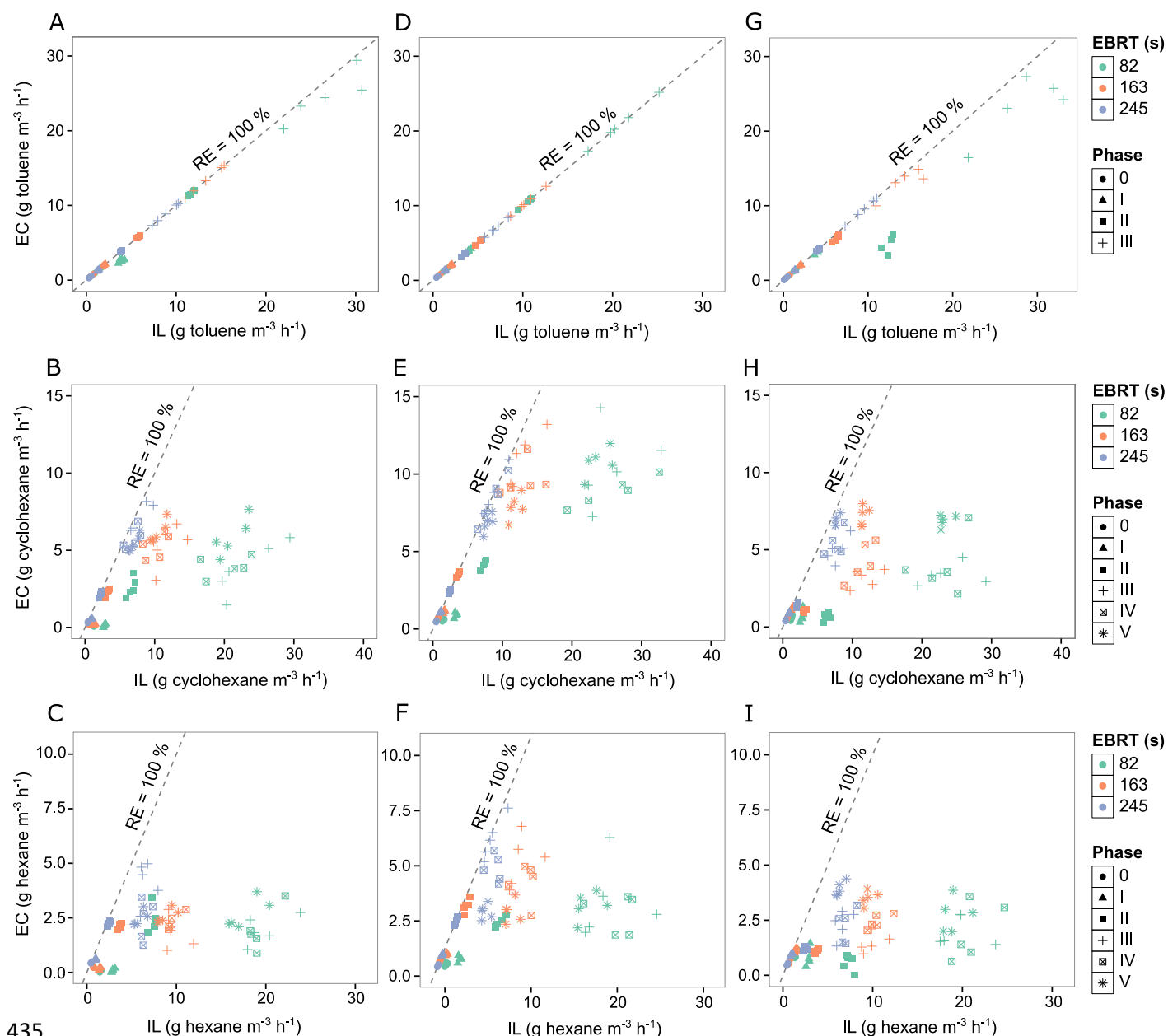


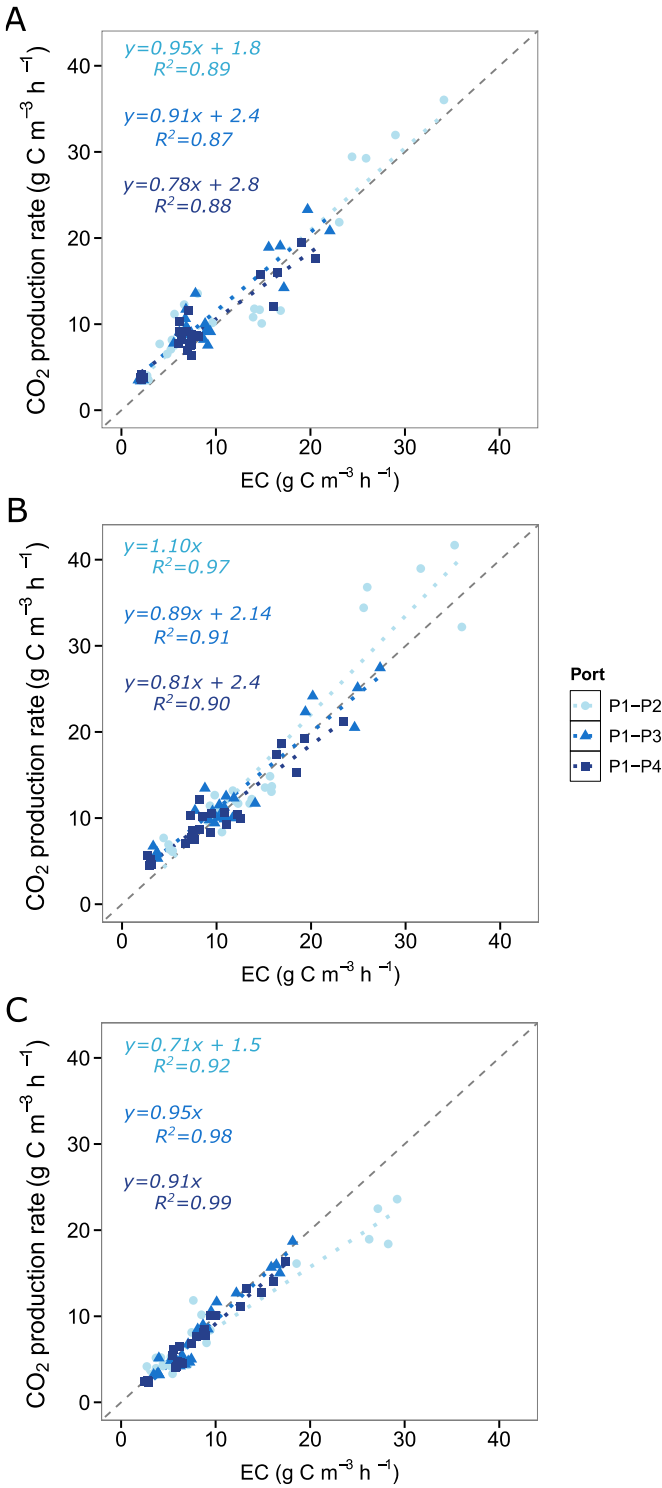
Figure 4. Effect of Inlet Load (IL) on the Elimination Capacity (EC) of toluene (A, D, G), cyclohexane (B, E, H) and hexane (C, F, I) in BF1 (A-C), BF2 (D-F) and BF3 (G-I) per operational phase and at different Empty Bed Residence Times (EBRTs): green 82 s, orange 163 s and purple 245 s. The dashed black line represents 100% Removal Efficiency (RE), i.e., the EC is equal to the IL. The values represented show the last 5 data points measured in each operational phase (steady-state conditions).

3.3 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) production

The follow-up of the net CO₂ production along the packed bed is shown for each BF in Figure A7. As observed in Section 3.1 during Phase 0, the net CO₂ production recorded along BF1 and BF2 during Phase

444 I was also much higher than the theoretical CO₂ production expected (considering the RE and no carbon
445 incorporated as biomass). As explained above, this may reflect the interaction of the autochthonous
446 microorganisms with the inocula added and/or possible degradation of the organic matter present in the
447 packed bed.

448 For Phases I-V, the CO₂ production rates (g CO₂-C m⁻³ h⁻¹) measured along the BFs during stable conditions
449 were plotted against their ECs (g VOCs-C m⁻³ h⁻¹). In all cases, positive and linear relationships were
450 obtained (Figure 5 and Table A5) with R² ≥ 0.9 (n = 25 per BF and BF's port), indicating that an
451 increase/decrease in EC was translated into an increase/decrease in CO₂ production. The slopes suggest
452 the ratio of g CO₂-C m⁻³ h⁻¹ produced per g VOC-C m⁻³ h⁻¹ degraded by the microorganisms. Higher slopes
453 were obtained in S1 of BF1 and BF2, while for BF3, this was observed in S2. In other words, for a given
454 EC, higher carbon mineralization was observed in S1 of BF1 and BF2, and S2 for BF3. Slopes close to 1
455 (e.g., S1-BF2 and S2-BF3) indicate that almost 100% of the carbon dosed (as VOCs) to the BFs was
456 converted into CO₂, while slopes below indicate that part of the carbon degraded was e.g., incorporated
457 into biomass during microbial growth and/or transformed into intermediate oxidation products. In fact,
458 the intercept values of the linear regressions indicate the endogenous metabolism of the BFs; with higher
459 values for BF1 and BF2. This is without considering that some of the CO₂ produced may have also
460 accumulated in the biofilm and/or leachate solution as H₂CO₃, HCO₃⁻ and/or CO₃⁻² (Mohammad et al.,
461 2007), and/or emitted by the degradation of the organic matter present in the packed bed of mainly BF1
462 and BF2.



464
465 *Figure 5. Relationship between CO₂ production rate and elimination capacity (EC) expressed as g C m⁻³ h⁻¹ for BF1*
466 *(A), BF2 (B) and BF3 (C) and along the BFs, i.e., dark blue: P1-P4 (S1-S3, EBRT: 245 s), medium blue: P1-P3 (S1-S2,*
467 *EBRT: 163 s) and light blue: P1-P2 (S1, EBRT: 82 s). The dashed black line represents 100% conversion of VOC-C into*
468 *CO₂-C (1:1). The values represented show the last 5 data points measured in each operational phase (steady-state*
469 *conditions).*

3.4 Pressure drop (ΔP)

ΔP values of 41, 20 and 61 Pa m⁻¹ were recorded at the end of Phase V in BF1, BF2 and BF3, respectively. These values are relatively low given the long-term operation of the BFs (> 1 year) and considering that typical ΔP values over a BF vary between 20 – 100 Pa m⁻¹, with values up to ~1000 Pa m⁻¹ (Rene et al., 2013). On the other hand, the use of wood chips as a bulking agent (higher void spaces) may have been responsible for the lower ΔP observed in BF1 and BF2, compared to BF3.

3.5 Comparison with other studies

Biofiltration of toluene has been extensively investigated over the last 2 decades. The studies have included both bacterial and fungal species. For example, Álvarez-Hornos et al. (2008) evaluated the biofiltration of toluene in a peat BF inoculated with an adapted culture from AS. The authors reported RE above 80% when ILs up to 116 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ were tested at an EBRT of 57 s. Cheng et al. (2016) reported REs of 82 and 74% for a bacterial BF (lava rock with AS as inoculum) treating toluene at ILs of 15 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (EBRT: 96 s) and 60 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (EBRT: 48 s), respectively. Lee et al. (2009) evaluated the performance of a polyurethane BF inoculated with *Rhodococcus* sp. EH831 and fed with a mixture of benzene and toluene vapors. Under a continuous and constant loading of the VOC mixture (38±9 g m⁻³ h⁻¹), average REs of 95 and 94% were achieved for benzene and toluene, respectively, at an EBRT of 72 s. Finally, Ghasemi et al. (2020) evaluated the performance of a BF inoculated with *Pseudomonas putida* PTCC 1694 using vermicompost and wood charcoal as packing material. At an IL of 21±3 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ and an EBRT of 21 s, REs ≥ 80% were obtained. The results obtained in our study (ILs, REs and EBRTs) are in the same order of magnitude as those reported in the literature, except for Álvarez-Hornos et al. (2008). It is worth mentioning that especially in BF2, higher ECs for toluene could have been reached. However, it was not the goal of our research to reach an EC_{max} for toluene but to study its effect on the RE of the other two VOCs.

In contrast, the research performed so far on biofiltration of hexane and cyclohexane is more limited, with few studies for the latter and except for Liu et al. (2009), only in BTFs. For example, Salamanca et al. (2017) evaluated the removal of cyclohexane in a BTF packed with polyurethane foam and inoculated

495 with *Acivodorax* sp. CHX100. REs between 80 and 99% were achieved at ILs between 7 and 54 g m⁻³ h⁻¹
496 and at an EBRT of 37 s. Similarly, a study carried out by Zhanga et al. (2018) using a BTF packed with
497 ceramsite (artificial foundry sand) and inoculated with *Ochrobactrum intermedium* from AS showed that,
498 at an EBRT of 200 s, the cyclohexane RE increased and stabilized at around 95% when ILs between 18-63
499 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ were tested. In contrast, Liu et al. (2009) evaluated an in-situ compost-BF for the treatment of
500 municipal solid waste odors. Forty different compounds were identified and treated, among them,
501 cyclohexane, which exhibited REs of 67-100%, at an EBRT of 32.5 s and ILs between 0.5-6.0 g m⁻³ h⁻¹. In
502 this sense, the BTFs outperformed our three BFs, but they showed higher ECs -although at longer EBRTs-
503 than the only BF study available to date.

504 In the case of hexane, the literature shows a broader range of REs at different ILs and EBRTs. Our results
505 are situated in the lower range with especially higher EBRTs tested (e.g., 163 and 245 s). For example,
506 Amin et al. (2017) reported REs of ~78 and 70% at ILs of 14 (EBRT: 138 s) and 12 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (EBRT: 108 s),
507 respectively, in a scoria/compost-based BF inoculated with AS acclimated to hexane for two months.
508 Mokhtari et al. (2019) obtained average hexane REs between 19±2 and 47±8% at ILs between 7 and 137
509 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ and at EBRTs between 30 and 120 s in a BF packed with compost, scoria, sugar beet pulp and
510 polar tree skin, inoculated with AS previously acclimated to hexane for 60 days. Kibazohi et al. (2004)
511 evaluated the removal of hexane in BFs packed with different solid media (different ratios of peat:perlite)
512 and under N supplementation. The BFs were inoculated with AS previously acclimated to hexane. The
513 authors concluded that higher biodegradation rates were obtained with high nutrient supplementation
514 (up to 1 kg N m⁻³ per week), with REs between 10 and 67% in a 100% perlite BF and between 11 and 80%
515 in a 50:50 (v:v) peat:perlite BF at EBRTs between 27 and 135 s and ILs between 26 and 338 g m⁻³ h⁻¹.

516 Yet, when comparing results from this study with others, it should be noticed that there are no studies
517 available where the mixture of toluene, cyclohexane and hexane has been evaluated. In fact, all the
518 studies mentioned above, except for Liu et al. (2009), were limited to the removal of single compounds
519 and thus excluded possible interactions between target VOCs on measured ECs and REs. Next to that, the
520 different studies used other types of packing materials and inocula.

3.6 Comparison of microbial communities and their richness in the biofilters (BFs)

The organic packing material of BF1 and BF2 (mixture of C+WC), the A-AS (inoculum of BF2) and the *R. erythropolis* (inoculum of BF1 and BF3) provided a source of microbes to all BFs. A microbial analysis of the inocula and each section of the BFs (S1-S3) at the end of Phase IV shows that bacteria belonging to the phylum Actinobacteriota dominated in every sample (Figure A8-A), with relative abundances ranging between 35 (C+WC) and 76% (S1, BF3). Except for the A-AS sample, Proteobacteria was the second most abundant phylum.

Both C+WC and A-AS showed the highest diversity (Table 2, highest Simpson (1-D) and Shannon (H) indexes) of all samples and a very heterogeneous composition. Contrary, the continuous dose of a mixture of hydrophobic VOCs for 334 days (end of Phase IV) supported the specialization of different bacterial communities in each BF. The most abundant ASV found in C+WC (5.9%) corresponded to members belonging to the genus O_11-24, followed by the genus *Pedomicrobium* (relative abundance across all samples in Figure 6 and only in C+WC in Table A6). Even though the A-AS was exposed for 100 days to a continuous stream loaded with gaseous cyclohexane (see Section 3.1), no dominant genera were observed, and ASVs belonging to the family *Saprospiraceae* (9.4%) and the genus *Truepera* (7.3%) were the most abundant (Figure 6, Table A7).

Contrarily, the BFs samples showed a significant shift in microbial populations, even with differences between sections. In BF1-S1, *Rhodococcus* (48%), followed by *Mycobacterium* (11%) were the most dominant genera. While in BF1-S2, the relative abundance of *Rhodococcus* decreased (19%), *Mycobacterium* increased (22%), and ASVs belonging to the genus *Pseudonocardia* were enriched (17%, compared to 1.5% in S1). In BF1-S3, *Pseudonocardia* was the most abundant genus (35%), followed by *Rhodococcus* (26%), and with a substantial decrease of *Mycobacterium* (1.7%), ASVs belonging to the genus *Hoppeia* increased significantly (5.4%, abundance in S1 and S2 $\leq 0.03\%$). The high abundance of *Rhodococcus* in the bottom of BF1 may be related to a bacterial enrichment due to high ILs of hydrophobic VOCs, considering that this BF was inoculated with *R. erythropolis*, a strain well-known to degrade our mixture of VOCs (Cappelletti et al., 2019; De Carvalho et al., 2009; De Carvalho & Da Fonseca, 2005). On

the other hand, the increase in relative abundance of the genera *Mycobacterium* and *Pseudonocardia* (1.5 and 1.7% in C+WC, respectively) reflects the microbial specialization towards hydrophobic VOCs. Bacteria belonging to both genera can grow on both gaseous and liquid alkanes (Cappelletti et al., 2015; Kotani et al., 2006). Moreover, authors like González-Martín et al. (2023) have identified *Mycobacterium* as one of the most abundant genera in BFs treating a mixture of toluene, α -pinene and hexane.

The microbial analysis of BF2 showed that even though this BF was not inoculated with *Rhodococcus*, ASVs belonging to this genus were present along the packed bed (S1: 19%, S2: 8.5%, S3: 13%). *Mycobacterium* was the most dominated genus (S1: 27%, S2: 47%, S3: 31%), and *TM7a* (also known as *Saccharibacteria*) was present in each section with a similar abundance (S1: 7.8%, S2: 5.8%, S3: 7.4%). *Rhodococcus* accounted in both C+WC and A-AS for 0.3%, so its presence at higher abundances in this BF could reflect the enrichment of specialized bacteria able to degrade our VOC mixture. Regarding TM7, so far it has only been identified and related to toluene uptake in agricultural soils (Luo et al., 2009) and its abundance in C+WC and A-AS was negligible (0.1 and 1.2%, respectively).

BF3 was inoculated with *R. erythropolis* and the use of an inorganic packing material like perlite did not provide additional microorganisms. However, the BF was operated under non-sterile conditions, which indicates that airborne bacteria could have populated the BF. The results showed that *Rhodococcus* was indeed present along the packed bed, but it was not the most abundant genus (S1: 33%, S2: 11%, S3: 32%). As in BF1 and BF2, *Mycobacterium* was present at high proportions and in this case, it accounted for 37, 56 and 23% in S1, S2 and S3, respectively. *Pseudonocardia* was also present along the packed bed but at abundancies between 2.3 and 8.1%. Interestingly, ASVs belonging to the genus *Sneathiella* were present in S2 (7.4%) and S3 (8.1%), even though their abundance was below 1.1% or even not detected in all other samples (i.e., C+WC, A-AS, BF1 and BF2). Species belonging to this genus have been identified in an oil reservoir in the North Sea (Bødtker et al., 2009), but documented until now as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH)-degraders (Denaro et al., 2020; Sauret et al., 2014). The identification of other bacteria besides *Rhodococcus* in this BF is not surprising considering the long-term operation of the BF (334 days) under non-sterile conditions and the mixture of VOCs loaded to the BF. According to Yang et

al. (2018), mixed cultures are preferred over specialized microbial strains for the simultaneous treatment of multiple VOCs. Different substrates can exert different inhibitory effects on different microorganisms, and a larger number of strains can offer various pathways for the degradation of different VOCs. Besides this, the literature indicates that population of reactors with airborne microorganisms is inevitable and that, depending on the process and inoculum used, different effects can be observed. For example, Ho et al. (2008) evaluated the removal of trimethylamine (TMA) and ammonia (NH₃) in a granular activated carbon BF inoculated with *Arthrobacter* sp. The BF was operated for 523 days and the microbial analysis showed that *Arthrobacter* sp. was the dominant bacteria throughout the BF during the whole operation of the BF. However, its abundance was reduced over time from 98% on day 12 to 54% on day 523. In the meantime, the BF showed a stable and effective performance for both compounds (95% REs). The authors identified more bacteria and concluded that species like *Paracoccus denitrificans* (from 0.2% on day 12 to 7.1% on day 523) could have played an important role in the nitrification/denitrification process. Jeong et al. (2008) evaluated the removal of o-xylene in BFs packed with Biosol (foamed waste glass mixed with corrugated cardboard) and inoculated with *Rhodococcus* sp. BTO62 under sterile and non-sterile conditions. After 27 days of operation, the sterile BF had to be stopped as contamination with other bacteria was observed, while the non-sterile BFs were operated up to 140 days. The results indicated that higher ECs were achieved under non-sterile conditions (160 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ compared to 41 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ under sterile conditions, both for REs > 90%). Even though the authors did not carry out a microbial analysis, they concluded that other microorganisms could have helped with the degradation of o-xylene and/or its intermediate products. Finally, Salamanca et al. (2017) inoculated a polyurethane foam BTF with *Acivodorax* sp. CHX100 for the removal of cyclohexane. The BTF was operated under non-sterile conditions for more than 100 days and the microbial analysis showed that the strain CHX100 was predominant during the different operational processes (100-92%), but that other species like *Sphingomonas* sp. were also identified (0-8.1%). The latter was tested and found to be unable to grow on cyclohexane but on cyclohexanol and cyclohexanone, both metabolites of the degradation of cyclohexane.

In general, we observed a microbial stratification in the three BFs but with almost the same dominant genera (different abundances) per section and within a BF. This may be related to the performance of each BF and the operational conditions tested. The three BFs were fed with the same mixture of VOCs, the nutrients were added at the same time and, as can be seen in Figure 3 during Phase IV, cyclohexane and hexane were present throughout the packed bed of the three BFs. The response to changes in the environment (e.g., type of C source and increase in ILs) supported the growth of genera with negligible abundances in the inocula, and later to higher selectivity in microorganisms. In most cases, the most abundant genera identified in this study have been reported in the literature as hydrocarbon degraders. Moreover, all BFs in each section showed bacterial diversities $H > 2$. According to Lebrero et al. (2012), a high diversity offers high robustness towards process fluctuations, which could reflect the ability of the microbes to withstand the increases in ILs tested for more than 1 year. Based on the performance analysis of the BFs (see Section 3.2), BF2 outperformed in all operational phases, and in Phase IV, BF1 showed in most cases similar or only slightly higher REs (along the bed and for both VOCs) than BF3. From a microbial point of view, ASVs belonging to the genus *TM7a* and the family *A4b* were enriched to a higher extent in BF2 (*TM7a*: 5.8 – 7.8%; family *A4b*: 1.3 – 2.3%) compared to BF1 (*TM7a*: 3.2 – 3.6%; family *A4b*: 0.5 – 1.2%) and BF3 (*TM7a*: 0.2 – 3.7%; family *A4b*: 0-0.4%). *TM7a* was in fact present in the A-AS but at a relative abundance of 1.2%, while the family *A4b* was identified in the C+WC at only 0.5%. The only difference between BF1 and BF2 was the inoculum type (*R. erythropolis* versus A-AS), therefore, the outperformance of BF2 must be related to the microbial composition. However, the possibility of other bacteria present in this BF (at even low abundance) also having the capability of degrading cyclohexane and hexane or even playing a role in the co-metabolism and/or degradation of intermediate compounds remains unclear and deserves further consideration in future studies.

Table 2. Number of amplicon sequence variant (ASV) and the Simpson and Shannon diversity indices of the bacterial communities in the mixture of compost and wood chips (C+WC; packing material of BF1 and BF2), acclimated activated sludge (A-AS; inoculum of BF2) and three sections (S1, S2 and S3) of each BF (BF1, BF2 and BF3) at the end of Phase IV.

Sample	ASV	Simpson (1-D)	Shannon (H)
C+WC	878	0.9926	5.944
BF1, S1	366	0.9319	3.73
BF1, S2	231	0.9218	3.492
BF1, S3	305	0.8383	2.926
BF2, S1	372	0.9046	3.741
BF2, S2	269	0.7773	2.922
BF2, S3	181	0.8613	3.01
BF3, S1	56	0.8296	2.467
BF3, S2	82	0.6891	2.125
BF3, S3	111	0.8949	3.003
A-AS	339	0.9786	4.758

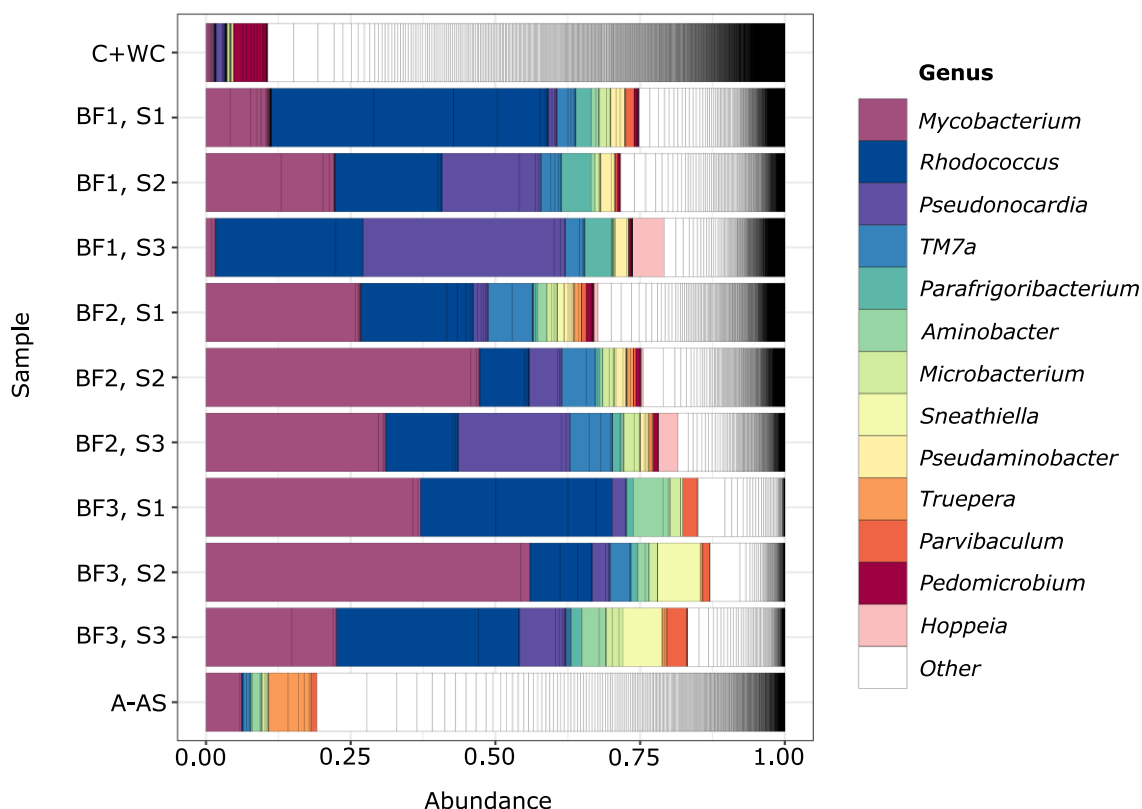


Figure 6. Relative microbial community composition at genus level in the three BFs (BF1, BF2 and BF3) and at each section (S1, S2 and S3) at the end of Phase IV. C+WC corresponds to the mixture of compost and wood chips used as packing material in BF1 and BF2. A-AS corresponds to the activated sludge acclimated to gaseous cyclohexane and used to inoculate BF2. The 13 most abundant genera were calculated based on their combined relative abundance across all samples and all other genera are labeled as “Other”. Each line of a stacked bar represents an amplicon sequence variant (ASV).

4. Conclusions and recommendations

This study provides new insights into the removal of hydrophobic VOC mixtures and the effect of operational parameters in BFs. In particular, it evaluated the removal of difficult-to-degrade VOCs with limited research to date on biofiltration, such as cyclohexane and hexane. Moreover, it proved the ability of *R. erythropolis* to remove gaseous hydrocarbons. Even though *Rhodococcus* are well-known bacteria able to degrade alkanes, little is known about their activity in biological reactors.

The results showed that in all BFs the VOCs were eliminated in the following order: toluene > cyclohexane > hexane. This order corresponds to their air-water partitioning coefficients; hexane is the most

hydrophobic and therefore, the least bioavailable compound. The BFs were operated for 374 days and BF2 (mixture of C+WC and inoculated with A-AS) showed a better performance for the three VOCs and in each operational phase. In BF2, toluene reached an EC_{max} of 21±3 g toluene m⁻³ h⁻¹ (RE: 100%) at an EBRT of 82 s, while cyclohexane and hexane needed longer residence times to achieve REs above 85%. The EC_{max} of cyclohexane and hexane were 11±2 g cyclohexane m⁻³ h⁻¹ (RE: 86±6%) and 6±1 g hexane m⁻³ h⁻¹ (RE: 96±4%), obtained at an EBRT of 163 and 245 s, respectively. The mixture of C+WC and the A-AS showed to be a highly diverse source of bacteria, and the continuous dose of a mixture of hydrophobic VOCs supported the selection of specialized bacteria. Although different inocula were used in each BF, *Rhodococcus*, *Mycobacterium* and/or *Pseudonocardia* dominated in all BFs but at different relative abundances. Our results indicate that the outperformance of BF2 must be related to the microbial community composition, and that working with a microbial consortium was more beneficial than with a specialized microbial strain (e.g., BF1 and BF3 inoculated with *Rhodococcus erythropolis*). This may be explained by the fact that mixed bacterial cultures show higher robustness in BFs treating multiple VOCs and that different bacteria can degrade the target compounds but also play important roles in co-metabolism and/or degradation of intermediate compounds.

Future studies should focus on strategies to enhance the removal of both cyclohexane and hexane, the most hydrophobic VOCs, with attention to the microbial communities developed and the role of different bacteria in a consortium. For the latter, the inclusion of functional analyses could be of added value.

5. Declaration of competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

6. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Ghent University through a special research grant (BOFSTG2019005701). J.J. Gonzalez-Cortes thanks the Spanish Ministry of Universities for funding his postdoctoral position at the University of Cadiz through the NextGenerationEU program, as a Margarita Salas fellowship (ref. 2021-067/PN/MS-RECUAL/CD). Allan A. Alvarado-Alvarado thanks the European Commission under the

Erasmus+ EMJMD Program for funding his research at Ghent University (project 2017-1957/001-001-EMJMD).

References

- Álvarez-Hornos, F. J., Gabaldón, C., Martínez-Soria, V., Marzal, P., & Peña-roja, J.-M. (2008). Biofiltration of toluene in the absence and the presence of ethyl acetate under continuous and intermittent loading. *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*, 83, 643–653. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.1843>
- Amin, M. M., Rahimi, A., Bina, B., Nourmoradi, H., Hassanvand, M. S., Mohammadi-Moghadam, F., Norouzi, S., & Heidari, M. (2017). Biodegradation of n-hexane as single pollutant and in a mixture with BTEX in a scoria/compost-based biofilter. *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, 107, 508–517. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psep.2017.03.019>
- Bødtker, G., Lysnes, K., Torsvik, T., Bjørnstad, E., & Sunde, E. (2009). Microbial analysis of backflowed injection water from a nitrate-treated North Sea oil reservoir. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 36, 439–450. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10295-008-0515-6>
- Bruneel, J., Huepe Follert, J. L., Laforce, B., Vincze, L., Van Langenhove, H., & Walgraeve, C. (2020). Dynamic performance of a fungal biofilter packed with perlite for the abatement of hexane polluted gas streams using SIFT-MS and packing characterization with advanced X-ray spectroscopy. *Chemosphere*, 253, 126684. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.126684>
- Callahan, B. J., McMurdie, P. J., Rosen, M. J., Han, A. W., Johnson, A. J. A., & Holmes, S. P. (2016). DADA2: High-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. *Nature Methods*, 13, 581–583. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.3869>
- Cappelletti, M., Fedi, S., & Zannoni, D. (2019). Degradation of alkanes in *Rhodococcus*. In H. M. Alvarez (Ed.), *Biology of Rhodococcus* (2nd ed., pp. 138–171). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-11461-9_7
- Cappelletti, M., Presentato, A., Milazzo, G., Turner, R. J., Fedi, S., Frascari, D., & Zannoni, D. (2015). Growth of *Rhodococcus* sp. strain BCP1 on gaseous n-alkanes: new metabolic insights and transcriptional analysis of two soluble di-iron monooxygenase genes. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 6, 393. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.00393>
- Chen, F., & Chen, Z. (2021). Cost of economic growth: Air pollution and health expenditure. *Science of the Total Environment*, 755, 142543. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.142543>
- Cheng, Y., He, H., Yang, C., Zeng, G., Li, X., Chen, H., & Yu, G. (2016). Challenges and solutions for biofiltration of hydrophobic volatile organic compounds. *Biotechnology Advances*, 34, 1091–1102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2016.06.007>
- Cheng, Z., Lu, L., Kennes, C., Yu, J., & Chen, J. (2016). Treatment of gaseous toluene in three biofilters inoculated with fungi/bacteria: Microbial analysis, performance and starvation response. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 303, 83–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2015.10.017>
- Cui, H. (2016). Source profile of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) of a petrochemical industry in the Yangtze River Delta, China. *Chemical Engineering Transactions*, 54, 121–126. <https://doi.org/10.3303/CET1654021>

- 704 Danila, V., Zagorskis, A., & Januševicius, T. (2022). Effects of water content and irrigation of packing
705 materials on the performance of biofilters and biotrickling filters: a review. *Processes*, 10, 1–18.
706 <https://doi.org/10.3390/pr10071304>
- 707 De Carvalho, C. C. C. R., & Da Fonseca, M. M. R. (2005). The remarkable *Rhodococcus erythropolis*.
708 *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 67, 715–726. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-005-1932-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-005-1932-3)
709 3
- 710 De Carvalho, C. C. C. R., Wick, L. Y., & Heipieper, H. J. (2009). Cell wall adaptations of planktonic and
711 biofilm *Rhodococcus erythropolis* cells to growth on C5 to C16 n-alkane hydrocarbons. *Applied*
712 *Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 82, 311–320. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-008-1809-3>
- 713 Delhoménie, M. C., & Heitz, M. (2005). Biofiltration of air: A review. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology*,
714 25, 53–72. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07388550590935814>
- 715 Denaro, R., Aulenta, F., Crisafi, F., Di Pippo, F., Cruz Viggi, C., Matturro, B., Tomei, P., Smedile, F.,
716 Martinelli, A., Di Lisio, V., Venezia, C., & Rossetti, S. (2020). Marine hydrocarbon-degrading
717 bacteria breakdown poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET). *Science of the Total Environment*, 749,
718 141608. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141608>
- 719 Dewulf, J., Van Langenhove, H., & Dirckx, J. (2001). Exergy analysis in the assessment of the
720 sustainability of waste gas treatment systems. *Science of the Total Environment*, 273, 41–52.
721 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697\(00\)00841-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697(00)00841-X)
- 722 Ferdowsi, M., Avalos Ramirez, A., Jones, J. P., & Heitz, M. (2016). Elimination of mass transfer and
723 kinetic limited organic pollutants in biofilters: A review. *International Biodeterioration and*
724 *Biodegradation*, 119, 336–348. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2016.10.015>
- 725 Ghasemi, R., Golbabaie, F., Rezaei, S., Pourmand, M. R., Nabizadeh, R., Jafari, M. J., & Masoorian, E.
726 (2020). A comparison of biofiltration performance based on bacteria and fungi for treating toluene
727 vapors from airflow. *AMB Express*, 10, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13568-019-0941-z>
- 728 González-Martín, J., Cantera, S., Lebrero, R., & Muñoz, R. (2023). Biofiltration based on bioactive
729 coatings for the abatement of indoor air VOCs. *Sustainable Chemistry and Pharmacy*, 31, 100960.
730 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scp.2022.100960>
- 731 Han, D., Gao, S., Fu, Q., Cheng, J., Chen, X., Xu, H., Liang, S., Zhou, Y., & Ma, Y. (2018). Do volatile organic
732 compounds (VOCs) emitted from petrochemical industries affect regional PM_{2.5}? *Atmospheric*
733 *Research*, 209, 123–130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2018.04.002>
- 734 Ho, K. L., Chung, Y. C., & Tseng, C. P. (2008). Continuous deodorization and bacterial community analysis
735 of a biofilter treating nitrogen-containing gases from swine waste storage pits. *Bioresource*
736 *Technology*, 99, 2757–2765. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2007.06.041>
- 737 Hu, Q. yuan, & Wang, C. (2015). Interaction of gaseous aromatic and aliphatic compounds in
738 thermophilic biofilters. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 300, 210–217.
739 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2015.07.005>
- 740 Jeong, E., Hirai, M., & Shoda, M. (2008). Removal of o-xylene using biofilter inoculated with
741 *Rhodococcus* sp. BTO62. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 152, 140–147.
742 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2007.06.078>
- 743 Jung, I.-G., & Park, O.-H. (2005). Enhancement of cometabolic biodegradation of trichloroethylene (TCE)
744 gas in biofiltration. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 100, 657–661.
745 <https://doi.org/10.1263/jbb.100.657>

746 Kibazohi, O., Yun, S.-I., & Anderson, W. A. (2004). Removal of hexane in biofilters packed with perlite
747 and a peat-perlite mixture. *World Journal of Microbiology & Biotechnology*, 20, 337–343.
748 <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:WIBI.0000033054.15023.71>

749 Klindworth, A., Pruesse, E., Schweer, T., Peplies, J., Quast, C., Horn, M., & Glöckner, F. O. (2013).
750 Evaluation of general 16S ribosomal RNA gene PCR primers for classical and next-generation
751 sequencing-based diversity studies. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 41, 1–11.
752 <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gks808>

753 Kotani, T., Kawashima, Y., Yurimoto, H., Kato, N., & Sakai, Y. (2006). Gene structure and regulation of
754 alkane monooxygenases in propane-utilizing *Mycobacterium* sp. TY-6 and *Pseudonocardia* sp. TY-
755 7. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 102, 184–192. <https://doi.org/10.1263/jbb.102.184>

756 Kumar, M., Giri, B. S., Kim, K. H., Singh, R. P., Rene, E. R., López, M. E., Rai, B. N., Singh, H., Prasad, D., &
757 Singh, R. S. (2019). Performance of a biofilter with compost and activated carbon based packing
758 material for gas-phase toluene removal under extremely high loading rates. *Bioresource*
759 *Technology*, 285, 121317. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2019.121317>

760 Lamprea Pineda, P. A., Demeestere, K., Toledo, M., Boon, N., Van Langenhove, H., & Walgraeve, C.
761 (2023). Long-term biofiltration of gaseous N,N-dimethylformamide: Operational performance and
762 microbial diversity analysis at different conditions. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 447, 130767.
763 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2023.130767>

764 Lamprea Pineda, P. A., Demeestere, K., Toledo, M., Van Langenhove, H., & Walgraeve, C. (2021).
765 Enhanced removal of hydrophobic volatile organic compounds in biofilters and biotrickling filters:
766 A review on the use of surfactants and the addition of hydrophilic compounds. *Chemosphere*, 279,
767 130757. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2021.130757>

768 Lebrero, R., Rodríguez, E., Collantes, M., De Juan, C., Norden, G., Rosenbom, K., & Muñoz, R. (2021).
769 Comparative performance evaluation of commercial packing materials for malodorants abatement
770 in biofiltration. *Applied Sciences*, 11, 2966. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app11072966>

771 Lebrero, R., Rodríguez, E., Estrada, J. M., García-Encina, P. A., & Muñoz, R. (2012). Odor abatement in
772 biotrickling filters: Effect of the EBRT on methyl mercaptan and hydrophobic VOCs removal.
773 *Bioresource Technology*, 109, 38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2012.01.052>

774 Lee, E. H., Ryu, H. W., & Cho, K. S. (2009). Removal of benzene and toluene in polyurethane biofilter
775 immobilized with *Rhodococcus* sp. EH831 under transient loading. *Bioresource Technology*, 100,
776 5656–5663. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2009.06.036>

777 Liu, Q., Li, M., Chen, R., Li, Z., Qian, G., An, T., Fu, J., & Sheng, G. (2009). Biofiltration treatment of odors
778 from municipal solid waste treatment plants. *Waste Management*, 29, 2051–2058.
779 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2009.02.002>

780 Luo, C., Xie, S., Sun, W., Li, X., & Cupples, A. M. (2009). Identification of a novel toluene-degrading
781 bacterium from the candidate phylum TM7, as determined by DNA stable isotope probing. *Applied*
782 *and Environmental Microbiology*, 75, 4644–4647. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00283-09>

783 Marycz, M., Rodríguez, Y., Gębicki, J., & Muñoz, R. (2022). Systematic comparison of a biotrickling filter
784 and a conventional filter for the removal of a mixture of hydrophobic VOCs by *Candida subhashii*.
785 *Chemosphere*, 306, 135608. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.135608>

786 McMurdie, P. J., & Holmes, S. (2013). Phyloseq: An R package for reproducible interactive analysis and
 787 graphics of microbiome census data. *PLoS ONE*, 8, e61217.
 788 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0061217>

789 Meena, M., Sonigra, P., & Yadav, G. (2020). Biological-based methods for the removal of volatile organic
 790 compounds (VOCs) and heavy metals. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 28, 2485–
 791 2508. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-11112-4>

792 Mohammad, B. T., Veiga, M. C., & Kennes, C. (2007). Mesophilic and thermophilic biotreatment of
 793 BTEX-polluted air in reactors. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 97, 1423–1438.
 794 <https://doi.org/10.1002/bit>

795 Mokhtari, M., Hajizadeh, Y., Ebrahimi, A. A., Shahi, M. A., Jafari, N., & Abdolahnejad, A. (2019).
 796 Enhanced biodegradation of n-hexane from the air stream using rhamnolipid in a biofilter packed
 797 with a mixture of compost, scoria, sugar beet pulp and poplar tree skin. *Atmospheric Pollution*
 798 *Research*, 10, 115–122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apr.2018.06.008>

799 Naha, A., Saha, S., Singh, H. R., Shukla, S. K., Tripathi, V. K., & Jha, S. K. (2022). Recent trends and future
 800 perspectives in applications of biofiltration. In M. Shah, S. Rodriguez-Couto, & J. Biswas (Eds.), *An*
 801 *Innovative Role of Biofiltration in Wastewater Treatment Plants (WWTPs)* (pp. 113–136). Elsevier
 802 Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-823946-9.00024-3>

803 Quast, C., Pruesse, E., Yilmaz, P., Gerken, J., Schweer, T., Yarza, P., Peplies, J., & Glöckner, F. O. (2013).
 804 The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: Improved data processing and web-based tools.
 805 *Nucleic Acids Research*, 41, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gks1219>

806 Ravi, R., Sarayu, K., Sandhya, S., & Swaminathan, T. (2013). Rotating Biological Contactors. In C. Kennes
 807 & M. C. Veiga (Eds.), *Air pollution prevention and control* (pp. 207–220). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

808 Rene, E. R., Veiga, M. C., & Kennes, C. (2013). Biofilters. In C. Kennes & M. C. Veiga (Eds.), *Air Pollution*
 809 *Prevention and Control: Bioreactors and Bioenergy* (pp. 59–119). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

810 Rybarczyk, P., Marycz, M., Szulczyński, B., Brillowska-Dąbrowska, A., Rybarczyk, A., & Gębicki, J. (2021).
 811 Removal of cyclohexane and ethanol from air in biotrickling filters inoculated with *Candida*
 812 *albicans* and *Candida subhashii*. *Archives of Environmental Protection*, 47, 26–34.
 813 <https://doi.org/10.24425/aep.2021.136445>

814 Rybarczyk, P., Szulczyński, B., Gospodarek, M., & Gębicki, J. (2020). Effects of n-butanol presence, inlet
 815 loading, empty bed residence time and starvation periods on the performance of a biotrickling
 816 filter removing cyclohexane vapors from air. *Chemical Papers*, 74, 1039–1047.
 817 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11696-019-00943-2>

818 Salamanca, D., Dobslaw, D., & Engesser, K. H. (2017). Removal of cyclohexane gaseous emissions using a
 819 biotrickling filter system. *Chemosphere*, 176, 97–107.
 820 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2017.02.078>

821 Sarkar, P., Tiwari, H., Garkoti, P., Neogi, S., Biswas, J. K., & Dey, A. (2022). Biofiltration as a green
 822 technology for abatement of volatile organic compounds (VOCs): A synoptic review. In M. Shah, S.
 823 Rodriguez-Couto, & J. Biswas (Eds.), *An Innovative Role of Biofiltration in Wastewater Treatment*
 824 *Plants (WWTPs)* (pp. 477–496). Elsevier Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-823946-9.00019-x>

825 Sauret, C., Séverin, T., Vétion, G., Guigue, C., Goutx, M., Pujo-Pay, M., Conan, P., Fagervold, S. K., &
 826 Ghiglione, J. F. (2014). “Rare biosphere” bacteria as key phenanthrene degraders in coastal
 827 seawaters. *Environmental Pollution*, 194, 246–253. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2014.07.024>

828 Seuntjens, D., Carvajal Arroyo, J. M., Van Tendeloo, M., Chatzigiannidou, I., Molina, J., Nop, S., Boon, N.,
829 & Vlaeminck, S. E. (2020). Mainstream partial nitrification/anammox with integrated fixed-film
830 activated sludge: Combined aeration and floc retention time control strategies limit nitrate
831 production. *Bioresource Technology*, 314, 123711.
832 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2020.123711>

833 Seuntjens, D., Van Tendeloo, M., Chatzigiannidou, I., Carvajal-Arroyo, J. M., Vandendriessche, S.,
834 Vlaeminck, S. E., & Boon, N. (2018). Synergistic exposure of return-sludge to anaerobic starvation,
835 sulfide, and free ammonia to suppress nitrite oxidizing bacteria. *Environmental Science and*
836 *Technology*, 15, 8725–8732. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b06591>

837 Sun, Z., Cheng, Z., Luo, P., Chen, J., Yu, J., Chen, D., & Zhao, P. (2022). Cyclohexane removal and UV post-
838 control of bioaerosols in a combination of UV pretreatment and biotrickling filtration. *Frontiers in*
839 *Environmental Science*, 10, 1010980. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fenvs.2022.1010980>

840 Syft Technologies Ltd. (2009). An overview of SIFT-MS. In *SIFT-MS Primer: An Introduction to the*
841 *Chemistry and Methodology of SIF-MS* (pp. 3–7).

842 Valenzuela-Reyes, E., Casas-Flores, S., Isordia-Jasso, I., & Arriaga, S. (2014). Performance and bacterial
843 population composition of an n-hexane degrading biofilter working under fluctuating conditions.
844 *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 174, 832–844. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-014-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-014-1079-8)
845 [1079-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-014-1079-8)

846 Yang, C., Qian, H., Li, X., Cheng, Y., He, H., Zeng, G., & Xi, J. (2018). Simultaneous Removal of
847 Multicomponent VOCs in Biofilters. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 36, 673–685.
848 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2018.02.004>

849 Zhanga, Y., Denga, W., Qina, Y., Yanga, Z., Liua, J., & Lia, J. (2018). Research on simultaneous removal of
850 cyclohexane and methyl acetate in biotrickling filters. *Proceedings of the 2nd International*
851 *Conference of Recent Trends in Environmental Science and Engineering (RTESE'18)*, 1–9.
852 <https://doi.org/10.11159/rtese18.107>

853

854

855