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CONTENTS

Environmental biology

Continuous live cell imaging of cellulose attachment by microbes under anaerobic and thermophilic conditions
using confocal microscopy
Zhi-Wu Wang, Seung-Hwan Lee, James G. Elkins, Yongchao Li, Scott Hamilton-Brehm, Jennifer L. Morrell-Falvey
Response of anaerobes to methyl fluoride, 2-bromoethanesulfonate and hydrogen during acetate degradation
Liping Hao, Fan Lü, Lei Li, Liming Shao, Pinjing He
Effect of airflow on biodrying of gardening wastes in reactors
F. J. Colomer-Mendoza, L. Herrera-Prats, F. Robles-Martínez, A. Gallardo-Izquierdo, A. B. Piña-Guzmán
Environmental health and toxicology
The ex vivo and in vivo biological performances of graphene oxide and the impact of surfactant on graphene
oxide's biocompatibility (Cover story)
Guangbo Qu, Xiaoyan Wang, Qian Liu, Rui Liu, Nuoya Yin, Juan Ma, Liqun Chen, Jiuyang He, Sijin Liu, Guibin Jiang 873
Determination of the mechanism of photoinduced toxicity of selected metal oxide nanoparticles (ZnO, CuO, Co ₃ O ₄ and
TiO ₂) to <i>E. coli</i> bacteria
Thabitha P. Dasari ¹ , Kavitha Pathakoti ² , Huey-Min Hwang
Joint effects of heavy metal binary mixtures on seed germination, root and shoot growth, bacterial bioluminescence,
and gene mutation
In Chul Kong ······ 889
Atmospheric environment
An online monitoring system for atmospheric nitrous acid (HONO) based on stripping coil and ion chromatography
Peng Cheng, Yafang Cheng, Keding Lu, Hang Su, Qiang Yang, Yikan Zou, Yanran Zhao,
Huabing Dong, Limin Zeng, Yuanhang Zhang
Formaldehyde concentration and its influencing factors in residential homes after decoration at Hangzhou, China
Min Guo, Xiaoqiang Pei, Feifei Mo, Jianlei Liu, Xueyou Shen
Aquatic environment
Flocculating characteristic of activated sludge flocs: Interaction between Al ³⁺ and extracellular polymeric substances
Xiaodong Ruan, Lin Li, Junxin Liu ······ 916
Speciation of organic phosphorus in a sediment profile of Lake Taihu II. Molecular species and their depth attenuation
Shiming Ding, Di Xu, Xiuling Bai, Shuchun Yao, Chengxin Fan, Chaosheng Zhang
Adsorption of heavy metal ions from aqueous solution by carboxylated cellulose nanocrystals
Xiaolin Yu, Shengrui Tong, Maofa Ge, Lingyan Wu, Junchao Zuo, Changyan Cao, Weiguo Song
Synthesis of mesoporous Cu/Mg/Fe layered double hydroxide and its adsorption performance for arsenate in aqueous solutions
Yanwei Guo, Zhiliang Zhu, Yanling Qiu, Jianfu Zhao · · · · · · 944
Advanced regeneration and fixed-bed study of ammonium and potassium removal from anaerobic digested wastewater
by natural zeolite
Xuejun Guo, Larry Zeng, Xin Jin ····· 954

Eutrophication development and its key regulating factors in a water-supply reservoir in North China
Liping Wang, Lusan Liu, Binghui Zheng ······ 962
Laboratory-scale column study for remediation of TCE-contaminated aquifers using three-section controlled-release
potassium permanganate barriers
Baoling Yuan, Fei Li, Yanmei Chen, Ming-Lai Fu
Influence of Chironomid Larvae on oxygen and nitrogen fluxes across the sediment-water interface (Lake Taihu, China)
Jingge Shang, Lu Zhang, Chengjun Shi, Chengxin Fan ····· 978
Comparison of different phosphate species adsorption by ferric and alum water treatment residuals
Sijia Gao, Changhui Wang, Yuansheng Pei ····· 986
Removal efficiency of fluoride by novel Mg-Cr-Cl layered double hydroxide by batch process from water
Sandip Mandal, Swagatika Tripathy, Tapswani Padhi, Manoj Kumar Sahu, Raj Kishore Patel
Determining reference conditions for TN, TP, SD and Chl-a in eastern plain ecoregion lakes, China
Shouliang Huo, Beidou Xi, Jing Su, Fengyu Zan, Qi Chen, Danfeng Ji, Chunzi Ma1001
Nitrate in shallow groundwater in typical agricultural and forest ecosystems in China, 2004–2010
Xinyu Zhang, Zhiwei Xu, Xiaomin Sun, Wenyi Dong, Deborah Ballantine
Influential factors of formation kinetics of flocs produced by water treatment coagulants
Chunde Wu, Lin Wang, Bing Hu, Jian Ye ·····1015

Environmental catalysis and materials

Characterization and performance of Pt/SBA-15 for low-temperature SCR of NO by C3H6
Xinyong Liu, Zhi Jiang, Mingxia Chen, Jianwei Shi, Wenfeng Shangguan, Yasutake Teraoka
Photo-catalytic decolourisation of toxic dye with N-doped titania: A case study with Acid Blue 25
Dhruba Chakrabortty, Susmita Sen Gupta
Pb(II) removal from water using Fe-coated bamboo charcoal with the assistance of microwaves
Zengsheng Zhang, Xuejiang Wang, Yin Wang, Siqing Xia, Ling Chen, Yalei Zhang, Jianfu Zhao1044

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Response of anaerobes to methyl fluoride, 2-bromoethanesulfonate and hydrogen during acetate degradation

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Abstract

To use the selective inhibition method for quantitative analysis of acetate metabolism in methanogenic systems, the responses of microbial communities and metabolic activities, which were involved in anaerobic degradation of acetate, to the addition of methyl fluoride (CH₃F), 2-bromoethanesulfonate (BES) and hydrogen were investigated in a thermophilic batch experiment. Both the methanogenic inhibitors, i.e., CH₃F and BES, showed their effectiveness on inhibiting CH₄ production, whereas acetate metabolism other than acetoclastic methanogenesis was stimulated by BES, as reflected by the fluctuated acetate concentration. Syntrophic acetate oxidation was thermodynamically blocked by hydrogen (H₂), while H₂-utilizing reactions as hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis and homoacetogenesis were correspondingly promoted. Results of PCR-DGGE fingerprinting showed that, CH₃F did not influence the microbial populations significantly. However, the BES and hydrogen notably altered the bacterial community structures and increased the diversity. BES gradually changed the methanogenic community structure by affecting the existence of different populations to different levels, whilst H₂ greatly changed the abundance of different methanogenic populations, and induced growth of new species.

Key words: methanogenic inhibitor; hydrogen; thermophilic anaerobic digestion; microbial diversity; denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE)

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Introduction

Anaerobic digestion of biomass for methane production is attracting increasing attention owing to its potential as a substitute for fossil fuels and to reduce carbon dioxide emissions. A better understanding of the mechanisms responsible for methane production will help to improve operational strategies and to solve the existing technical problems such as the accumulation of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) and the following inhibition of methanogenesis. Externally added selective inhibitors, therefore, present potentially powerful tools in the study of microbial processes.

In general, there are specific and nonspecific inhibitors. For example, chloroform (CHCl₃), which was firstly found to inhibit methanogenesis by Bauchop (1967), is known to block the function of corrinoid enzymes and to inhibit methyl-coenzyme M reductase of methanogens (Gunsalus and Wolfe, 1978). As a classic nonspecific inhibitor for methanogens, it can also inhibit the activity of homoacetogens and acetate-consuming sulfate-

reducing bacteria (Scholten et al., 2000). By contrast, 2-bromoethanesulfonate (BES), as a structural analogue of coenzyme M, was used to block methane formation by methanogens (Zinder et al., 1984). A further inhibitor, methyl fluoride (CH₃F), has been widely used to specifically inhibit acetoclastic methanogenesis (AM) with hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (HM) unaffected, if appropriate dose was applied (Janssen and Frenzel, 1997). Vinyl acetate also showed the potential as an AM inhibitor, which was recently reported to irreversibly inhibit AM (Durán et al., 2011). However, its inhibitory effect on various anaerobic metabolisms needs to be further confirmed. Thus, to separately investigate different methanogenic pathways, without significantly disturbing other non-methanogenic metabolisms, combined application of CH₃F and BES is the best choice. Quantitative information on the contribution of different metabolic pathways to methane generation and waste reduction is expected to be obtained by this method. In fact, these two classic inhibitors have been widely used as metabolic · Jose . a . Ch probes for quantitative analysis of the carbon and electron flow in natural and engineered methanogenic systems (Xu

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et al., 2010).

Although the inhibition of methanogenesis by CH_3F and BES in anaerobic environments has been well established, most studies only focused on the practical applications. Little is known about their effects on the *in situ* diversity of microbial community structures. Recently, BES has been reported to inhibit or promote the growth of certain bacteria (Chiu and Lee, 2001). Due to the potential nonspecific or unintended effects of the methanogenic inhibitors, further study is necessary to fully understand their influence on the ecology of microbial community in the target system.

Metabolism of acetate is a key link in the degradation of accumulated VFAs and initiation of methanogenesis. Two pathways could be responsible for the methanogenic conversion of acetate: AM and the syntrophic acetate oxidation (SAO) coupled with HM. Thermodynamically, SAO is inferior to AM and can only proceed if H₂ partial pressure (pH_2) is kept at a low level (Table 1). On the contrary, acetate production via homoacetogenesis (HA) is favorable at high pH_2 . Although AM was generally considered as the main mechanism for methane production, the potential significance of SAO was gradually recognized recently (Hao et al., 2011). It has been found in various anaerobic environments (Zinder and Koch, 1984; Li et al., 2009; Liu and Conrad, 2010), and to be predominant under thermophilic or other stressed conditions (Schnürer et al., 1999; Karakashev et al., 2006; Qu et al., 2009). To study the metabolism involved in methanogenic degradation of acetate at high concentrations, the application of inhibitors to separate different pathways is a considerable choice.

In the present work, CH₃F and BES were used to

inhibit AM pathway and total methanogenesis respectively. Since there are not specific inhibitors for SAO, we created conditions with high pH_2 to thermodynamically block SAO. Their effects on the microbial diversity and metabolic activities of the involved reactions were studied during the incubation with high concentration of acetate, by using denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) fingerprinting of the bacterial and archaeal communities, and by monitoring the carbon flow and thermodynamic analysis.

1 Materials and methods

1.1 Experimental set-up

All experiments were performed with freshly collected methanogenic granular sludge cultivated at 55°C in the dark. Twenty milliliters of sludge mixture was transferred into each 1.2-L reactor with 450 mL basal medium. Acetate was added as the substrate to reach a final concentration of 100 mmol/L to simulate the VFAs accumulation. Detailed information on the seed sludge, added solution and gas phase control was described by Hao et al. (2011). The pH range was 6.8–7.8, regulated by using 5 mol/L H₃PO₄ solution.

Total methanogenesis was inhibited by addition of 2bromoethanesulfonate (BES) (98.5%, Aladdin, China) to final concentration of 50 mmol/L. For specific inhibition of AM, CH₃F (99%, Shanghai Chunyu Special Gas Corporation Limited, China) was injected to reach a content of 2.5% (V/V) in the headspace after equilibrium between the gaseous and liquid phases. To provide high pH_2

 Table 1
 Reactions involved in methanogenic conversion of acetate

Pathway	Reaction	$\Delta G^{0\prime}$ (kJ/mol)
(1) Acetoclastic methanogenesis (AM)	$CH_3COOH \rightarrow CH_4 + CO_2$	-31.0
(2) Syntrophic acetate oxidation (SAO)	$CH_3COOH + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 4H_2$	+104.6
(3) Hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (HM)	$4H_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + H_2O$	-135.6
(4) Homoacetogenesis (HA)	$4H_2+2CO_2 \rightarrow CH_3COOH + 2H_2O$	-104.6
(5) Sum (2) + (3) (SAO-HM)	$CH_3COOH \rightarrow CH_4 + CO_2$	-31.0

The standard Gibbs free energy change ($\Delta G^{0'}$) values were calculated from Thauer et al. (1977).

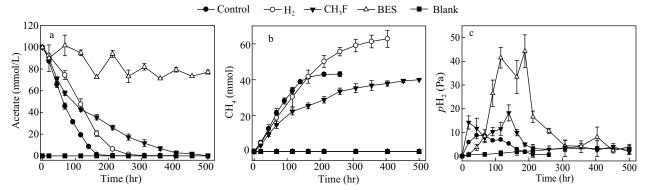


Fig. 1 Temporal change in acetate concentration (a), accumulated methane (b) and hydrogen partial pressure (*p*H₂) (c). Gas sampling was stopped three days after the acetate could not be detected.

condition, pure H₂ (99.999%, Shanghai Chunyu Special Gas Corporation Limited, China) was used instead of N₂ to refill the headspace of the H₂-amended reactors. Both CH₃F and BES doses were selected based on literature values (Janssen and Frenzel, 1997; Zinder et al., 1984) and preliminary experiments conducted in our laboratory. Endogenous methanogenesis was studied as the blank without acetate and inhibitor addition. Treatments, blanks and controls without inhibitor were incubated statically in duplicate at 55°C in the dark. Liquid and gas samples were taken periodically for analysis until the added acetate was exhausted, and the gaseous phase was exchanged with N2 or H₂ after each sampling event.

1.2 Analysis of the samples

Gas composition (CH₄, CO₂ and H₂), volume and pressure were periodically monitored. The liquid samples were analyzed for pH, total organic carbon, total inorganic carbon and VFAs. The analytical methods were described elsewhere (Hao et al., 2011).

1.3 DNA extraction and PCR-DGGE

Sludge samples were taken from each reactor after the added acetate was exhausted, while at 500 hr for the blank. To capture the hypothesized gradual change of the microbial community structure in the BES-treated sets, sludge was sampled at 116, 212, 356 and 500 hr. DNA was extracted from the seed and incubated sludge. The strategy for DNA extraction and PCR-DGGE was described in our previous work (Hao et al., 2011).

1.4 Data processing

The thermodynamic analysis referred to the study of Lee and Zinder (1988). Based on the DGGE profiles, the structural diversity of the microbial community was estimated by the Shannon index of general diversity (H)as described by Tiwar and Mishra (1993). The evenness of microbial structure was evaluated by the indice of evenness (E) (Pielou, 1966) and Pareto-Lorenz (PL) curves (Wittebolle et al., 2008). For the latter, the value of cumulative proportion of intensities corresponding with the 20% level on the proportion of band numbers (20%PL evenness) was used to characterize the functional organization of the populations.

2 Results

2.1 Methanogenic conversion of acetate

Figure 1a shows that methanogenesis started up immediately and acetate was completely utilized in 212 hr in the control. While, CH₃F prolonged the incubation time to nearly 500 hr for depletion of the added acetate, obviously due to the inhibition of AM. Addition of H₂ slowed down the consumption of acetate compared with the control, especially in the initial period. It seemed that

the suppression of SAO by quite high pH_2 contribute to the decreased acetate-utilizing rate. Interestingly, acetate concentration slowly decreased in the BES-treated sets, with substantial fluctuation during the long-term incubation. Considering methanogenesis was already completely inhibited, it indicated that metabolism of acetate by other microbes was stimulated by BES.

CH₄ produced in the H₂-amended set was nearly 34%-37% higher than that in the control and CH₃F-treated one (Fig. 1b). The increase of CH₄ production was most probably due to the active HM reaction under high pH_2 .

Figure 1c indicates that, in the initial period of incubation, fast conversion of acetate was accompanied by accumulation of H₂, implying SAO was involved in the process. Nevertheless, pH2 suddenly decreased and remained at quite low levels in the later stage, which might result from the change of SAO and HM activities or the participation of other H₂-utilizing bacteria.

2.2 Thermodynamic analysis

 ΔG_{SAO} in the control, CH₃F- and BES-treated sets were quite negative in the beginning and then increased with incubation time, and finally reached about -20 kJ/mol, while that in the H₂-treated one was always highly positive (Fig. 2a), demonstrating that SAO was thermodynamically unfeasible. $\Delta G_{\rm HM}$ and $\Delta G_{\rm HA}$ maintained at quite low levels after addition of H₂, which indicated the potential utilization of H₂ via HM and HA, with the former reaction being more favorable. ΔG_{HM} in the control and CH₃Ftreated sets was around the thermodynamic threshold of -20 kJ/mol throughout the incubation, which was likely to result from the low pH_2 induced by the gas exchange or a close coupling of SAO and HM. Similar phenomena showing that microbial metabolism can proceed close to thermodynamic limits have also been discovered in other anaerobic environments (Jackson and McInerney, 2002). AM, on the other hand, was always thermodynamically feasible during the incubation.

2.3 Microbial community structure

Figure 3A illustrates the DGGE profiles of the PCRamplified 16S rRNA gene fragments of bacteria from the seed sludge and different cultures after incubation for 500 hr. It seems that, CH₃F-treatment did not affect the bacterial structure compared with the control, with H for CH₃F-treatment and control being 1.79 and 1.74 respectively (Table 2). On the contrary, the addition of BES greatly changed the structure of bacterial community and improved the diversity (H = 1.91). For the culture receiving BES, 3 bands essentially disappeared, and 6 new bands came out. As indicted by the presence of several new bands, H₂ addition obviously increased the diversity of bacterial community structure (H = 2.54), with the · Jese · ac · ch possible enrichment of more H₂-utilizing bacteria.

It was observed that the acetate concentration period-

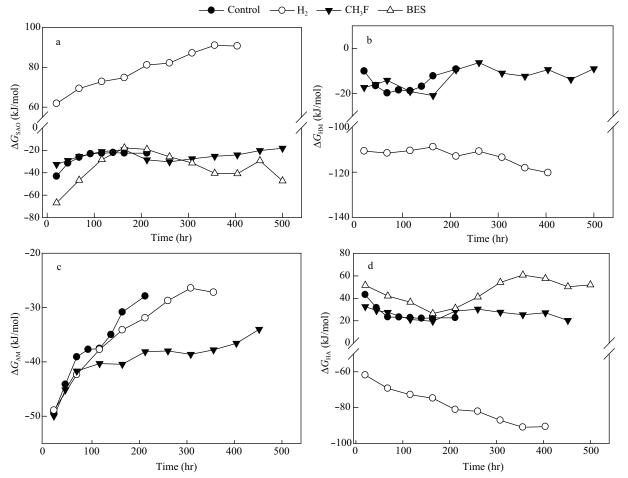


Fig. 2 Temporal change of Gibbs free energy (ΔG) for syntrophic acetate oxidation (a), hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis (b), acetoclastic methanogenesis (c) and homoacetogenesis (d).

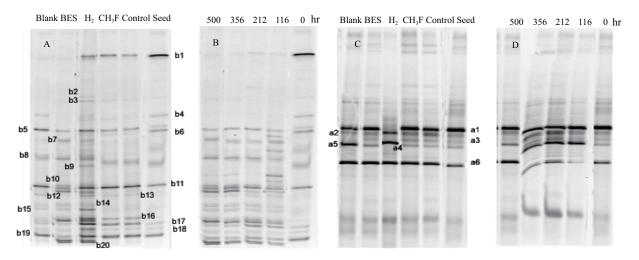


Fig. 3 DGGE fingerprints of the bacterial community in the inoculum, blank and cultures after incubation with 100 mmol/L acetate (A) and in the BES culture after incubation for 0, 116, 212, 356 and 500 hr (B); the archaeal community in the inoculum, blank and cultures after incubation with 100 mmol/L acetate (C) and in the BES culture after incubation for 0, 116, 212, 356 and 500 hr (D).

ically fluctuated, which we hypothesized to be induced by the shift of the functions or structure of the microbial populations. To validate this, we monitored the evolution of the microbial community structure in the BES-treated cultures. As shown in **Fig. 3B**, after 116-hr exposure to BES, *H* quickly increased from the initial 1.53 to 2.16,

	Bacteria			Archaea				
	H ^a	$E^{\mathbf{b}}$	20%PL evenness ^c	S ^d	H ^a	$E^{\mathbf{b}}$	20%PL evenness ^c	S ^d
Seed	1.53	0.6	66%	9	1.35	0.65	56%	13
Control	1.74	0.68	53%	15	1.38	0.67	51%	11
CH ₃ F	1.79	0.7	53%	22	1.39	0.67	51%	17
H ₂	2.54	0.78	40%	26	1.38	0.66	50%	12
BES	1.91	0.71	56%	15	1.36	0.65	53%	16
Blank	1.51	0.63	60%	11	1.32	0.64	51%	8
0 hr	1.53	0.6	66%	9	1.35	0.65	53%	13
116 hr	2.16	0.76	41%	17	1.34	0.65	54%	5
212 hr	1.97	0.75	42%	14	1.51	0.73	43%	14
356 hr	1.99	0.72	51%	16	1.52	0.73	43%	11
500 hr	1.91	0.69	56%	15	1.36	0.65	54%	16

 Table 2
 Summary information for the DGGE profiles in the present study

^a Shannon index of general diversity (H) as described by Tiwar et al. (1993); ^b indice (E) to evaluate the evenness of microbial structure as calculated by Pielou (1966); ^c based on the Pareto principle, the cumulative y axis value (in this case the proportion of intensities) corresponding with the 20% level on the x axis (in this case the cumulative proportion of band numbers) (20%PL evenness) used to evaluate the Lorenz curves by Wittebolle et al. (2008); ^d richness (S) of the bacterial and archaeal communities (Chau et al., 2011), which is the number unique taxa present in the sample (here represented by the number of bands in the DGGE lanes).

with 9 new bands emerged although most of them disappeared later. To note that, H₂ and acetate both accumulated during this stage. At 212 hr, several bands disappeared with H decreased slightly (H = 1.97), accompanied with the sudden decrease of pH_2 . The stage after 356 hr was characterized by low pH_2 and fluctuant acetate concentration. Just at this stage, the DGGE band patterns began stabilized, with the calculation of H around 1.9, which indicated the formation of a stable bacterial community structure. The newly appeared bands such as b11, b12, b16 and b20 in the lane BES were also present in the lane H₂, implying their appearance was closely related with the presence of abundant H₂.

As shown in Fig. 3C, mainly 5 bands were detected in the seed sludge with a1 and a6 predominating in the archaeal DGGE lanes. The lane patterns did not change much after a long-term incubation in control, blank, CH₃Fand BES-treated sets with H around 1.36. By contrast, the

methanogenic community structure was greatly altered by the supply of H₂. In the lane H₂, a1 was eliminated, and a2 and a6 were promoted with the appearance of a new band a4.

Sequencing analysis (Table 3) showed that, the sequence of a1 was related to an acetotrophic mathanogen Methanosarcina thermophila (97% similarity in 16S rRNA gene sequence), while sequences of a2 and a3 were similar to hydrogenotrophic Methanobacterium species (96% and 98% similarity) with a5 being assigned to Methanothermobacter species (97% similarity). During the 500 hr incubation in the presence of BES, bands a2 and a5 became quite intensive while a1 and a6 got relatively fainter and fainter, indicating the methanogenic community structure gradually changed.

Figure 4 illustrates the PL curve distribution patterns of the DGGE profiles. For the bacterial community in different treatments, it was observed that all the PL curves

Table 3 Phylogenetic sequence affiliation of amplified 16S rRNA gene sequences excised from DGGE gels

Band ID	Phylogenetically most closely related organism (accession no.)	Similarity
	Telated organism (accession no.)	
Amplified 16S rRNA ge	ne sequences (around 100 bp) excised from archaeal DGGE gels	
a1-1	Methanosarcina thermophila (M59140)	97%
a1-2	Uncultured archaeon (EF512456)	97%
a2	Uncultured Methanobacterium sp. (AB479402)	96%
a3	Methanobacterium sp.169 (AB368917)	98%
a5	Methanothermobacter marburgensis (EU807735)	97%
a6	Uncultured archaeon (AB539930)	97%
Amplified 16S rRNA ge	ne sequences (150-170 bp) excised from eubacterial DGGE gels	
b1	Bacteroidales bacterium (GU129118)	98%
b2	Uncultured bacterium clone QEEA1CG01 (CU918505)	94%
b4	Uncultured bacterium clone 822_12_pH7_1 (GQ453634)	98%
b5	Uncultured Firmicutes bacterium (AB451804)	96%
b6	Bacillus sp. (EU938359)	95%
b11	Uncultured bacterium (FN436125)	98%
b13	Uncultured bacterium clone NGA11 (EF613928)	98%
b16	Uncultured manure pit bacterium (AF261818)	94%
b17	Uncultured bacterium (FJ227290)	99%
b19	Uncultured Thermotogae bacterium (CU918794)	97%
Multi-fragments named	a1-1 and a1-2 were found in the single band a1.	\Box
		97% 97%
		°, 6, 0, °
		No.

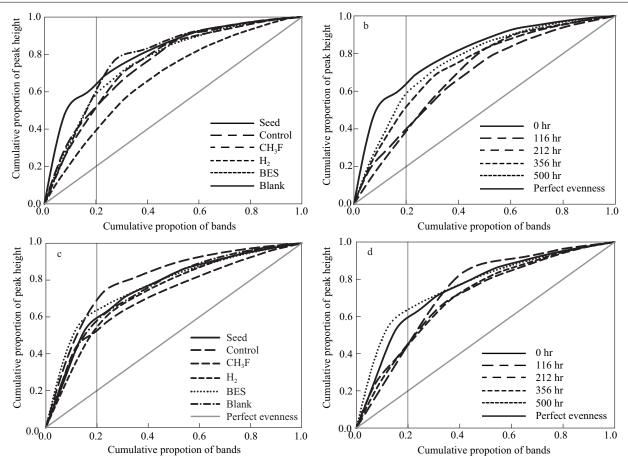


Fig. 4 Pareto-Lorenz distribution curves based on PCR-DGGE analysis for (a) the bacterial community structure in the inoculum, blank and cultures after incubation with 100 mmol/L acetate (a) and in the BES culture after incubation for 0, 116, 212, 356 and 500 hr (b); the archaeal community structure in the inoculum, blank and cultures after incubation with 100 mmol/L acetate (c) and in the BES culture after incubation for 0, 116, 212, 356 and 500 hr (d).

were similar except that of the H₂-incubated one (**Fig.** 4a). In these sets, 20%PL evenness was 53%–66% with *E* ranged from 0.60 to 0.71, indicating only a small group of bacterial species were numerically dominant (**Table 2**). However, the H₂-amended PL curve represented bacterial community with much higher evenness (E = 0.78) in which 20%PL evenness was 40%. Sufficient substrates of H₂ and acetate in the H₂-amended set reduced the environmental stress and the competition among microbial species, thus led to higher diversity and evenness.

For the archaeal community (**Fig. 4c**), the similar PL curves, in which 20%PL evenness was 50%–56%, indicated that there was no significant difference in the evenness of microbial species (E = 0.64-0.67). While, for the BES-treated set, both the bacterial and archaeal communities experienced a first increase and a following decrease in evenness (**Fig. 4b, d**). It is likely that some bacteria could use BES as a substrate, and that BES may also selectively exclude some bacteria, and thus change the microbial structure and diversity. Evolution of the functional populations occurred during this process, as implied by the fluctuation in the microbial structure diversity and evenness.

3 Discussion

3.1 Effect of methanogenic inhibitors

The analysis based on the PCR-DGGE fingerprinting showed, application of CH₃F did not have much influence on the microbial diversity, while long-term exposure to BES altered both the archaeal and bacterial community structures. Similar results were reported in the previous studies. For example, Penning and Conrad (2006) found that CH₃F could change the population size of the methanogens due to the specific inhibition on AM, while did not affect the diversity of the methanogeinc community. Nevertheless, there is still not much detailed information on the effect of CH₃F on bacterial populations. BES has been shown to directly or indirectly inhibit certain non-methanogenic microbes such as some dechlorinating organisms, gram-negative bacteria and syntrophic acetogenic bacteria (Chidthaisong and Conrad, 2000; Chiu and Lee, 2001; Scholten et al., 2000). It was speculated that BES affected some of these bacteria directly by acting as a competing substrate or through other mechanisms, since the sulfonate moiety of BES can serve as an alternative electron acceptor for sulfate-reducing bacteria (Chiu and

Lee, 2001), and that might be responsible for the sudden decrease of pH_2 and the fluctuation of acetate levels in this study. Alternatively, bacteria which consume and/or produce substrates for methanogens, such as H₂ and acetate, would be affected indirectly by BES through the inhibition of methanogens. For instance, Xu et al. (2010) observed that BES stimulated the homoacetogenesis from H_2/CO_2 under suppressed methanogenesis. Treatment by BES also altered the methanogenic community structure, with different changing behaviour of the bands representing different methanogenic species. It was reported that the concentration of BES used for inhibiting AM (1.0 mmol/L) was much higher than that for inhibiting HM (50 mmol/L) (Zinder et al., 1984). Belay and Daniels (1987) also found that BES could completely inhibit two Methanococcus species, while only partially inhibited two Methanobacterium strains. Hence, the change of the DGGE band patterns might be due to the different sensitivities of the methanogenic populations to BES. In consideration of these unspecific effects, one should carefully determine the incubation time and exercise great caution in interpreting the data when using BES to specifically inhibit methanogenesis.

3.2 Effect of high hydrogen partial pressure

As mentioned above, the reduction of acetate-consumption rate may result from the suppression of SAO by quite high pH_2 , however, the possible participation of homoacetogens may produce acetate from H_2 and CO_2 , which was a potential explanation as well (Nozhevnikova et al., 2007). Addition of H₂ could greatly change the microbial structure as promoting the growth of H₂-utilizing microbes, especially those with low hydrogen affinity. pH_2 in the H₂-incubated sets was always above 4 kPa (data not shown), while that without H₂ addition kept below 50 Pa throughout the incubation. Thus, under low pH_2 conditions, the H₂-consuming bacteria with low H₂ affinity like the homoacetogens could not compete with those with high affinity such as the sulfate reducers and hydrogenotrophic methanogens. For instance, the species of homoacetogenic Acetobacterium have much higher threshold concentration of H₂ at 52-95 Pa (Cord-Ruwisch et al., 1988). These low-H2-affinity microbes might only proliferate with external H₂ addition. Besides, the mixtrophic Methanosarcina could alter its methanogenic pathway from acetoclastic to hydrogenotrophic under specific conditions (Qu et al., 2009), that could also be an alternative reason at such high pH_2 .

Therefore, H_2 is not proper to be considered as a metabolic blocker in the methanogenic systems, since other related reactions or the microbial behavior were quickly influenced due to the H_2 addition.

It is worth noting that, the shortcomings of DGGE should not be ignored. For example, not all the visible bands can produce sequences that could be used satisfacto-

rily in the BLAST analysis, since the sequences retrieved from them are not long enough. The PCR bias, presence of more than one band due to heterogeneous rRNA operons in the same organism, one band representing different organisms due to identical partial sequences of the 16S rRNA gene, etc., all contribute to difficulties in the precise determination of community complexity. Meanwhile, there was no metabolite flux analyzed by isotopic tracers, which limits the identification of functionally active microbes. Therefore, it is suggested to use more powerful techniques such as stable isotope probing combined with metagenomics to identify microorganisms involved in specific metabolic processes.

4 Conclusions

The process performance and DGGE profiles under different incubation conditions were compared. The results demonstrated, during the thermophilic anaerobic degradation of acetate at high concentration, CH₃F effectively inhibited acetoclastic methanogenesis, while the microbial community structure kept similar without significant change in the microbial diversity; BES completely inhibited methane production while stimulated other acetate metabolism, and the bacterial and archaeal community structures were gradually changed with the microbial diversity increased; H₂ addition thermodynamically blocked syntrophic acetate oxidation, yet promoted H2-utilizing reactions as hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis and homoacetogenesis, and therefore, significantly altered the bacterial and archaeal community structures and increased the microbial diversity.

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Supporting materials

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version.

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Supporting materials

Thermodynamic calculation

Gibbs free energy values of acetate oxidation (ΔG_{SAO}), homoacetogenesis (ΔG_{HA}) and CH₄ production directly from acetate (ΔG_{AM}) and H₂/CO₂ (ΔG_{HM}) were calculated from the actual concentrations of reactants and products using Nernst's equation as follows:

$$\Delta G_{\rm SAO} = \Delta G_{\rm SAO}^{0'} + RT \frac{[\rm HCO_3^-]^2 (pH_2)^4}{[\rm CH_3 COO^-]}$$
(1)

$$\Delta G_{\rm AM} = \Delta G_{\rm AM}^{0'} + RT \frac{p \operatorname{CH}_4[\operatorname{HCO}_3^-]}{[\operatorname{CH}_3 \operatorname{COO}^-]}$$
(2)

$$\Delta G_{\rm HM} = \Delta G_{\rm HM}^{0'} + RT \frac{p {\rm CH}_4}{(p {\rm H}_2)^4 [{\rm HCO}_3^-]}$$
(3)

$$\Delta G_{\rm HA} = \Delta G_{\rm HA}^{0'} + RT \frac{[\rm CH_3 COO^-]}{(p\rm H_2)^4 [\rm HCO_3^-]^2} \tag{4}$$

where, $\Delta G_{SAO}^{0'}$, $\Delta G_{HA}^{0'}$, $\Delta G_{AM}^{0'}$ and $\Delta G_{HM}^{0'}$ represent the Gibbs free energy values of acetate oxidation, homoacetogenesis and CH₄ production directly from acetate and H₂/CO₂ at standard state conditions, in which the partial pressures of any gases involved in the reaction is 10⁵ Pa, the concentrations of all aqueous solutions are 1 mol/L, and the temperature for reaction is 55°C (328 K), as corrected by Lee and Zinder (1988); *R* is the ideal gas constant of 8.314 J/(mol·K); *T* represents the temperature which is 328 K in this study; *p*H₂ and *p*CH₄ are the contents of H₂ and CH₄ in the gaseous phase; CH₃COO⁻ (mol/L) and HCO₃⁻ (mol/L) represent the concentration of these anions in the liquid phase.

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