

Ethanol and Hydrogen Production by Two Thermophilic, Anaerobic Bacteria Isolated From Icelandic Geothermal Areas

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ABSTRACT: Microbial fermentations are potential producers of sustainable energy carriers. In this study, ethanol and hydrogen production was studied by two thermophilic bacteria (strain AK15 and AK17) isolated from geothermal springs in Iceland. Strain AK15 was affiliated with *Clostridium uzonii* (98.8%), while AK17 was affiliated with *Thermoanaerobacterium aciditolerans* (99.2%) based on the 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis. Both strains fermented a wide variety of sugar residues typically found in lignocellulosic materials and some polysaccharides. In the batch cultivations, strain AK17 produced ethanol from glucose and xylose fermentations of up to 1.6 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose (80% of the theoretical maximum) and 1.1 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose (66%), respectively. The hydrogen yields by AK17 were up to 1.2 mol-H₂/mol-glucose (30% of the theoretical maximum) and 1.0 mol-H₂/mol-xylose (30%). The strain AK15 produced hydrogen as the main fermentation product from glucose (up to 1.9 mol-H₂/mol-glucose [48%]) and xylose (1.1 mol-H₂/mol-xylose [33%]). The strain AK17 tolerated exogenously added ethanol up to 4% (v/v). The hydrogen and ethanol production performance from glucose by a co-culture of the strains AK15 and AK17 was studied in a continuous-flow bioreactor at 60°C. Stable and continuous ethanol and hydrogen co-production was achieved with ethanol yield of 1.35 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose, and with the hydrogen production rate of 6.1 mmol/h/L (H₂ yield of 0.80 mol-H₂/mol-glucose). PCR-DGGE analysis revealed

that the AK17 became the dominant bacterium in the bioreactor. In conclusion, strain AK17 is a promising strain for the co-production of ethanol and hydrogen with a wide substrate utilization spectrum, relatively high ethanol tolerance, and ethanol yields among the highest reported for thermoanaerobes.

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Introduction

Microbial fermentations offer an attractive alternative to produce sustainable energy. Fermentations can use various kinds of biomass or organic waste to produce energy carriers such as ethanol, butanol, methane, or hydrogen (for a review, see Claassen et al., 1999; Zeikus, 1980). Recently, the production of ethanol and butanol has received increasing attention due to their use as a vehicle fuel supplement. The technology for methane production through anaerobic digestion has been developed and widely utilized (Claassen et al., 1999), while in recent years increasing efforts has been aimed at the fermentative H₂ production. Hydrogen is considered as the energy carrier of the future due to its superior properties and diverse application possibilities compared to any other carriers (Das and Veziroğlu, 2001; Nath and Das, 2003). Hydrogen is also used as reductant in many industrial processes (Nath and Das, 2003).

Some thermophilic bacteria belonging to the genera *Clostridium*, *Thermoanaerobacter*, or *Thermoanaerobacterium* are known for their capabilities to produce high

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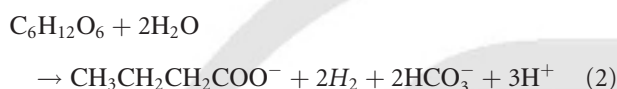
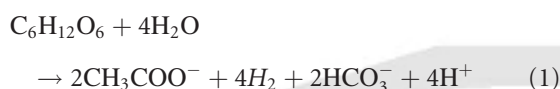
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quantities of ethanol from carbohydrates (Ng et al., 1981; Weimer, 1985; Wiegel and Ljungdahl, 1981). These bacteria use Entner–Mayerhof (phosphoroclastic) pathway in the oxidation of substrates, which results in the production of ethanol and hydrogen along with organic acids (e.g., acetate, butyrate, and lactate; Zeikus, 1980). Hydrogen production from carbohydrates is considered to occur along with the production of acetate (Eq. 1) or butyrate (Eq. 2), while the ethanol production alone results in no H₂ production (Eq. 3) (Thauer et al., 1977; Wiegel, 1980).



This implies that when H₂ production is optimized (acetate production), ethanol production decreases and vice versa. Depending on the organism, the ethanol (and hydrogen) yields vary substantially, from traces to nearly quantitative amounts (Wiegel, 1980; Zeikus, 1980). Equation (3), called the decarboxylastic (or Entner–Doudoroff) pathway, results in nearly complete conversion of glucose to ethanol, but is rare amongst bacteria and reported only in *Zymomonas mobilis* (Wiegel, 1980; Zeikus, 1980).

Although the ethanol tolerance and hexose conversion rates of thermoanaerobes remain less than those of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* or mesophilic bacterium *Z. mobilis*, the advantage of these bacteria is their metabolic diversity, that is, the capability of degrading great variety of carbohydrates of lignocellulosic feedstock (Sommer et al., 2004). Lignocellulosic materials found in a variety of wastes (agricultural, municipal, and pulp and paper industry) and forestry residues are low-cost and abundant raw materials for ethanol and hydrogen production (Lynd, 1989; Zaldivar et al., 2001). The economically feasible production of ethanol from lignocellulosic materials requires efficient conversion of all the main carbohydrate constituents of this complex material to ethanol, and therefore, such microorganisms would be desirable (Galbe and Zacchi, 2002; Ingram et al., 1999; Olsson and Hahn-Hägerdal, 1996). Several thermoanaerobes, capable of utilizing a variety of sugar constituents of lignocellulosic material, produce ethanol along with H₂, another valuable energy carrier (Koskinen et al., 2008; Mistry and Cooney, 1989). In the co-production of ethanol and H₂, substantial amounts of both biofuels can be obtained (Wu et al., 2007).

High temperatures favor the thermodynamics and kinetics of H₂ fermentation (van Groenestijn et al., 2002; van Niel et al., 2003). Further, the recovery of ethanol is enhanced at high temperatures favoring the use of

continuous removal of ethanol though the application of mild vacuum or gas stream (Wiegel, 1980). In addition, thermophilic ethanol and H₂ production processes can utilize high temperature wastewaters, such as coffee processing, palm oil mill, cannery or distillery wastewaters (Yu et al., 2002a). There are, however, only a few reports on continuous H₂ and ethanol producing processes with thermophilic pure cultures (Mistry and Cooney, 1989). Generally, pure culture processes are not considered viable for industrial-scale ethanol and H₂ production from waste materials, since this would require costly sterilization procedures of the feed material (Valdez-Vazquez et al., 2005). However, in high-temperature bioprocesses, the growth of contaminating mesophiles present in the waste fractions is inhibited (van Groenestijn et al., 2002), and the ethanol utilizing thermoanaerobes are rare (Wiegel, 1980).

Geothermal springs are a potential source for saccharolytic, ethanol-, and hydrogen-producing thermophiles (Koskinen et al., 2008; Sommer et al., 2004; Wiegel and Ljungdahl, 1981). The objective of this study was to characterize the ethanol and hydrogen co-production potential by two thermophilic bacteria isolated from geothermal areas in Iceland. The ethanol and H₂ production of the isolates was studied in a batch assays and in a continuous-flow bioreactor. This study contributes to the knowledge on the diversity of ethanol and hydrogen producing thermoanaerobes, and to the design and operation of continuous, thermophilic ethanol and H₂ co-production processes

Materials and Methods

Isolation and Characterization of Bacterial Strains

The two bacterial strains (AK15 and AK17) studied were earlier isolated from two sediment samples collected from geothermal springs in the Krafla area (Víti) in NE-Iceland (Orlygsson and Baldursson, 2007). The sampling and isolation procedures, and the determination of carbon source utilization patterns are described in detail in Orlygsson and Baldursson (2007).

Glucose (20 mM) and xylose (20 mM) fermentation patterns of the isolates were characterized in batch assays in 120 mL serum bottles (40 mL of growth media) or in 25 mL serum tubes (10 mL of growth media) with anaerobic head space (N₂). The sterilized medium, prepared in tap water, was modified from Orlygsson et al. (1993) and contained buffers (g/L) (NaH₂PO₄, 5.5; Na₂HPO₄, 0.6; KH₂PO₄, 0.6); minerals (g/L) (NH₄Cl, 0.3; NaCl, 0.3; CaCl₂·2H₂O, 0.1; MgCl₂·6H₂O, 0.1), micronutrients (mg/L) (FeCl₂·4H₂O, 2; H₃BO₃, 0.05; ZnCl₂, 0.05; CuCl₂·2H₂O, 0.038; MnCl₂·2H₂O, 0.041; (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O, 0.05; AlCl₃, 0.05; CoCl₂·6H₂O, 0.05; NiCl₂·6H₂O, 0.05; EDTA, 0.5; Na₂SeO₃·5H₂O, 0.026; NaWO₄·2H₂O, 0.033); vitamins (DSMZ medium No141, German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures); Resazurin, 0.025 mg/L; Cystein-HCl·1H₂O, 0.56 g/L; Na₂S, 0.24 g/L and yeast extract, 2 g/L. The effect of exogenously added ethanol on

the growth of strain of AK17 was studied in batch assays in 25 mL serum tubes using 10 mL of the growth media described above with 20 mM of glucose. Strain AK15 was incubated at 60°C at pH 7.0 and strain AK17 at 60°C at pH 6.0. Bacterial growth in batch assays was determined as optical density at 600 nm with a Ultraspec 500 Pro Visible spectrophotometer (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ), and the gas production was determined based on Owen et al. (1979).

Bioreactor Set-Up

A completely mixed (by liquid recycle), suspended-cell bioreactor (total volume of 0.3 L, height to diameter ratio of 7) was used for continuous EtOH and H₂ production at 60°C. A synthetic feed was as described above, except that glucose concentration was either 12.6, 17.7 or 25.2 mM, 4 g/L of NaHCO₃ was added, and the yeast extract concentration was 0.2 g/L. The feed was prepared in two separate tanks, one containing the glucose and the other containing buffers, nutrients, minerals and vitamins. The feed tanks were kept at +4°C, and the feed flows were combined prior to the reactor inlet. The reactor pH was maintained at around 6.0 by adjusting feed pH by 5 M NaOH or 37% HCl. The bioreactor was inoculated with 25 mL each of batch cultures of AK15 and AK17. The inoculum cultures were prepared by incubating overnight at 60°C in the media described above with 20 mM of glucose. After the inoculation, bioreactor was operated in a batch mode for 24 h. After this, the bioreactor was operated continuously for 90 days by stepwise increasing the glucose loading rate (LR) and decreasing the hydraulic retention time (HRT; Fig. 2; Table II). The bioreactor was operated as an open system, that is, the feed was not sterilized. Bacterial community in the bioreactor was monitored for enrichment of new species. Gas production in bioreactor was measured with a wet gas meter (Ritter Apparatebau, Bochum, Germany).

Chemical Analyses

The composition of product gas from batch assays and bioreactor was measured using either a HP 5890II or a Perkin Elmer gas chromatographs (GCs) equipped with thermal conductivity detectors. The HP5890II GC-system had a 6 ft Porapak N packed column (80/100 mesh; Varian, Inc., Palo Alto, CA), and N₂ as the carrier gas. Oven, injector, and detector temperatures were 80, 110, and 110°C, respectively. The Perkin Elmer GC-system had a Supelco 1010 Carboxen GC Plot capillary column (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), and argon as the carrier gas. Oven, injector and detector temperatures were 65, 200, and 200°C, respectively. The concentrations of organic acids and alcohols were measured using a HP 5890II gas chromatograph with a DB-FFAP capillary column (Agilent Industries, Inc., Palo Alto, CA; dimensions 30 m × 0.53 mm × 1.0 mm), and a flame ionization detector. Glucose, lactate and formate were analyzed using a Waters 510 liquid chromatograph pump

with a Shodex[®] Sugar SH1011 column (Showa Denko K.K., Tokyo, Japan) and a Δn -1000 refraction index detector (WGE Dr. Bures GmbH & Co KG, Dallgow, Germany). Mobile phase was 5 mM H₂SO₄. Biomass from the bioreactor was analyzed as volatile suspended solids (VSS) according to APHA standard method (APHA, 1995).

Molecular Characterization of the Isolates and the Bacterial Community Dynamics

Almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences of the isolates (1,469 bp for AK15 and 1,454 bp for AK17) were analyzed for their phylogenetic characterization. Analyses were done by the Prokaria Company, Ltd (Reykjavik, Iceland) as previously described (Skirnisdottir et al., 2000).

Bacterial community of the bioreactor was monitored using DNA extraction and PCR-DGGE (polymerase chain reaction-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis) of partial 16S rRNA genes followed by their sequencing. Duplicate samples of reactor liquid were taken during the operation, and stored at -20°C. DNA was extracted from 1 mL of samples with a VIOGENE Blood and Tissue Genomic DNA kit (Proteogenix SA, Fegersheim, France). Partial bacterial 16S rRNA genes of the community DNA were amplified using a primer pair GC-BacV3f (Muyzer et al., 1993) and 907r (Muyzer et al., 1996) as previously described (Koskinen et al., 2007). DGGE was performed with an INGENYphorU2x2-system (Ingeny International BV, GP Goes, The Netherlands) using a 8% polyacrylamide gel (acrylamide/bisacrylamide gel stock solution 37.5:1) with a denaturing gradient from 40% to 60% (100% denaturing solution contains 7 M of urea and 40% formamide). The gel was run at 60°C in 1 × TAE with 100 V for 21.5 h, and stained with SYBR[®] Gold (Molecular Probes, Inc., Eugene, OR). The dominant bands were excised from the gels, eluted in sterile H₂O (25 μL, overnight at +4°C), and re-amplified for sequencing as previously described (Koskinen et al., 2007). Sequence data was analyzed with a Bioedit software (version 7.0.5.2; Hall, 1999), and compared with sequences in GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/>). The existence of chimeras was analyzed using a CHIMER-A_CHECK software (version 2.7; Center for Microbial Ecology, Michigan State University [<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/cgis/chimera.cgi?su=ssu>]). Bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequences were aligned and phylogenetic trees constructed with an ARB software (Ludwig et al., 2004) by using distance matrix and neighbor joining algorithms with 300 bootstraps.

The accession numbers of the gene sequences submitted to GenBank were EU262599; EF088330; EU255569; EU255570; EU255571; EU255572; EU255573; EU255574; EU255575; EU255576.

Results and Discussion

Phylogeny of the Isolates AK15 and AK17

Based on the almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis, the strains AK15 and AK17 were both members of

the family *Thermoanaerobacteriaceae* in the order *Thermobacteriales* in the class *Clostridia* of the phylum *Firmicutes* (Garrity et al., 2004). AK15 fell within the genus *Thermoanaerobacter* with the closest affiliation being *Clostridium uzonii* (98.8%; Table I, Fig. 1). Genus *Thermoanaerobacter* comprises of saccharolytic, thermophilic, anaerobic bacteria some of which have high ethanol production capabilities, for example, *T. ethanolicus* (Wiegel and Ljungdahl, 1981) and *T. thermohydrosulfuricus* (Wiegel et al., 1979). The closest relative of AK15, *C. uzonii*, was originally isolated from hot springs in the Kamchatka Peninsula, Russia. Obligately anaerobic, spore-forming *C. uzonii* has the optimum growth temperature and pH of 65°C and 7.0, respectively (Krivenko et al., 1990). The optimum growth condition for AK15 was 60°C and initial pH of 7.0 (unpublished results).

Strain AK17 fell within the genus *Thermoanaerobacterium* with the closest affiliations being *Thermoanaerobacterium aciditolerans* (99.2%) and *T. aotearoense* (98.1%; Table I, Fig. 1). The genus *Thermoanaerobacterium* is characterized by saccharolytic, thermophilic, anaerobic bacteria, most of which have the ability to reduce thiosulfite to elemental sulfur (Cann et al., 2001; Lee et al., 1993). Several *Thermoanaerobacterium* species are known for their H₂ and ethanol production capabilities, such as *T. aciditolerans* (Kublanov et al., 2007), *T. aotearoense* (Liu et al., 1996), *T. polysaccharolyticum* (Cann et al., 2001), *T. saccharolyticum*, *T. thermosulfurigenes*, *T. xylanolyticum* (Lee et al., 1993) and *T. zeae* (Cann et al., 2001). The closest relative of AK17, *T. aciditolerans*, was originally isolated from hot springs in Kamchatka Peninsula, Russia. Obligate anaerobe, spore-forming, *T. aciditolerans* has the optimal growth temperature and pH of 55°C and 5.7, respectively (Kublanov et al., 2007). The optimum growth condition for AK17 was 58°C and initial pH of 6.0 (unpublished results).

Carbon Source Utilization by the Isolates AK15 and AK17

In the presence of yeast extract, AK15 utilized fructose, galactose, glucose, mannose, ribose, xylose, sucrose, xylan, and pyruvate. Substrates that were not utilized included arabinose, lactose, cellulose, and pectin (Orlygsson and Baldursson, 2007). In the presence of yeast extract, AK17 utilized arabinose, fructose, galactose, glucose, mannose, ribose, xylose, lactose, and sucrose. Limited growth was observed with cellulose and pectin. Substrates that were not utilized included xylan and pyruvate (Orlygsson and Baldursson, 2007).

The majority of the biomass in all green plants is lignocellulose, the structural polymer (cellulose, hemicellulose, pectin, and lignin) that comprises the cell wall (Ingram et al., 1999). The sugar residues of hemicellulose contain a varying mixture of hexoses (e.g., glucose, mannose and galactose), and pentoses (e.g., arabinose and xylose), of which pentose sugars are more rarely utilized by microorganisms (Ingram et al., 1999). Strain AK17 was able to utilize all these main hexose and pentose residues of hemicellulose, while AK15 did not utilize arabinose. Further, AK17 grew on pectin and cellulose. These results demonstrate that AK17 has a wide substrate utilization spectrum for the sugar residues in hydrolysates of lignocellulosic material.

Batch Fermentation Patterns From Glucose and Xylose by the Isolates AK15 and AK17

In the batch fermentation of glucose by AK15, hydrogen was the main fermentation product yielding 1.1–1.9 mol-H₂/mol-glucose (28–48% of the theoretical maximum). The main soluble metabolites were ethanol (0.6–0.8 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose) and acetate, while lactate was produced

Table I. Affiliations^{Q2} of the 16S rRNA gene sequences of the strains AK15 and AK17 isolated from Icelandic geothermal springs, and bands excised from DGGE gel of the continuous-flow bioreactor inoculated with the strains AK15 and AK17 at 60°C.

OTU (acc) ^a	BL ^b	SL ^c	Family ^d	Affiliation (acc) ^e	Sim (%) ^f
AK15 (EU262599)		1452	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium uzonii</i> DSM 9752 (Y18182)	98.8
AK17 (EF088330)		1442	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium aciditolerans</i> (AY350594)	99.2
TRAK-A (EU255569)	A	519;	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium thermoamylolyticum</i> DSM 2335 (X76743)	99.8
		519		<i>Thermoanaerobacterium aciditolerans</i> (AY350594)	99.4
TRAK-B (EU255570)	B	523	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium uzonii</i> DSM 9752 (Y18182)	98.3
TRAK-C (EU255571)	C	523	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium uzonii</i> DSM 9752 (Y18182)	98.3
TRAK-D (EU255572)	D	523	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium uzonii</i> DSM 9752 (Y18182)	98.5
TRAK-E (EU255573)	E	523	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium uzonii</i> DSM 9752 (Y18182)	98.5
TRAK-F (EU255574)	F	524	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (AY442812)	99.4
TRAK-G (EU255575)	G	524	<i>Clostridiaceae</i>	<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> DSM 2478 (X68177)	99.4
TRAK-H (EU255576)	H	549	<i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i> K-12 MG1655 (U00096 AE000111-AE000510)	100

^aOperational taxonomic unit with accession number.

^bBand label in Figure 3.

^cSequence length (bp).

^dFamily according to Ribosomal Database Project II.

^eClosest species in GenBank with accession number.

^fSimilarity (%).

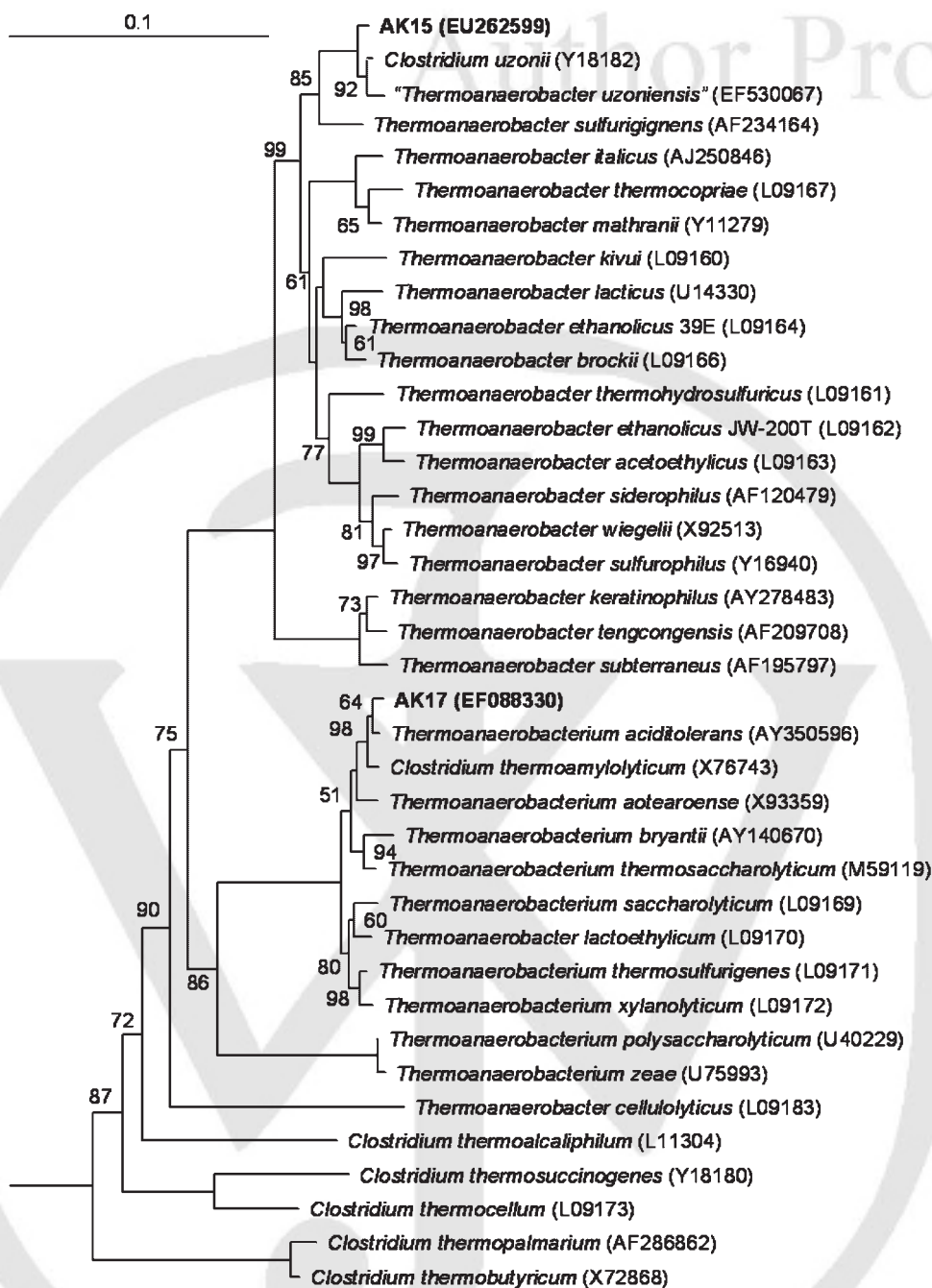


Figure 1. Phylogeny of the strains AK15 and AK17 isolated from Icelandic geothermal springs based on the 16S rRNA gene sequences (1,454–1,469 bp). The phylogenetic tree was generated using a distance matrix and neighbor joining algorithms with 300 bootstraps. Only supported bootstrap values (>50%) are shown. *Escherichia coli* (AE000406) was selected as an out-group. The scale bar indicates 0.1 substitutions per nucleotide position.

to a lesser extent. The AK15 produced H₂ yields of 1.0–1.1 mol-H₂/mol-xylose (30–33% of the theoretical maximum) from xylose. Acetate was the main soluble metabolite from xylose followed by ethanol (0.4 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose) and lactate.

Ethanol was the main product of batch fermentation of glucose by AK17 yielding typically 1.2–1.6 mol-EtOH/mol-

glucose (60–80% of the theoretical maximum). The other fermentation products included hydrogen (0.4–1.2 mol-H₂/mol-glucose) and acetate. In the batch fermentation of xylose by AK17, ethanol yields of 1.0–1.1 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose (60–66% of the theoretical maximum) were typically obtained. Hydrogen (0.9–1.0 mol-H₂/mol-xylose) and acetate were also produced.

Continuous Ethanol and Hydrogen Production From Glucose

In the continuous-flow bioreactor maintained with a co-culture of strains AK15 and AK17, hydrogen production started during the 1 day batch mode after the inoculation. When the continuous feed was started, H₂ production rates slowly increased, and the steady-state was achieved after 30 days from the start-up (Fig. 2). After this when the glucose loading was stepwise increased, H₂ production rate in the bioreactor increased along with the increasing LR, until the HRT 2.8 h (last HRT studied; Fig. 2; Table II). The highest steady-state hydrogen production rate

of 6.1 mmol/h/L (H₂ yield of 0.80 mol-H₂/mol-glucose) was obtained with the HRT of 3.1 h corresponding to a glucose LR of 8.1 mmol/h/L. On day 83, feeding tube for the nutrient feed containing buffering agents was clogged, resulted in a pH decrease and H₂ production ceased momentarily. After the feed had been recovered, H₂ production started rapidly and H₂ production rates were resumed at the same levels preceding the technical failure. Hydrogen concentrations in the product gas varied generally from 30% to 50% throughout the experiment.

Ethanol was the main soluble metabolite in the bioreactor, followed by acetate and lactate (Fig. 2; Table II). Molar ethanol to acetate ratios varied between 2.6 and 3.7 throughout the

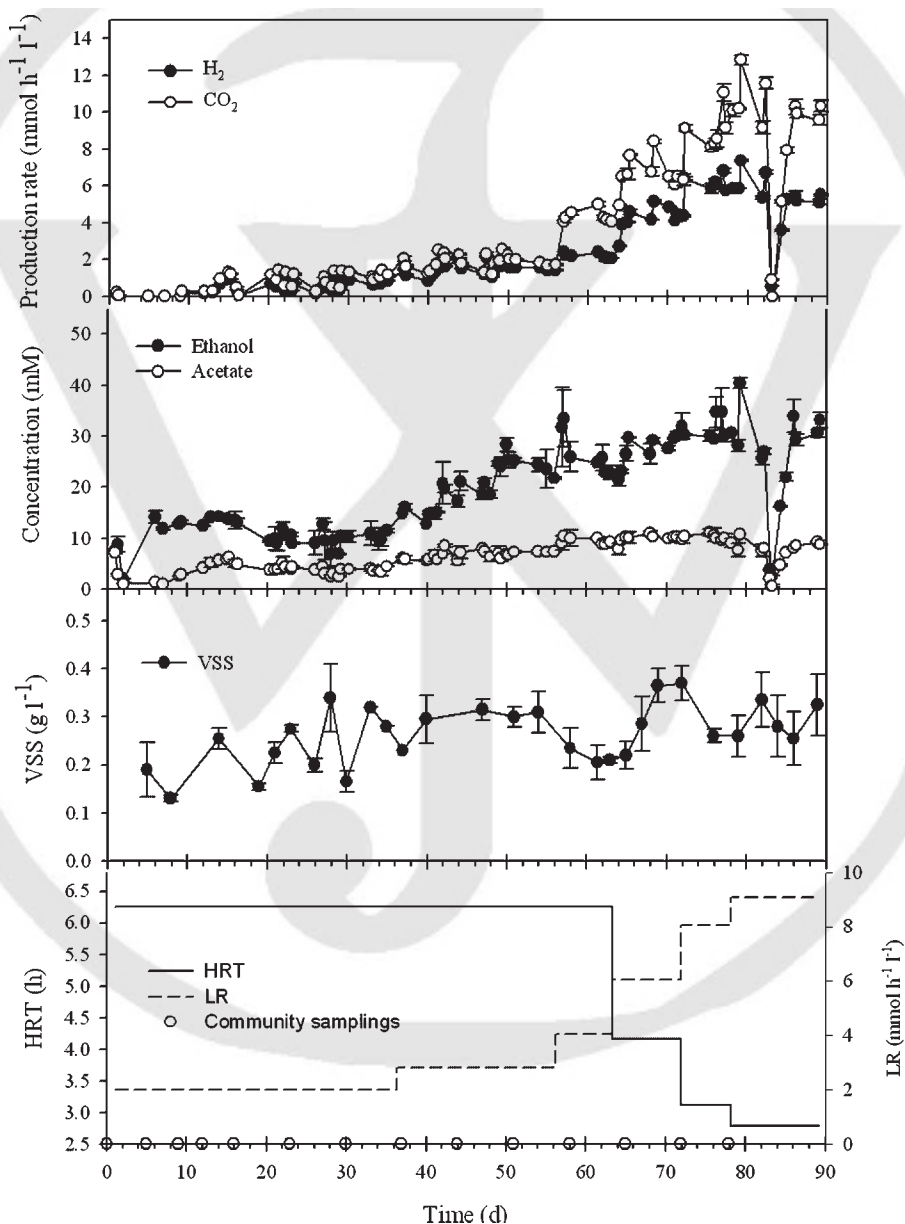


Figure 2. Performance data for the continuous-flow bioreactor maintained at 60°C with the isolates AK15 and AK17.

Table II. Summary of performance data for the continuous-flow bioreactor maintained at 60°C with isolates the AK15 and AK17 at different HRT and LR (\pm standard deviation).

	Time period (measurements)					
	30–35 (6)	50–56 (5)	58–63 (5)	70–72 (4)	75–78 (6)	86–89 (4)
HRT (h)	6.25	6.25	6.25	4.2	3.1	2.8
Glucose LR (mmol/h/L)	2.0	2.8	4.0	6.1	8.1	9.1
H ₂ % in product gas	40.2 (1.9)	46.0 (1.3)	33.4 (1.3)	40.7 (1.0)	39.2 (3.3)	34.7 (0.6)
HPR (mmol/h/L)	0.78 (0.14)	1.50 (0.08)	2.18 (0.13)	4.43 (0.32)	6.10 (0.39)	5.31 (0.19)
Ethanol (mM)	10.50 (0.66)	24.31 (1.76)	24.47 (1.52)	29.85 (1.76)	31.66 (2.45)	31.77 (2.19)
Acetate (mM)	3.91 (0.39)	7.26 (0.06)	9.46 (0.60)	10.12 (0.21)	10.12 (0.73)	8.72 (0.51)
Lactate (mM)	4.57 (0.52)	4.80 (0.46)	9.61 (0.22)	3.10 (0.14)	2.43 (0.23)	4.21 (0.35)
H ₂ yield (mol-H ₂ /mol-glucose) ^a	0.39 (0.07)	0.53 (0.03)	0.55 (0.03)	0.80 (0.06)	0.80 (0.05)	0.63 (0.03)
Ethanol yield (mol-ethanol/mol-glucose) ^a	0.84 (0.05)	1.37 (0.08)	0.98 (0.06)	1.29 (0.07)	1.35 (0.09)	1.35 (0.10)
Lactate yield (mol-lactate/mol-glucose) ^a	0.36 (0.04)	0.27 (0.04)	0.39 (0.01)	0.13 (0.01)	0.1 (0.01)	0.18 (0.02)
Ethanol/acetate	2.69 (0.13)	3.33 (0.30)	2.59 (0.18)	2.95 (0.19)	3.15 (0.38)	3.66 (0.42)
Glucose degradation efficiency (%)	99.4 (0.1)	99.6 (0.1)	98.9 (0.6)	91.9 (1.2)	94.8 (2.3)	93.4 (2.6)

LR, loading rate; HRT, hydraulic retention time; HPR, hydrogen production rate.

^aYields were calculated per glucose degraded.

experiment. The steady-state ethanol yields were from 1.29 to 1.37 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose, except when the glucose LR was 2.0 or 4.0 mmol/h/L. With LRs of 2.0 and 4.0 mmol/h/L, the ethanol yields were less than 1 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose and were associated with elevated lactate yields (Table II). On the other hand, during the highest ethanol yield (1.37 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose) obtained with LR of 2.8 mmol/h/L the lactate production was also relatively high. Lactate production decreased when the HRT was shortened. Highest steady-state ethanol concentration of 31.8 mM (ethanol yield of 1.35 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose) was obtained with the HRT of 2.8 h (LR of 9.1 mmol/h/L). Butyrate concentrations remained below 1 mM and formate concentrations below 3 mM throughout the experiment (data not shown).

Stable and continuous ethanol and H₂ co-production from glucose was achieved in the bioreactor inoculated with the co-culture of thermophilic isolates AK15 and AK17. Table III summarizes the performance of some continuous H₂ production processes reported in the literature. The maximum hydrogen production rate of this

study (6.1 mmol/h/L) is comparable with the majority of studies with thermophilic systems regardless of the fact that the majority of electrons were directed to ethanol production instead of H₂ production. Oh et al. (2004) reported substantially higher H₂ production rates by using a thermophilic trickling biofilter system. The H₂ production rate in this study, however, remains far less than the highest reported in mesophilic systems, obtained in granular reactors with extremely short HRTs of 0.25 (Zhang et al., 2008) or 0.5 h (Wu et al., 2006) and with high substrate loading. The H₂ yield achieved in this study (0.80 mol-H₂/mol-glucose) remains low due to the high ethanol production.

In the batch culture, AK17 produced ethanol from glucose up to 1.6 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose and from xylose up to 1.1 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose. In the continuous fermentation, the AK17 dominated culture (see next section) produced up to 1.37 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose. These ethanol yields are among the highest reported for thermoanaerobes. Of the thermoanaerobes, *T. ethanolicus* has the highest

Table III. The comparison of hydrogen production performance of some continuous-flow bioreactors reported in the literature.

Substrate	Temperature (°C)	H ₂ yield (mol-H ₂ /mol-hexose)	H ₂ production rate (mmol/h/L)	References
Glucose	60	0.80	6.1	This study
Glucose	60	1.11	43.8 ^a	Oh et al. (2004)
Sugar factory wastewater	60	2.57	8.3 ^a	Ueno et al. (1996)
Winery wastewater	55	2.14	6.6 ^a	Yu et al. (2002b)
Glucose	70	2.47	2.1 ^a	Kotsopoulos et al. (2006)
Glucose	74	0.42	1.4	Koskinen et al. (2008)
Cellulose powder	60	2.00	1.2 ^a	Ueno et al. (2001)
Sucrose	40	1.59 ^a	627 ^a	Wu et al. (2006)
Glucose	37	1.71	311 ^a	Zhang et al. (2008)
Fructose	35	0.56	33.0	Wu and Chang (2007)
Glucose	35	1.71 ^a	29.6 ^a	Lin and Chang (1999)
Glucose	30–34	0.86 ^a	15.0 ^a	Lin and Chang (2004)

^aCalculated based on the information provided.

ethanol yields from glucose and xylose. Ethanol yields from glucose of 1.9 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose have been reported for *T. ethanolicus* in both batch (Wiegel and Ljungdahl, 1981) and continuous cultures (Lacis and Lawford, 1991). From xylose, *T. ethanolicus* produces ethanol up to 1.37 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose (Lacis and Lawford, 1988). Another high ethanol-producing thermoanaerobe, *T. thermohydrosulfuricus* (previously known as *Clostridium thermohydrosulfuricum*), produces ethanol from glucose up to 1.5 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose (Wiegel et al., 1979). [Wu and Chang \(2007\)^{Q3}](#) reported yields of 0.65 mol-EtOH/mol-fructose and 0.56 mol-H₂/mol-fructose in continuous, mesophilic co-fermentation of ethanol and hydrogen. In the bioreactor of this study, high ethanol yields (and substantial hydrogen production) were obtained by the AK17 dominated culture when operated with short HRTs (2.8 and 3.1 h) indicating the applicability of the culture to continuous co-production of ethanol and H₂.

Glucose Utilization, Biomass Concentration, and Carbon Balances in the Continuous-Flow Bioreactor

With the HRT of 6.25 h, glucose was nearly completely degraded regardless of the increase in glucose concentration (Table II). When the HRT was shortened, glucose was more than 90% degraded. Biomass concentrations (as VSS) in the bioreactor varied from 0.15 to 0.37 g/L (Fig. 2).

Carbon mass balances of the bioreactor were calculated for each glucose LR used (Table IV). Carbon included in the yeast extract (0.2 g/L) was not accounted for in the carbon balance, and the composition of biomass was assumed to

be C₅H₇O₂N (Fang and Liu, 2002). Carbon recoveries for different LRs varied from 84% to 96% (Table IV). The carbon from glucose was mainly directed to ethanol production followed by CO₂, acetate, biomass, and lactate production in the bioreactor.

Dynamics of Bacterial Community Composition

Bacterial community dynamics of the continuous-flow bioreactor was monitored to reveal the fate of the thermophilic isolates (AK15 and AK17), and to monitor whether new species became enriched in the open system without feed sterilization. After the start-up of continuous operation, both AK15 (*C. uzonii* affiliated strain) and AK17 (*C. uzonii* affiliated strain) were detected in the community profile (Fig. 3, Table I). AK15 had four slightly different 16S rRNA gene sequences seen as distinctive band positions in the DGGE gel, while the AK17 had distinctive band positions in the gel, but the bands shared the same 16S rRNA gene sequence. Within three weeks after the start-up, AK15 affiliated bands disappeared from the community profile whereas strain AK17 affiliated bands were seen throughout the experiment time course. This indicates that AK17 was the dominant thermophile in the bioreactor (Fig. 3; Table I). The dominance of AK17 and disappearance of AK15 was likely due to the growth conditions, for example, the feed composition, pH, temperature or hydrodynamic conditions were more suitable for AK17 than AK15. In batch assays at pH 6 and 60°C, the AK17 had higher growth rate and shorter doubling time than AK15 (unpublished results). Further, the bioreactor feed had 0.2 g/L of yeast extract which

Table IV. Carbon balances for the continuous-flow bioreactor maintained at 60°C with the isolates AK15 and AK17 at different HRT and glucose LR (±standard deviation).

	Time period (measurements)					
	30–35 (6)	50–56 (5)	58–63 (5)	70–72 (4)	75–78 (6)	86–89 (4)
HRT (h)	6.25	6.25	6.25	4.2	3.1	2.8
Glucose LR (mmol/h/L)	2.0	2.8	4.0	6.1	8.1	9.1
Carbon in substrates (mmol C/h/L) ^a						
Glucose	12.10	16.95	24.20	36.31	48.42	54.47
Residual glucose	0.07 (0.01)	0.06 (0.02)	0.26 (0.15)	2.93 (0.42)	2.53 (1.11)	3.60 (1.44)
Glucose-carbon consumption rate	12.03 (0.01)	16.88 (0.02)	23.95 (0.15)	33.38 (0.42)	45.89 (1.11)	50.87 (1.44)
Carbon in products (mmol C/h/L)						
Ethanol	3.36 (0.21)	7.71 (0.47)	7.83 (0.48)	14.33 (0.85)	20.26 (1.57)	22.88 (1.58)
Acetate	1.25 (0.12)	2.32 (0.09)	3.03 (0.19)	4.86 (0.10)	6.48 (0.47)	6.28 (0.37)
Lactate	2.19 (0.25)	2.31 (0.22)	4.61 (0.10)	2.23 (0.21)	2.33 (0.22)	4.55 (0.37)
Butyrate	0.03 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.14 (0.07)	0 (0)	0.02 (0.02)	0.04 (0.03)
Formate	0.12 (0.14)	0 (0)	0.42 (0.06)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
CO ₂ ^b	1.08 (0.17)	1.84 (0.16)	4.41 (0.38)	6.36 (0.19)	9.20 (1.16)	10.02 (0.35)
Biomass ^c	2.12 (0.20)	2.16 (0.05)	1.47 (0.03)	3.90 (0.04)	3.68 (0.00)	4.68 (0.08)
Carbon recovery (%) ^c	84.1 (4.0)	96.5 (3.7)	91.1 (4.4)	87.2 (1.3)	86.7 (4.3)	88.8 (2.8)

LR, loading rate; HRT, hydraulic retention time.

^aCarbon in yeast extract (0.02 g/L).

^bCO₂ in the liquid phase were not taken into account.

^cBiomass was calculated based on VSS assuming the biomass composition of C₅H₇O₂N (Fang and Liu, 2002).

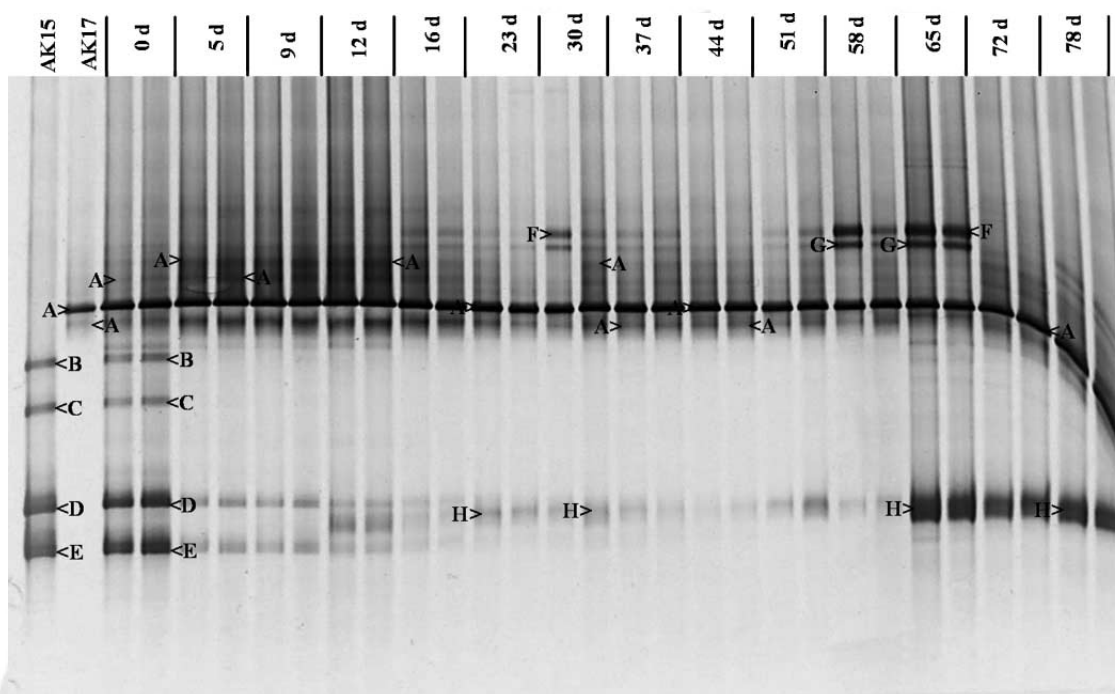


Figure 3. Bacterial community profile determined with PCR-DGGE of partial 16S rRNA genes (519–549 bp) of the continuous-flow bioreactor maintained with the isolates AK15 and AK17. See Table I for the labeled bands. The bioreactor was operated at 60°C as an open system without feed sterilization.

possibly limited the growth of AK15, while the AK17 did not require yeast extract for growth.

After 2 weeks of operation, new organisms were seen in the bioreactor community profiles (Fig. 3; Table I). These organisms were closely affiliated with mesophilic *Clostridium butyricum* and *Escherichia coli*. The mesophiles likely grew in the feed tank or in the feed tubings. The glucose degradation in the feed tank was likely very low as the feed was kept at +4°C, and the glucose feed did not contain

nutrients (nutrients were fed from a separate tank). Further, the concentration of butyrate, the main fermentation product of *C. butyricum* (Crabbendam et al., 1985), remained low (<1 mM) in the bioreactor throughout the experiment. In a similar manner, the concentration of formate, a major fermentation product of *E. coli* (for a review, see Nandi and Sengupta, 1998), was low in the bioreactor (<3 mM). These results demonstrate that the degradation of glucose in the bioprocess by the mesophilic

Table V. Summary of growth of strain AK17 in the presence of exogenously added ethanol.

Ethanol concentration (% v/v)	Lag time (h) ^a	Maximum OD ^b	Growth rate (h ⁻¹) ^c	H ₂ yield (mol-H ₂ /mol-glucose)
0	1	1.58 (0.05)	0.54 (0.01)	1.20 (0.01)
0.5	8	1.59 (0.06)	0.52 (0.01)	ND
1.0	15	1.70 (0.08)	0.50 ^d	1.10 (0.09)
1.5	17	1.52 (0.07)	0.50 ^d	1.02 (0.23)
2.0	26	1.52 (0.05)	0.52 (0.03)	1.17 (0.07)
2.5	28	1.49 (0.09)	0.49 (0.05)	1.09 (0.21)
3.0	32	1.32 (0.01)	0.42 (0.01)	1.00 (0.30)
3.5 ^d	ND	0.63	ND	0.72
4.0 ^d	>52	0.47	ND	0.32

The data represent averages of triplicate measurements (±standard deviation).

Cultivations were performed in 25 mL serum tubes (10 mL of medium) with 20 mM of glucose at 60°C and at initial pH of 6.0. The optical density (OD) was measured at 600 nm. Hydrogen production was measured at the end point, after the cultures had reached maximum OD.

ND, not determined.

^aDetermined as the time when the OD of the sample exceeded that of a no-inoculum control by 0.1 units.

^bDetermined as the maximum OD of the sample minus the OD of the no-inoculum control.

^cDetermined based on the OD values directly by using the Monod equation (Georgieva et al., 2007).

^dBased on a single tube measurement.

bacteria was insignificant. These results also show that long-term maintenance of ethanol and hydrogen production activity by thermophilic pure cultures is possible in an open system.

Ethanol Tolerance of Strain AK17

The tolerance to exogenously added ethanol was determined for the strain AK17. The AK17 tolerated up to 4% (v/v) of exogenously added ethanol, while the growth was completely inhibited at 5% (v/v). The increased ethanol concentration progressively prolonged the lag phase of AK17 (Table V) as also previously reported for *Thermoanaerobacter* A10 (Georgieva et al., 2007). The ethanol concentration of up to 2.5% (v/v) did not substantially inhibit the growth of AK17. Ethanol addition of 3% (v/v) resulted in a slight decrease in maximum OD and growth rate, while the ethanol concentrations of 3.5% and 4% (v/v) decreased the growth drastically (Table V). Similarly, the hydrogen yields decreased with ethanol additions of 3.5% and 4.0% (v/v). With ethanol supplementation of up to 3% (v/v), the hydrogen yields remained between 1.0 and 1.2 mol-H₂/mol-glucose.

Thermoanaerobes should be able to sustain ethanol concentrations above about 4–5% (v/v) in order to obtain commercially viable separation of ethanol from bioprocess (Lynd et al., 2001; Sudha Rani and Seenayya, 1999). The ethanol tolerance of the strain AK17 (4%, v/v) was substantially higher than generally considered among wild-type thermoanaerobes (<1–2%, v/v; Burdette et al., 2002; Lynd, 1989). The highest ethanol tolerances for wild-type thermoanaerobes include 5.1% (v/v) for *Thermoanaerobacter* A10 (Georgieva et al., 2007) and 5% (v/v) for *Clostridium thermocellum* SS22 (Sudha Rani and Seenayya, 1999), respectively. The ethanol tolerance of several thermoanaerobes has been successfully increased by batch or continuous cultivation at high ethanol concentrations resulting in adaptation or generation of ethanol-resistant mutants (Baskaran et al., 1995; Burdette et al., 2002; Sudha Rani and Seenayya, 1999).

Conclusions

Ethanol and hydrogen production was studied by two bacterial strains, AK15 affiliated with *C. uzonii* (98.8%) and AK17 affiliated with *T. aciditolerans* (99.2%), isolated from Icelandic geothermal springs. The strains utilized a wide variety of sugar monomers found in the lignocellulosic materials, and also some polysaccharides. Strain AK17 had high ethanol yields from glucose and xylose fermentations of up to 1.6 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose and 1.1 mol-EtOH/mol-xylose, respectively, while hydrogen was produced to a lesser extent. The strain AK15 produced hydrogen as the main fermentation product from glucose and xylose. The AK17 tolerated exogenously added ethanol up to 4% (v/v).

Stable and continuous ethanol and hydrogen co-production from glucose was demonstrated in a bioreactor dominated by the strain AK17. The bioreactor produced up to 1.37 mol-EtOH/mol-glucose, and the highest H₂ rate was 6.1 mmol/h/L (H₂ yield of 0.80 mol-H₂/mol-glucose). In summary, the results indicate that strain AK17 is a promising ethanol (and hydrogen) producer with high ethanol yields, relatively high ethanol tolerance, and the capability of utilizing a variety of hydrocarbons found in the lignocellulosic materials.

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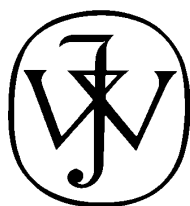
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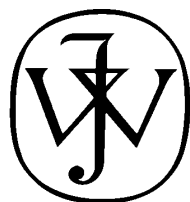
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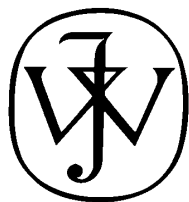
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