

1                   **Microbial communities for bioprocessing: lessons learned from nature**  
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12                   **Abstract**

13                   Microbial bioprocessing has evolved from the use of undefined natural consortia to the  
14                   construction of synthetic communities tailored to specific processes and bioproducts. This  
15                   evolution is enabled by recent advances in biotechnology, including cultivation of non-model  
16                   microbes, metabolic engineering, bioinformatics, and numerical modeling. Equipped with these  
17                   powerful tools, engineers have designed co-cultures and consortia with an expanded set of  
18                   capabilities, mainly via “bottom-up” approaches that tether isolates together in culture. Here, we  
19                   present a brief review of the opportunities, challenges, and recent developments in consortia-  
20                   based bioprocessing with a focus on lignocellulosic biomass conversion. With improved  
21                   understanding of microbial community composition and function, we further present a vision to  
22                   harness defined consortia down-selected from nature via “top down” approaches.  
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24                   **Keywords**  
25

26                   Microbial consortia; non-model microbes; synthetic biology; fungi; bacteria; bioprocessing  
27

28                   **Introduction**

29                   Microbial bioprocessing is a powerful tool that has transformed nearly every aspect of  
30                   our lives, from the production of food, fuel, solvents, and drugs, to waste water treatment and  
31                   remediation. From an engineer’s standpoint, we typically think of these products as the outcome  
32                   of one microbial workhorse, where a single strain has been isolated and manipulated in the  
33                   laboratory to tackle a specific task. However, history reminds us that undefined mixtures of  
                  microbes have been used for millennia to advance society. Africans brewed wine as early as 690  
                  BC [1]; yeasts in the environment have been used to make bread for millennia [2]. Biogas

34 generated from mixed microbial metabolism was even used for heating bath water in Assyria in  
35 the 10th century BC, and gave rise to modern anaerobic digestion technologies [3]. In the 1970s,  
36 oil spills were first remediated by stimulating the growth of naturally occurring microorganisms  
37 in the ocean [4]. Rather than building multiple functions into a single microbe, these “top-down”  
38 approaches utilize undefined microbial communities that divide-and-conquer difficult metabolic  
39 tasks to enable or accelerate outcomes.

40 The advent of synthetic biology in the past century, and particularly in the past decade,  
41 has taken bioprocessing to the next stage, where “bottom-up” approaches based on defined or  
42 targeted microbial communities have become viable approaches for bioprocessing. Examples  
43 include the production of antibiotics [5], wastewater treatment plants based on anaerobic  
44 ammonia oxidation [6], and biofuel production [7]. Among these applications, the production of  
45 clean and renewable biofuels is of particular interest in both developing and developed parts of  
46 the world, because biofuels generate less environmental impact compared to traditional fossil  
47 fuels and hold promise as cost-efficient alternatives [8]. This manuscript reviews recent advances  
48 in bioprocessing based on microbial consortia, with a focus on highlighting gaps in knowledge  
49 and opportunities for development to convert lignocellulosic (non-food) biomass to biofuels.  
50 Both “top-down” and “bottom-up” approaches to biofuel production have been extensively  
51 investigated in the past twenty years. Nevertheless, several outstanding questions remain,  
52 including which approach (or combination of approaches) are best to enhance conversion, how  
53 stability of the consortia influences degradation, and how advances in bioinformatics and  
54 metabolic modeling should be incorporated to aid in the design of stable consortia.

55

## 56 **Consortia-Enabled Biofuels: An Alternative to CBP**

57 Conventional methods of biofuel production are usually energy intensive, requiring  
58 physical and/or chemical pre-treatment of biomass before enzymatic hydrolysis and microbial  
59 fermentation [9,10]. Consolidated bioprocessing (CBP) has been proposed as an alternative to  
60 conventional methods, and it combines cellulase production, biomass hydrolysis, and sugar  
61 fermentation into one step [11]. Classical CBP aims to bypass pretreatment and convert  
62 lignocellulosic feedstock into desired products by using one microorganism, such as the yeast  
63 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [12–14]. However, it has become clear in the past decade that a  
64 multitude of challenges make it difficult to engineer a “superbug” microbe that both breaks down

65 and converts biomass into fuels efficiently at industrial scale [15]. Major issues include the  
66 difficulty of establishing genetic systems in novel organisms, relatively low specific activity of  
67 recombinantly expressed enzymes (including activity against crude substrates), and limited  
68 tolerance to concentrated byproducts such as ethanol [15].

69 A promising alternative to classical CBP is consortia-based bioprocessing, a field of  
70 research that has made significant progress recently [16,17]. A microbial consortium consists of  
71 more than one strain of microorganism, often with complementary metabolic functions, where  
72 difficult tasks can be divided across a diverse subset of microbes. A defined consortium is  
73 usually constructed with via a “bottom-up” approach, co-culturing two (or more) isolated strains  
74 that have been well characterized (Figure 1). At the other extreme, undefined consortia originate  
75 from environmental microbial communities with an unknown number of constituents (Figure 1).  
76 However, defined consortia can also be constructed by a “top-down” approach that enriches a  
77 stable microbial community, where each member is later isolated and subsequently characterized  
78 (Figure 1).

79

## 80 **“Bottom-up” Approaches: Advancements and Opportunities**

81 Most progress in consortia-based bioprocessing to date is based on a “bottom-up”  
82 methodology, where synthetic communities of microorganisms have been constructed to  
83 accomplish specific goals (Figure 1). Members in these microbial consortia often have a  
84 commensal or syntrophic relationship, i.e. the products made by one member are beneficial for  
85 and/or used as substrates by another member. A number of synthetic consortia have proven to be  
86 more efficient in bioprocessing than mono-cultures [7]. For example, Xu and Tscherner [18]  
87 demonstrated improved efficiency (up to two-fold) of ethanol production by a co-culture of two  
88 strains of fermentative *Clostridium* compared to mono-cultures. They hypothesized that the  
89 observed synergy was a result of *Clostridium thermolacticum* utilizing the degraded substrates  
90 from *Clostridium thermocellum*, which are less favorable for *C. thermocellum*. Similarly, Zuroff  
91 *et al.* [19] established symbiosis between *C. phytofermentans* and a yeast (either *S. cerevisiae* or  
92 *Candida molishiana*) stable for 50 days. While *C. phytofermentans* is sensitive to oxygen, both  
93 yeasts removed oxygen from the co-culture in return for soluble sugars released by *C.*  
94 *phytofermentans* hydrolysis. The ethanol yield from the co-culture of *C. phytofermentans* and *S.*  
95 *cerevisiae* was more than two-fold higher than either of the mono-cultures. One example of a

96 cross-kingdom consortium divided the tasks of hydrolysis and fermentation to the fungus  
97 *Trichoderma reesei* and the bacterium *Escherichia coli*, respectively [20]. This stable co-culture  
98 converted microcrystalline cellulose and pretreated corn stover to isobutanol, yielding 62% of  
99 the theoretical maximum.

100 While mixed microbial consortia generally outperform a single microorganism, their full  
101 potential for bioprocessing has yet to be realized for cost-efficient industrial scale applications.  
102 To optimize synthetic microbial consortia, numerical modeling has become an important tool for  
103 prediction of metabolic compatibility and consortia design [20–22]. For example, a genome-  
104 scale metabolic model of *C. cellulolyticum* can successfully predict chemostat growth and  
105 byproduct secretion, and it can be used to develop a dynamic model of metabolic interactions in  
106 the co-culture with *C. acetobutylicum* [23]. Experimental data have confirmed that modelling  
107 frameworks incorporating the interspecies exchange of metabolites predicts the species ratio in  
108 microbial consortia [20,24], but these models usually make simplistic assumptions such as  
109 maximizing total biomass, which sometimes lead to inaccurate predictions [25]. Zomorrodi [26]  
110 showed that it is important to include species- and community- level fitness functions when  
111 modeling microbial communities. In addition to genome-scale metabolic modeling, a simpler  
112 coarse-grained model, which is tailored to solve the inference problem from the experimental  
113 data, has been proposed as a key to understanding microbial communities [27].

114 In addition to numerical modeling, the incorporation of metabolic engineering promises  
115 to offer greater flexibility to control the behavior of synthetic microbial consortia. For example,  
116 Shin et al. [28] engineered an *E. coli* strain to co-express and secrete xylanase and acetylxylan  
117 esterase, hydrolyzing xylan in growth media into xylooligosaccharides. A second engineered *E.*  
118 *coli* strain assimilated xylooligosaccharides and converted them into ethanol. This modularly  
119 designed co-culture reached 55% of the theoretical maximum for ethanol yield. Another  
120 application of metabolic engineering split the signal production and sensing components  
121 originally from *Staphylococcus aureus* between two strains of *Bacillus megaterium* [29].  
122 Successfully engineered cell-cell communications in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative  
123 hosts [29–31] could be extended to achieve dynamic control of biomass-degrading consortia.  
124 Additionally, such a strategy provides an inherent advantage of avoiding the need to monitor cell  
125 growth and add exogenous molecules at a specific cell density, and the modular design allows  
126 for tuning of each member of the synthetic co-culture [29]. Compared to classical CBP, which

127 usually attempts to constitutively overexpress or knock out select genes in one organism,  
128 consortia-based metabolic engineering could increase process efficiency and productivity by  
129 dividing metabolic burdens between consortia members.

130        Although synthetic microbial consortia constructed from “bottom-up” indubitably  
131 represent a step forward, this approach still faces a number of major challenges. First and  
132 foremost is the inability to co-culture microorganisms that are known to form stable and  
133 functional communities *a priori*. More than 99% of all microorganisms have not been cultivated  
134 or genomically characterized, thus the “bottom-up” construction of synthetic consortia is  
135 inherently limited by knowledge of characterized strains. Additionally, considering that most  
136 model organisms are well domesticated to thrive independently under laboratory conditions, they  
137 may not be the best candidates to form robust, stable consortia with other microorganisms. The  
138 underlying mechanisms for synergistic effects of synthetic consortia are primarily hypothesized  
139 based on the knowledge about their metabolic pathways. In addition to the example of a co-  
140 culture of *T. reesei* and *E. coli* mentioned above [20], such limitations were apparent in the study  
141 of a *Clostridia* co-culture that was constructed to convert filter paper to hydrogen [32]. In this  
142 co-culture, *C. thermopalmarium* depends on the hydrolytic products from *C. thermocellum*, and  
143 enhances the overall yield of hydrogen compared to the mono-culture of *C. thermocellum*.  
144 However, lack of knowledge regarding the underlying mechanisms of the interactions in this  
145 microbial consortium creates obstacles for further engineering efforts such as enhancing stability  
146 and scaling up. Moreover, besides the division of labor, it is equally critical to consider the  
147 spatial and temporal organization and cumulative behavior as a function of interactions when  
148 constructing and evaluating microbial consortia [33].

149

## 150        **“Top-down” Approaches: Exploiting Natural Partnerships**

151        Natural consortia of microorganisms have been applied in multiple contexts, including  
152 the conversion of biomass to fuels. Biogas produced from anaerobic digestion is one of the most  
153 broadly adopted biofuels in developing countries, with 27 million biogas plants in China, and 4  
154 million in India [34]. Despite the significant economic and environmental benefits offered by  
155 biogas plants, there is limited knowledge about the parameters controlling their efficiency and  
156 reliability, because they are usually regarded as a “black box” of unknown microbes [35].

157 The first step towards cracking open and understanding these complex systems is to  
158 investigate the natural consortia of microorganisms inside. Recent advances in sequencing  
159 technology have enabled us to start filling the gaps of our knowledge about the composition and  
160 diversity of natural microbial communities. In an agricultural biogas plant, 454-pyrosequencing  
161 of the total microbial community found that *Firmicutes*, followed by *Bacteroidetes* and  
162 *Proteobacteria* were the dominant bacterial members responsible for polysaccharide degradation,  
163 while *Methanomicrobiales* represent the most abundant group of methanogenic archaea [36].  
164 Similar findings were reported in a biogas-producing anaerobic digestion experiment, where the  
165 most abundant members of microbial community were the species *Methanoculleus marisnigri*  
166 and from the class *Clostridia*, as determined by short-read next generation DNA sequencing [37].  
167 Additionally, an extensive temporal pyrosequencing dataset from anaerobic digestion facilities  
168 demonstrated the unprecedented level of stability maintained by the resilience of syntrophic  
169 bacterial communities [38].

170 The remarkable stability and resilience observed in these systems stems from a few key  
171 factors. First, diversity of a microbial consortium usually translates into functional redundancy.  
172 In the event of environmental perturbation, some members of the microbial consortium may  
173 experience lowered activity or a reduction in population size. Redundant members may respond  
174 positively to make up for the loss of function for the entire consortium [39]. Another stabilizing  
175 mechanism is the network of interactions between organisms [39]. Therefore, it is highly  
176 attractive to extract a defined microbial consortium from an existing complex consortium. This  
177 should retain part of the network of interactions between the members and the corollary stability  
178 selected by nature. On the other hand, from an engineering perspective, a microbial consortium  
179 with a small number of members should be easier to control than a complex consortium.

180 Compared to earlier efforts aimed at constructing synthetic microbial consortia from  
181 well-studied model organisms, extracting a defined consortium from nature offers a number of  
182 advantages. The classic approach to synthesize a consortium for biomass conversion is to select a  
183 strain that is capable of breaking down biomass into simple compounds that can be converted by  
184 another strain into desired products. However, it is generally impractical to test all possible  
185 combinations considering the sheer number of theoretically viable pairs. A better approach is to  
186 enrich for naturally occurring microbial consortia from environmental samples, such as the  
187 rumen and fecal material of herbivores, under culture conditions that will eventually be used for

188 production (e.g. [40–42]). The enrichment approach generally ends up with a minimal set of  
189 microbes that are highly stable, each of which could be isolated for genomic and transcriptomic  
190 analysis, as well as physiological characterization (Figure 1). On the other hand, this “top-down”  
191 approach is limited by the lack of established genetic engineering tools for microbes obtained  
192 through enrichment. Therefore, the development of a genetic system for these isolated members  
193 should set a foundation for later metabolic engineering, enabling another level of control on the  
194 performance of and interactions within the consortium.

195

## 196 **The Case for Exploiting the Herbivore Gut Microbiota**

197 One of the best examples of natural consortia that hydrolyze and ferment biomass is  
198 found in the herbivore gut. Microorganisms living in the digestive systems of natural grazers  
199 have co-evolved with their host for millions of years to utilize lignocellulosic hydrolysates.  
200 Microbes span a range of bacteria, fungi, protozoa, and methanogenic archaea [43–45], and the  
201 plethora of biomass-degrading genes and genomes discovered from cow rumen indicate that  
202 herbivorous grazers’ digestive systems should be an ideal source for down-selecting  
203 lignocellulolytic consortia [46,47]. Indeed, members from all four types of microorganisms  
204 mentioned above have been isolated and characterized from the cow rumen [48–51], and there is  
205 a body of literature on mixed cultures of bacteria and archaea (e.g. [52–55]). However, studies  
206 exploring the potential of directly down-selected co-cultures including eukaryotic  
207 microorganisms remain limited.

208 The mutualistic paring of fungi and methanogens is one of the consortia achieved by  
209 enrichment techniques [41,42]. The primary metabolites of anaerobic fungi include carbon  
210 dioxide, hydrogen, and volatile fatty acids, which in turn are utilized by methanogens for growth  
211 and methane production. Although anaerobic fungi are outnumbered by their bacterial  
212 counterparts in the rumen, there is evidence that fungal populations play a major role in the  
213 breakdown of cell walls [56–59]. Flagellated fungal zoospores attach themselves and develop  
214 hyphae that penetrate into plant tissues [60]. The physical breakdown of biomass coupled to the  
215 array of lignocellulolytic enzymes produced by these fungi [61] ensures efficient degradation of  
216 biomass. For example, anaerobic fungal enzymes are rich in xylan-degrading enzymes and hence  
217 unbiased in substrate preference [61]. Therefore, a wide variety of feedstocks that are already  
218 produced and often considered as “waste” such as corn stover can be used for methane

219 production. This saves arable land for cultivation of food rather than dedicating them for biofuel  
220 production as in the case of corn to ethanol, which is one of the two largest bio-ethanol programs  
221 in the world [62]. The other major bio-ethanol program extracts juice from sugar cane as a sugar  
222 source for fermentation, and the bagasse is either burnt for additional energy or simply discarded  
223 [63]. It has been estimated that if 50% of the bagasse after juice extraction is converted to  
224 ethanol, potentially using a microbial consortium, ethanol yield per hectare of land can increase  
225 from 6,000 L/ha to 10,000 L/ha [64]. Moreover, the efficient conversion of lignocellulosic  
226 biomass to biofuels should reduce the burden of disposing the agricultural “waste” products and  
227 lessens their environmental impact, serving as a solution to the “food, energy, and environment  
228 trilemma” [62].

229

## 230 **Conclusions and Perspectives**

231 Humanity has, knowingly or unknowingly, harnessed the power of microbes and  
232 microbial communities for bioprocessing since ancient times. More recently, we have come to  
233 recognize that microbial processing ranges between two extremes: from microbial communities  
234 that are “black boxes” to single microbe mediated fermentations. While the use of “top-down”  
235 approaches exploit nature to accomplish difficult tasks, control of these communities is limited  
236 due to lack of understanding of the microbial community composition, metabolism, and  
237 dynamics. The advance of new tools, including metabolic engineering of non-model hosts,  
238 sequencing and bioinformatics, and numerical modeling, have enabled engineers to parse the  
239 roles of community members like never before to understand their function. With these tools in  
240 hand, synthetic co-cultures can be constructed from the “bottom-up” to capture the behavior of  
241 natural microbial communities. Considering the strengths and weakness of both “top-down” and  
242 “bottom-up” approaches, the “top-down” approach is likely advantageous when the goal focuses  
243 on the output and stability of microbial processing and the ability to control each member of the  
244 microbial consortia is less of a concern. On the other hand, the “bottom-up” approach is likely  
245 favorable when the ability to manipulate each member of the consortia is necessary.

246 Along these lines, defined consortia down-selected from environmental samples are a  
247 highly attractive compromise to synthetic co-cultures – combining the advantages of both “top-  
248 down” and “bottom-up” approaches. However, this methodology still faces a number of major  
249 challenges, including the resistance to cultivation by many microorganisms, the difficulty in

250 developing novel genetic systems for metabolic engineering, and deciphering the genetic codes  
251 and interwoven metabolism of the microbial consortia. To move the field forward, it is critical to  
252 integrate all tools at hand to make informed decisions, with a focus on selecting stable consortia  
253 that have the ability to thrive at industrial scale. Genomic and transcriptomic characterization of  
254 each member of a defined consortium allows for the discovery of metabolic pathways and  
255 potentially their controls, which lays the foundation for system optimization, especially when  
256 combined with numerical modeling. Insights gained through metagenomic and  
257 metatranscriptomic analysis of natural microbial communities should further guide the  
258 enrichment strategy when down-selecting microbial consortia, particularly for applications  
259 relevant to biomass hydrolysis and product fermentation.

260

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269

## 270 **References**

### 271 **(\*) Papers of special interest**

272 *Solomon et al. 2016*

273 By analyzing the transcriptomes of previously uncharacterized anaerobic gut fungi, this  
274 study discovered a large, comprehensive array of unbiased, biomass-degrading enzymes that  
275 synergistically degrade crude, untreated plant biomass, and are competitive with optimized  
276 commercial preparations from *Aspergillus* and *Trichoderma*.

277

278 *Solomon et al. 2014*

279 This paper summarizes the practice of using next-generation sequencing, proteomics, and  
280 bioinformatics to derive biological insight from complex microbial communities, including their  
281 composition and function.

282

283 *Haitjema et al. 2014*

284 This paper details recent methodological progress in the study of anaerobic gut fungi.  
285 Specifically, advances in isolation, culture, and cellulolytic enzyme discovery should promote  
286 bioengineering efforts to adapt these non-model organisms for biofuel production.

287

288 *Marchand and Collins 2015*

289 This study was the first to engineer synthetic quorum sensing and cell-cell  
290 communication system in a Gram-positive host, *Bacillus megaterium*. It also split the signal  
291 production and sensing components between two strains of *B. megaterium*. It has the potential to  
292 enable the generation of dynamic gene regulatory networks in *B. megaterium* and other Gram-  
293 positive strains.

294

295 *Hoffner and Barton 2014*

296 This study outlines a roadmap towards the quantitative design and optimization of low  
297 cost resilient artificial ecologies based on microbial consortia, using algal production of fuels and  
298 chemicals as an example. The proposed numerical model integrates metabolic information with  
299 the ecological scale of the inter-species interactions and the process scale of bioreactors.

300

301 *Konopka et al. 2015*

302 This paper identified principles behind the functional stability and robustness in  
303 microbial communities. The authors pointed out that the network of interactions between  
304 organisms provides a buffer against disturbance beyond the effect of functional redundancy, as  
305 alternative pathways with different combinations of microbes can be recruited to fulfill specific  
306 functions.

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