

DOE/PC/90096--T4

DOE/PC/90096--T4

DE93 006002

MICROBIAL REDUCTION OF SO₂ AND NO_x AS A MEANS OF
BY-PRODUCT RECOVERY/DISPOSAL FROM REGENERABLE
PROCESSES FOR THE DESULFURIZATION OF FLUE GAS

Project No. DE-FG22-90PC90096

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Technical Progress Report

Reporting Period Ending
June 11, 1991 - September 11, 1992

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

With the continual increase in the utilization of high sulfur and high nitrogen containing fossil fuels (particularly coal and sour petroleum crudes), the release of airborne pollutants into the environment has become a critical problem. The bulk of the fuel sulfur is converted to SO_2 during combustion. Fuel nitrogen and a fraction of the nitrogen from the combustion air are converted to nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide, NO_x . A typical 1000 MW boiler, for example, burning 3.5% sulfur coal will emit approximately 600 tons of SO_2 and 100 tons of NO_x per day. Sulfur dioxide and oxides of nitrogen react photochemically or catalytically with other atmospheric contaminants to produce smog and the principal components of "acid rain". Acid rain is rapidly becoming an alarming problem, especially in the northeastern part of the United States and in Canada.

There are several engineering solutions to this problem, although none alone satisfy all of the desired technical and economic requirements. There are two basic approaches to addressing the problem of SO_2 and NO_x emissions: (1) desulfurize (and denitrogenate) the feedstock prior to or during combustion; or (2) scrub the resultant SO_2 and oxides of nitrogen from the boiler flue gases. Although feedstock desulfurization and allied technologies (e.g., coal liquefaction) are of considerable interest, the flue gas processing alternative has been addressed in this project.

The most commercially important flue gas desulfurization technology at present is the use of solid, throwaway adsorbents such as limestones and dolomites which have affinity for acid gases like

SO₂. This type of process results in the production of large amounts of calcium sulfate (CaSO₄) which can represent a significant disposal problem. In addition, little or no NO_x removal is achieved.

Several of the more promising technologies under development combine SO₂ and NO_x removal. These include radiation-initiated processes, low-temperature, dry-scrubbing and regenerable, dry-scrubbing. The irradiation of flue gases with electron beams or microwaves can result in the oxidation of SO₂ and NO_x to their respective acids under the proper conditions of temperature and moisture. The process requires the addition of large quantities of ammonia to retard the formation of corrosive sulfuric acid. The oxidation products are recovered as ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate. In low-temperature, dry-scrubbing processes a lime sorbent is sprayed into the flue gases at 300-400 F. A dry waste of CaSO₄ and unreacted sorbent is produced. No NO_x removal is obtained without additives to the sorbent. In regenerable, dry-scrubbing processes, as the name implies, flue gas is contacted with a dry sorbent resulting in the chemisorption of SO₂. The sulfated sorbent is subsequently regenerated using a reducing gas such as hydrogen, carbon monoxide or methane. The two major regenerable, dry-scrubbing processes under development are the copper oxide process and the NOXS0 process. In the copper oxide process NO_x is catalytically reduced to elemental nitrogen with ammonia. Regeneration of the copper oxide sorbent produces a concentrated stream of sulfur dioxide. In the NOXS0 process, the sorbent consists of sodium aluminate (NaAlO₂) on gamma alumina. The sorbent also adsorbs or chemisorbs NO_x from flue gas. The NO_x chemisorption product is unstable above 400 C. During

regeneration, heating the sorbent in air to 600 C produces a concentrated NO_x stream. Subsequent treatment of the sorbent with a reducing gas produces a mixture of SO₂, H₂S and elemental sulfur (1-3).

1.2 A Microbiological Contribution to the Problem of Flue Gas Desulfurization and NO_x Removal

For the past five years Combustion Engineering (now Asea Brown Boveri or ABB) and, since 1986, the University of Tulsa (TU) have been investigating the oxidation of H₂S by the facultatively anaerobic and autotrophic bacterium *Thiobacillus denitrificans* and have developed a process concept for the microbial removal of H₂S from a gas stream (4-7). K. Sublette has been the principal investigator. In 1987/88 we (K. Sublette and student Badri Dasu) demonstrated that the sulfate-reducing bacterium, *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans*, can be grown anaerobically in mixed, septic cultures using SO₂ as terminal electron acceptor and glucose as the sole carbon and energy source (8). In these cultures SO₂ was completely reduced to H₂S with contact times of 1-2 s. This work was funded by ABB. In 1988/89, under DOE contract number DE-FG22-88PC88945, the simultaneous removal of SO₂ and NO by *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* co-cultures and cultures-in-series was demonstrated. However, these systems could not be sustained due to NO inhibition of *D. desulfuricans*. These observations and others to be detailed subsequently led to the conclusion that simultaneous removal of SO₂ and NO_x by direct contact of cooled flue gases with microbial cultures is not feasible at this time. However, a preliminary economic analysis has shown that microbial reduction of SO₂ to H₂S with subsequent conversion to elemental sulfur by the Claus

process is both technically and economically feasible if a less expensive carbon and/or energy source can be found compared to glucose. Therefore, microbial reduction of SO_2 is a viable process concept for by-product recovery from regenerable flue gas desulfurization processes which produce concentrated streams of SO_2 .

In addition, under the above named DOE contract, it has also been demonstrated that *T. denitrificans* can be grown anaerobically on $\text{NO}(\text{g})$ as a terminal electron acceptor with reduction to elemental nitrogen. This capability may be common to facultatively anaerobic bacteria which can use nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor. Therefore, microbial reduction of NO_x is a viable process concept for the disposal of concentrated streams of NO_x as may be produced by certain regenerable processes for the removal of SO_2 and NO_x from flue gas.

Previous work with the microbial reduction of SO_2 and NO is reviewed in Section 2.

2. REVIEW OF WORK PREVIOUS TO THE CURRENT PROJECT

2.1 Sulfate-Reducing Bacteria

Sulfur compounds are an essential component of most living things. However, the oxidized forms of sulfur (sulfates and SO_x) must be reduced in order to be mobilized for biological use. The biological reduction of sulfates for incorporation into cellular material is called assimilatory sulfate reduction. Some microorganisms are also capable of utilizing sulfates as terminal electron acceptors with reduction to sulfide. This process is called dissimilatory sulfate reduction and is a unique characteristic of sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB). Most of the sulfide produced by this process accumulates outside of the cell and is eventually hydrolyzed

to form free H_2S and released into the environment. The SRB comprise the following genera: *Desulfovibrio*, *Desulfomonas*, *Desulfotomaculum*, *Desulfobacter*, *Desulfobacterium*, *Desulfobulbus*, *Desulfonema*, *Desulfosarcina* and *Thermodesulfobacterium*. As seen in Figure 1, the SRB play a key role in the sulfur cycle in nature.

The SRB are typically strict anaerobes; mere exclusion of oxygen from culturing media is insufficient to support growth in pure cultures. Redox-poising agents are generally required to maintain a redox potential in the medium of -150 to -200 mV. Most SRB are nutritionally restricted to certain mono- and dicarboxylic acids (acetate, pyruvate, lactate, etc.), alcohols (ethanol, butanol, etc.) and certain amino acids as carbon and energy sources. These compounds are recognized as fermentation products of other heterotrophic bacteria (9).

Most strains of SRB can utilize sulfite as well as sulfate as a terminal electron acceptor (9). For example, in a chemostat study, Hill et al (10) cultivated *Desulfovibrio* with sulfite and sulfate as terminal electron acceptors using lactate as an electron donor and carbon source. The yield of biomass per mole of electron acceptor reduced was greater for sulfite (9.2 g/mole) than for sulfate (6.3 g/mole). The greater yield on sulfite was attributed to the fact that no ATP is expended in its activation, unlike sulfate (9).

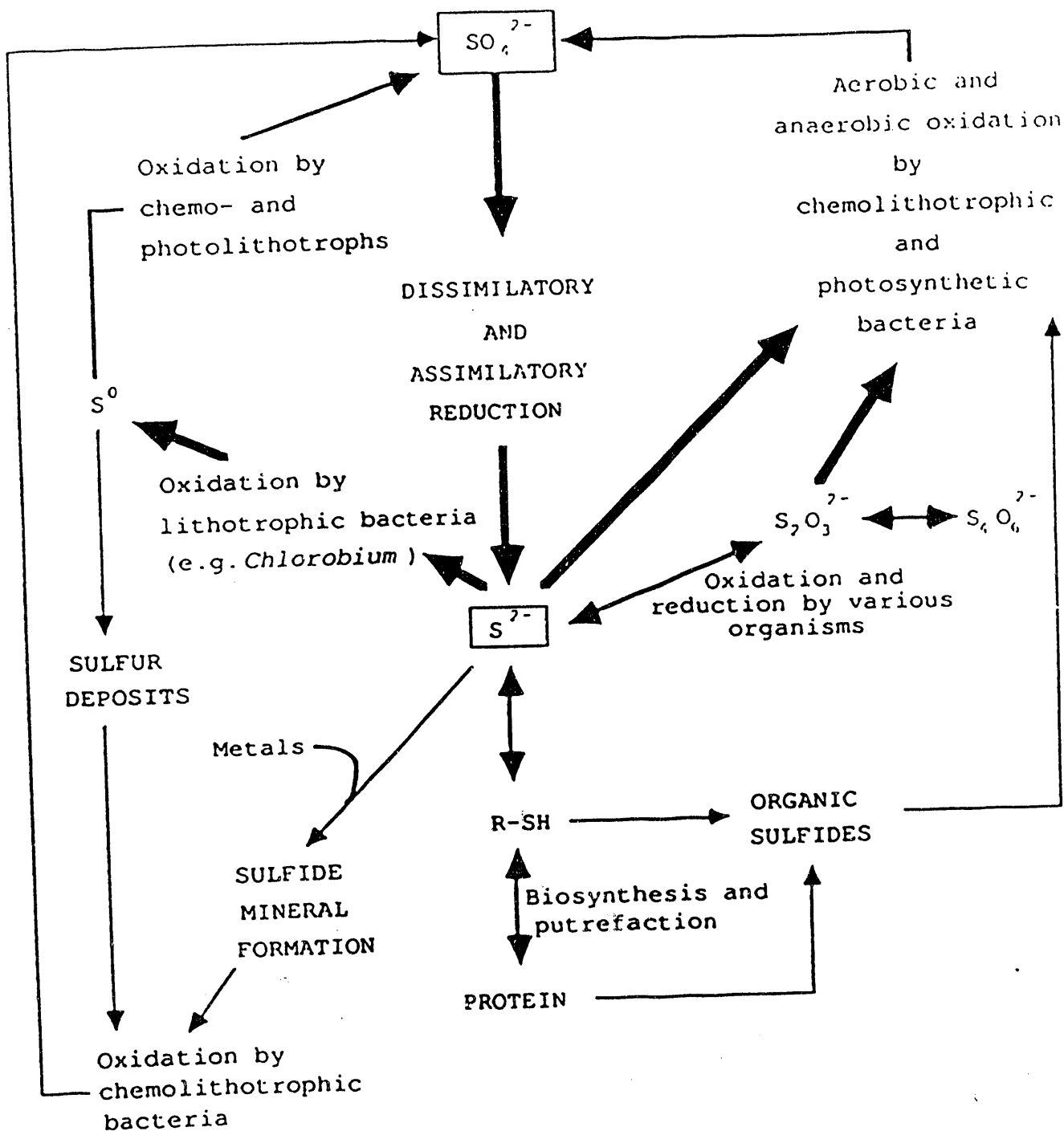


Figure 1. The essential features of the global biological Sulfur Cycle.

2.2 Microbial Reduction of SO₂

2.2.1 Microbial Removal of SO₂ From a Gas - Work Previous to DOE Contract

As noted previously, in 1987/88, a microbial process was developed on the bench scale to remove SO₂ from a gas stream with reduction to H₂S or net oxidation to sulfate. Reduction of SO₂ to H₂S was accomplished by contact of the gas with a co-culture of the SRB *D. desulfuricans* and mixed non-SRB, fermentative heterotrophs. Working cultures of *D. desulfuricans* were developed as follows. *D. desulfuricans* was grown septically in a complex glucose medium in a 2-L bench scale fermenter at pH 7.0 and 30 C. Sulfate was the terminal electron acceptor. The culture was purged with about 300 mL/min of nitrogen to strip H₂S. Septic operation resulted in the development of a large population of non-*Desulfovibrio*, heterotrophic bacteria. After 24 hr, cells were harvested by centrifugation, the supernatant discarded and cells resuspended in a glucose minimal medium, again with sulfate as the terminal electron acceptor. The resuspended cells were transferred back to the fermenter and grown in this medium for another 24 hr to acclimate cells to the minimal medium prior to the introduction of SO₂. At the end of this incubation cells were once again harvested by the method described above, then resuspended in the same minimal medium without sulfate and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time a gas mixture containing 0.99 mole % SO₂, 5% CO₂ and balance nitrogen was introduced at 34 mL/min corresponding to a molar SO₂ feed rate of 0.78 mmoles/hr. The culture also continued to receive a nitrogen purge of about 300 mL/min. Ten g/L glucose was added every 24 hr. The outlet gas from the fermenter

was transferred to a culture of *T. denitrificans* which served to trap H_2S .

As noted in Section 2.1, sulfate-reducing bacteria do not use simple sugars (such as glucose) as carbon and energy sources. However, in septic cultures which utilized glucose as the sole carbon source, vigorous growth of *D. desulfuricans* was observed. Working cultures containing greater than 5×10^8 cells/mL were approximately 50% *D. desulfuricans*. Apparently, the fermentative heterotrophs which developed in the cultures as a result of septic operation utilized glucose and produced fermentative end products which then served as carbon and energy sources for *D. desulfuricans*. It should also be noted that the *D. desulfuricans* working cultures used in these experiments did not require redox-poising agents. Apparently, the mixed non-SRB heterotrophs in the cultures scavenged oxidants and thus kept the redox potential sufficiently negative to favor the growth of *D. desulfuricans*.

In a typical experiment in which SO_2 served as the terminal electron acceptor for *D. desulfuricans* (Exp. #062), SO_2 was fed to the reactor at a molar flow rate of 0.78 mmol/hr. Under SO_2 -limiting conditions no sulfite, sulfide or elemental sulfur could be detected in the culture medium. Complete removal of SO_2 from the feed gas was evidenced by the lack of sulfite accumulation in the *T. denitrificans* culture downstream. (Previous experiments demonstrated that sulfite immediately accumulates in the medium of a *T. denitrificans* culture when SO_2 is introduced.) Analysis of the off-gas from the *D. desulfuricans* reactor showed a steady concentration of H_2S of approximately 800 ppmv. The results of a sulfur balance

performed on the *D. desulfuricans* reactor in three experiments of this type are given in Table 1. For the specific experiment under discussion here (Exp. #062), 69.0 mmoles of SO₂ were fed to the reactor and 63.7 mmoles of H₂S were detected in the off-gas. In these three experiments the ratio of H₂S produced to SO₂ consumed averaged 0.95. The detection limit for the gas chromatograph used to analyze the offgas for H₂S was 50 ppmv (thermal conductivity detector). Therefore, the H₂S analyses used in these calculations may have slightly underestimated the actual H₂S concentration. The true H₂S/SO₂ ratio is, therefore, very likely 1.0. In other words, all SO₂ was converted to H₂S.

As SO₂ was removed from the feed gas, the total biomass protein concentration and the *D. desulfuricans* and total non-SRB heterotroph counts increased. In Exp. #062, the aforementioned reduction of 69.0 mmoles of SO₂ was accompanied by the production of 0.79 g of biomass protein. The average ratio of biomass protein produced to SO₂ reduced was 11.4 g/mole. Assuming *D. desulfuricans* and the non-SRB heterotrophs to be approximately 50% protein by dry weight and noting that working cultures were approximately 50% *D. desulfuricans*, this yield is seen to be comparable to that reported by Hill et al (10) for growth of *Desulfovibrio* on lactate and sulfite.

As noted above, H₂S produced in the *D. desulfuricans* reactor was stripped with nitrogen and fed to a second stage containing a mixed culture of *Thiobacillus denitrificans* and various heterotrophs. In this stage H₂S was completely oxidized to sulfate anaerobically with nitrate as terminal electron acceptor. With gas-liquid contact times of 1-2 seconds the H₂S concentration in the feed gas (about 800 ppmv)

TABLE 1. Sulfur Balances on *D. desulfuricans* Reactors.

	Exp. # 062	Exp. # 090	Exp. # 091
mmoles SO ₂ consumed	69.0	90.9	61.6
mmoles H ₂ S produced	63.7	86.2	60.4
H ₂ S/SO ₂ (mole/mole)	0.92	0.95	0.98

was reduced to less than 1 ppmv. The oxidation of H_2S by *T. denitrificans* has been described in detail by Sublette and Sylvester elsewhere (4-7).

In each experiment described above, the SO_2 feed rate was always less than the maximum specific activity of the biomass for SO_2 reduction (SO_2 -limiting conditions). A study was also conducted to investigate the effects of excess SO_2 feed and determine the maximum specific activity of the *D. desulfuricans* biomass for SO_2 reduction. Specifically, the SO_2 feed rate to working cultures developed as described above was increased in a stepwise manner. The H_2S concentration in the off-gas and the sulfite concentration in the culture medium were monitored accordingly. The stepwise increase in the SO_2 feed rate was continued until sulfite began to accumulate in the culture medium and further increases in the SO_2 feed rate resulted in a disproportionate increase in the H_2S concentration in the off gas. This was considered to be an upset condition. The molar SO_2 feed rate at this point was considered the maximum rate of SO_2 reduction by the SRB cells in the culture. The *D. desulfuricans* count was then determined and the maximum specific activity calculated as the ratio of the maximum SO_2 feed rate to the total SRB cells in the culture. The maximum specific activity of *D. desulfuricans* for SO_2 reduction was estimated to be 1.69 ± 0.04 mmoles SO_2 /hr- 10^{11} cells.

2.2.2 Microbial Removal of SO_2 From a Gas - Work Performed Under DOE Contract No. DE-FG22-88PC88945

2.2.2.1 Growth of *D. desulfuricans* and Mixed Heterotrophs on Molasses With Reduction of SO_2 to H_2S

In the United States the cost of starch hydrolysate, sucrose and cane molasses are comparable when compared on a \$/ton of carbohydrate

basis (11). Starch hydrolysate and sucrose in bulk represent relatively pure sources of easily fermentable sugars. On the other hand the composition of cane or beet molasses depends on several factors including location of cultivation, soil type, climate, and processing. In addition to glucose, fructose and sucrose, molasses also contain a high concentration of organic non-sugars. These factors combine to make molasses an undesirable feed stock for fermentations in this country. However, in Europe the cost of starch hydrolysate and sucrose are much higher than that of molasses resulting in much greater use of molasses as a feed stock (11). For this reason the reduction of SO_2 to H_2S by cultures of *D. desulfuricans* and mixed heterotrophs in which molasses was used as the ultimate source of carbon and energy was investigated.

The methodology of these experiments was much the same as that reported in Section 2.2.1 except that molasses (30 g/L) was substituted for glucose. It was observed that working cultures of *D. desulfuricans* could be prepared with molasses in a manner identical to that used with glucose. Vigorous growth of *D. desulfuricans* was observed in either complex or minimal medium with molasses as the source of carbohydrate. Cultures (1.5 L) were maintained for up to two weeks batch-wise with daily addition of 30 g/L molasses at an SO_2 feed rate of 0.78 $\mu\text{moles/hr}$. Complete reduction of SO_2 to H_2S was indicated. Interestingly, however, greater than stoichiometric production of H_2S was observed. The production of H_2S surged after each addition of molasses and did not return to normal (stoichiometric) for 20-24 hr. This has been attributed to the presence of sulfate-S in the molasses which provided a source of

terminal electron acceptor in addition to the SO₂ feed. Although difficult to analyze turbidometrically because of their dark color, aqueous solutions of the molasses feedstock (Plantation brand blackstrap molasses) were found to contain significant amounts of material precipitated by BaCl₂.

A number of experiments were conducted in which after 2-3 days of operation on SO₂, molasses addition was terminated and the behavior of the reactor monitored. One purpose of these experiments was to relate the utilization of the molasses sugars to time course of SO₂ reduction. The second purpose was to estimate the total SO₂ reduced per unit weight of sugar. The total sugars were essentially depleted 10 hr after the last molasses addition. However, the reactor continued to reduce SO₂ to H₂S with no sulfite accumulation for an additional 93 hr after the terminal addition of molasses. The probable explanation is that the sugars were metabolized by the mixed non-SRB heterotrophs much faster than the *D. desulfuricans* could utilize the end products of the fermentation of those sugars. Therefore, the *D. desulfuricans* continued to have these fermentative end products available as carbon and energy sources long after the sugars disappeared from the medium. The approximate amount of SO₂ which can be reduced per unit weight of sugar in molasses cultures was estimated from the amount of SO₂ reduced from the time of terminal molasses addition until sulfite began to accumulate in the medium. This was found to be approximately 0.22 g SO₂/g of sugar.

2.2.2.2 Material Balances for SO₂ Reduction in Glucose-Fed *D. desulfuricans* Reactors

In order to evaluate the microbial reduction of SO₂ to H₂S from both a technical and economics point of view, it was necessary to understand the flow of carbon from glucose (or other carbohydrate) to the fermentative non-SRB heterotrophs in the process culture, to the sulfate-reducing bacterium (*D. desulfuricans*) and finally to the end products of the process.

Working cultures of *D. desulfuricans* were prepared on glucose as described in Section 2.2.1. During growth on SO₂ the culture medium was sampled periodically and analyzed by gas chromatography. The following metabolites of glucose were identified: ethanol, lactic acid, acetate, propionate, butyrate and isobutyrate. Ethanol and lactic acid are common end products of the anaerobic fermentation of glucose. Lactic acid and ethanol are also recognized as carbon and energy sources for *D. desulfuricans*. Acetate, propionate, isobutyrate and butyrate have also been observed as end products of the oxidation of lactic acid and ethanol by *D. desulfuricans*. (Carbon dioxide is also formed from lactate.)

A marked increase in ethanol, lactate, acetate and butyrate concentrations followed fed-batch glucose additions. In some cases, glucose addition was terminated and the behavior of the reactor monitored until an upset condition was produced. In these experiments the lactic acid concentration fell essentially to zero within 24 hr of the last glucose addition. The ethanol concentration declined more gradually from 2-3 g/L to zero in about 96-120 hr. When ethanol was depleted, sulfite began to accumulate in the reactor medium and the

H₂S concentration in the off-gas declined indicating less than stoichiometric conversion of SO₂ to H₂S. Acetate accumulated while ethanol was depleted.

Material balances for two such experiments are given in Table 2. In summary, it appears that in these cultures, ethanol and to a lesser extent, lactic acid, were produced from the fermentation of glucose by the non-SRB heterotrophs in the cultures. Ethanol and lactic acid were then used as carbon and energy sources by *D. desulfuricans* with oxidation to acetate which accumulated in the medium. Acetate may also have been produced by glucose fermentation by the non-SRB heterotrophs. The exact role of propionate, butyrate and isobutyrate are uncertain. As seen in Table 2, the observed SO₂/glucose ratio was 0.5 mole/mole. If glucose were oxidized completely to CO₂ and H₂O this ratio would theoretically be 4.0 (with no allowances made for reducing equivalents for biosynthesis). Therefore greater SO₂ reduction per mole of carbohydrate could be obtained by incorporating SRB which can utilize acetate as a carbon and energy source with oxidation to CO₂.

2.2.2.3 Effect of O₂ on SO₂ Reduction by *D. desulfuricans* in Mixed Culture

Excess air in the combustion process results in oxygen in the flue gas. Therefore, any microbial process in which flue gases may be directly contacted with the culture must be resistant to oxygen. Given the strict requirements of SRB for a reducing environment the effects of O₂ on SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans* were investigated.

The effect of oxygen on the reduction of SO₂ by *D. desulfuricans* in mixed culture was investigated utilizing glucose-fed cultures

TABLE 2. Material Balances for SO₂ Reduction in Glucose Fed *D. desulfuricans* Reactors

	<u>Exp A</u>	<u>Exp B</u>
Glucose utilized (g)	45.0	30.0
SO ₂ reduced (g)	7.9	5.6
Acetate produced (g)	15.7	11.1
Propionate produced (g)	3.6	3.3
Butyrate produced (g)	1.7	0.5
Isobutyrate produced (g)	0.12	0.08
SO ₂ /Glucose (g/g)	0.18	0.19
SO ₂ /Glucose (mole/mole)	0.49	0.52
Acetate/Glucose (g/g)	0.35	0.37
Acetate/Glucose (mole/mole)	1.04	1.06

developed as described in Section 2.2.1. Air was introduced to cultures operating with an SO_2 feed and the redox-potential and sulfite concentration in the medium and the H_2S concentration in the outlet gas monitored. In one experiment, air was introduced stepwise from an inlet concentration of 0.9% to 6.3% O_2 over a period of 24 hr. The redox-potential increased accordingly, as expected. Sulfite began to accumulate in the medium at an inlet concentration of 4.5% O_2 .

In a similar experiment, air was introduced at a sufficient rate to give an inlet O_2 concentration of 1.7% and held at this level for 5 days. During this time, the redox-potential was never higher than -130 mV, stoichiometric conversion of SO_2 to H_2S was observed and no sulfite accumulated in the medium.

If oxygen becomes limiting in the combustion process, carbon monoxide will be formed. As a footnote it was also of interest to investigate the possible effects of a transient exposure to CO on SO_2 reduction by *D. desulfuricans*. It was observed that a CO partial pressure of 25 mm Hg resulted in sulfite accumulation and less than stoichiometric production of H_2S indicating CO inhibition. However, a partial pressure of 12 mm Hg could be tolerated at least 8-10 hr.

2.2.2.4 Identification of Non-SRB Heterotrophs in *D. desulfuricans* Cultures

As noted previously, the non-SRB heterotrophs responsible for carbohydrate fermentation and the production of carbon and energy sources suitable for the sulfate reducing bacteria arise in working cultures simply from septic operation of the reactor. Obviously, in order to avoid variability it will eventually be necessary to use a standard inoculum for these cultures. Therefore, we identified

several non-SRB heterotrophs which developed in these reactors. Those bacterial identified thus far are listed in Table 3. The relative importance of each of these species will be determined from its metabolic capabilities compared to the nature of the carbon and energy sources found in *D. desulfuricans* reactors as they are ultimately defined.

2.2.2.5 Effect of NO on SO₂ Reduction by *D. desulfuricans* Cultures

As noted in Section 1.3 it is conceivable that both SO₂ and NO_x can be removed from a gas stream by contact with *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* cultures in series or co-cultures containing both organisms and mixed fermentative heterotrophs. Sulfite is inhibitory to *T. denitrificans*; therefore, with reactors-in-series the first stage would be a *Desulfovibrio* reactor operated under SO₂-limiting conditions. For this option to be viable the population in the first stage would need to be tolerant of NO_x. Therefore in preparation for a demonstration of simultaneous SO₂/NO_x removal from a gas described in a later section, the effect of NO on SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans* was investigated.

The effect of NO on SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans* was investigated by utilizing glucose-fed cultures developed as described in Section 2.2.1. In a typical experiment SO₂ was fed to the *D. desulfuricans* reactor at a molar feed rate of 0.78 mmoles/hr together with N₂ purge. The reactor was maintained at these conditions for 48 hr. During this time sulfite was undetectable in the liquid phase and stoichiometric production of H₂S in the outlet gas was observed. NO (0.49% NO, balance N₂) was then introduced.

TABLE 3. Non-SRB Heterotrophs Found in *D. desulfuricans* Reactors Operating With a SO₂ Feed and Their End Products of the Fermentation of Glucose

<u>Organism</u>	<u>End Products</u>
<i>Enterococcus faecium</i>	lactate, ethanol, acetate
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	lactate, acetate, formate
<i>Citrobacter freundii</i>	lactate, acetate, formate
<i>Citrobacter diversus</i>	lactate, acetate, formate
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	2,3-butanediol, lactate, acetate, ethanol, formate
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae ozaenae</i>	2,3-butanediol, lactate, acetate, ethanol, formate
<i>Enterobacter agglomerana</i>	2,3-butanediol, lactate, acetate, ethanol, formate
<i>Clostridium bifermentans</i>	isobutyrate, isovalerate, isocaproate, butyrate, ethanol, propanol, isobutanol
<i>Salmonella arizonae</i>	lactate, acetate, formate
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	2,3-butanediol, lactate, acetate, ethanol, formate

The results of these experiments are summarized in Table 4. At NO concentrations in the feed gas of 1500 ppmv, sulfite began to accumulate in the culture medium and less than stoichiometric conversion of SO₂ to H₂S was observed indicating inhibition of SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans*. During the entire course of these experiments the redox-potential of the culture medium remained essentially constant at -150 mV. This observation suggests a specific toxic effect of NO rather than inhibition due to loss of a reducing environment.

2.3 Reduction of NO to N₂ by *Thiobacillus denitrificans* - Work Performed Under DOE Contract No. DE-FG22-88PC88945

2.3.1 Removal of NO From a Gas

As noted above, *T. denitrificans* is a facultative anaerobe which can utilize nitrate as an oxidant in the absence of oxygen with reduction to elemental nitrogen. Nitric oxide has been shown to be an intermediate in the reduction of nitrate to elemental nitrogen in *T. denitrificans*. Ishaque and Aleem (12) and Baldensperger and Garcia (13) have demonstrated that whole cells of *T. denitrificans* will catalyze the reduction of nitric oxide to elemental nitrogen with a concomitant oxidation of thiosulfate (electron donor). However, these experiments utilized "resting cells"; that is, the cells were not actively growing and reproducing. Prior to this work it was unknown whether nitric oxide would support the anaerobic growth of *T. denitrificans*.

Working cultures of *T. denitrificans* were prepared as follows. *T. denitrificans* was grown in thiosulfate medium (4) under anaerobic conditions at 30 C and pH 7.0. This medium contained thiosulfate as

TABLE 4. Effect of NO on SO₂ Reduction by *D. desulfuricans*

NO Feedrate ¹ (ml/min)	Total Gas Feed ² (ml/min)	[NO] (ppmv)	Stoichiometric ³ [H ₂ S], ppmv	Exp. 1 [H ₂ S], ppmv	Exp. 2 [H ₂ S], ppmv
0	388	0	800		
36	424	420	732	700	
71	460	760	675	650	700
107	495	1060	626	600	
143	531	1320	584		600
179	567	1550	547	400 ⁴	
214	602	1740	515		400 ⁴

¹ 0.49% NO in N₂; 24 hr exposure at each feedrate

² Total gas feed consisted of SO₂ feed gas, N₂ purge and NO feed gas

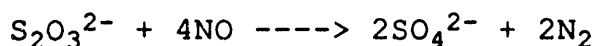
³ The stoichiometric concentration of H₂S declines as the gas is diluted by NO feed gas

⁴ Sulfite accumulation in the medium

an energy source, nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor, ammonium ion as a source of reduced nitrogen, a phosphate buffer and trace minerals. Carbon dioxide (5% CO₂, balance N₂) was bubbled through the reactor as a carbon source. When the culture reached an OD₄₆₀ of approximately 0.8 (10⁸-10⁹ cells/mL), cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed and resuspended in the fresh thiosulfate medium without nitrate. At this time a gas feed of 0.49% NO, 5% CO₂, balance N₂ was initiated at approximately 8 L/hr (B. Braun Biostat M, 1.5 L culture, agitation rate 500-900 rpm). During batch fermentations of up to 6 days, NO was continually removed from the feed gas to produce an outlet concentration of 200-300 ppmv (94-96% removal).

As NO was removed from the feed gas the concentration of thiosulfate and ammonium ion declined in the culture medium with a corresponding increase in the optical density and the biomass protein and sulfate concentrations. Little or no elemental sulfur was observed to accumulate in the medium. Growth of *T. denitrificans* on thiosulfate as energy source and NO as terminal electron acceptor was clearly indicated. In a typical experiment the oxidation of 45.8 mmoles of thiosulfate was accompanied by the reduction of 190.1 mmoles of NO, the utilization of 47 mmoles of NH₄⁺, the production of 188 mg of biomass protein and the accumulation of 90 mmoles of sulfate. The ratio of sulfate produced to thiosulfate consumed was 1.97.

The purely chemical reduction of NO by S₂O₃²⁻ would be given by the equation below.



Therefore, the NO/S₂O₃²⁻ ratio for pure chemical reaction would be 4.0. However, if NO was used to support growth of *T. denitrificans* as

a terminal electron acceptor, a $\text{NO}/\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ ratio of less than 4.0 was expected since some of the electrons derived from the oxidation of $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ would be used as reducing equivalents for biosynthesis (growth). The stoichiometry of NO reduction by *T. denitrificans* with thiosulfate as energy source from four duplicate experiments is given in Table 5. An average $\text{NO}/\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ ratio of 4.1 was obtained. The discrepancy between this analysis and the data presented in Table 5 has been attributed to errors in gas analysis.

In control experiments without biomass, NO broke through almost immediately at concentrations comparable to that of the feed gas. No thiosulfate oxidation was observed.

2.3.2 Effect of Nitrate on NO Reduction by *T. denitrificans*

In a series reactor scheme for the simultaneous removal of SO_2 and NO_x from a gas as described in previous sections, the second stage containing the *T. denitrificans* culture would need to be operated on a sulfide-limiting basis. Otherwise sulfide would accumulate to toxic levels in the liquid phase (4). The same is basically true for a single stage co-culture of *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans*; that is, the reactor must be sulfide-limiting with respect to *T. denitrificans*. In either case, the terminal electron acceptor for *T. denitrificans* (NO , NO_2 , NO_3^-) must be in stoichiometric excess. In most cases this would require supplementing the culture with nitrate. With NO_x from the gas competing with the intermediates of nitrate reduction for access to the appropriate enzymes in the biomass, complete removal of NO_x may not be possible. Accordingly the effects of nitrate on NO reduction by *T. denitrificans* was investigated.

In these experiments *T. denitrificans* working cultures were

TABL 5. Stoichiometry of NO Reduction by *T. denitrificans*
With Thiosulfate as Electron Donor

Exp. #	NO/S ₂ O ₃ ²⁻
5NA	3.6
6NA	4.2
7A	4.4
9A	4.2
Average	4.1

prepared as described in the previous section. A NO feed was initiated at molar flow rate of 1.3 mmol/hr at a concentration of 4900 ppmv following the medium changeover and maintained at these conditions for 48 hr. During this time, about 90% removal of NO was observed with concomitant decrease in the concentration of thiosulfate and production of sulfate.

After 48 hr of operation, potassium nitrate (5 g/L) was added to the culture. A few minutes after the addition of nitrate the NO concentration in the outlet gas began to rise. At an elapsed time of 28 hr after the addition of nitrate the NO removal was down to 65% and remained at this level for the duration of the experiment (76 hr). With the addition of nitrate the rates of thiosulfate utilization and the sulfate accumulation increased significantly. Similarly, the optical density of the culture also increased indicating an increase in the rate of growth of *T. denitrificans*.

These observations support the hypothesis that nitrate in the culture medium will suppress the utilization of NO(g) as a terminal electron acceptor by *T. denitrificans*.

2.4 Simultaneous Removal of SO₂ and NO From a Gas - Work Performed Under DOE Contract No. DE-FG22-88PC88945

2.4.1 SO₂/NO Removal by *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* Reactors-in-Series

As noted previously there are various ways in which a microbial process could potentially impact on the overall problem of flue gas desulfurization and NO_x removal. One of the more attractive options is simultaneous removal of SO₂ and NO_x directly from flue gas. This process could utilize *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* reactors-in-series or mixed cultures in a single stage.

The simultaneous removal of SO_2 and NO by reactors-in-series was investigated as follows. *D. desulfuricans* cultures were developed as described in Section 2.2.1. After the cells were harvested and resuspended in minimal glucose medium with SO_2 feed, the reactor was operated for an additional 24 hr before connecting the outlet gas to the *T. denitrificans* reactor described below. The purpose of this incubation period was to ensure that all SO_2 in the feed gas was being reduced to H_2S , and to acclimate the cells to utilizing SO_2 as terminal electron acceptor. Glucose (10 g/L) was added daily.

T. denitrificans was grown on thiosulfate in the B. Braun Biostat M fermenter as described in Section 2.3.1. After the cells were resuspended in thiosulfate maintenance medium without thiosulfate, a gas mixture of 1% H_2S , 5% CO_2 and balance nitrogen (35-70 mL/min) was supplied to the fermenter under sulfide-limiting conditions. After 24 hr of operation, the H_2S feed was removed and the off gas of *D. desulfuricans* reactor was connected to the fermenter in its place. The reactors were then operated in series for 24-48 hr. During this time stoichiometric production of H_2S was observed from the *D. desulfuricans* reactor and no sulfite accumulated in the medium. Sulfate accumulated in the medium of *T. denitrificans* reactor and only trace amounts of H_2S were detected in the off-gas of the second stage.

When stable operation in series was demonstrated with respect to SO_2 reduction in the *D. desulfuricans* reactor and H_2S oxidation in the *T. denitrificans* reactor, NO (0.49%, 5% CO_2 , balance N_2) was added to the feed gas of the first stage (*D. desulfuricans* reactor). The initial NO concentration in the feed gas was 760 ppmv at a molar feed rate of 0.86 mmol/hr. (The SO_2 feed rate remained constant at 0.78

mmoles/hr.) After 24 hr the NO feed rate was increased to 1.3 mmoles/hr (1060 ppmv) and finally after another 24 hr the feed rate was increased to 1.72 mmoles/hr (1320 ppmv) and maintained at this level throughout the remainder of the experiment.

Sulfite began to accumulate in *D. desulfuricans* reactor at NO concentration of 1060 ppmv about 48 hr after the initiation of NO feed. As the sulfite concentration became inhibitory less than stoichiometric production of H₂S was observed in the outlet of the reactor. Dasu and Sublette (14) had previously operated *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* reactors-in-series with SO₂ feed for over 100 hr without problems. Therefore, the upset condition in the *D. desulfuricans* reactor was apparently due to NO inhibition of SO₂ reduction. As SO₂ was removed from the feed gas of *D. desulfuricans* reactor sulfate accumulated in the *T. denitrificans* reactor. The total biomass protein and the optical density of each culture also increased with time. Growth of *T. denitrificans* was also indicated by the consumption of nitrate and ammonium ion.

Analysis of the off-gas from each reactor for NO by gas chromatography revealed that about 26% of the NO in the feed to the first stage (*D. desulfuricans* reactor) was removed by contact with that culture. Presumably facultatively anaerobic non-SRB heterotrophs in that culture were able to use NO as a terminal electron acceptor. This observation suggests that reduction of NO may be a common activity in denitrifying bacteria. More interesting, only 20-25% of the remaining NO was removed by the second stage (*T. denitrificans* reactor). This was a much lower removal efficiency than observed in *T. denitrificans* reactor when NO was the only terminal electron

acceptor. These observations confirm again the hypothesis that nitrate in the culture medium suppresses the utilization of NO as a terminal electron acceptor (see Section 2.3.2).

This experiment was repeated with similar results.

2.4.2 SO₂/NO Removal by *D. desulfuricans*, *T. denitrificans* and Mixed Fermentative Heterotrophs in Co-Culture

In this series of experiments *D. desulfuricans* and *T. denitrificans* working cultures were developed on SO₂ and H₂S feeds as described in the previous section. After *D. desulfuricans* cells were resuspended in the minimal glucose medium with SO₂ feed, the 2-L culture was allowed to operate for an additional 24 hr while monitoring H₂S production to ensure that the culture was "healthy". The culture was then supplemented with components of thiosulfate maintenance medium which were not present in the minimal glucose medium (primarily sources of Mg²⁺, Fe³⁺, Ca²⁺, Mn²⁺ and KNO₃ but no thiosulfate). A slurry (50 mL) of *T. denitrificans* cells which were previously grown to a cell density of 10⁹ cells/mL in thiosulfate medium (1.5 L) was then added. Within one hour of the addition of *T. denitrificans* cells the H₂S concentration in the outlet gas of the reactor was reduced from 800 ppmv to trace levels. Therefore, the H₂S produced from SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans* was immediately oxidized by *T. denitrificans* to sulfate which was observed to accumulate in the culture medium. No sulfide, sulfite and elemental sulfur were detected during this time.

After 24 hr operation in this mode, a NO(g) feed (0.49% NO, 5% CO₂, balance N₂) was introduced along with the SO₂ feed and N₂ purge at a concentration of 760-910 ppmv. On the average, sulfite began to

accumulate in the culture medium within 12 hr of the introduction of NO. Once again NO inhibition of SO₂ reduction by *D. desulfuricans* was indicated.

Another interesting observation in these experiments was the tremendous amount of nitrate utilized. The ratio of nitrate consumed to H₂S oxidized in these cultures was approximately 4. This is more than twice that observed in anaerobic cultures of *T. denitrificans* growing on H₂S (4). In the *T. denitrificans* reactor heterotrophs grow only at the expense of waste products of *T. denitrificans* or products of cell lysis. Therefore, heterotroph growth rates and nitrate utilization rates by heterotrophs are low. This has been experimentally confirmed repeatedly in our laboratory. In the single-stage, mixed culture used here to simultaneously remove SO₂ and NO, anaerobic growth of mixed heterotrophs on carbohydrates was used to provide an inexpensive source of carbon and electron donors for the *Desulfovibrio*. Certain of the heterotrophs in this population probably were able to utilize nitrate as an electron acceptor. Therefore, in co-culture nitrate was consumed in the oxidation of H₂S by *T. denitrificans* and the oxidation of glucose by some fraction of the non-SRB heterotrophs in the culture.

2.5 Conclusions

2.5.1 Simultaneous SO₂/NO_x Removal From Flue Gas

Based on the work described in the previous sections simultaneous SO₂/NO_x removal from flue gas based on direct contact of the gas with SRB and *T. denitrificans* co-cultures or cultures-in-series has been eliminated as a viable process concept at this time. The technical reasons are as follows:

- 1) *NO inhibition of SO₂ reduction by D. desulfuricans* - Although the NO concentrations used in the experiments described above are somewhat higher than that found in a typical flue gas, it is quite possible that at lower NO concentrations (or partial pressures) the inhibiting effects will simply take longer to become apparent. One interpretation of these experiments is that NO transferred into the liquid phase inhibited (or killed) *D. desulfuricans* cells one by one until there was insufficient "active sites" available to reduce SO₂ as fast as it was sparged into the culture. At this point sulfite began to accumulate in the liquid phase, further inhibiting the biomass. At best NO inhibition imparts a borderline stability on microbial SO₂ reduction.
- 2) *Nitrate suppression of NO removal* - As noted previously, the cultivation of *T. denitrificans* in a microbial flue gas treatment system (either one or two stages) would require sulfide-limiting conditions. Therefore, the electron acceptor must be in excess, requiring nitrate in the *T. denitrificans* process culture. As shown in experiments described above, nitrate significantly suppresses the removal of NO from a feed gas making simultaneous SO₂/NO_x removal impractical by microbial means.
- 3) *O₂ inhibition of SO₂ and NO reduction* - It has been demonstrated that *D. desulfuricans* working cultures are tolerant of up to 1.7% O₂ in the feed gas. Apparently at low O₂ feed rates facultatively anaerobic non-SRB heterotrophs in the culture scavenge O₂ keeping the redox-potential sufficiently low to favor growth of *D. desulfuricans* (and SO₂ reduction). However, further

increases in the O_2 partial pressure in the feed gas resulted in O_2 inhibition of SO_2 reduction. These inhibiting levels of O_2 are comparable to those concentrations found in flue gases (3). Therefore, in any process in which raw flue gas contacts a *D. desulfuricans* culture marginal stability at best can be expected.

Oxygen in the feed gas will also produce a suppression in NO removal similar to the effect of nitrate. It has been observed in our laboratories that O_2 will completely inhibit nitrate reduction by *T. denitrificans*. Under aerobic conditions O_2 is the preferred terminal electron acceptor. It can be anticipated that O_2 will also be "preferred" over NO as a terminal electron acceptor resulting in reduced NO removal in the presence of O_2 .

One last comment on process economics is appropriate. The microbial processes for simultaneous SO_2/NO_x removal described in the previous sections effect the net oxidation of SO_2 to sulfate. The recovery of this sulfate salt and its disposal or utilization as a by-product has not been specifically addressed here. Various options exist. As with processes which use throwaway adsorbents, disposal of the sulfate can have a negative impact on process economics. Unless SO_2 and NO_x removal from flue gas can be combined, it would be unlikely that a microbial process could offer a major advancement in the state of the art over the limestone scrubbing process.

2.5.2 By-Product Recovery

The technical problems which confront the simultaneous removal of SO_2 and NO_x from a flue gas by microbial means are for the most part eliminated if the two reactions of interest, SO_2 reduction to H_2S and

NO_x reduction to N₂, are decoupled. In the absence of NO_x (and O₂) SO₂ reduction by SRB working cultures proceeds rapidly and efficiently. If a noninhibitory energy source can be used (such as thiosulfate), a *T. denitrificans* culture can be operated on a terminal electron acceptor limiting basis. If that electron acceptor is NO(g), high removal efficiencies from a gas can be expected. Therefore, by-product recovery/disposal from regenerable processes for flue gas desulfurization and NO_x removal remains a viable process option. It is the further technical development of SO₂ and NO_x reduction as independent processes that constitutes the current project.

3. PROJECT OBJECTIVES

3.1 Microbial Reduction of SO₂

As noted in Section 2.5.2, by-product recovery from regenerable scrubbing processes has been identified as the most viable means by which a microbial process can potentially impact on the overall problem of flue gas desulfurization and NO_x removal. Accordingly, at the conclusion of the previous DOE contract, an economic evaluation of the microbial reduction of SO₂ was performed comparing the microbial process to a conventional catalytic SO₂ hydrogenation (with H₂ generation from methane). The process design basis with respect to feed gas composition and source is given by Table 6. The design parameters for the bioreactors are given by Table 7. A comparative cost summary is given in Table 8. As seen in Table 8, microbial SO₂ reduction and conventional SO₂ hydrogenation were estimated to have similar costs in terms of capital investment. However, annual operating costs for the microbial process were much higher than the conventional process, due primarily to the cost of raw materials. Of

the $\$23.6 \times 10^6/\text{yr}$ required for raw materials in the microbial process, $\$22.9 \times 10^6/\text{yr}$ was the cost of DE95 Corn Hydrolysate, the source of glucose. As noted in Table 7 a theoretical "yield" of 4 moles SO_2 reduced per mole of glucose oxidized was assumed. Therefore, under the best possible conditions with respect to the stoichiometry, microbial reduction of SO_2 with glucose as the electron donor is prohibitively expensive. If microbial reduction of SO_2 is to be economically viable, another less expensive electron donor must be found. The evaluation of alternative electron donors, namely municipal sewage sludges and elemental hydrogen, forms the basis of part of the current project.

3.1.1 Sewage Sludge as a Carbon and Energy Source in SO_2 -Reducing Cultures

Excess sludges are produced in sewage-treatment processes at several stages including waste particulates removed in screening and primary sedimentation units and sludge produced in the secondary biological oxidation process. Sewage typically contains about 300 mg/L of suspended solids, much of which is cellulose. The largest and most dense particulates are removed in a primary settling basin simply by gravity settling. The soluble and colloidal components of the sewage (primarily fatty acids, carbohydrates and proteins, in that order) are sent to an aerobic biological reactor where they are oxidized to CO_2 and H_2O by a heterogeneous population of flocculated microorganisms. The product of this secondary treatment is biomass or activated sludge. This sludge (see Table 9) together with that obtained from the primary sedimentation units represents a significant disposal problem.

TABLE 6. Process Design Bases for SO₂ Reduction Processes

Design Basis Parameter

Flue Gas Source	Coal Fired Power Plant
Power Plant Capacity, MW _e	1,000
Ultimate Feed Coal Analysis C/H/O/N/S, wt%	78.7/5.5/10.9/1.4/3.5
Feed Gas Source for SO ₂ Reduction	Regenerator Off-Gas From Copper Oxide Process (90% SO ₂ /NO _x removal)
Reduction Feed Gas Rate, mol/hr	2,115
Reduction Feed Gas Composition SO ₂ /CO ₂ /H ₂ O/CH ₄ , mol %	33/22/44/1
Ultimate Product Gas for Comparison	Balanced H ₂ S/SO ₂ Feed Gas to Claus Unit
Ultimate Product Gas H ₂ S/SO ₂ mol Ratio	2.0

TABLE 7. Design Parameters for SO₂ Reduction Bio-Reactors
(1,000 MW_e Equivalent Capacity)

Reactor Type	Agitated stirred tank with internal cooling coil
Reactor Temperature, C	30
Reactor Pressure In/Out, psia	35/17
Agitation Intensity, HP/1000 gal	2
Total Cell Density, gm/liter	25
Desulfo/Heterotroph Cell wt. ratio	1/1
Total Cell Count, cells/liter	6 x 10 ¹¹
Individual Cell Weight, gm/cell	0.1375 x 10 ⁻¹¹
Desulfuricans Specific Activity, lbmol SO ₂ /hr-cell	3.72 x 10 ⁻¹⁷ <u>1.69 mmol SO₂</u> hr-10 ¹¹ cells
Total Reactant Feed Gas Rate, mol/hr	818.9
Total SO ₂ Feed Rate, mol/hr	465.2
SO ₂ Conversion to H ₂ S, % per pass	100-
Total Reactor(s) Cell Inventory, lb	84,720
Total Reactor(s) Oper. Volume, gal	407,000
Total Reactor(s) Des. Volume, gal	512,000 (w/20% free board)
Number of Reactors Required	8 (in parallel)
Des. Volume per Bio-Reactor, gal	64,000
Reactor Dimensions, ft dia. x ft (T/T)	14 x 55
Nutrient Source	DE95 corn hydrolysate 68% glucose)
Glucose Consumption, mol glucose/mol SO ₂ reduced	0.25

TABLE 8. Comparative Production Cost Summary for Bio-Chemical and Conventional SO₂ Reduction Processes

(1,000 MW_e Equivalent Capacity)

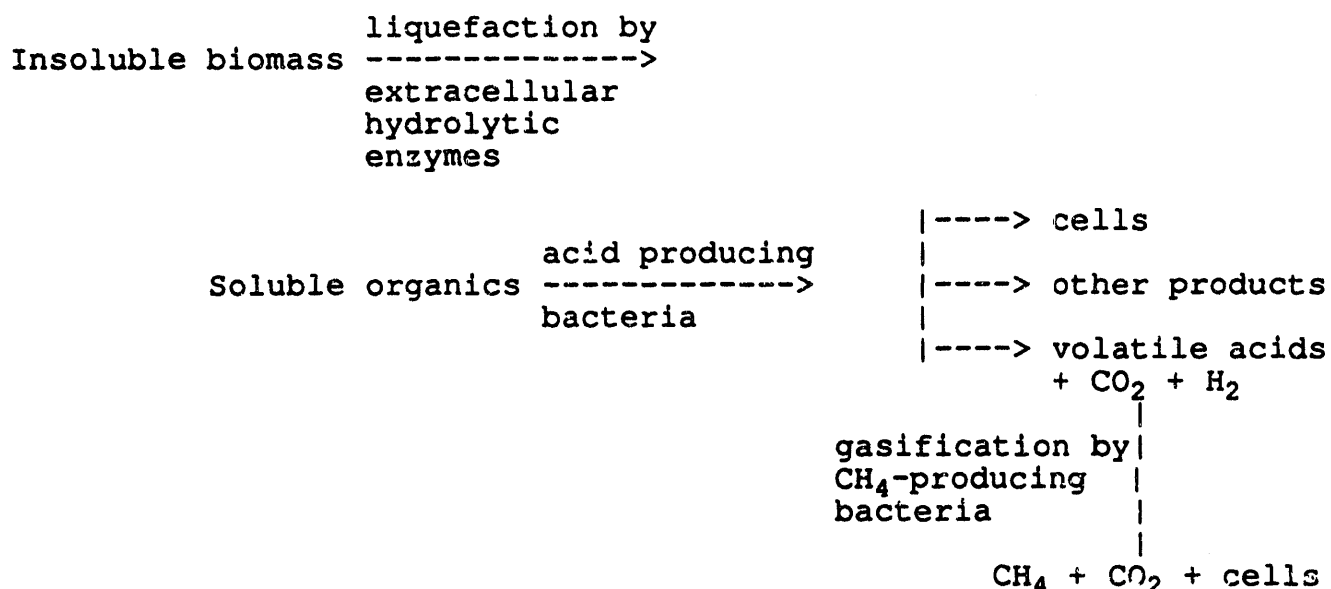
<u>Investment (3rd Qtr. 1989)</u>	<u>\$MM</u>	
	<u>Bio-Chemical SO₂ Reduction</u>	<u>Conventional SO₂ Reduction</u>
Inside Battery Limits (ISBL)	19.75	19.25
Outside Battery Limits (OSBL) @ 30% ISBL	<u>5.92</u>	<u>5.78</u>
Total Fixed (TFI)	25.67	25.03
<u>Production Cost</u>	<u>\$MM/yr</u>	
Raw Materials	23.60	3.55
Utilities	3.21	(0.91)
Labor, For, Supvn L,F,S	0.69	0.63
Maintenance, Material and Labor @ 4% ISBL	0.79	0.77
Direct Overhead @ 45% L,F,S	0.31	0.28
General Plant Overhead @ 65% Oper. Cost (L,F,S + M,M,L)	0.96	0.91
Insurance, Prop. Taxes @ 1.5% TFI	0.38	0.38
By-Product Credit/Debit	<u>0</u>	<u>excl*</u>
Cash Cost of Production	29.94	5.61

*Waste water treatment costs excluded

TABLE 9. Composition of Municipal Sewage Sludge¹⁹

<u>Fraction</u>	<u>Raw Sludge</u>
Ether-soluble	34.4
Water-soluble	9.5
Alcohol-soluble	2.5
Hemicellulose	3.2
Cellulose	3.8
Lignin	5.8
Protein	27.1
Ash	24.1

A common treatment of this excess sludge is anaerobic digestion. The overall mechanism of anaerobic digestion is as follows:



Anaerobic digestion reduces the organic solids content of the sludge by 50-60% and produces a product which is more easily dewatered than the original sludge.

We propose that with the introduction of the appropriate sulfate-reducing bacteria, an anaerobic reactor could be operated with a feed of municipal sewage sludge for the reduction of SO_2 to H_2S . Municipal sewage sludge is readily available in large quantities in urban areas, is relatively consistent in composition (Table 9) and is available at a negative or near zero cost. This type of reactor would operate in much the same way as a glucose-fed system. Mixed non-SRB heterotrophic bacteria would convert the sewage sludge by liquefaction and fermentation into end products suitable as carbon and energy sources for sulfate-reducing bacteria which would use SO_2 as a terminal electron acceptor with reduction to H_2S . However, instead of a single SRB being used, a consortium of SRB would be utilized to

effectively use a maximum amount of the fermentation end products while giving high SO_2 -reducing activity. Sulfate-reducing bacteria are readily available from commercial and private collections which utilize lactate, ethanol, CO_2/H_2 , as well as acetate and other short chain alcohols and carboxylic acids as carbon and energy sources (see Table 10 for a partial listing). Although acetate is a common end product of the oxidation of many of these species by certain SRB, other species are capable of complete oxidation of acetate to CO_2 . Therefore, complete mineralization by SRB of many, if not all, of the major end products of the fermentation of sewage sludge by non-SRB heterotrophs is possible in SO_2 -reducing cultures.

The non-SRB heterotrophs required will likely already be present in the sewage sludge with one possible exception. It will be advantageous for the biomass in SO_2 -reducing cultures to be flocculated so that biomass can be retained or readily recycled in a continuous reactor. We have previously demonstrated that *T. denitrificans* can be immobilized by co-culture with floc-forming heterotrophs under aerobic conditions (15). We propose that the incorporation of anaerobic floc-forming organisms in SO_2 -reducing cultures can lead to immobilization of SRB's and associated fermentative heterotrophs. Floc-formers will be obtained from anaerobic digesters.

3.1.2 CO_2/H_2 as Carbon and Energy Sources in SO_2 -Reducing Cultures

Elemental hydrogen generated on site from natural gas represents another potentially economical energy source or electron donor for SRB reduction of SO_2 to H_2S . Several SRB including (but not limited to)

TABLE 10. Carbon and Energy Sources for Sulfate Reducing Bacteria

Growth with:	Lactate + sulphate	Pyruvate + sulphate	Formate + sulphate	Acetate + sulphate	Glucose + sulphate	Malate + sulphate	Benzoate +	Other
<i>Desulfovibrio</i>								
<i>desulfuricans</i>	+	+	±	-	v	+	-	
<i>vulgaris</i>	+	+	±	-	-	-	-	
<i>gigas</i>	+	+	±	-	ND	-	-	
<i>africanus</i>	+	+	±	-	ND	+	-	
<i>saalexigens</i>	+	+	±	-	ND	+	-	
<i>thermophilus</i>	+	+	±	-	ND	-	ND	
<i>buculatus</i>	+	+	±	-	-	+	ND	
<i>baarsii</i>	-	-	+	+	-	-	ND	Fatty acids to C ₁₈ fatty acids
<i>sapovorans</i>	+	+	-	-	-	-	ND	
<i>Desulfobacter</i>								
<i>postgatei</i>	(±)	-	-	+	-	-	-	Vitamins required
<i>Desulfobulbus</i>								
<i>propionicus</i>	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	Propionate
<i>Desulfococcus</i>								
<i>multivorans</i>	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	
<i>Desulfonema</i>								
<i>limicola</i>	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	
<i>magnum</i>	-	-	±	+	-	+	+	
<i>Desulfosarcina</i>								
<i>variabilis</i>	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	
<i>Desulfotomaculum</i>								
<i>nigrificans</i>	+	+	-	-	v	ND	ND	
<i>orientis</i>	+	+	-	-	-	ND	ND	
<i>ruminis</i>	+	+	+	-	-	ND	ND	
<i>acetoxidans</i>	-	-	±	+	-	-	-	Vitamins required
<i>antarcticum</i>	+	ND	-	-	+	-	ND	

v signifies variable; some strains +, some -
ND no data

Desulfobacter hydrogenophilus, *Desulfotomaculum orientis*, *Desulfobacterium autotrophicum* and some strains of *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* are capable of autotrophic growth oxidizing H_2 as an energy source and using CO_2 as a carbon source (16). (*D. vulgaris* requires a small amount of acetate in the culture medium.) Other less defined species are available from private collections.

We propose that with the appropriate choice of SRB, an anaerobic reactor can be developed for the reduction of SO_2 to H_2S which would operate on a feed of $H_2(g)$, $CO_2(g)$ and possibly trace organics. The SRB would be composed of one or more strains of autotrophic or mixotrophic SRB. Fermentative heterotrophs would result in these cultures as a result of septic operation even if the medium was autotrophic. We have observed, for example, that heterotrophic contamination will develop in cultures of the autotroph *T. denitrificans* under septic conditions deriving carbon and energy sources from waste products and products of cell lysis from the autotroph. We have shown that these heterotrophs have no effect on growth of *T. denitrificans* on reduced sulfur compounds (7). It is likely that heterotrophs will also have no effect on SO_2 reduction by autotrophic SRB. In fact trace organics required by mixotrophic SRB could be provided by cross-feeding from the heterotrophs. If these heterotrophs are anaerobic floc-formers, immobilization of autotrophic SRB by adsorption and entrapment in the floc will likely occur. As noted previously, the autotroph *T. denitrificans* has been immobilized in this manner in cultures operating with an H_2S feed.

3.2 Microbial Reduction of NO_x

As noted in Section 2.5.2 disposal of concentrated streams of NO_x by microbial reduction to N_2 has been identified as a potentially viable process option. Many bacteria are known to use nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor under anaerobic conditions with reduction to N_2 . Nitric oxide (NO) has been identified in many of these organisms as an intermediate in the reduction of NO_3^- (17). Like *T. denitrificans*, these organisms may be capable of growth using NO as a terminal electron acceptor with reduction to N_2 . (Recall the removal of NO from the feed gas to SO_2 -reducing cultures.) *T. denitrificans* is a chemoautotroph which derives energy from the oxidation of reduced sulfur compounds. Most other denitrifying organisms are heterotrophs requiring organic compounds as carbon and energy sources. These organisms include (but are not limited to) the following:

<i>E. coli</i> K12	<i>Pseudomonas stutzeri</i>
<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	<i>Pseudomonas perfectomarinus</i>
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>
<i>Micrococcus denitrificans</i>	<i>Pseudomonas mirabilis</i>
<i>Bacillus licheniformis</i>	<i>Pseudomonas denitrificans</i>
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	

The reduction of NO (and NO_2) by *T. denitrificans* requires further study in order to evaluate the process both technically and economically. In addition, other denitrifying organisms, such as those listed above, should be screened to determine the best possible candidate for an NO_x -reducing organism.

4. SPECIFIC WORK PLAN

4.1 SO₂ Reduction

The following work plan is proposed for an investigation of the use of municipal sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source for SO₂-reducing cultures:

Task I *Develop a consortium of SRB, fermentative heterotrophs and floc-forming heterotrophs which will use municipal sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source and SO₂ as a terminal electron acceptor. Demonstrate flocculation of the process culture and stability of the population dynamics with respect to SO₂ reduction and efficient utilization of carbon and energy sources under septic conditions. (6-12 months)*

Some trial and error and enrichment will be necessary in the development of these cultures. However, in short we will optimize cross-feeding in the culture to maximize the specific activity of the SRB for SO₂ reduction while minimizing the BOD of the reactor effluent and maintaining the biomass in a flocculated state.

Task II *Investigate important design parameters for a continuous SO₂-reducing system with municipal sewage sludge feed. Perform preliminary cost analysis. (6 months)*

The stoichiometry (C-economy, biomass yield, end products) and kinetics of SO₂ reduction in optimized mixed and flocculated cultures will be determined in the course of Task I. However, before proceeding to a conceptual design the maximum volumetric productivity of a continuous reactor (CSTR, bubble column, etc.) must be determined. Since these systems must be operated on an SO₂-limiting basis, volumetric productivity will largely be determined by the

biomass concentration that can be maintained in the reactor. However, increasing biomass concentrations will have a negative effect on effluent BOD and SO_2 mass transfer. Upon completion of Task II a preliminary cost analysis of a full-scale system will be performed.

The following work plan is proposed for an investigation of the use of CO_2/H_2 as carbon and energy sources for SO_2 -reducing cultures:

Task III *Screen sulfate reducing bacteria for the capability of growing on CO_2/H_2 as carbon and energy sources and SO_2 as a terminal electron acceptor. (6-12 months).*

The following sub-tasks will make up the screening methodology:

IIIa *Demonstrate growth of SRB on H_2 , CO_2 and SO_2 in mixed, septic cultures.*

IIIb *Estimate the specific activity of SRB for SO_2 reduction given optimum growth conditions with respect to the carbon and energy source.*

Task IV *Develop optimum SO_2 -reducing culture operating on CO_2/H_2 feed. Demonstrate flocculation of the biomass and culture stability under septic conditions. (6-12 months).*

The best SO_2 -reducing SRB (identified under Task III) in terms of specific activity for SO_2 reduction and general growth characteristics will be chosen for further study.

Flocculation will be achieved by addition of anaerobic floc-forming bacteria to the SRB cultures. Floc-formers will be obtained from an anaerobic digester and may require an external organic carbon source. If so, incomplete oxidation of that carbon source is likely under anaerobic conditions. Judicious choice of the SRB or a consortium of SRB including autotrophic and heterotrophic SRB may

allow those end products to be oxidized to CO_2 , improving the quality of the effluent produced by a continuous process. In short, we will attempt to optimize cross-feeding in the culture to minimize cost of raw materials, maximize specific activity for SO_2 reduction and minimize the BOD of the reactor effluent.

Task V *Investigate important design parameters for continuous SO_2 -reducing system with H_2 -feed. Perform preliminary cost analysis. (6 months).*

This task is similar to Task II described above with the exception of optimizing the feed gas condition and gas-liquid mass transfer. As noted above these cultures must be operated on an SO_2 -limiting basis; therefore, H_2 and CO_2 must be provided in excess. This fact coupled with the low solubility of H_2 in water dictate incomplete removal of H_2 (and CO_2) from the feed gas. Fractionation of the outlet gas with recycle of H_2 and CO_2 would be anticipated in a full scale operation. The feed gas composition and feed rate and gas-liquid contacting must be optimized with respect to H_2 (and CO_2) flux into the culture medium.

4.2 NO_x Reduction

The following work plan is proposed for an investigation of microbial reduction of NO_x to N_2 :

Task I *Screen denitrifying bacteria for NO and NO_2 activity. (12 months).*

The organisms listed above and species isolated by enrichment from mixed anaerobic populations will be utilized. The following subtasks will make up the screening methodology:

Ia *Demonstrate growth on NO as terminal electron acceptor with best known carbon and energy source (glucose in most cases) in pure cultures and septic or mixed cultures. In the latter case a brief study of population dynamics will be made.*

Ib *Demonstrate growth on NO with less defined carbon and energy sources (municipal sewage sludge, for example). Identify end products of fermentation.*

Ic *Estimate specific activity of organism for NO reduction with both refined and crude carbon and energy sources. (This remains to be done for T. denitrificans as well.)*

Task II *Develop optimum NO-reducing culture. Demonstrate flocculation of the biomass and culture stability under septic conditions. (6-12 months).*

The best NO-reducing organisms (as identified under Task I) in terms of specific activity for NO-reduction and septic growth on low cost carbon and energy sources will be chosen for further study. In the case of a waste material, like municipal sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source, a co-culture of two or more NO-reducing organisms may be desirable to enhance the extent of oxidation of the feed. More oxidation of the feed will result in a lower BOD effluent from the reactor. Once an optimum culture has been identified the culture will be flocculated by incorporating anaerobic floc-forming heterotrophs into the culture as described previously. A likely source of these organisms will be an anaerobic digester. The success or failure of flocculation may depend on culturing conditions, carbon and energy sources available for the floc-formers, etc. Therefore, flocculation may influence the choice of NO-reducing organisms in the culture.

Some amount of trial and error or enrichment may be required to produce the optimum, flocculated NO-reducing culture.

Task III *Investigate important design parameters for a continuous system. Perform preliminary cost analysis. (6-12 months).*

In order to facilitate the design of a pilot or demonstration scale NO-reducing reactor and perform a preliminary cost analysis, the important design parameters for a continuous system must be investigated. This will include a study of the kinetics of NO-reduction, stoichiometry (C-economy, biomass yield, end products, BOD of effluent) and an estimate of the maximum volumetric productivity for a CSTR or bubble column reactor each with biomass recycle. The volumetric productivity will largely be determined by the biomass concentration that can be maintained in the reactor. However, increasing biomass concentrations will have negative effects on effluent BOD and NO-mass transfer. Upon completion of Task III, a preliminary cost analysis of a full-scale system will be performed.

4.3 Tentative Time Table

TASK	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
SO ₂ - I		←-----→	
SO ₂ - II			←-----→
SO ₂ - III	←-----→		
SO ₂ - IV		←-----→	
SO ₂ - V			←-----→
NO - I	←-----→		
NO - II		←-----→	
NO - III			←-----→

5. WORK COMPLETED DURING PREVIOUS REPORTING PERIODS

5.1 Municipal Sewage Sludge as a Carbon and Energy Source for Mixed Cultures of *D. desulfuricans*

5.1.1 Raw Sludge Supplemented with Yeast Extract

A number of different batch experiments were conducted using *D. desulfuricans* working cultures developed as described in Section 2.2 with raw municipal sludge as a carbon and energy source (rather than glucose) and sulfate as the terminal electron acceptor. (Municipal sludge was obtained from the recycle from the secondary settler of an activated sludge treatment system of a municipal waste treatment plant in Tulsa, OK.) Under these conditions very little reduction of sulfate (and production of H₂S) was observed indicating that the sludge was possibly nutrient deficient for either *D. desulfuricans* or the mixed heterotrophs responsible for generating the specific carbon

and energy sources required for the SRB. Alternatively, the mixed heterotroph population which developed in these cultures as a result of septic operation, simply did not contain organisms capable of liquefaction of the complex biomolecules which compose the municipal sludge. The possibility of a simple nutrient deficiency was investigated first.

It was found that addition of yeast extract to batch cultures operated with a feed of raw municipal sludge would stimulate H_2S production. Figure 2 shows the pattern of H_2S production in one of these batch reactors. The H_2S concentration was determined chromophorically using Gas Tech gas analysis tubes (Yokohama, Japan). The accuracy claimed for these tubes is $\pm 25\%$. In the experiment represented here 100 g of wet-packed sludge was suspended in 1.6 L of the minimal medium described by Table 11 without glucose. Sulfate was the terminal electron acceptor. The sludge suspension was incubated at $30^\circ C$ and pH 7.0 in a B. Braun Biostat M fermenter. The culture was sparged with 300 mL/min of nitrogen. A small amount of H_2S production was noted (60-80 ppm in the outlet gas) in the absence of an SRB inoculum. The culture was inoculated with *D. desulfuricans* after 48 hrs. H_2S production remained low for another three days. On day 5, 4.5 g of yeast extract was added with a resulting large increase in H_2S production as shown in Figure 2. Forty-eight hours after addition of yeast extract H_2S production was still quite high (6000 ppmv in the outlet gas). At this time the total biomass was recovered by centrifugation and resuspended in an equal volume of fresh minimal medium (Table 11) without glucose. When the N_2 purge was re-established H_2S production was greatly reduced (400 ppmv in the outlet

Table 11. Minimal Glucose Maintenance Medium for
D. desulfuricans with Sulfate as
 Terminal Electron Acceptor

<u>Component</u>	<u>one liter</u>
Na_2HPO_4	1.2 g
KH_2PO_4	1.8 g
MgSO_4	1.5 g
Na_2SO_4	1.5 g
$\text{Fe}(\text{NH}_4)_2(\text{SO}_4)_2$	0.14 g
Glucose	5.0 g
Balch Vitamin Solution (Table 12)	2.0 mL
Heavy Metal Solution (Table 13)	15.0 mL
Mineral Water	50.0 mL

Table 12. Balch Vitamin Solution

<u>Component</u>	<u>mg/L</u>
Biotin	2.0
Folic Acid	2.0
Pyridoxine Hydrochloride	10.0
Thiamine Hydrochloride	5.0
Riboflavin	5.0
Nicotinic Acid	5.0
DL-Calcium Pantothenate	5.0
Vitamin B ₁₂	0.1
p-Aminobenzoic	5.0
Lipoic Acid	5.0

Table 13. Heavy Metal Solution

<u>Component</u>	<u>amount/L</u>
EDTA (Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid)	1.5 g
ZnSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	0.1 g
Trace element solution (Table 14)	6.0 mL

Table 14. Trace Element Solution Used in the Preparation
of Heavy Metal Solution

<u>Component</u>	<u>g/L</u>
AlCl_3	0.507
KI	0.139
KBr	0.139
LiCl	0.139
H_3BO_3	3.060
ZnCl_2	0.280
$\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.326
$\text{NiCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.513
$\text{CoCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.513
$\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.139
$\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.163
$\text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.139
$\text{CuSeO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.139
NaVO_3	0.024

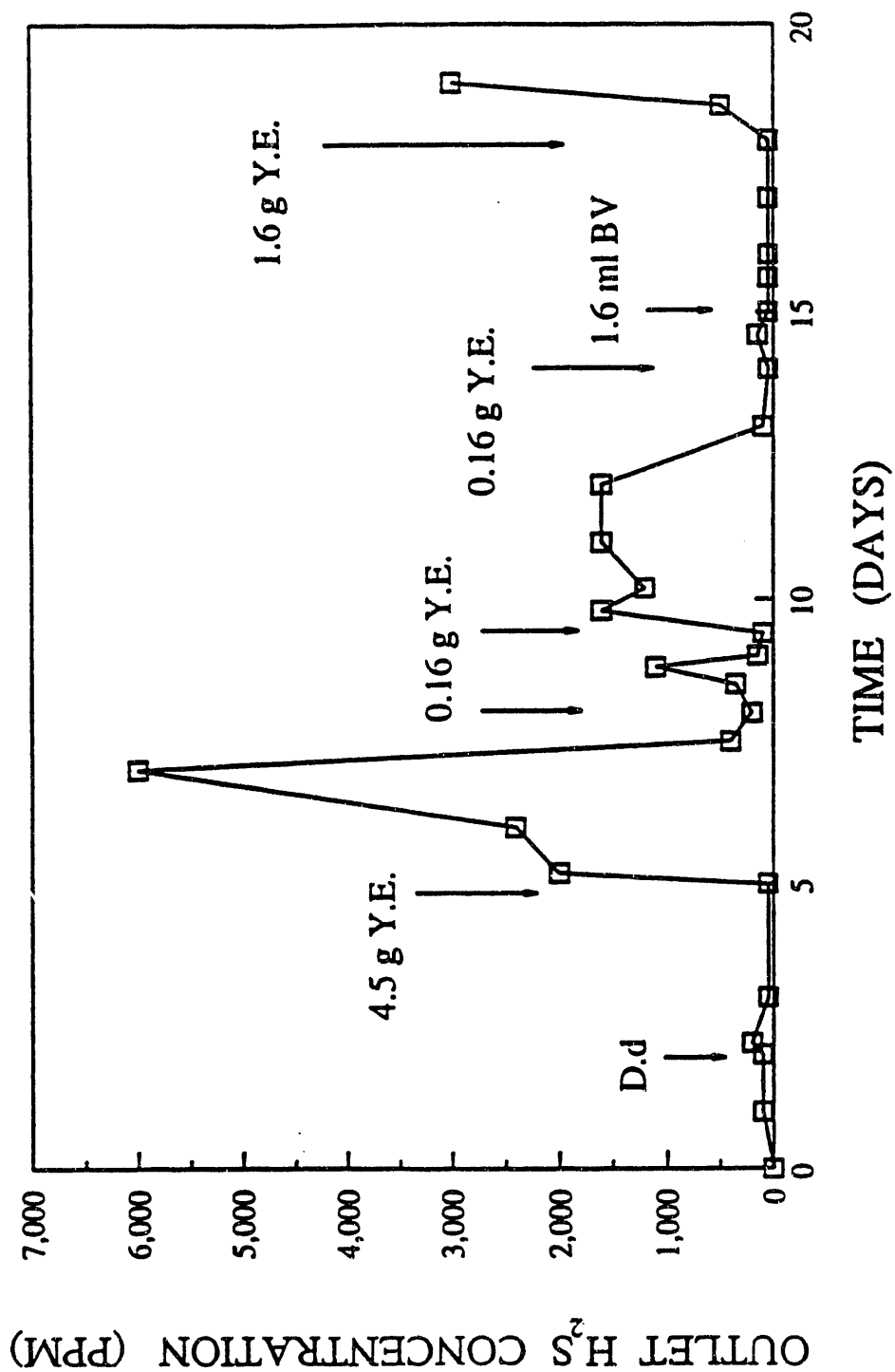


Figure 2. Effect of additions of yeast extract and vitamins on H_2S production from working cultures of *D. desulfuricans* with municipal sludge as the principal carbon and energy source. YE = yeast extract; D.d. = inoculation with *D. desulfuricans*; BV = Balch vitamin solution.

gas). On the 8th day the H_2S concentration in the outlet gas was 200 ppm. As shown in Figure 2, two further additions of yeast extract (0.16 g) produced a surge in H_2S production. A third addition of 0.16 g yeast extract on the 14th day or the addition of 1.6 mL of Balch vitamin solution (Table 12) failed to stimulate H_2S production. However, a larger addition of yeast extract (1.6 g) produced a surge in H_2S production on the 18th day of the experiment.

The yeast extract can potentially stimulate H_2S production by two mechanisms. First the components of yeast extract can serve directly as carbon and energy sources for the SRB or act as easily fermentable substrates for the mixed non-SRB heterotrophs in the culture. Secondly, the yeast extract may provide growth factors lacking in the sludge which are required by the SRB and/or the non-SRB heterotrophs in order for components of the sludge to be used as carbon and energy sources. The experiment described above seems to suggest that the former mechanism predominates when large amounts of yeast extract are added and the latter mechanism predominates when small amounts are added. The failure to produce a stimulation of H_2S production when 0.16 g of yeast extract was added on the 14th day indicates a possible depletion of fermentable substrate in the sludge.

In another batch experiment illustrated by Figure 3, a *D. desulfuricans* working culture was developed as described in Section 2.2 using the complex medium given in Table 15. No municipal sludge was present. When H_2S production was indicated the biomass was harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in minimal medium (Table 11) without glucose. As seen in Figure 3, H_2S production declined markedly following the medium changeover. Three additions of yeast

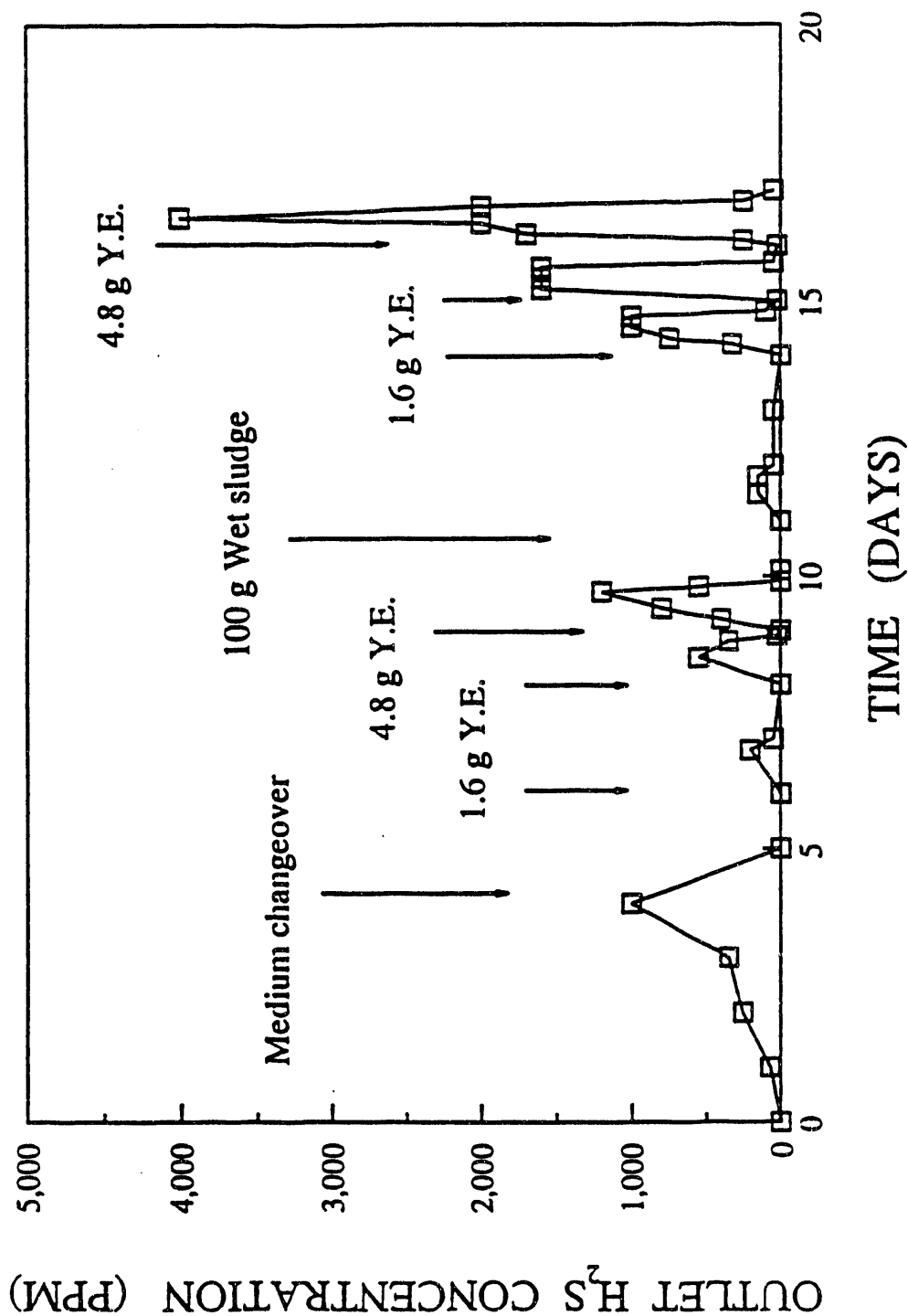


Figure 3. Effect of additions of yeast extract on H_2S production in working cultures of *D. desulfuricans* in the presence and absence of municipal sludge. YE = yeast extract.

Table 15. Complex Glucose Medium for Growth
of *D. desulfuricans* in Mixed
Heterotrophic Culture.

<u>Component</u>	<u>g/L</u>
Peptone	5.0
Beef Extract	3.0
Yeast Extract	0.2
MgSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	2.9
Na ₂ SO ₄	1.5
Fe (NH ₄) ₂ (SO ₄) ₂	0.1
Glucose	10.0

extract at 6, 8 and 9 days produced only modest stimulation of H_2S production. On the 11th day 100 g of wet-pack municipal sludge was added to the culture (1.6 L). Further additions of yeast extract, using the same pattern of addition, produced greater production of H_2S indicating stimulation of the utilization of some component(s) of the sludge to support sulfate reduction.

A continuous culture of *D. desulfuricans* and mixed heterotrophs was being operated on a feed of minimal medium (Table 11) without glucose, yeast extract and 50 g wet-packed sludge/L in a B. Braun Biostat M at pH 7.0 and 30°C. The culture volume was 1.6 L. The volumetric feed rate was 12 mL/hr giving a dilution rate of 0.18 d^{-1} .

The H_2S concentration in the outlet gas from this continuous system is given by Figure 4. Initially the yeast extract delivery rate was 3 g/L-d giving an H_2S concentration in the outlet of 1000-1200 ppm (with 300 mL/min N_2 purge). The H_2S production remained fairly steady when the yeast extract delivery rate was decreased to 2 g/L-d (by decreasing the yeast extract concentration in the feed). During this time complete utilization of the sulfate in the feed was observed; therefore, the culture was sulfate limiting with regard to H_2S production. When the yeast extract delivery rate was reduced to 1 g/L-d the culture became yeast extract limiting and the delivery rate was increased again to 2 g/L-d.

On the 28th day after the initiation of continuous flow conditions the SO_4^{-2} molar feed rate was increased to 0.42 mmole/hr by increasing the concentration of Na_2SO_4 in the feed from 1.5 g/L to 3.0 g/L. The result was a large increase in H_2S production as seen in

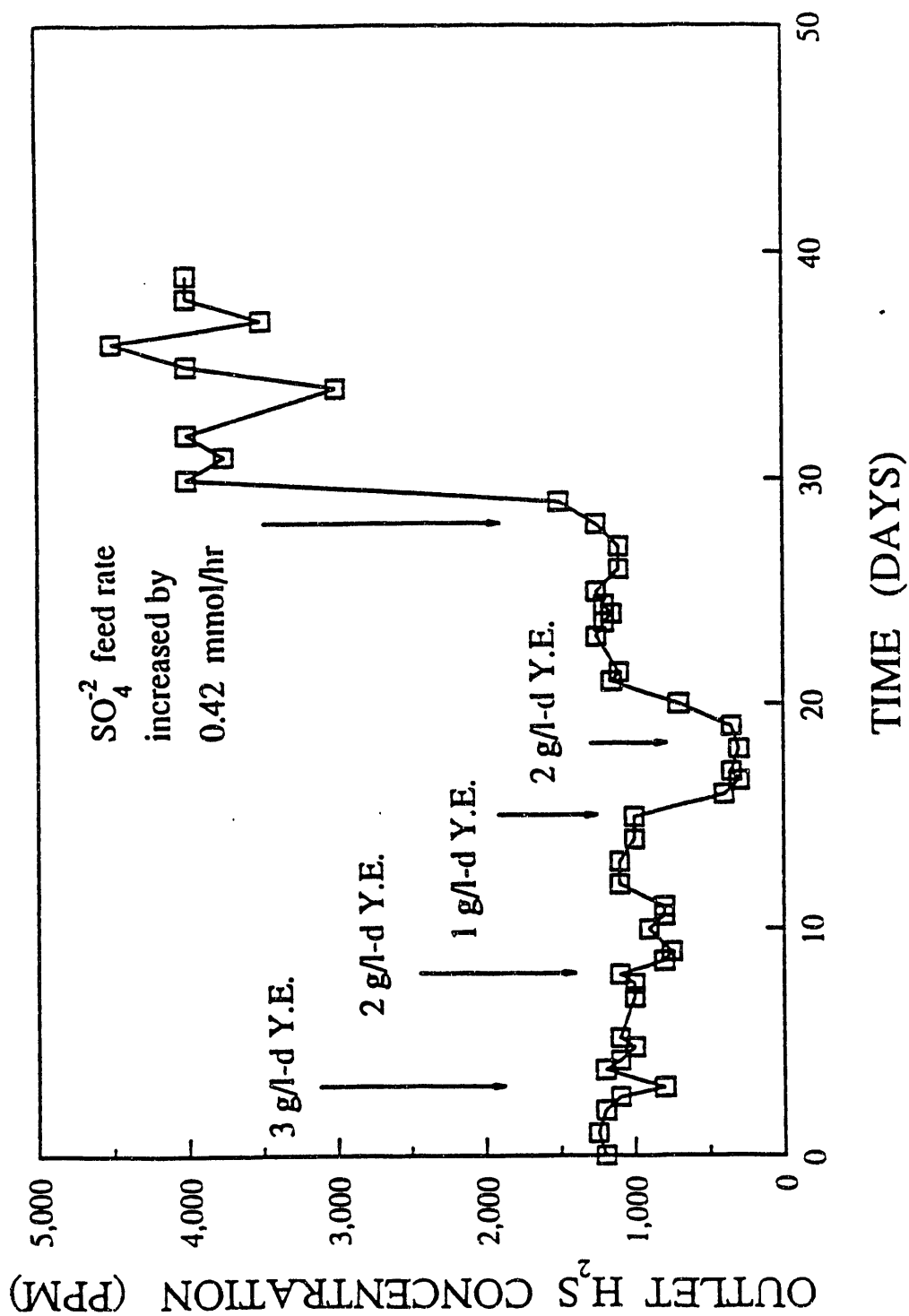


Figure 4. H₂S production from a continuous working culture of *D. desulfuricans* receiving a feed of yeast extract and municipal sludge in minimal medium. The initial sulfate feed rate was 0.29 mmoles/hr. $D = 0.18 \text{ d}^{-1}$; YE = yeast extract.

Figure 4. Little or no sulfate was found in the effluent; therefore, the culture again became sulfate-limiting.

This continuous culture was maintained under the operating conditions summarized in Table 16 until which time more personnel could be added to the project. With the addition of more personnel, much more thorough analyses of the feed, culture and off-gases was accomplished. This basic study was extended for approximately 50 days. It was anticipated that some source of pretreatment would be required to fully utilize the potentially fermentable carbon in the sludge. Therefore, the processing of raw sludge represents a base case. Fresh sludge was obtained on a weekly basis from the municipal waste treatment facility. Given the variability inherent in activated sludge systems due to operating conditions, weather, etc., it was important to operate the bioreactor over a period of several weeks.

Once this documentation was obtained under conditions described in Table 16; the yeast extract in the feed was reduced to 5.6 g/l for two purposes. First, it was desirable to determine the response of the bioreactor with regard to factors other than H_2S production which was examined in the earlier phases of this work. Secondly, the yeast extract concentration was reduced to put the SRB in the bioreactor in a carbon-limiting condition in preparation for sludge pretreatment experiments.

When more thorough analysis techniques were introduced, H_2S was determined in the outlet gas by gas chromatography (see Table 17). Previously chromophoric Gas Tech gas analysis tubes were used for H_2S analysis. It was quickly shown that this method had greatly overestimated H_2S concentrations, more so than expected based on

Table 16. Operating Conditions for Continuous Working Culture of *D. desulfuricans* with a Municipal Sludge Feed

Fermenter:	B. Braun Biostat M (culture volume 1.5 L)
Feed:	Minimal Medium with 6.0 g/L Na ₂ SO ₄ + 11.2 g/L yeast extract + 100 g wet-packed sludge/L
Volumetric Feed Rate:	12 mL/hr (dilution rate 0.19 d ⁻¹)
pH:	7.0
Agitation Rate:	200 rpm
N₂ Purge:	308 mL/min

Table 17. Chromatographic Conditions for Analysis of H₂S
in Reactor Outlet Gas*

Instrument:	Hewlett Packard 5890
Column:	10'x 1/8" ID Teflon, 80/100 Porapak QS
Carrier Gas and Flow Rate:	He, 30 mL/min
Oven Temperature:	90°C
Injection Oven and Detector Temperature:	120°C
Detector:	Thermal Conductivity Detector

*Standard employed was a Matheson Gas Co.
primary standard containing 1.001% H₂S
by volume.

manufacturer's claims. However, it was assumed that each determination was proportional by some constant factor to the actual concentration. Therefore, the relative relationships are still valid.

The sulfate concentration in the feed and effluent of the bioreactor are shown in Figure 5. With 11.2 g/L yeast extract in the feed, most of the sulfate in the feed was removed. However, when the yeast extract concentration in the feed was reduced to 5.6 g/L, the sulfate concentrations in the reactor and effluent were seen to rise to about half of that in the feed. In other words, when the yeast extract concentration was halved, the difference in influent and effluent sulfate concentrations was approximately cut in half.

The H_2S concentration in the outlet gas during the latter part of this study is shown in Figure 6. A relatively constant rate of H_2S production (and concentration in the outlet gas) was observed prior to the reduction in the feed yeast extract concentration. When the yeast extract was halved the H_2S concentration in the outlet gas was similarly reduced about 50%.

The results of sulfur balances performed before and after the reduction in yeast extract concentration in the feed are given in Table 18. In almost every case the sulfur balances could be closed to within 2-4%, indicating that all of the H_2S produced by the SRB was being stripped and could be accounted for.

The biomass that composed the municipal sludge as well as the biomass in the reactor effluent was flocculated. Therefore mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS) measurements were used as one measure of biomass concentration. The MLSS in the influent and effluent of the SRB-bioreactor are shown in Figure 7. There is seen in Figure 7 a

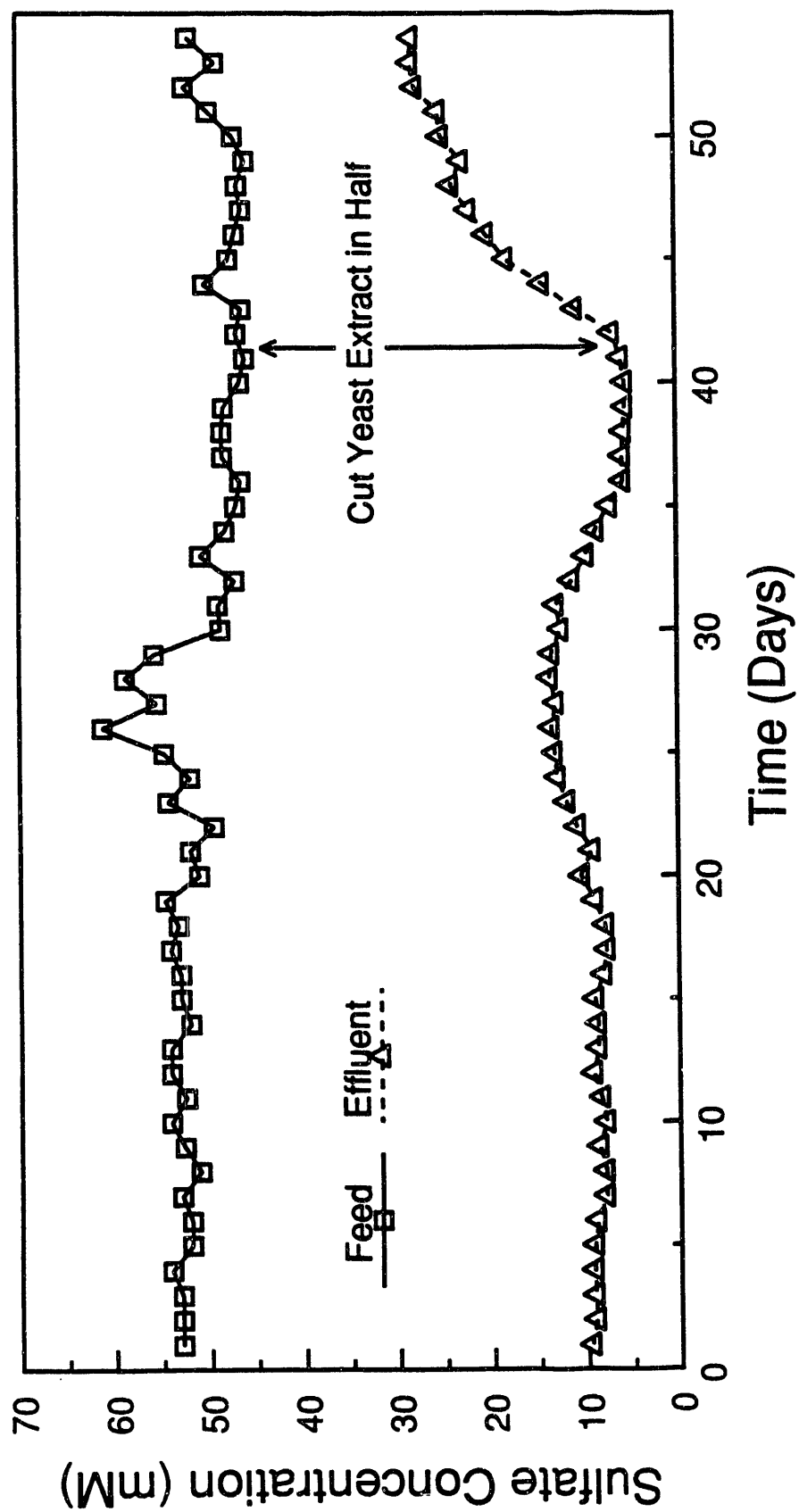


Figure 5. Influent and effluent sulfate concentrations in SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sludge and yeast extract.

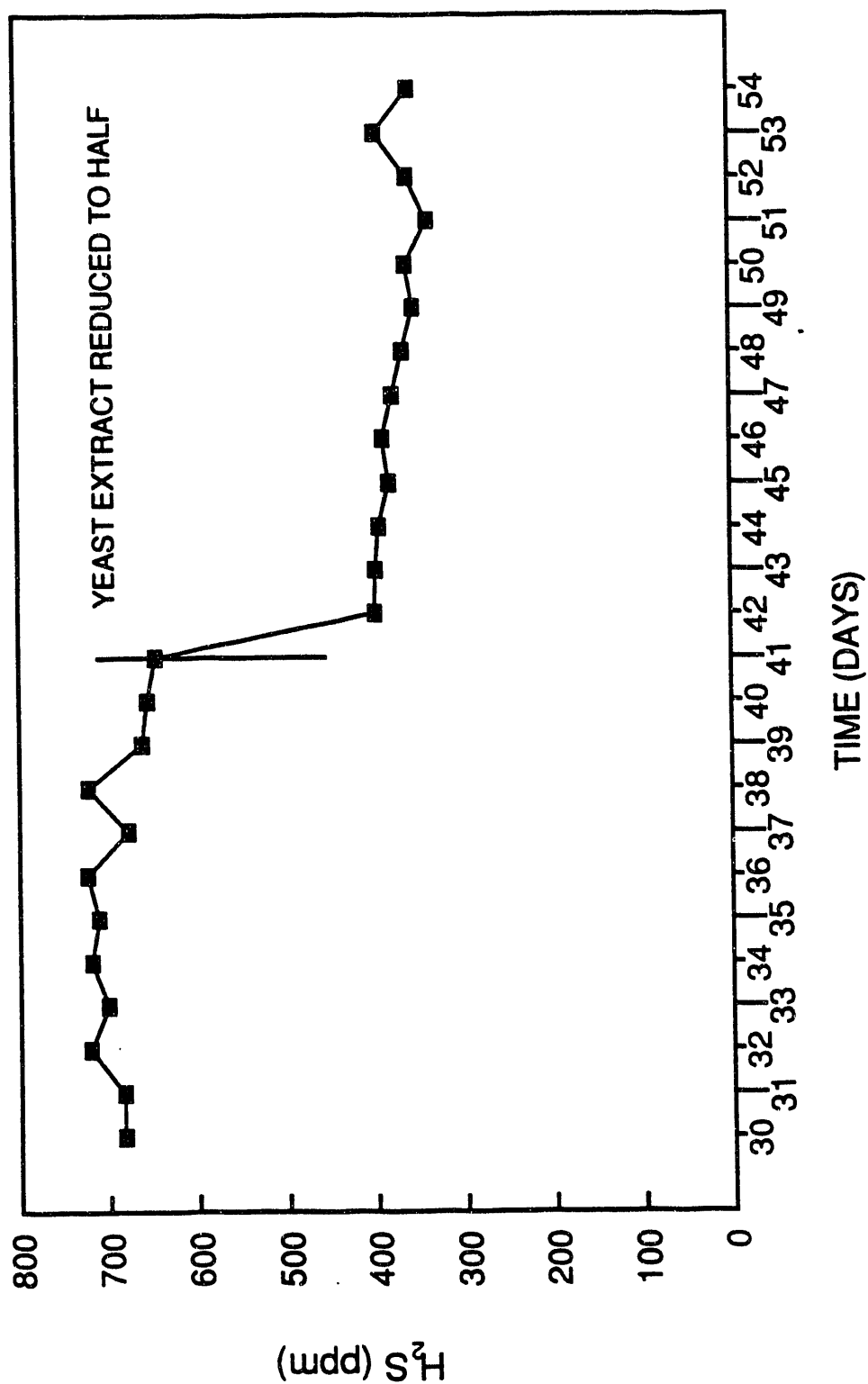


Figure 6. Outlet gas H₂S concentration from SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sludge and yeast extract.

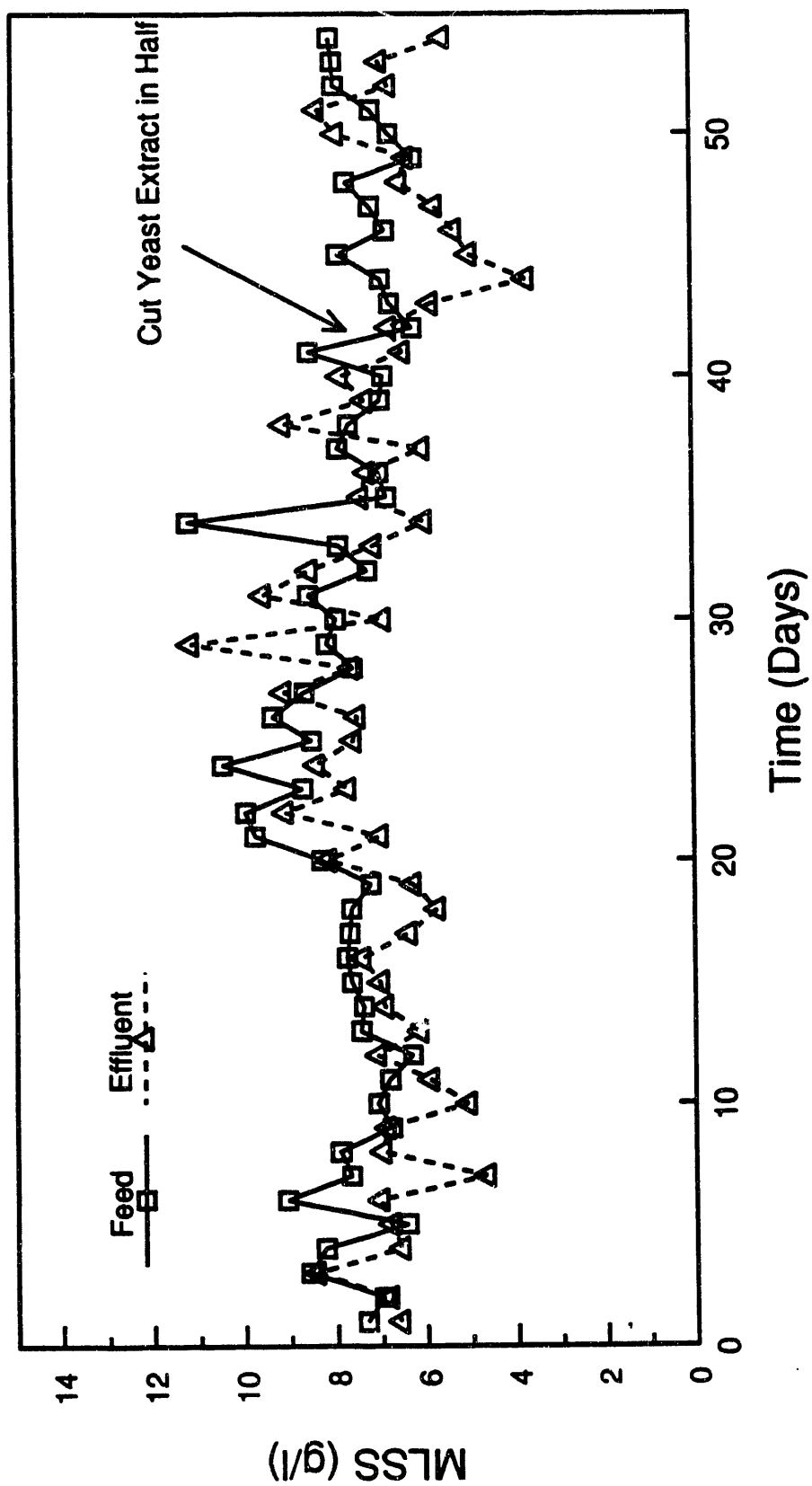


Figure 7. Mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS) concentration in the influent and effluent of the SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sludge and yeast extract.

Table 18. Sulfur Balances in SRB-Bioreactor Operating with a Feed of Raw Municipal Sludge and Yeast Extract

Day	SO ₄ ⁻² (mmole/hr) in	SO ₄ ⁻² (mmole/hr) out	H ₂ S produced (mmole/hr)	SO ₄ ⁻² Removed (mmole/hr)	H ₂ S/SO ₄ ⁻²
33	0.609	0.118	0.531	0.491	1.08
137	0.581	0.070	0.514	0.511	1.01
39	0.579	0.066	0.502	0.513	0.98
41	0.552	0.072	0.490	0.480	1.02
46	0.564	0.243	0.296	0.321	0.92
49	0.551	0.274	0.269	0.277	0.97
50	0.565	0.300	0.275	0.265	1.04

small but consistent reduction in the MLSS in the bioreactor. This loss in filterable solids could represent the utilization of a small fraction of the municipal sludge as carbon and energy sources for mixed heterotrophs in the culture.

It has previously been observed that in *D. desulfuricans* working cultures in which glucose or molasses sugars served as the ultimate carbon and energy sources, the utilization of the end products of the anaerobic fermentation of these sugars by *D. desulfuricans* was somewhat slower than the rate of their production. Therefore, ethanol and, to a lesser extent, lactic acid, were observed to transiently accumulate in the medium. Small molecular weight carboxylic acids, primarily acetate, were also seen to accumulate. Acetate was shown to be the end product of ethanol oxidation by *D. desulfuricans*. The culture medium of the SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sludge was analyzed for ethanol, lactic acid, and small molecular weight carboxylic acid in order to relate the decrease in MLSS to the accumulation of either end products of heterotrophic fermentation or end products of oxidation of these species by *D. desulfuricans*. Ethanol and lactic acid were both determined by Sigma assay kits. The ethanol assay was based on the oxidation of ethanol by nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) catalyzed by alcohol dehydrogenase. The lactic acid assay was based on the oxidation of lactate by NAD^+ catalyzed by lactate dehydrogenase. Small molecular weight carboxylic acids were determined by gas chromatograph as described in Table 19. The highest lactic acid concentration found during the course of the experiment was 50 mg/L. The highest ethanol concentration was 7 mg/L. Acetate was found occasionally in the

Table 19. Chromatographic Conditions for Analysis of Carboxylic Acids in Bioreactor Medium

Instrument:	Hewlett Packard 5840
Column:	2 m x 1.8 mm ID glass, 80/120 Carbopack B-DA/ 4% Carbowax 20 M
Carrier Gas and Flow Rate:	N ₂ , 24 mL/min
Oven Temperature:	175°C
Injection Oven and Detector Oven:	200°C
Detector:	Flame Ionization Detector

culture medium, but the concentration never exceeded 20 mg/L. No other carboxylic acids were found. It is likely that the ethanol and lactic acid are end products of fermentation of feed components by the mixed heterotrophs in the culture. However, it is difficult to determine, given the small quantities, where these arise from fermentation of sludge solids or yeast extract. The acetate is probably the oxidation product of lactate and ethanol by *D. desulfuricans*.

Total protein was also estimated in both the influent and effluent of the SRB-bioreactor by the Bradford method using bovine serum albumin as a standard. Samples were diluted and sonicated prior to analysis to break microbial cells. Generally the total protein concentration in the effluent was about 20% higher on the average than that of the influent or feed (Figure 8). These observations indicate net growth of microorganisms in the bioreactor. However, the bulk of this growth seems to have been at the expense of yeast extract since the protein concentration in the effluent dropped after the yeast extract concentration in the feed was reduced. These observations also serve to illustrate that the feed contains significant protein which is not utilized in the bioreactor. Some sort of pre-treatment is needed to make this protein more accessible.

Chemical oxygen demand (COD) measurement of the feed and effluent confirm that most of the microbial activity in the bioreactor is attributable to the yeast extract. Figure 9 shows the total COD of feed and effluent. Figure 10 gives the COD of filterable solids in the feed and effluent. (Here filterable solids are defined as solids measured as MLSS.) Comparison of these figures shows that about 60%

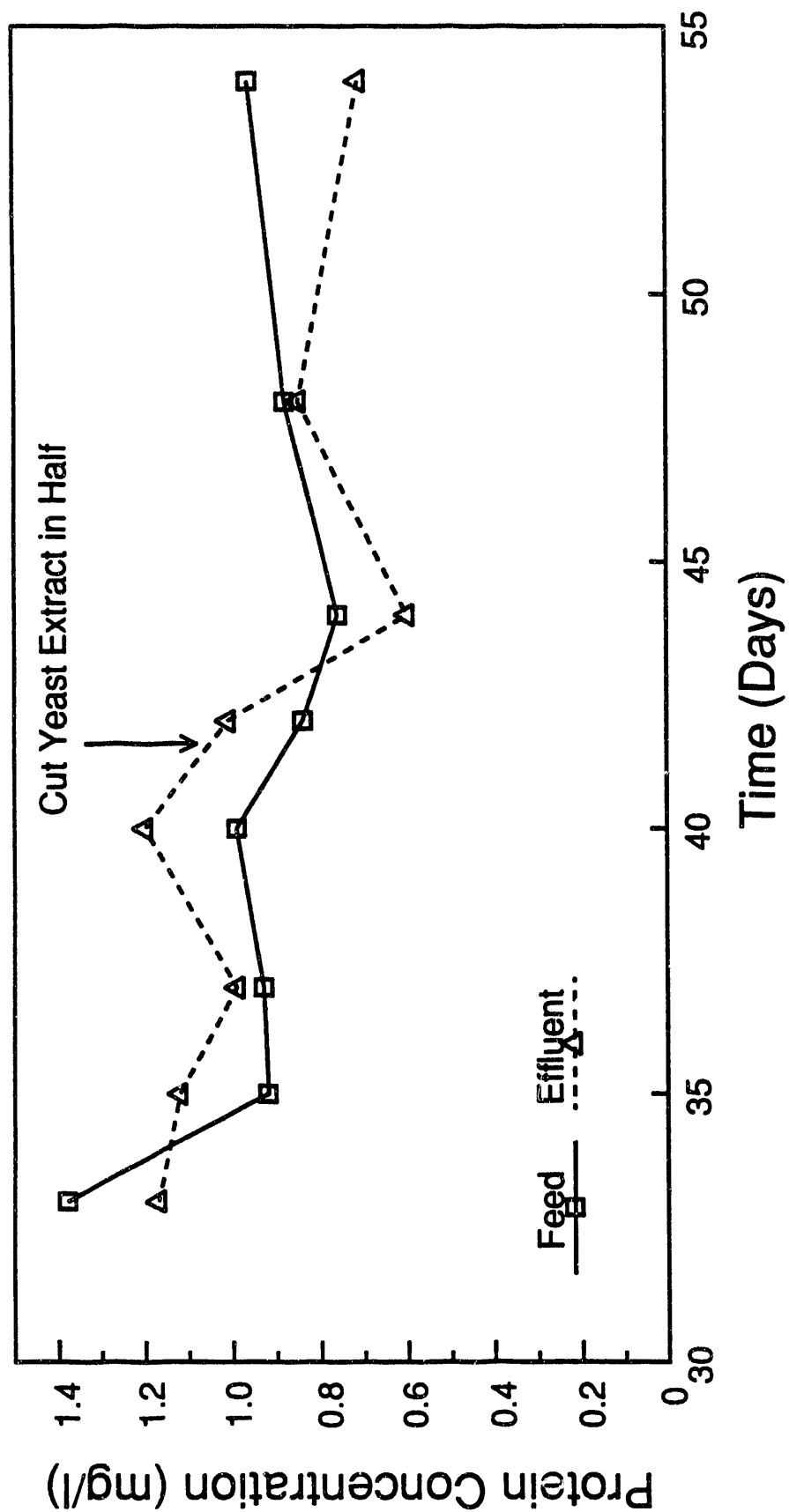


Figure 8. Influent and effluent protein concentrations in the SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sewage sludge and yeast extract.

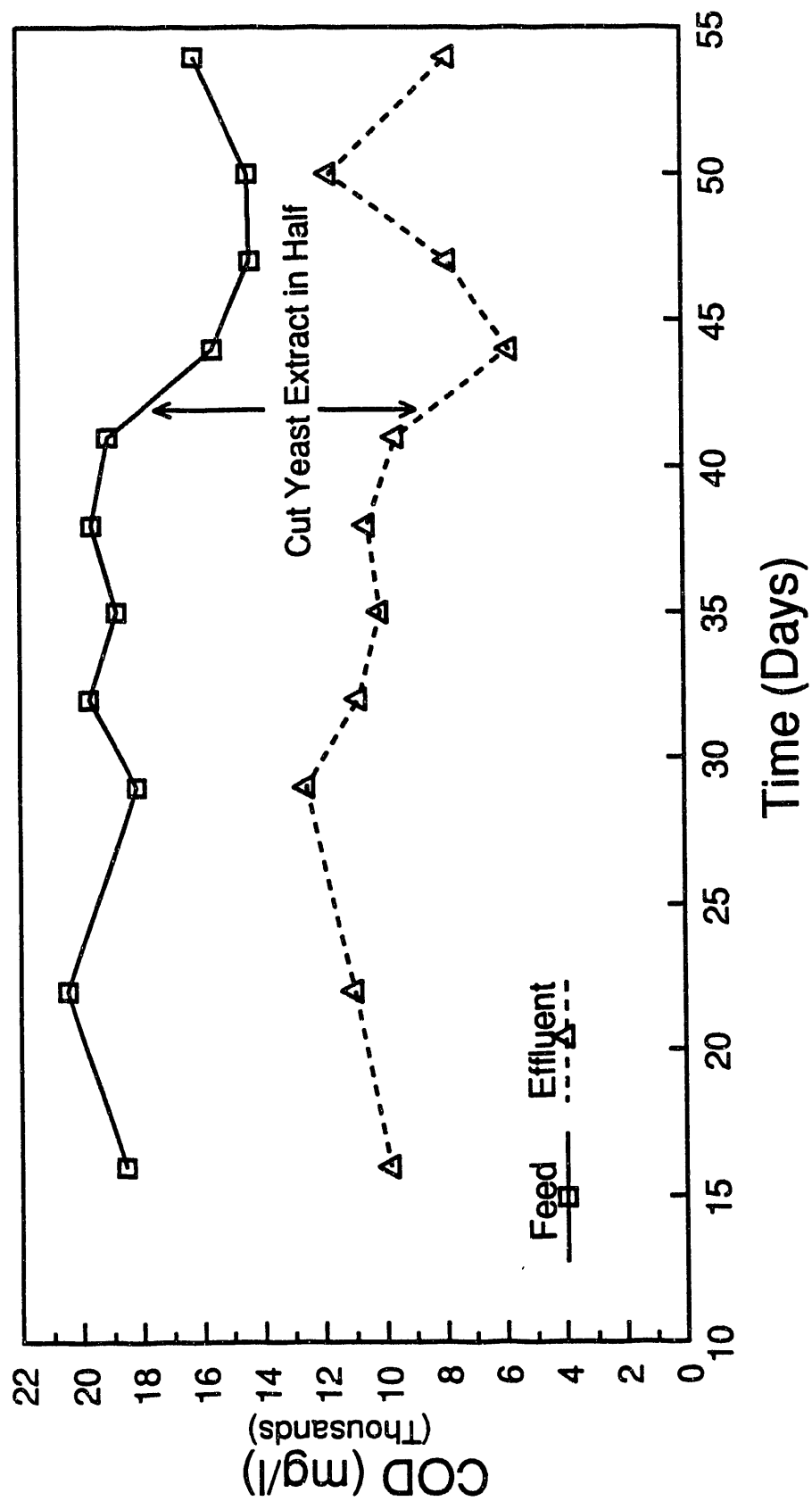


Figure 9. Total COD in influent and effluent of SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sewage sludge and yeast extract.

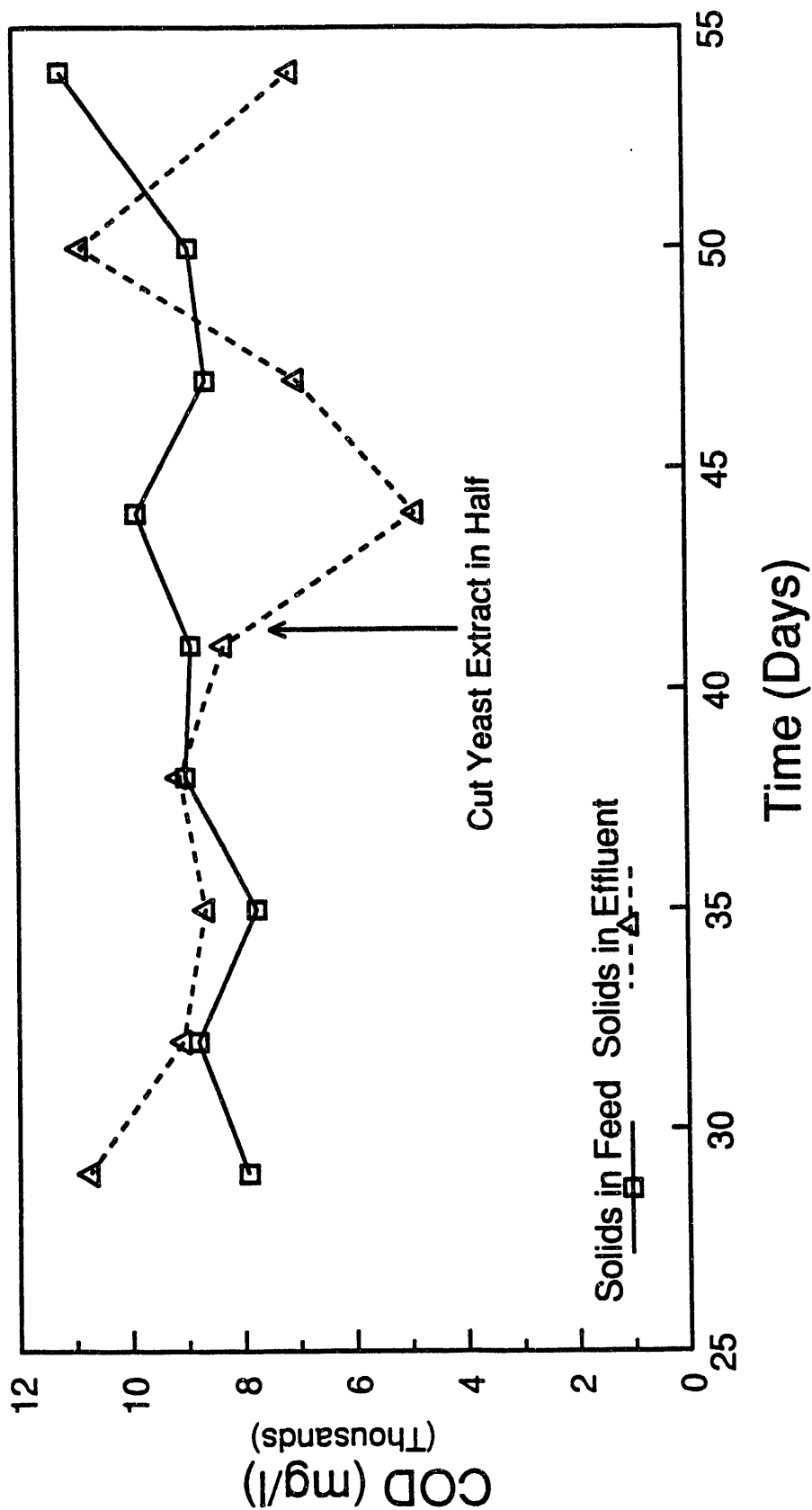


Figure 10. Solids COD in influent and effluent of SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sewage sludge and yeast extract.

of the feed COD is in the yeast extract (and reduced salts in the minimal medium). The effluent COD is only slightly higher than the solids COD of the feed. The solids COD of the effluent was greater than the solids COD of the feed, again indicating net growth of microorganisms in the reactor. However, once again we see that this growth was primarily produced through the use of the components of yeast extract as carbon and energy sources. The high COD of the effluent solids confirms that most of the feed biomass has remained non-degraded.

Figure 11 shows typical settling curves for the feed and effluent solids (compared at the same concentrations) during operation at the higher yeast extract concentration. Effluent solids were seen to settle faster than feed solids. This is probably attributable to the production of new cells in the bioreactor and subsequently biopolymers which enhanced flocculation.

In conclusion, it is readily apparent that the carbon and energy resources of the raw municipal sludge have been utilized in the bioreactor to only a small extent in this base case. The effects of various pretreatments (or pre-digestions) on utilization of the municipal sludge solids are described below. These pretreatments include (1) heat treatment, (2) alkali treatment, (3) heat and alkali treatment, (4) treatment with lipase, and (5) treatment with a protease. Heat and/or alkali treatment should hydrolyze many of the glycosidic and peptide linkages responsible for holding monomeric units of complex carbohydrates and proteins together. These monomeric units will be more fermentable. Municipal sludge consists of about 34% ether-soluble material (Table 9). Pretreatment with lipase (with

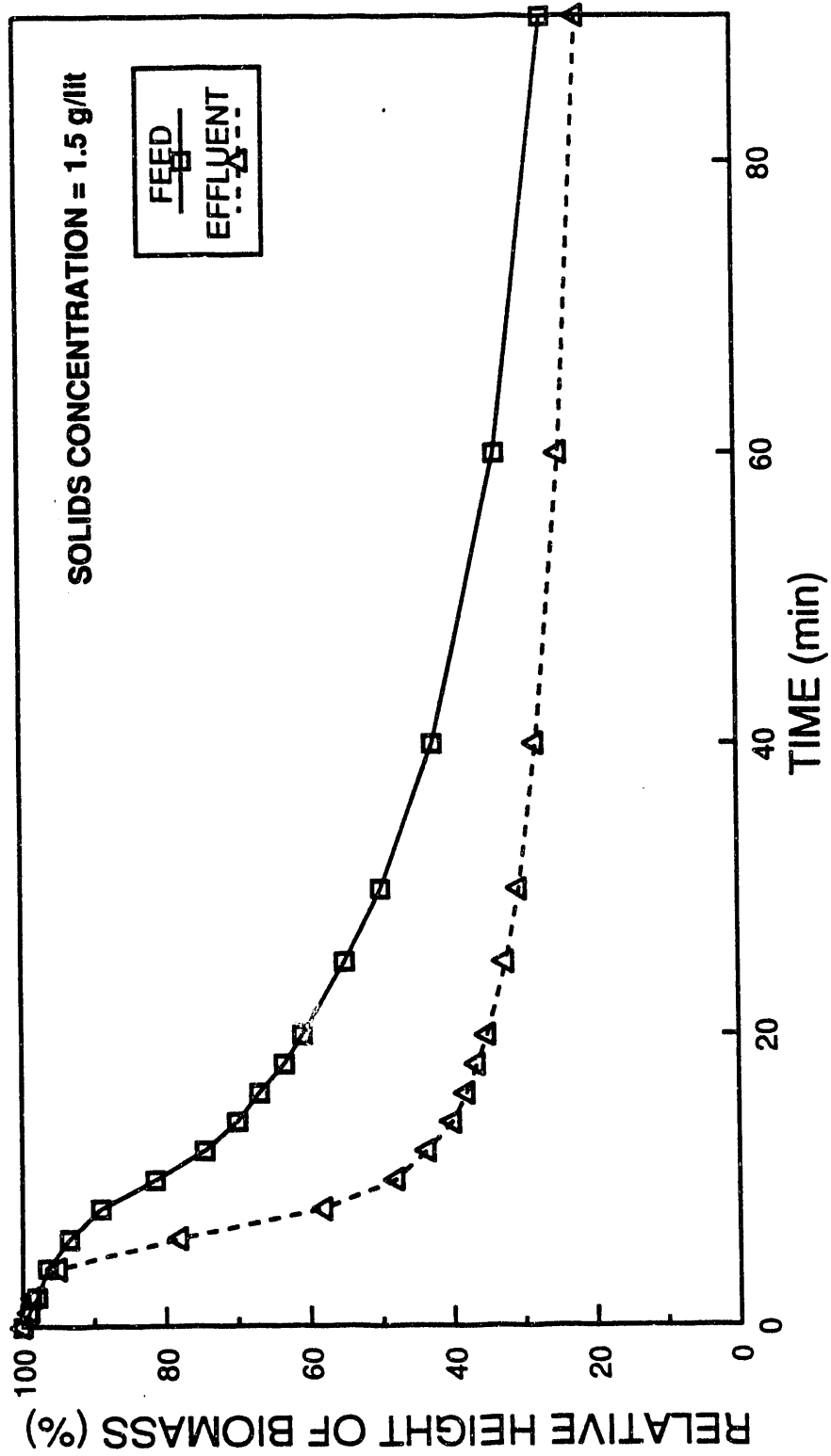


Figure 11. Settling properties of influent and effluent solids of SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of municipal sewage sludge and yeast extract.

or without heat and/or alkali treatment) could make some of this material more available as a substrate for fermentation by hydrolyzing the ester linkages of fats and phospholipids. Similarly proteases could break down the 24% protein in municipal sludges producing amino acids and short peptides to serve as substrates for fermentation. The fermentation of these "depolymerized" biopolymers will in turn produce carbon and energy sources for the SRB.

5.1.2 Pretreatment of Raw Municipal Sewage Solids

5.1.2.1 Heat /Alkali Treatment

As noted above, with raw sewage solids as a feed, the carbon and energy resources of municipal sludge are utilized to only a small extent in an SO_2 -reducing bioreactor. Some type of pretreatment or predigestion will be necessary in order for the SRB and non-SRB organisms in the SO_2 -reducing cultures to be able to utilize these substrates efficiently. Microbial cells which make up much of the sewage solids must be broken open liberating fermentable material and biopolymers must be "depolymerized" to make carbon and energy sources available.

The first pretreatment examined was heat under alkaline conditions. Municipal sewage solids were suspended in the medium described by Table 20 to a concentration of 100 g wet-packed sewage solids per liter. At this time 100-mL samples of this suspension were adjusted to pH 10, 11 or 12 with 10N NaOH with duplicate samples autoclaved at 121°C for 30 or 60 minutes. Suspensions were then cooled to room temperature and the pH adjusted to 7.0 with 6N HCl. Control suspensions received no treatment. Each sample was analyzed to determine the MLSS and the soluble COD and soluble protein

Table 20. Sulfate-Free Minimal Medium for
D. desulfuricans

<u>Component</u>	<u>Quantity/L</u>
Na ₂ HPO ₄	1.2 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	1.8 g
MgCl ₂	0.7 g
NH ₄ Cl	0.2 g
FeCl ₃	0.04 g
Batch Vitamin Solution (Table 12)	2.0 mL
Heavy Metal Solution (Table 13)	15.0 mL
Mineral Water	50.0 mL

concentrations in the filtrate. Results are shown in Figures 12-14. Figure 12 shows that the MLSS concentration declined with increasing pH of incubation and increasing heating time. The MLSS level in the control was 5800 mg/L. These results suggest that some fraction of the biosolids of the raw municipal sewage is solubilized by heat/alkali treatment. This is confirmed by Figure 13 which shows increasing filtrate COD with increasing pH and heating time and Figure 14 which shows increasing concentrations of soluble protein under the same conditions. The COD and soluble protein concentrations in the untreated controls were 700 mg/L and 0.024 g/L, respectively.

This experiment was repeated with a wider range of heating times in order to better document the effect of heating time at 121°C on solubilization of sewage solids. Municipal sewage solids were suspended in the medium described in Table 20 as described above to a concentration of 100 g wet-packed sewage solids per liter. At this time 100-mL samples of this suspension were adjusted to pH 11 or 12 with 10N NaOH with duplicate samples autoclaved at 121°C for 15, 30, 45 and 60 min. Suspensions were then cooled to room temperature and the pH adjusted to 7.0 with 6N HCl. Control suspensions received no treatment. Each sample was analyzed to determine the MLSS and the soluble COD and soluble protein concentrations in the filtrate. Results are shown in Figures 15-17. Figure 15 shows that the MLSS concentration declined with increasing pH and heating time at 121°C. The MLSS in the control was again 5800 mg/L. It was anticipated that solubilization of the sewage solids might level off at longer heating times under the assumption that not all of the solids are subject to solubilization. This was not the case up to 60 min of heating at

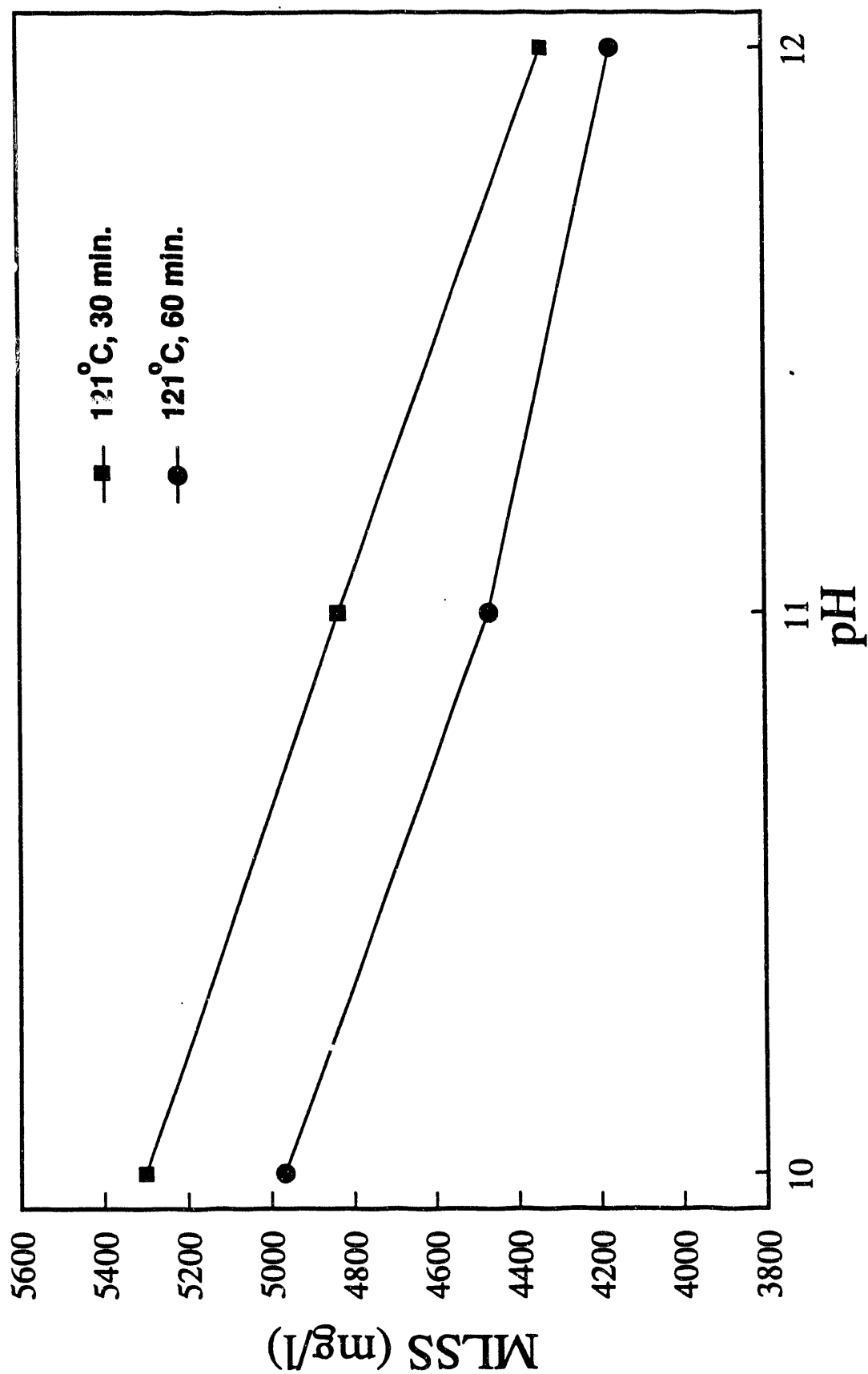


Figure 12. Effect of pH and heating time on MLSS concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids. (The initial MLSS concentration, without treatment was 5800 mg/L.)

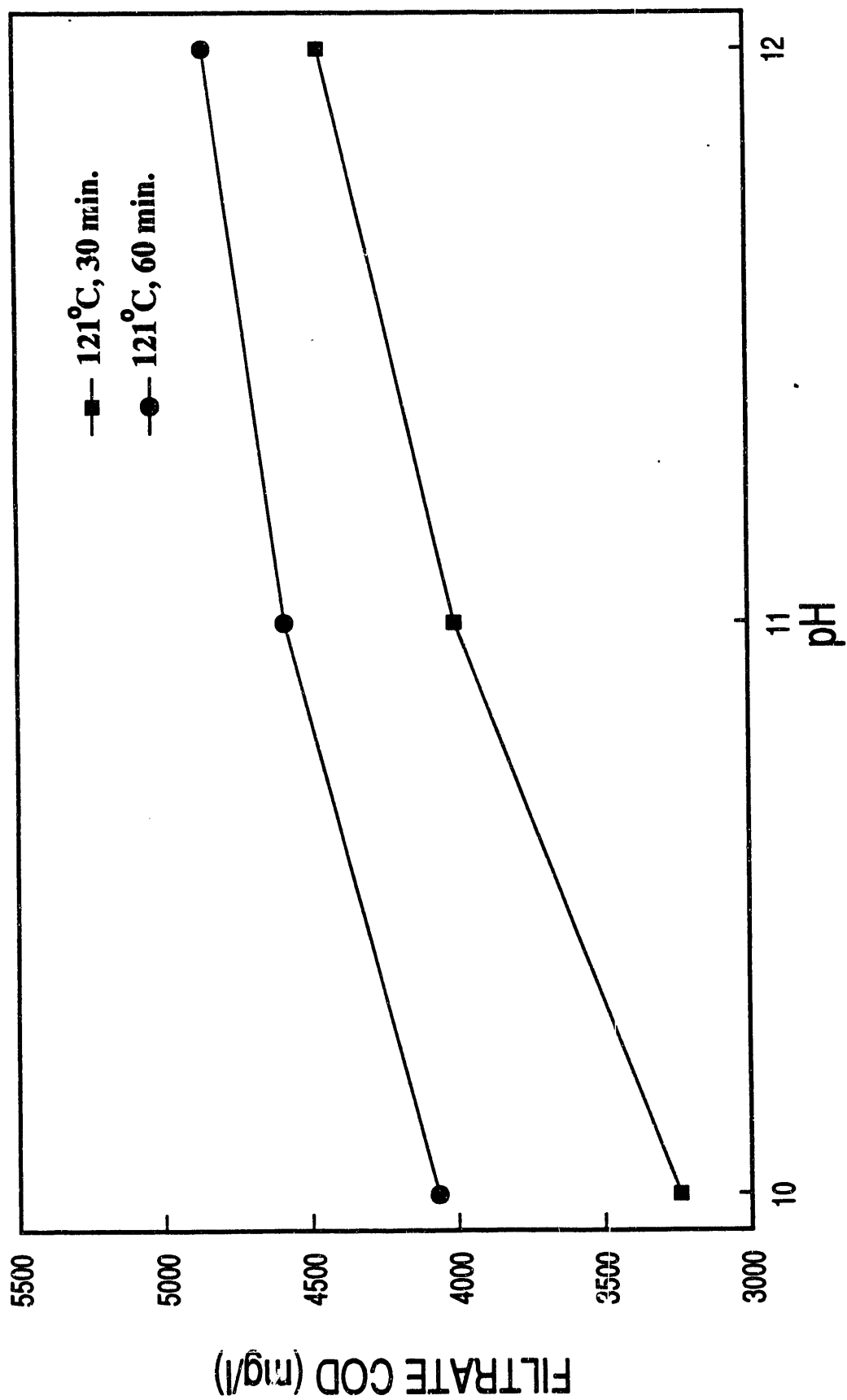


Figure 13. Effect of pH and heating time on filtrate COD in a suspension of municipal sewage solids. (The filtrate COD in untreated samples was 700 mg/L.)

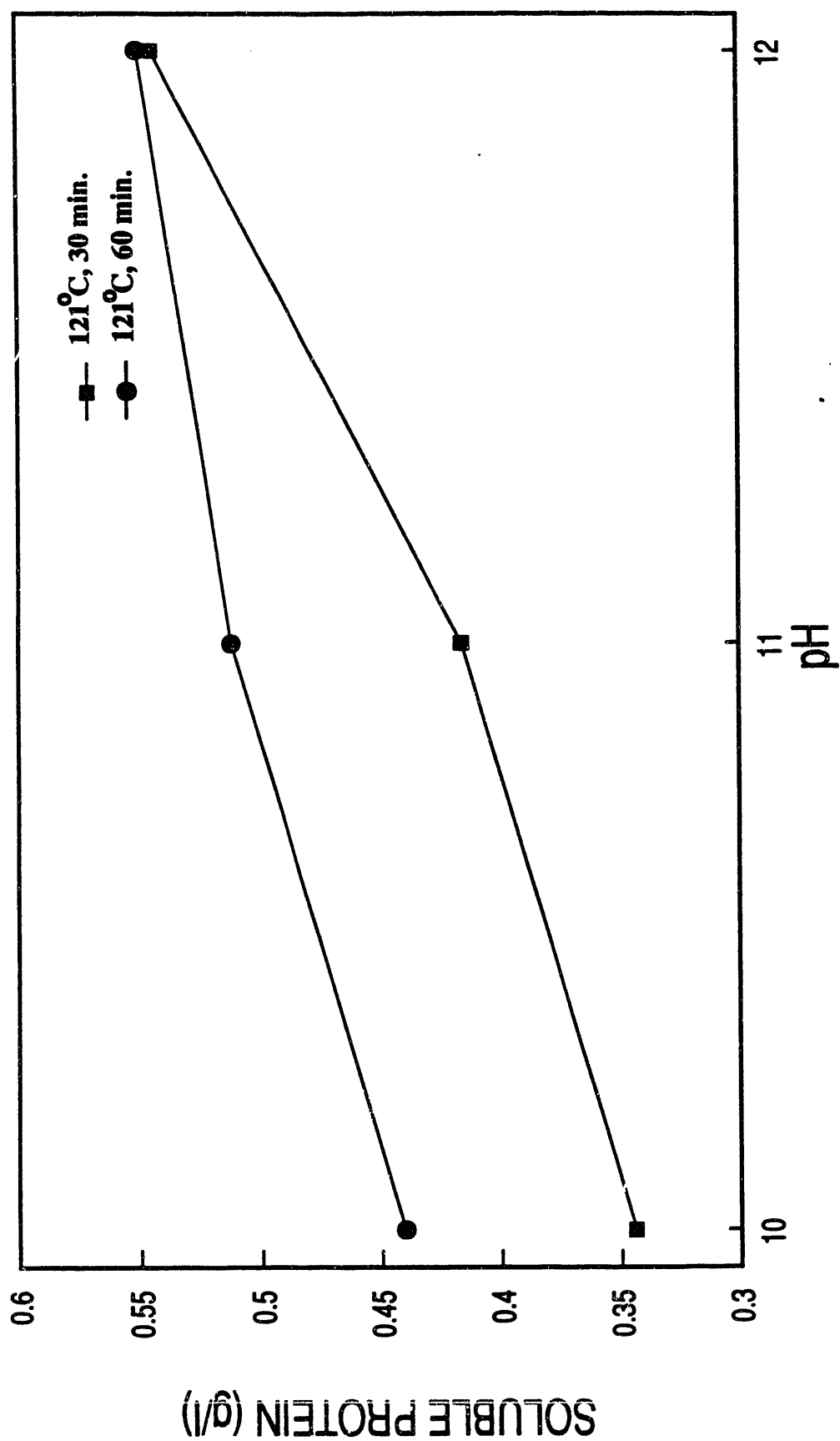


Figure 14. Effect of pH and heating time on soluble protein concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids. (The soluble protein concentration in untreated samples was 24 mg/L).

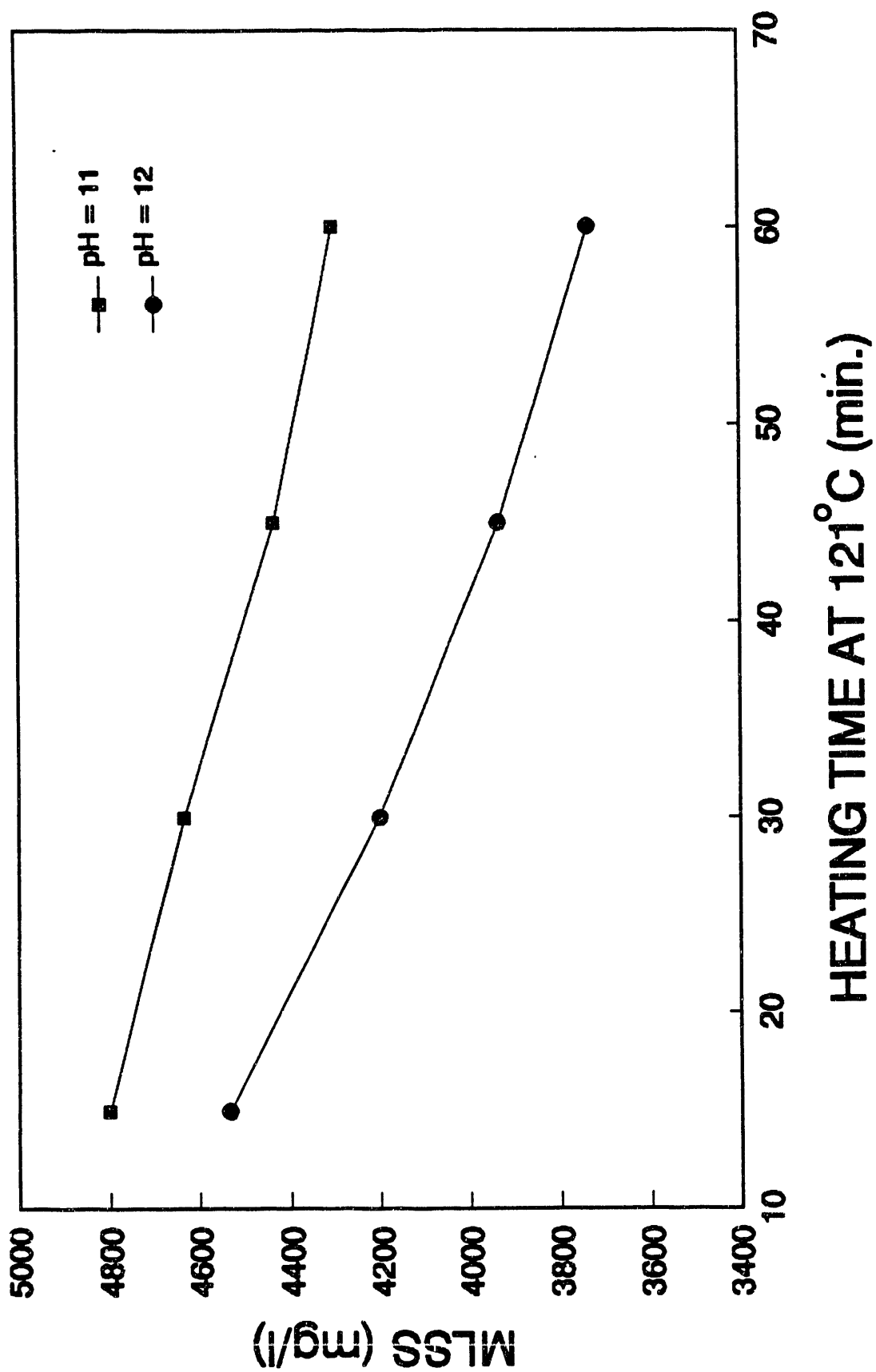


Figure 15 . . Mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS) in a suspension of sewage sludge solids heated at 121°C at pH 11 and 12. (MLSS in the untreated sample was 5800 mg/L)

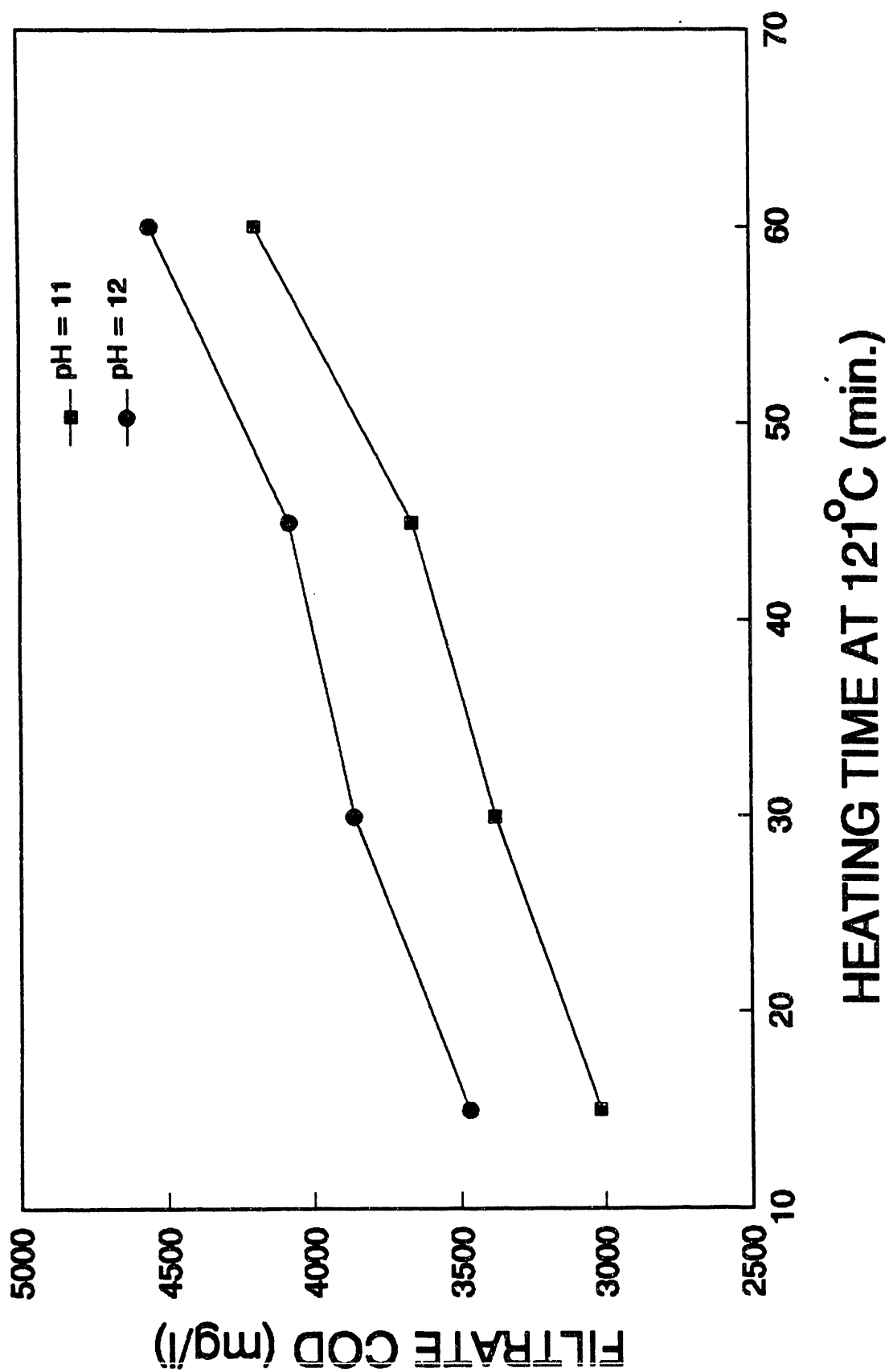


Figure 16. Soluble COD in a suspension of sewage sludge solids heated at 121°C at pH 11 and 12. (Soluble COD in the untreated sample was 80 mg/L)

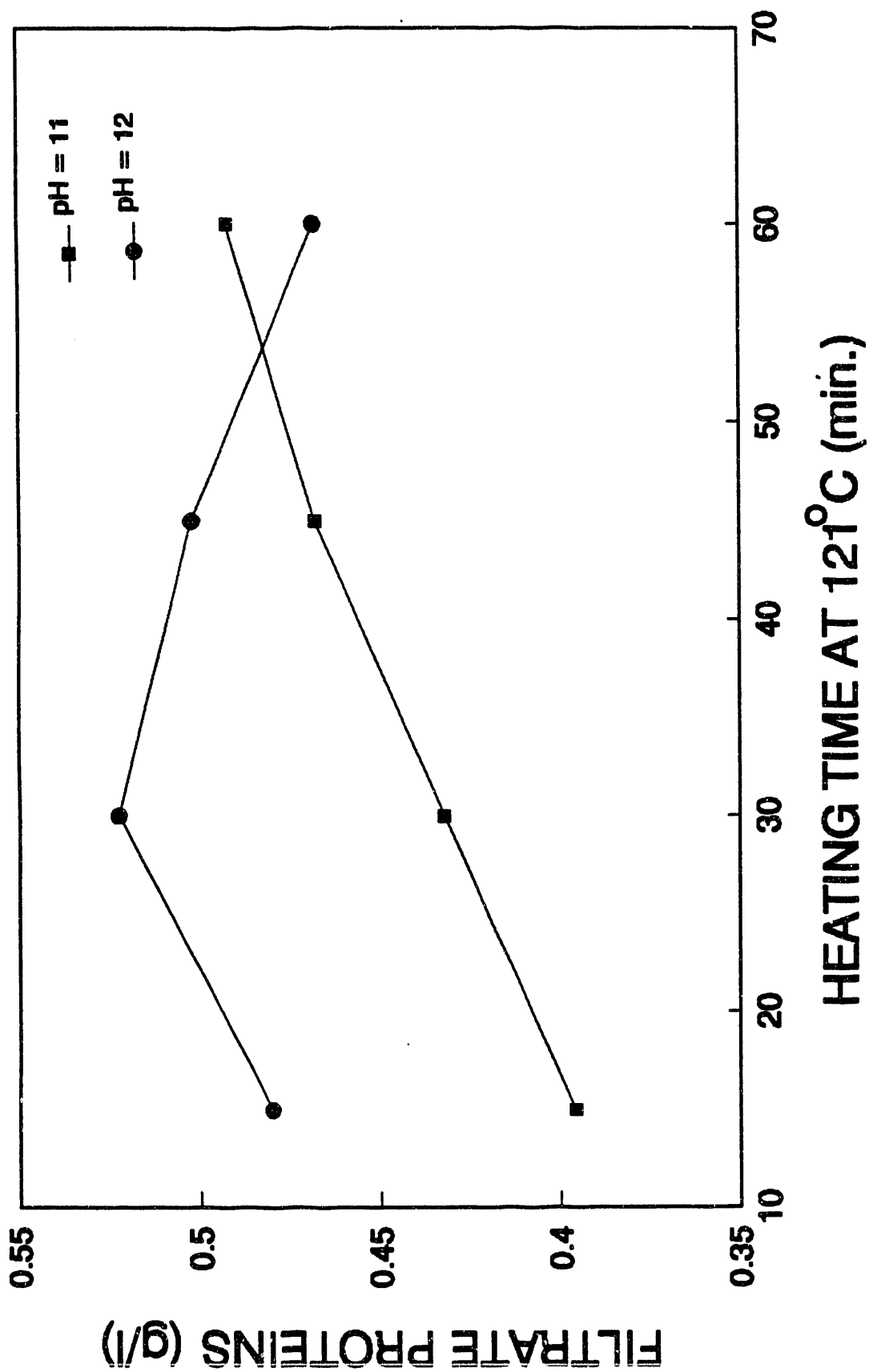


Figure 17. Soluble protein in a suspension of sewage sludge solids heated at 121°C at pH 11 and 12. (Soluble protein in the untreated sample was 0.04 g/L)

121°C. Figure 16 also indicates significant solubilization throughout the range of heating times. As seen in Figure 17, soluble protein was seen to decrease with increasing heating time at pH 12 above 30 min. This was likely due to hydrolysis of solubilized proteins to produce peptides and amino acids which did not respond to the Bradford analysis method for protein.

The effect of heating temperature at pH 11 and 12 on solubilization of sewage solids was also investigated: Municipal sewage solids were again suspended in the medium described in Table 20 to a concentration of 100 g wet-packed solids per liter. At this time 100-mL samples of this suspension were adjusted to pH 11 or 12 with 10N NaOH with duplicate samples incubated at room temperature (25°C), 50°C, 80°C and 121°C (autoclave) for 60 minutes. Suspensions were then cooled to room temperature and the pH adjusted to 7.0 with 6N HCl. Control suspensions received no treatment. Each sample was analyzed to determine the MLSS and the soluble COD and soluble protein in the filtrate. Results are shown in Figures 18-20. As seen in Figure 18 the MLSS declined with increasing temperature of incubation at pH 11 and pH 12. However, significant solubilization (35%) was indicated only at 121°C and pH 12. It is interesting that the filtrate COD (Figure 19) did not follow the same trend in that the filtrate COD at pH 11 and 12 were similar. As seen in Figure 20 significantly more protein was solubilized at pH 12 than pH 11 at 25-80°C. At 121°C the soluble protein at pH 12 is actually lower than that at pH 11. This was probably due to hydrolysis of proteins at pH 12 and 121°C producing amino acids and short peptides which do not respond to the Bradford method of protein analysis.

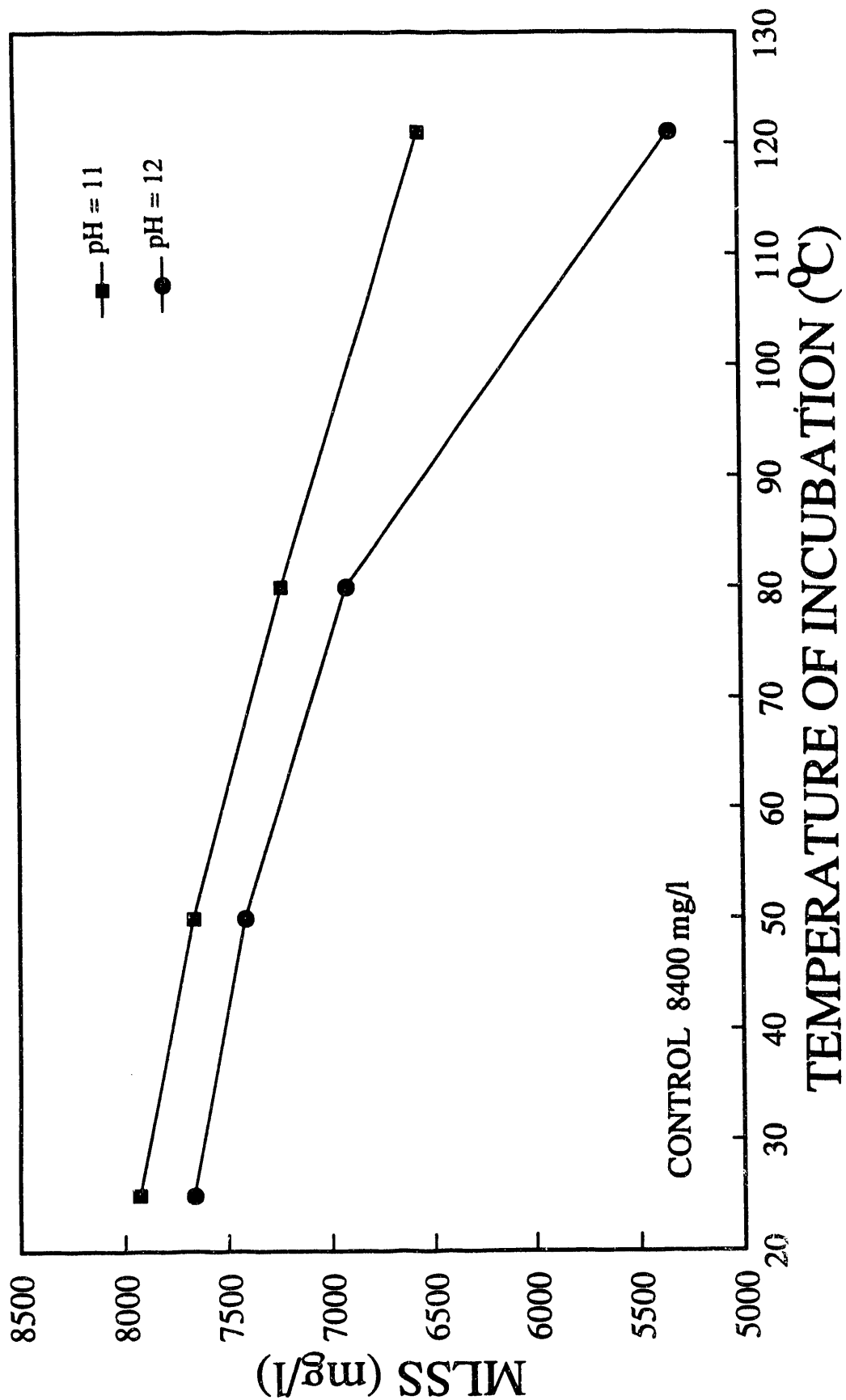


Figure 18. Effect of pH and incubation temperature on MLSS concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

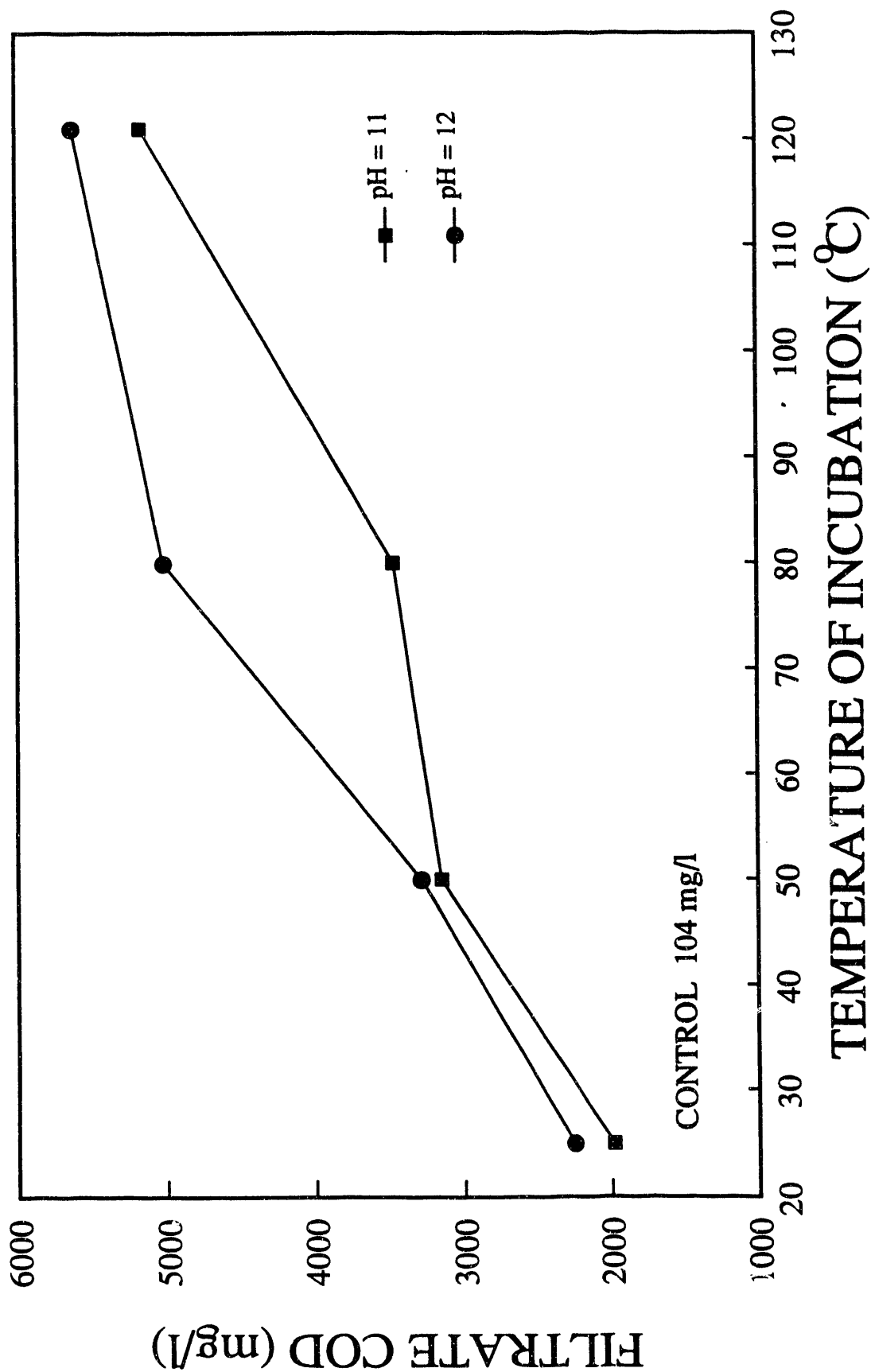


Figure 19. Effect of pH and incubation temperature on filtrate COD in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

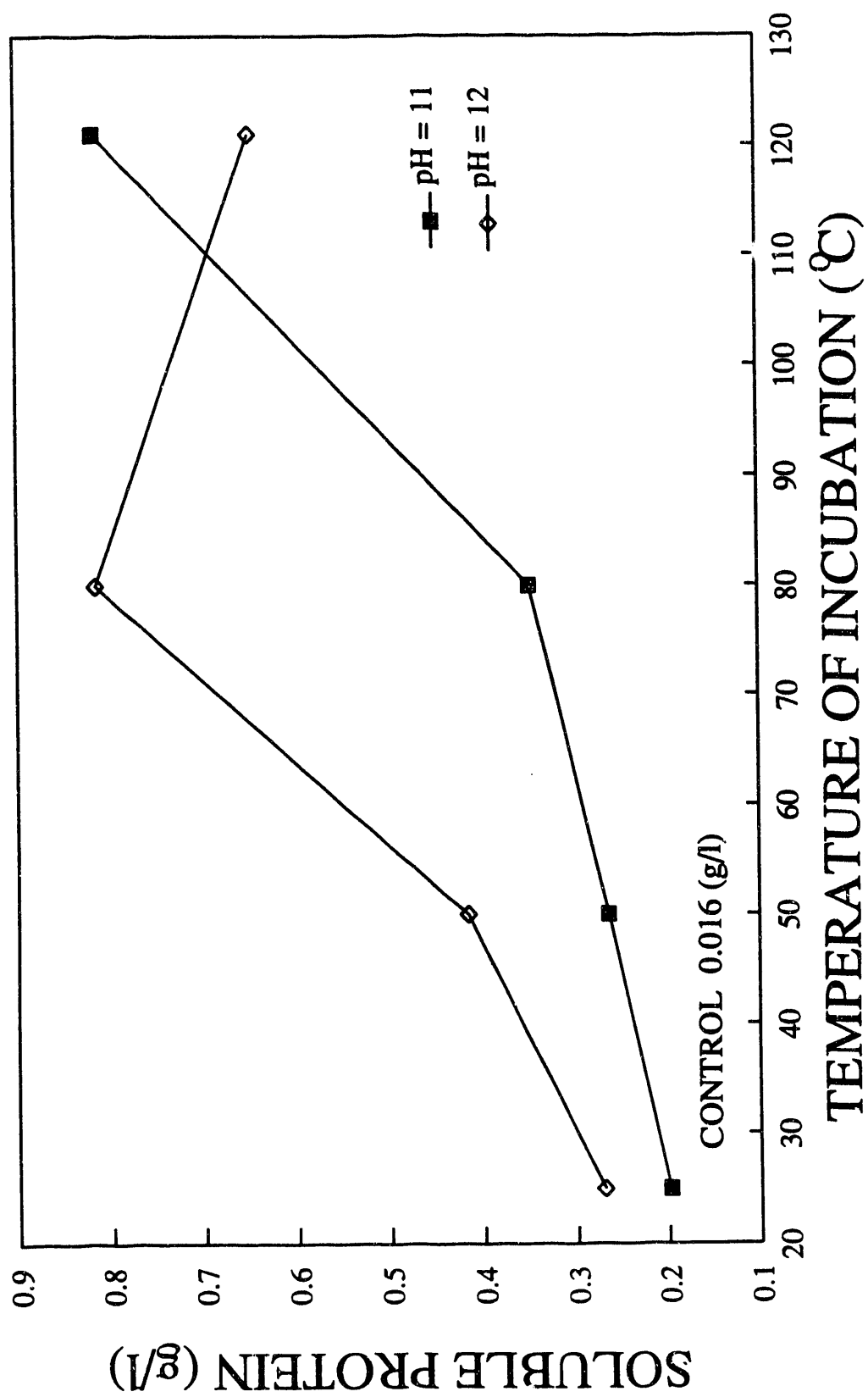


Figure 20. Effect of pH and incubation temperature on soluble protein concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

This experiment was repeated at incubation temperatures of 75°C, 85°C, 100°C and 121°C with similar results (Figures 21-23).

5.1.2.2 Enzyme Treatment

As noted in Section 5 enzymes can potentially be used to "depolymerize" biopolymers of municipal sewage solids and make fermentable substrates available in SO₂-reducing cultures. A preliminary investigation of the use of liquefaction enzymes was conducted as follows. Three enzymes were chosen for this initial study: lipase, pronase and lysozyme. Lipase (triacylglycerol acylhydrolase) hydrolyzes triglycerides liberating free fatty acids. Pronase is an unusually non-specific protease from Streptomyces griseus. Lysozyme is a mucopeptide N-acetylmuramoylhydrolase and is useful in fragmenting bacterial cell wall biopolymers.

Municipal sewage solids were suspended in the medium described in Table 20 to a concentration of 100 g wet-packed sludge solids per liter. 100-ml samples of this suspension were adjusted to pH 12 with 10N NaOH and autoclaved at 121°C for 30 min. Cooled suspensions were adjusted back to pH 7.0. Various suspensions were then treated with 1.0 mL of a 0.10 g/mL solution of pronase, lipase or lysozyme, mixed well and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour. (Controls were incubated without enzyme treatment.) At the end of this time suspensions were filtered and the filtrates analyzed for soluble COD and soluble protein. Appropriate dilutions of each enzyme solution were also analyzed in order to correct the COD and protein measurements for contributions from the enzyme preparations. Results are shown in Table 21. Table 21 indicates that soluble COD increased by about 16% when heat/alkali treated sludge suspensions were treated with pronase

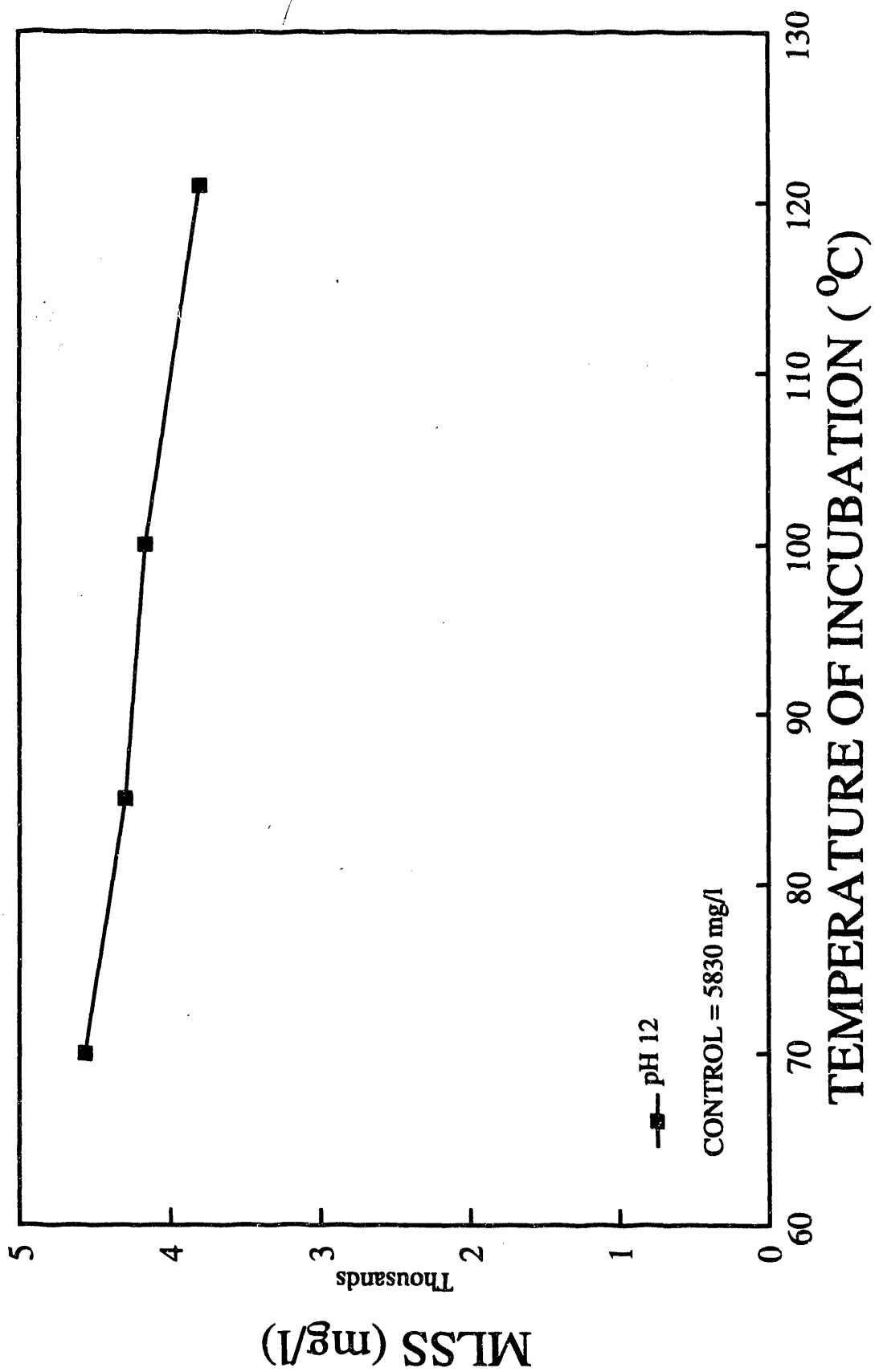


Figure 21. Effect of incubation temperature at pH 12 on MLSS concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

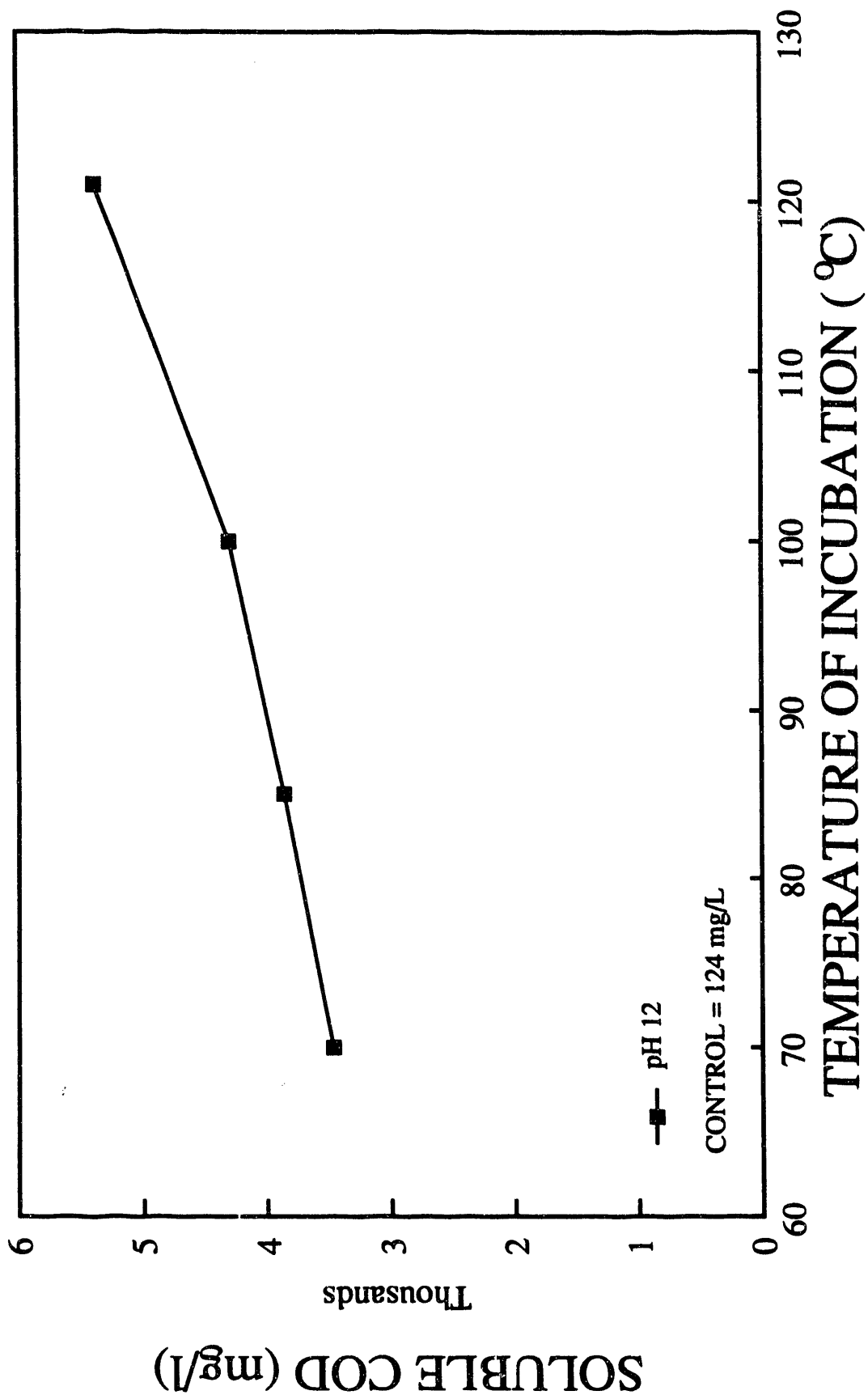


Figure 22. Effect of incubation temperature at pH 12 on filtrate COD concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

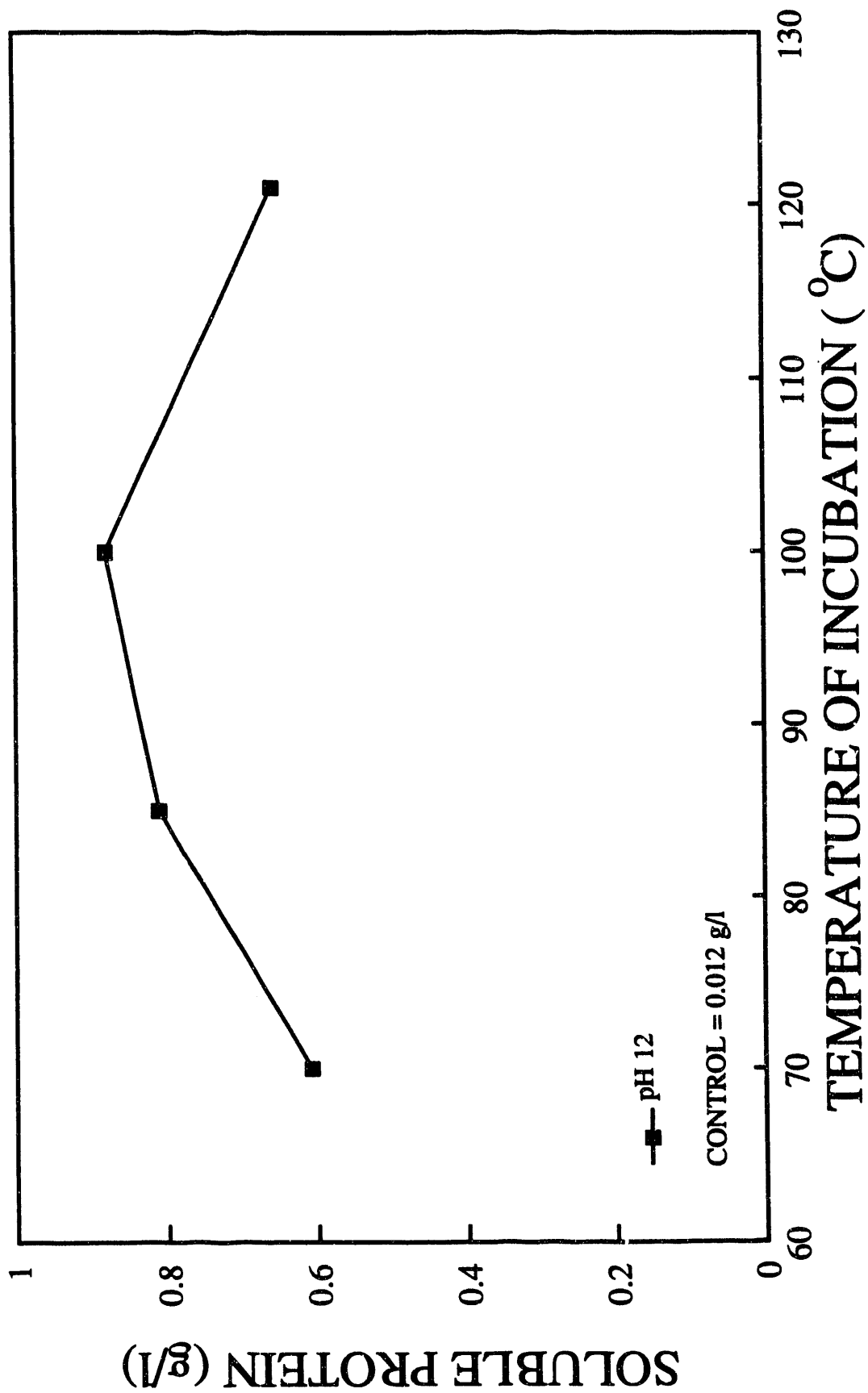


Figure 23. Effect of temperature at pH 12 on soluble protein concentration in a suspension of municipal sewage solids.

Table 21. Soluble COD and Protein Concentrations
in Filtrates of Enzyme Treated Suspensions
of Heat/Alkali Treated Sewage Solids

<u>Enzyme Treatment</u>	<u>COD, mg/L*</u>	<u>Protein, mg/L*</u>
Lipase	4521	0.41
Pronase	4542	0.17
Lysozyme	3345	0.33
None	3903	0.52

* Corrected for COD and protein contributions of enzyme preparations

or lipase. However, the soluble protein concentrations were seen to decrease in all enzyme-treated samples. A dramatic decrease was seen in pronase-treated samples. This is not unexpected since hydrolyzed proteins would be unreactive toward the reagent utilized for protein analysis (Bradford). The decrease in soluble protein concentration in the other enzyme-treated samples may be due to some contamination of these preparations with proteases.

In conclusion, it appears that these enzymes can produce only modest increases in the concentration of fermentable substrates in the best cases. However, these and other enzymes may be investigated again at a later date.

5.1.3 Further Studies of a Continuous Sulfate-Reducing Mixed Culture of *D. desulfuricans* Operating with a Feed of Municipal Sewage Sludge

The continuous culture described in Section 5.1.1 was operated with sulfate as the terminal electron acceptor for an additional 60 days with various changes in the feed and operating conditions. At the beginning of this experiment, the operating conditions were essentially the same as those described in Table 16 except that the sulfate and yeast extract concentrations in the feed were 7.8 g/L (as Na₂SO₄) and 5.5 g/L, respectively. The following changes were made in the feed condition during the course of the experiment:

<u>Day</u>	<u>Change</u>
2	Feed autoclaved at 121°C for 30 min
26	pH of feed adjusted to 10 followed by autoclaving at 121°C for 30 min, and readjustment to pH 7.0
31-35	50 g wet-packed sludge from anaerobic digester added daily. (The purpose of this introduction of anaerobic sludge was an attempt to introduce bacteria capable of liquefaction of biopolymers).

- 35 Yeast extract concentration reduced from 5.5 g/L
 to 2.0 g/L
- 42 Feed autoclaved at 121°C for 60 min (at pH 10)
- 51 Yeast extract eliminated
 Feed autoclaved at 121°C for 30 min (at pH 12)

The MLSS concentrations in the feed and effluent from the reactor during this experiment are shown in Figures 24a and 24b. The total COD and filtrate COD (minus solids) of the feed and effluent are shown in Figures 25 and 26 respectively. The sulfate concentrations are shown in Figures 27a and 27b. Protein concentrations, total and feed filtrate, are shown in Figures 28a and 28b.

Examination of these figures leads to the following conclusions.

- 1) Autoclaving alone at 121°C for 30 min did not produce any appreciable reduction in MLSS of the feed and therefore little apparent solubilization of sewage solids. However, the effluent sulfate concentration was seen to decline in this period indicating that SRB activity was stimulated.
- 2) Heating feed to 121°C under alkaline conditions produced a decrease in MLSS of the feed resulting in greater availability of fermentable substrates. (Note increase in feed filtrate protein and COD).
- 3) The effluent MLSS was lower than the influent MLSS under all feed conditions indicating utilization of some solid components of the feed.
- 4) Addition of sludge from an anaerobic digester did not produce any appreciable increase in the soluble COD or protein in the reactor effluent or any decrease in the

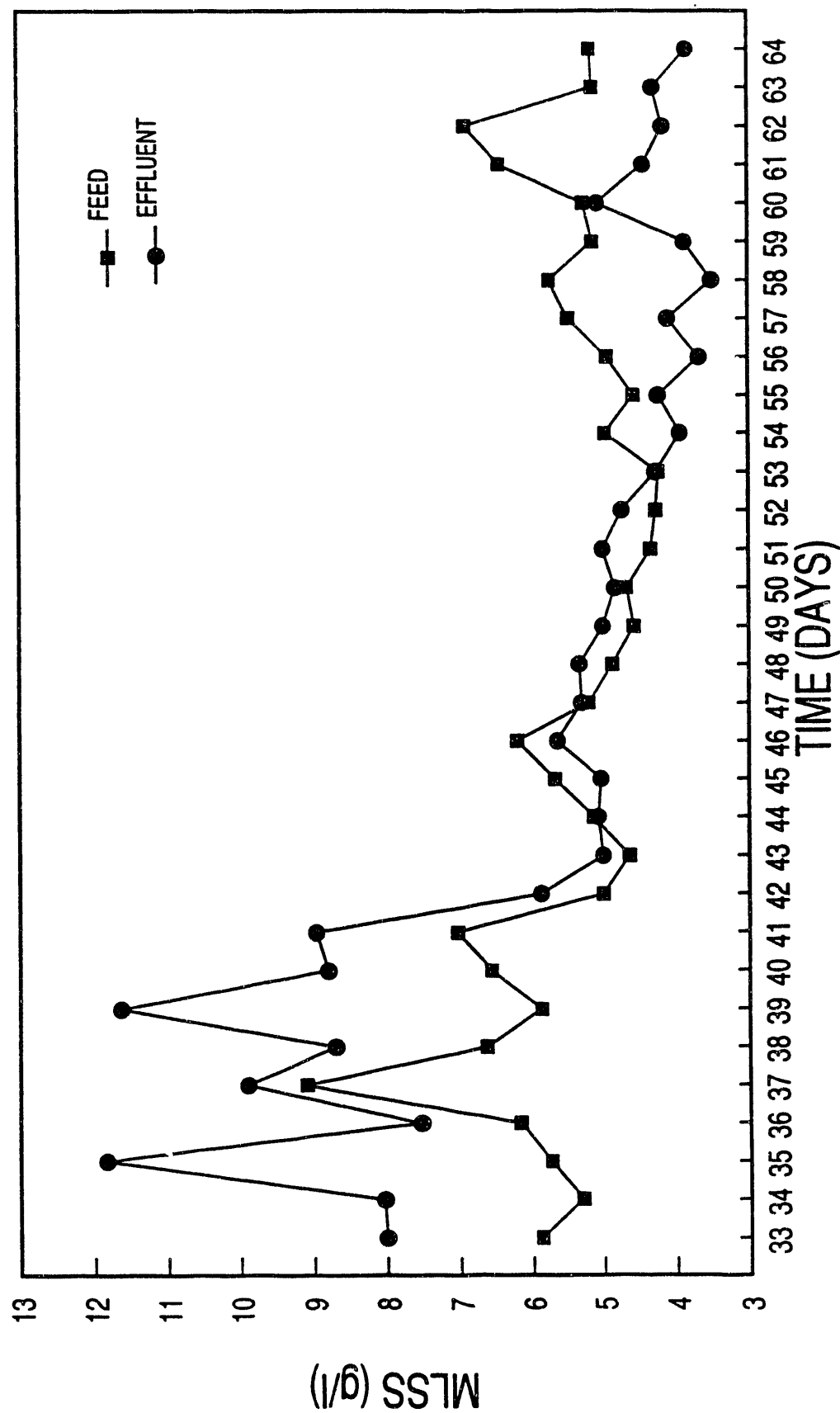


Figure 24b. MLSS concentrations in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

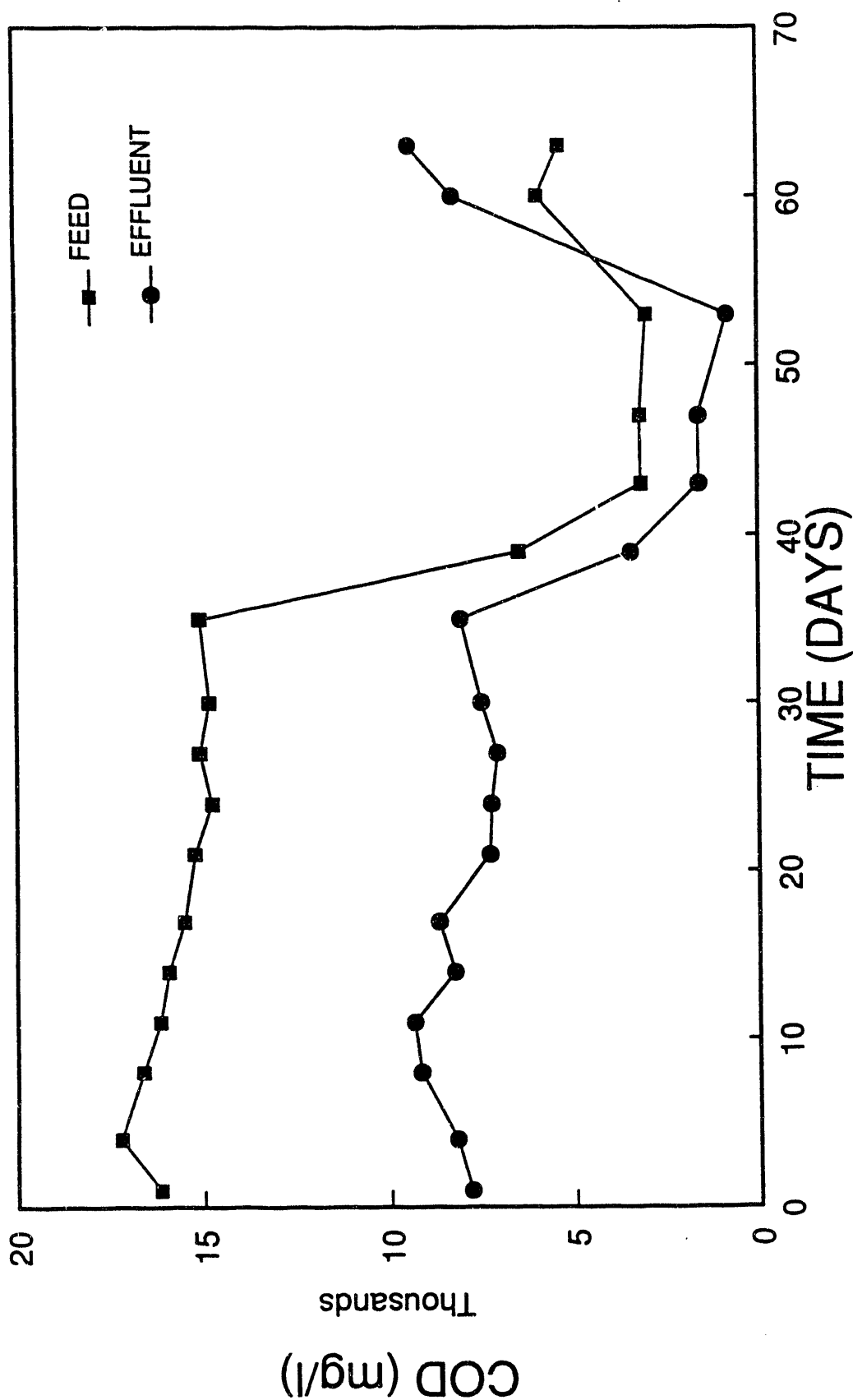


Figure 25. Total COD in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

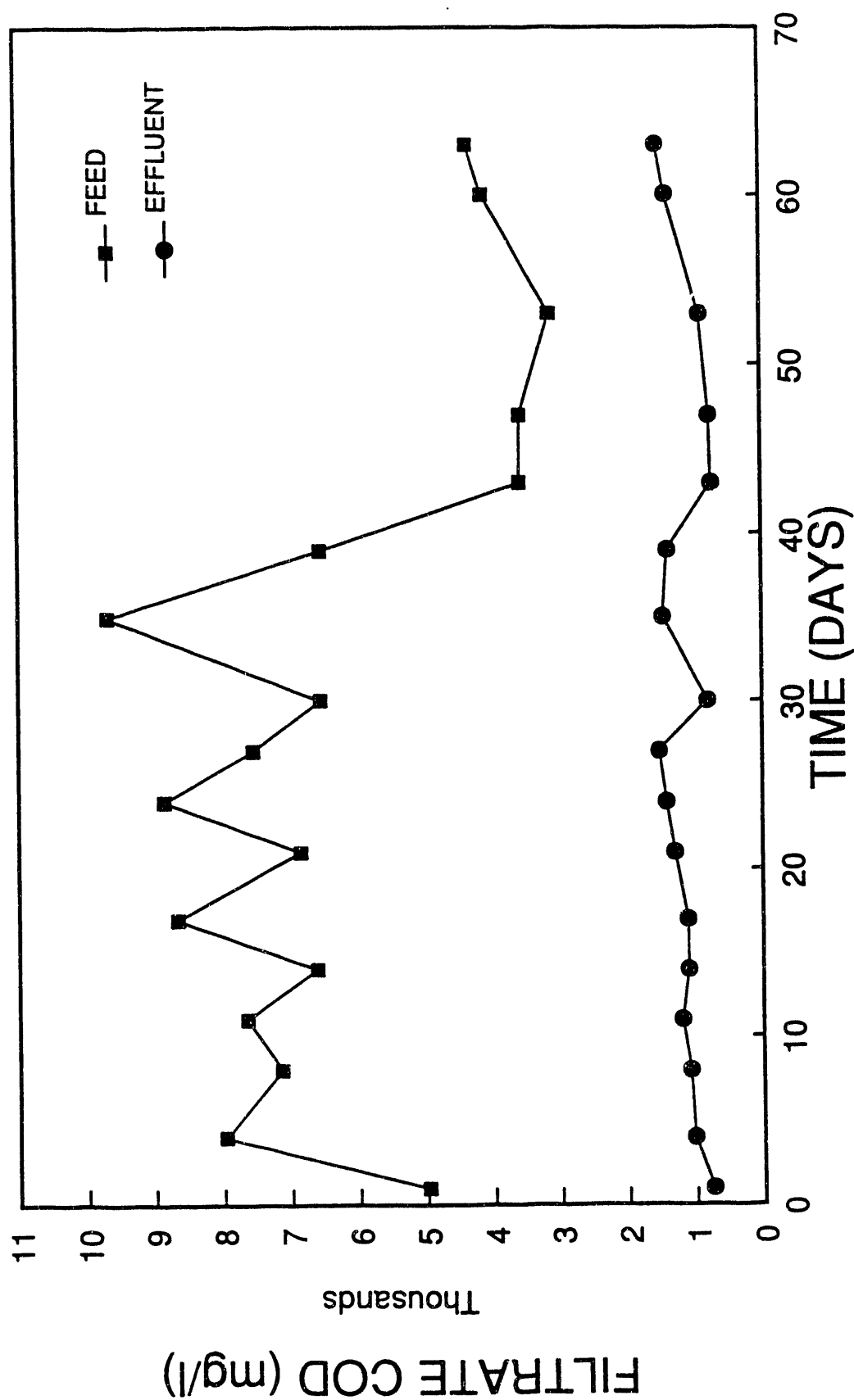


Figure 26. Filtrate or soluble COD in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

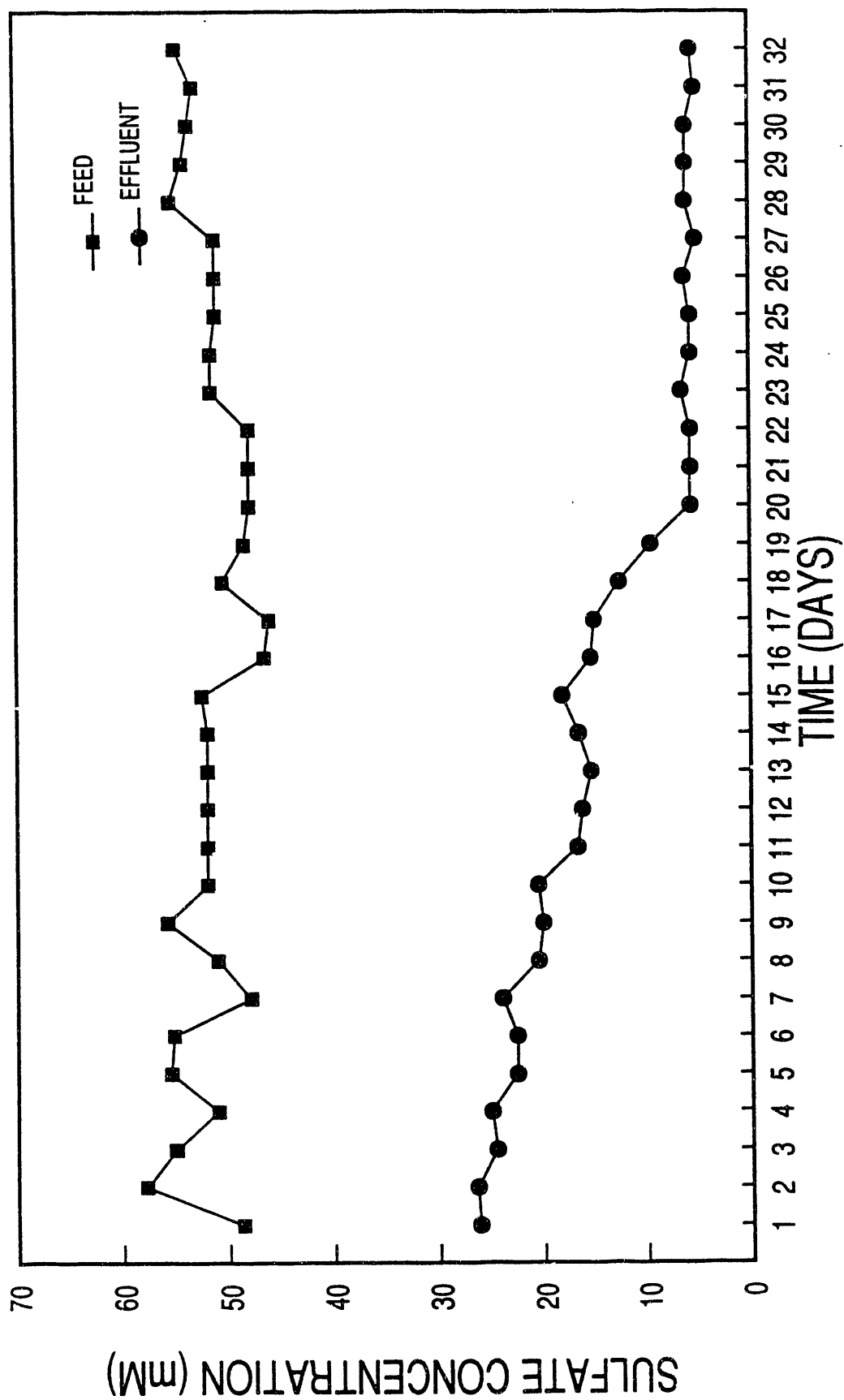


Figure 27a. Sulfate concentration in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

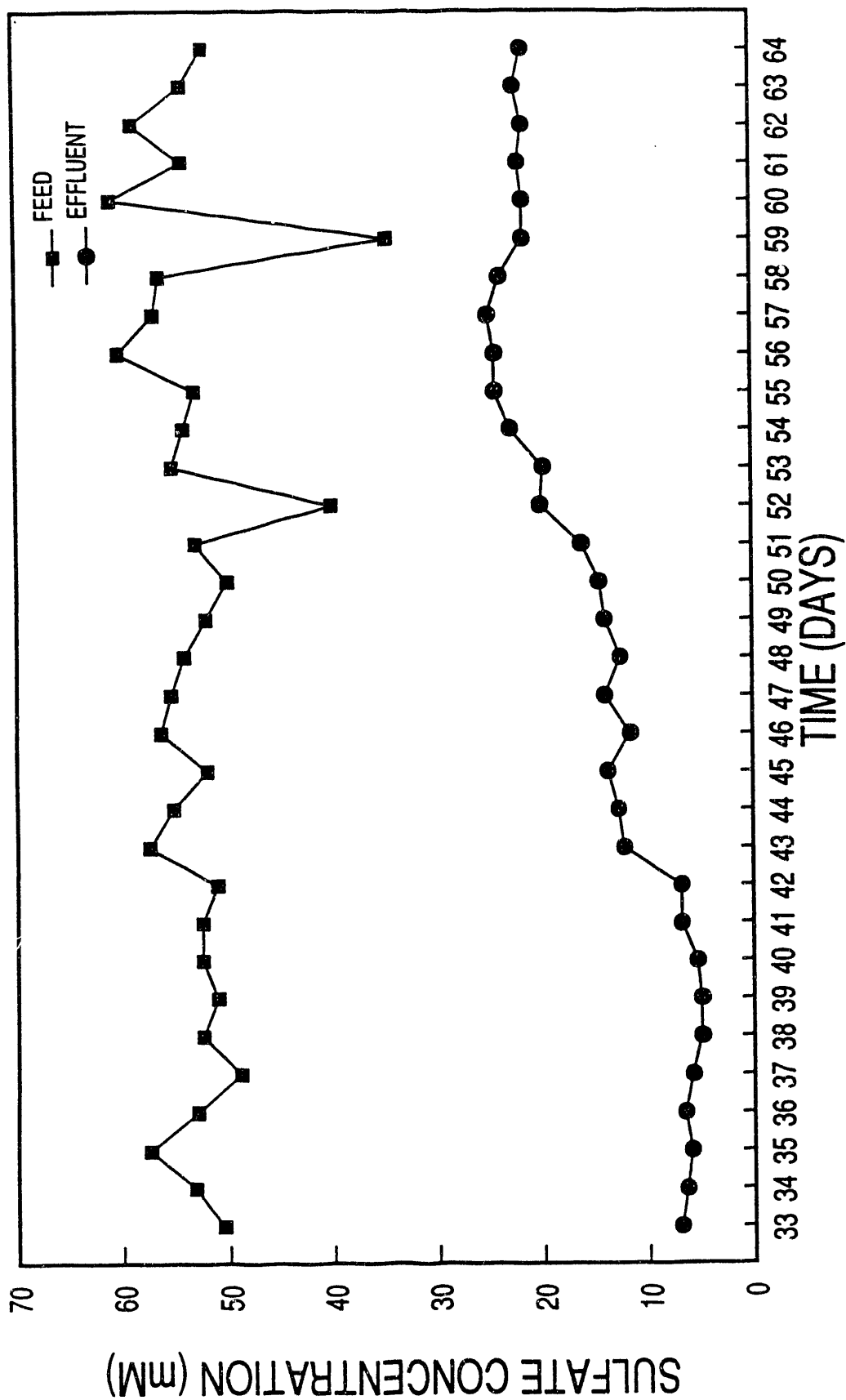


Figure 27b. Sulfate concentration in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

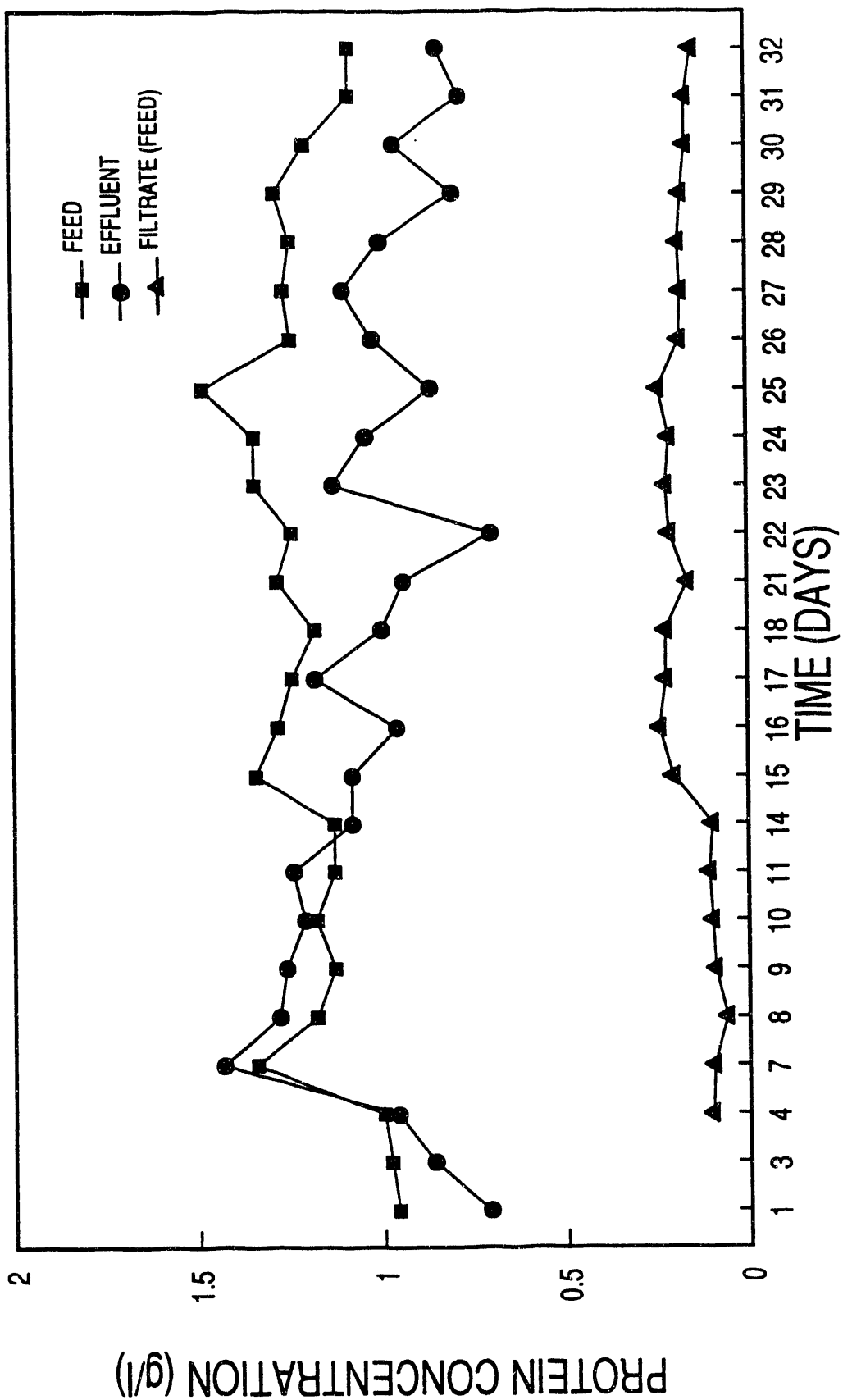


Figure 20a. Soluble protein concentration in the feed and effluent of a continuous SRB-bioreactor operating with a feed of heat and/or alkali treated municipal sewage sludge with and without yeast extract supplement.

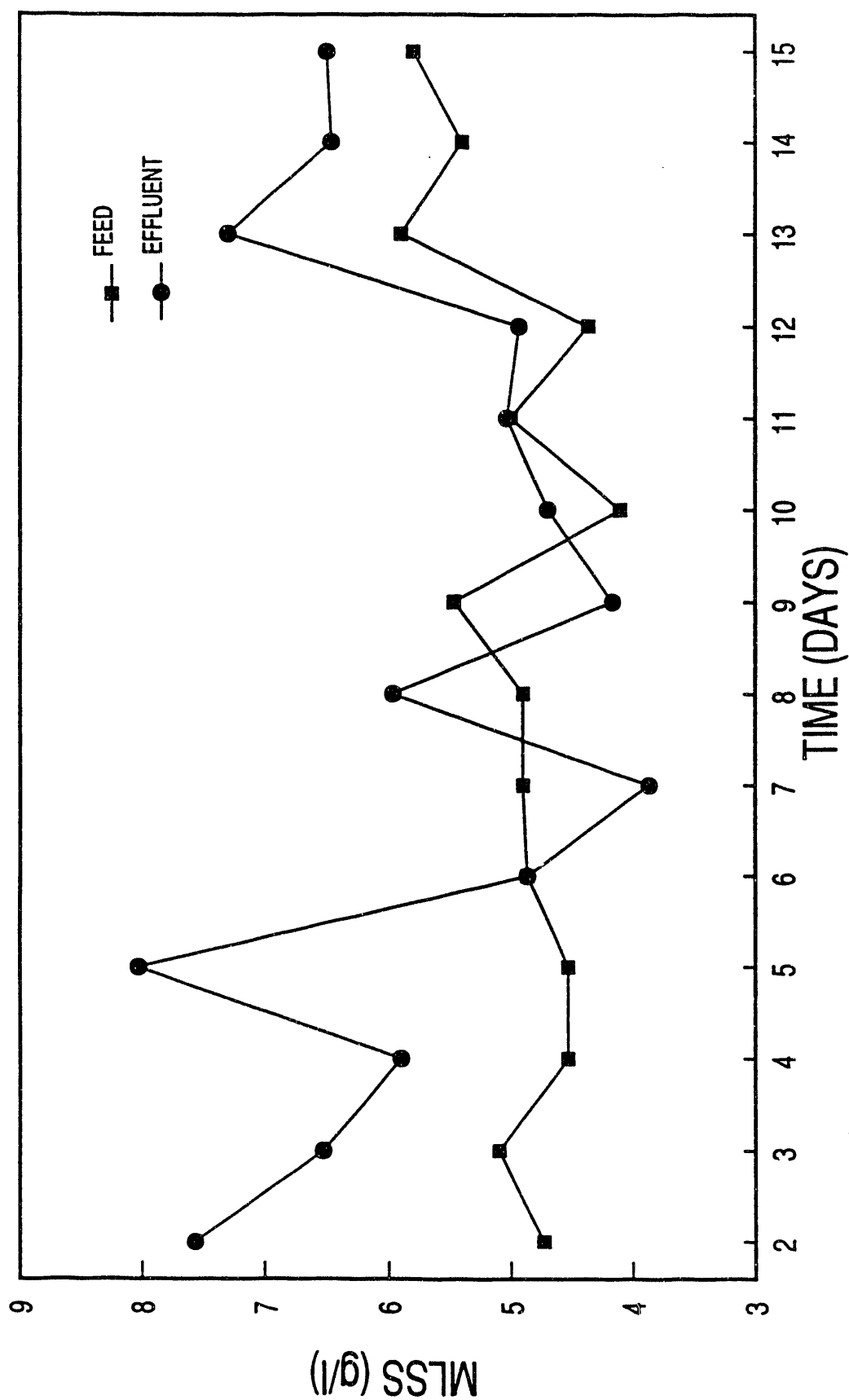


Figure 33. MLSS concentrations in the feed and effluent of an SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed of pretreated municipal sewage sludge.

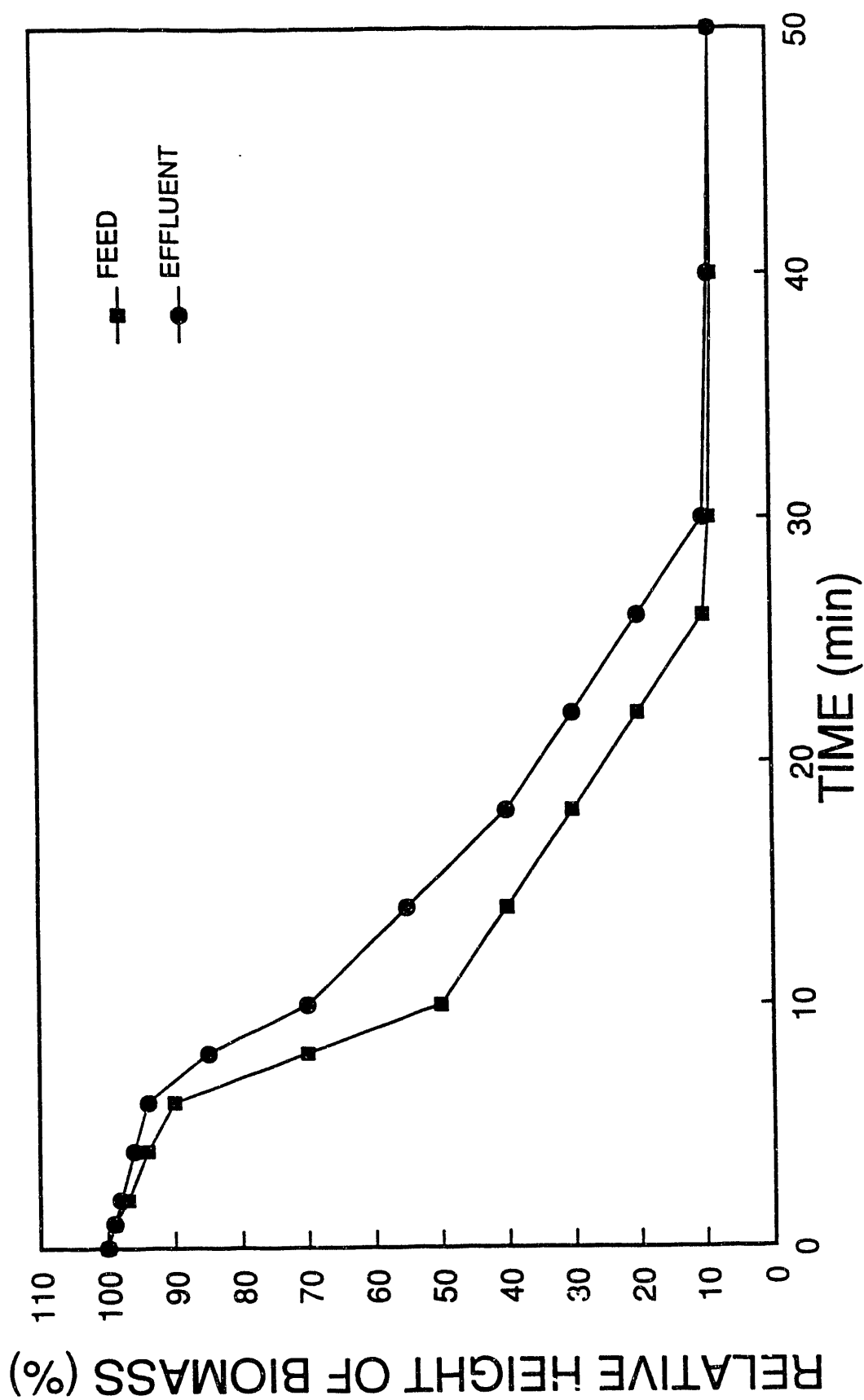


Figure 34. Settling properties of feed and effluent solids of an SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed of pretreated municipal sewage sludge. (Feed and effluent solids were diluted to 1.5 g/L for settling tests.)

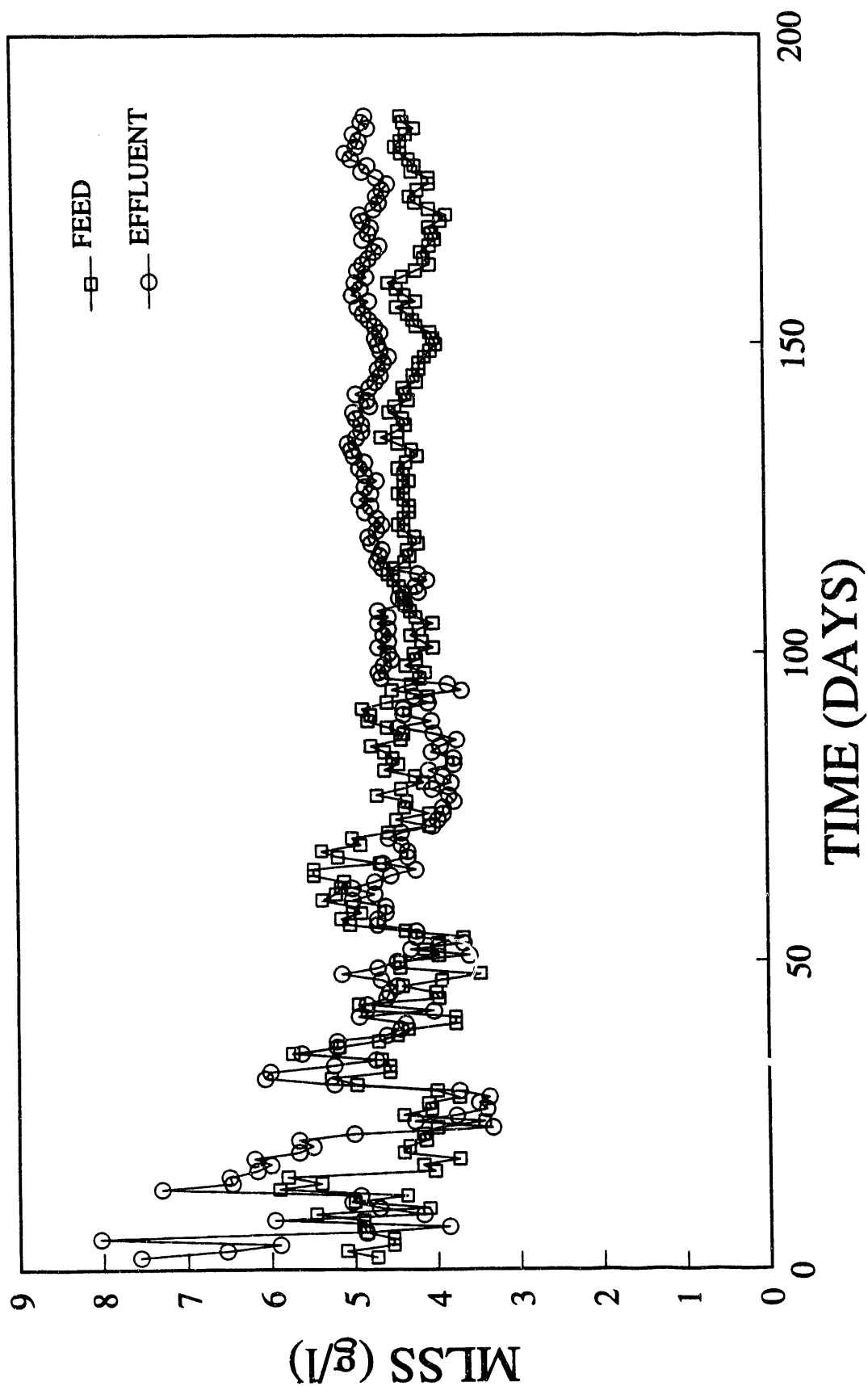


Figure 35. MLSS concentrations in the feed and effluent of a continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed on heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge

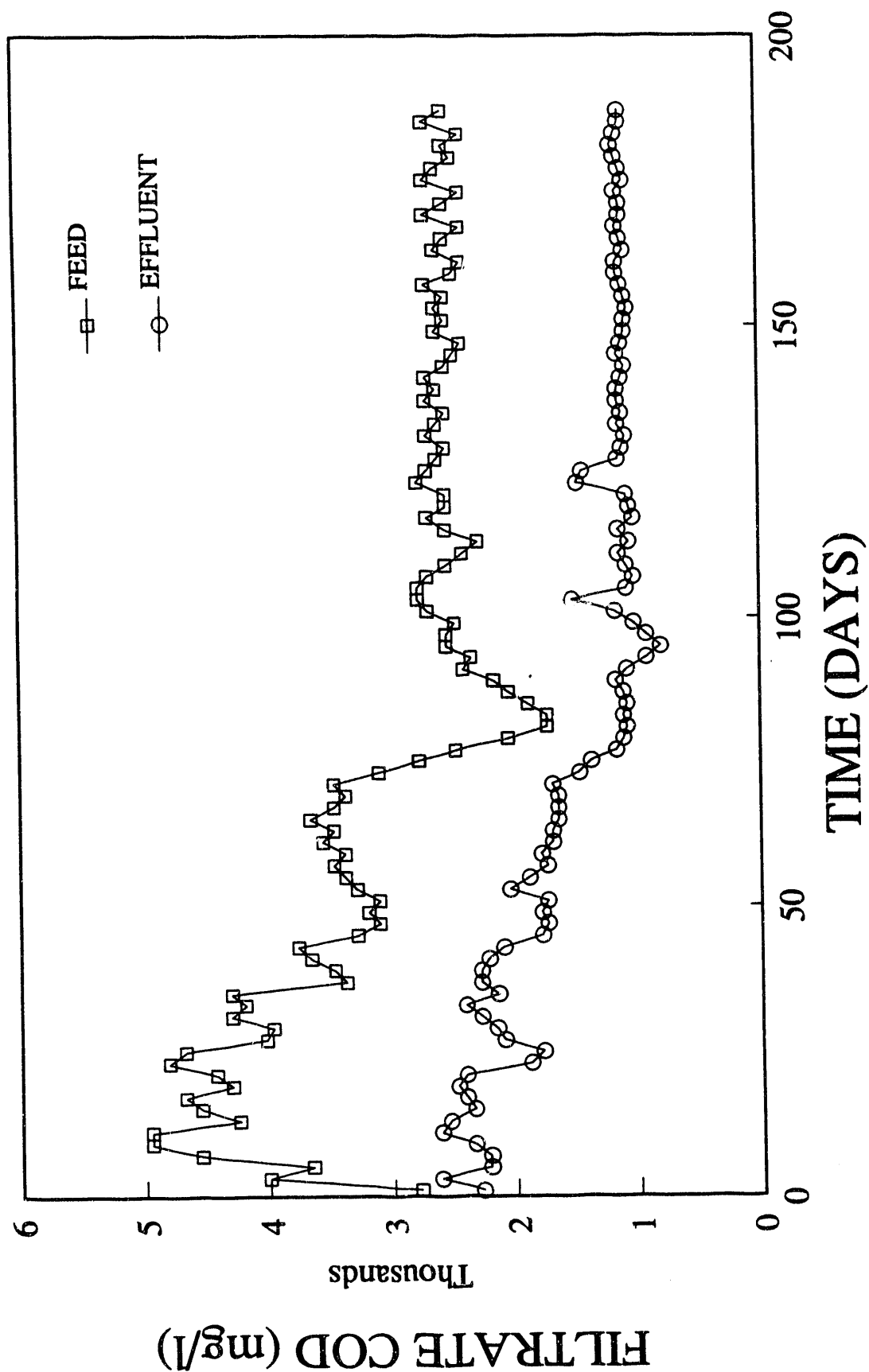


Figure 36. Filtrate or soluble COD concentrations in the feed and effluent of a continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed on heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge.

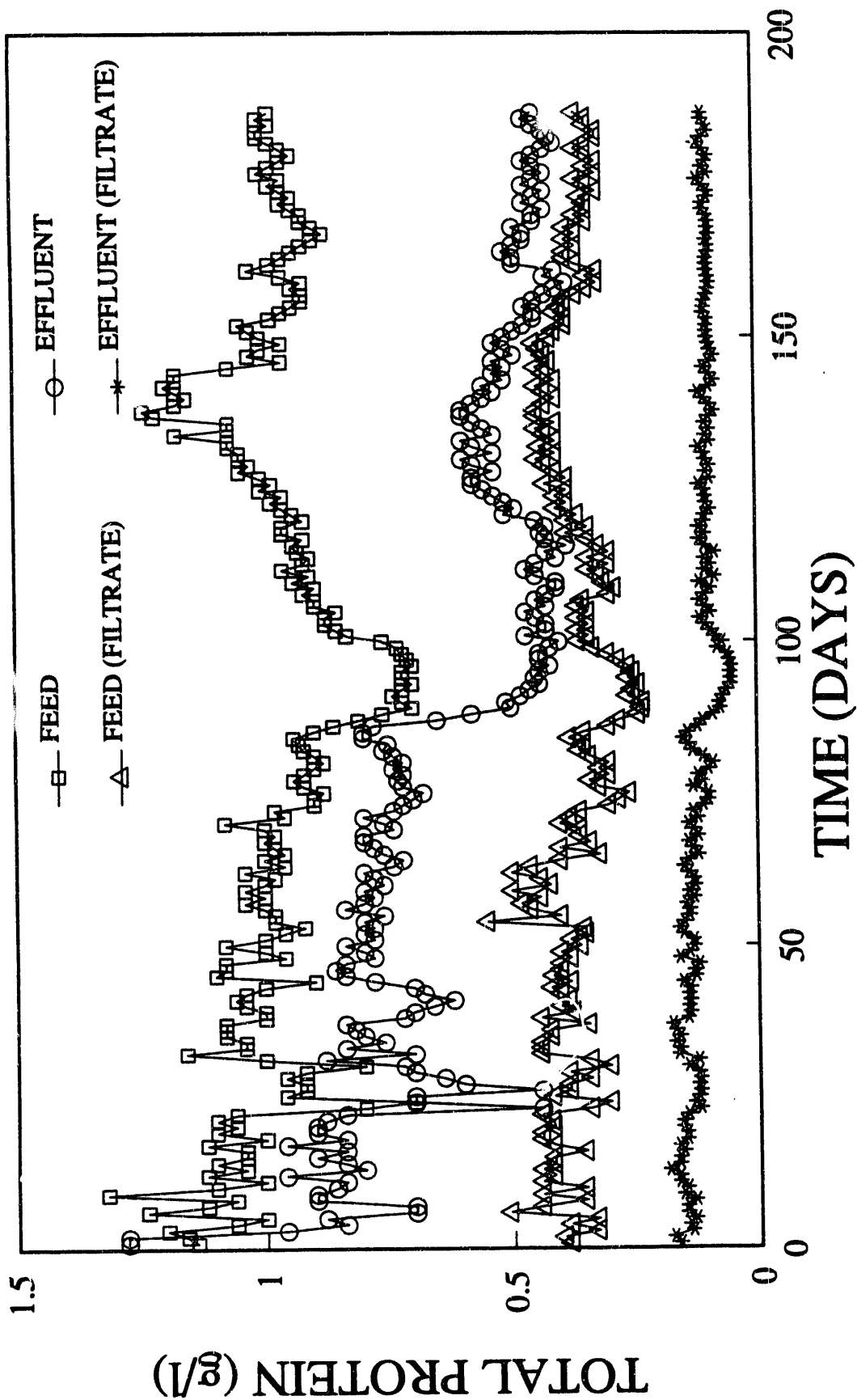


Figure 37. Protein concentrations in the feed and effluent of a continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed on heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge.

operation of this reactor. Time zero corresponds to the initiation of SO_2 feed. The culture has continued to operate under the conditions described in Section 5.1.4 except for a decrease in the volumetric feed rate from 12 mL/hr to 8 mL/hr on day 59. The culture has operated at 8 mL/hr since then. As seen in Figures 35-34 the culture has been subject to variations in the feed composition with regard to soluble COD and total protein. Since the method of preparation of the feed has not changed during the course of the experiment, the variations have been attributed to variations in the sludge as obtained from the municipal sewage treatment system. Despite these variations the culture has been very stable with respect to SO_2 reduction. No upsets (as indicated by accumulation of sulfite in the culture medium) have been observed and as shown in Table 22 complete reduction of SO_2 to H_2S was observed. As seen in Figure 38 excellent settling properties of effluent solids have been maintained throughout the course of the experiment.

Since about 100 days the reactor has operated with about a 10% increase in MLSS from feed to effluent. Note, however, the roughly 50% decrease in total protein. During the last 60 days, there has been a 60% decrease in the feed soluble COD compared to the effluent. As seen in Figure 37, there has been a similar decrease in the soluble protein comparing the feed to the effluent.

Feed and effluent filtrates were analyzed for total carbohydrates, carboxylic acids and lipids at about 130 days. The total feed and effluent were also analyzed for lipids. Total carbohydrates were determined by the Orcinol method with glucose as a standard. Carboxylic acids were determined by gas chromatography as

22. Sulfur Balances in Continuous SO_2 -Reducing
Reactor Operated on Feed of Heat/Alkali
Pretreated Sewage Sludge

<u>SO_2 Feed Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H_2S Production Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>$\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{SO}_2$</u>
0.205	0.204	1.00
0.205	0.209	1.02
0.222	0.224	1.01
0.222	0.219	0.99
0.236	0.229	0.97
0.236	0.232	0.98

described in Table 19. Lipids were determined gravimetrically via two-stage extraction by diethyl ether. Results are shown in Table 23. As seen in Table 23, very little production of carboxylic acids was seen as has been noted previously. The data with regard to lipid analysis suggest under-utilization of the lipid fraction despite significant solubilization. The more efficient utilization of this fraction will be studied further.

Routine monitoring of H_2S in the outlet gas was done by gas chromatography as described in Table 17. However, more accurate chemical methods were also employed in which H_2S in the outlet gas was precipitated as ZnS and analyzed spectrophotometrically as follows: Reactor outlet gas was bubbled into 400 mL 0.1% zinc acetate for 2 hours. Two reagents were required for colorimetric analysis of the precipitated sulfide, DMPD reagent and ferric reagent. The DMPD reagent was prepared by dissolving 1.0 g of N,N-dimethyl-p-phenylenediamine sulfate, 1.0 g $Zn(CH_3COO)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ and 50 mL of concentrated H_2SO_4 in distilled water and diluted to one liter. Ferric reagent was prepared by dissolving 5.0 g $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ in 20 mL of distilled water. Suspensions of ZnS were analyzed by mixing 5.0 mL of the ZnS suspension (or a suitable dilution) with 4.9 mL DMPD reagent followed by immediate addition of 0.1 mL of ferric reagent. The absorbance at 660 nm was then read after at least 10 min incubation at room temperature. Sulfide standards were prepared by washing $Na_2S \cdot 9H_2O$ with distilled water, drying at room temperature and dissolving approximately 8 g in anoxic 0.01 N NaOH to a total volume of 1 L.

Table 23. Total Carbohydrates, Carboxylic Acids and Total and Filtrate Lipids in Feed and Effluent of Continuous SO₂-Reducing Culture

<u>Analysis</u>	<u>Feed</u>		<u>Effluent</u>	
	<u>Filtrate</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Filtrate</u>	<u>Total</u>
Carbohydrates	0.98 g/L		0.53 g/L	
Carboxylic Acids:				
Acetic	73 mg/L		59 mg/L	
Propionic	2 mg/L		NT	
Isobutyric	ND		8 mg/L	
Butyric	ND		5 mg/L	
Isovaleric	ND		22 mg/L	
Lipids				
dried @ 60°C	0.24 g/L		0.18 g/L	
dried @ 40°C	0.27 g/L		0.22 g/L	
dried @ 60°C		0.38 g/L		0.27 g/L

ND = not detected

5.1.6 Operation of a Second Continuous SO₂ - Reducing Culture with a Pretreated Municipal Sludge Feed

The operation of the continuous SO₂-reducing culture described in Section 5.1.5 was interrupted for three weeks. During this time the process culture was stored at 4°C. The culture was restarted by harvesting the culture biomass by centrifugation and resuspending in the filtrate of a sample of pretreated municipal sludge feed in a manner similar to that used during the original start-up (see Section 5.1.4). A continuous feed of pretreated sewage sludge was started immediately and the culture operated under the conditions described in Section 5.1.5 at a volumetric feed rate of 8 mL/hr. Figures 39-41 document the feed and effluent MLSS, soluble COD, total protein and soluble protein during this reporting period. It is interesting to note that the performance of this reactor system duplicated that of the previous reactor (see Figures 35-37).

The culture exhibited excellent stability with respect to SO₂ reduction. No upsets (as indicated by the accumulation of sulfite in the culture medium) were observed. Complete reduction of SO₂ to H₂S was also observed. The effluent solids maintained excellent settling properties throughout the operation of this reactor.

Several variations were subsequently made in the feed (both SO₂ and sludge) to this second continuous SO₂-reducing culture. Figures 42 and 43 give the soluble and total protein and soluble COD concentrations in the feed and effluent during this part of this experiment. Time zero on these plots corresponds to day 70 in Figures 40 and 41. For the first 20 days of operation shown in Figures 42 and 43, the sludge feed was prepared as described above. The volumetric

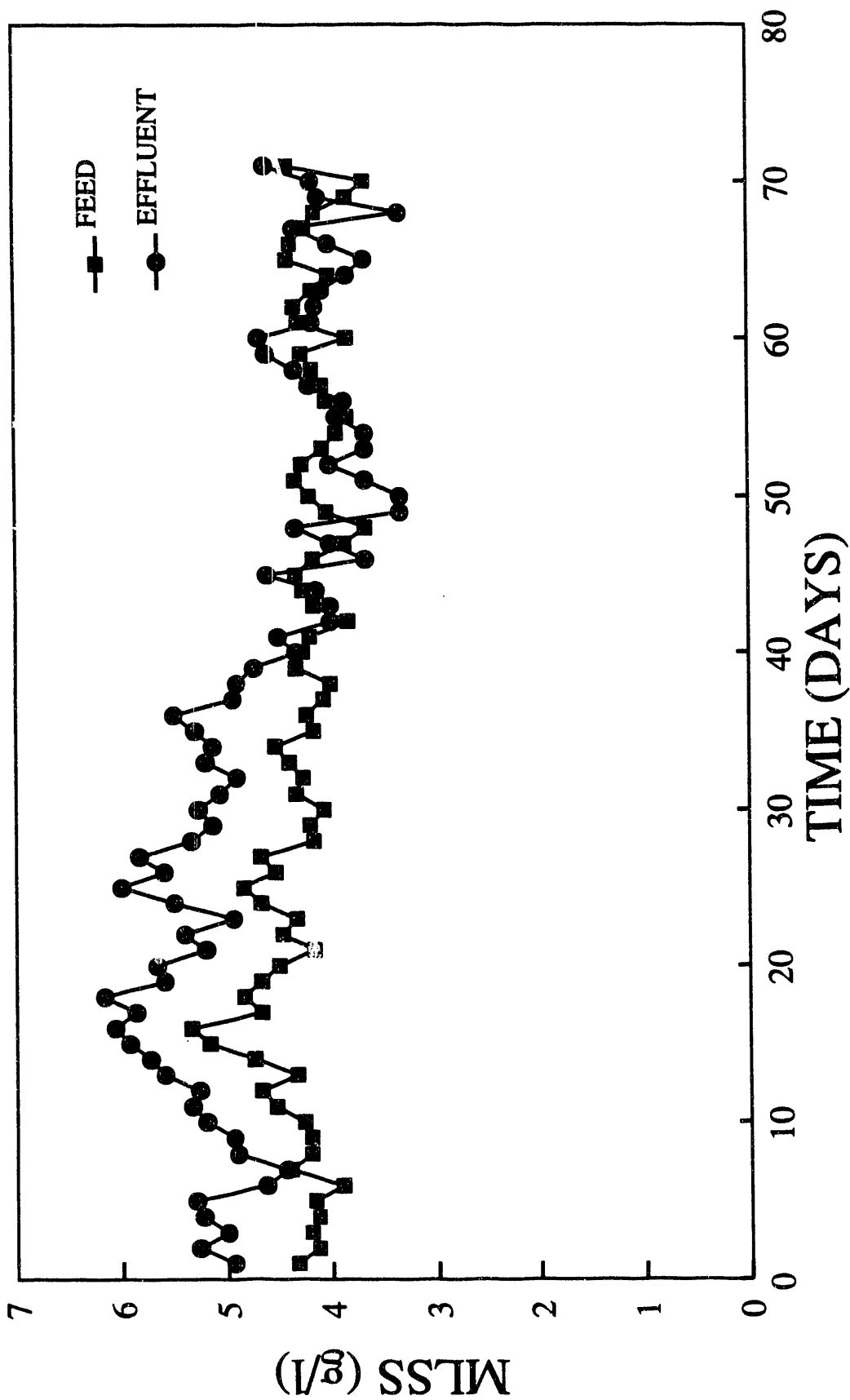


Figure 39. MLSS concentration in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO₂-reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sludge.

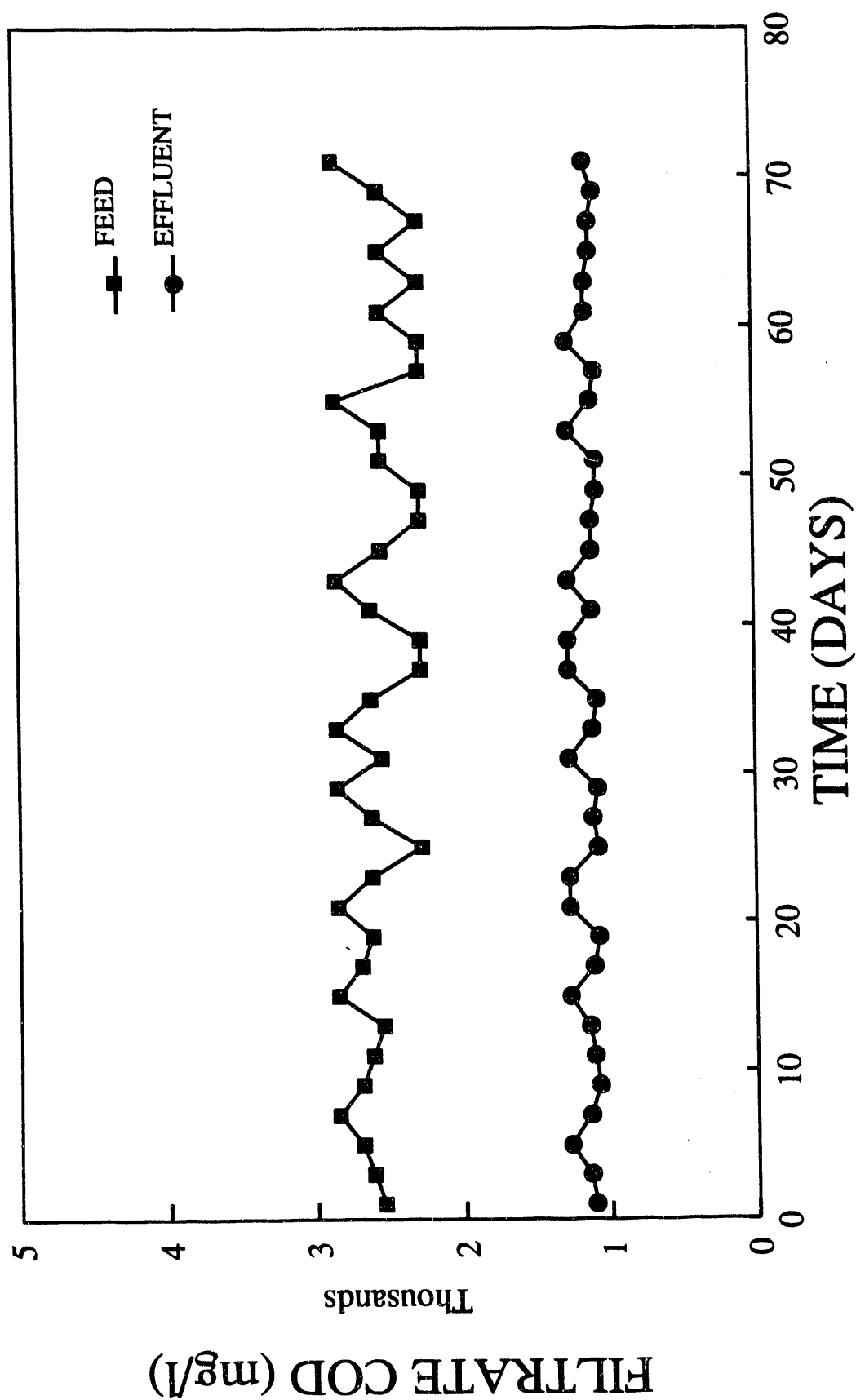


Figure 40. Filtrate or soluble COD in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sludge.

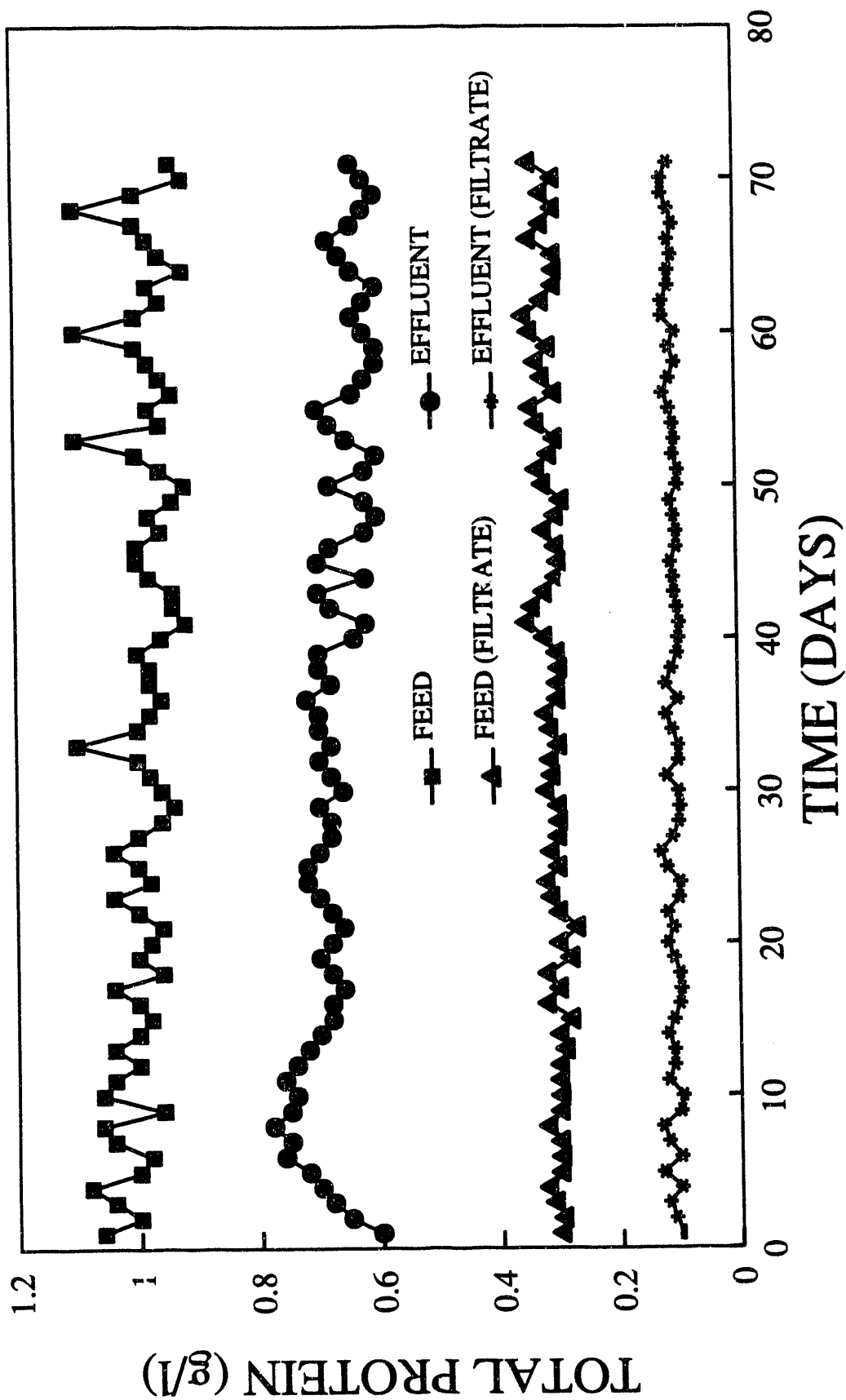


Figure 41. Protein concentrations in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sludge.

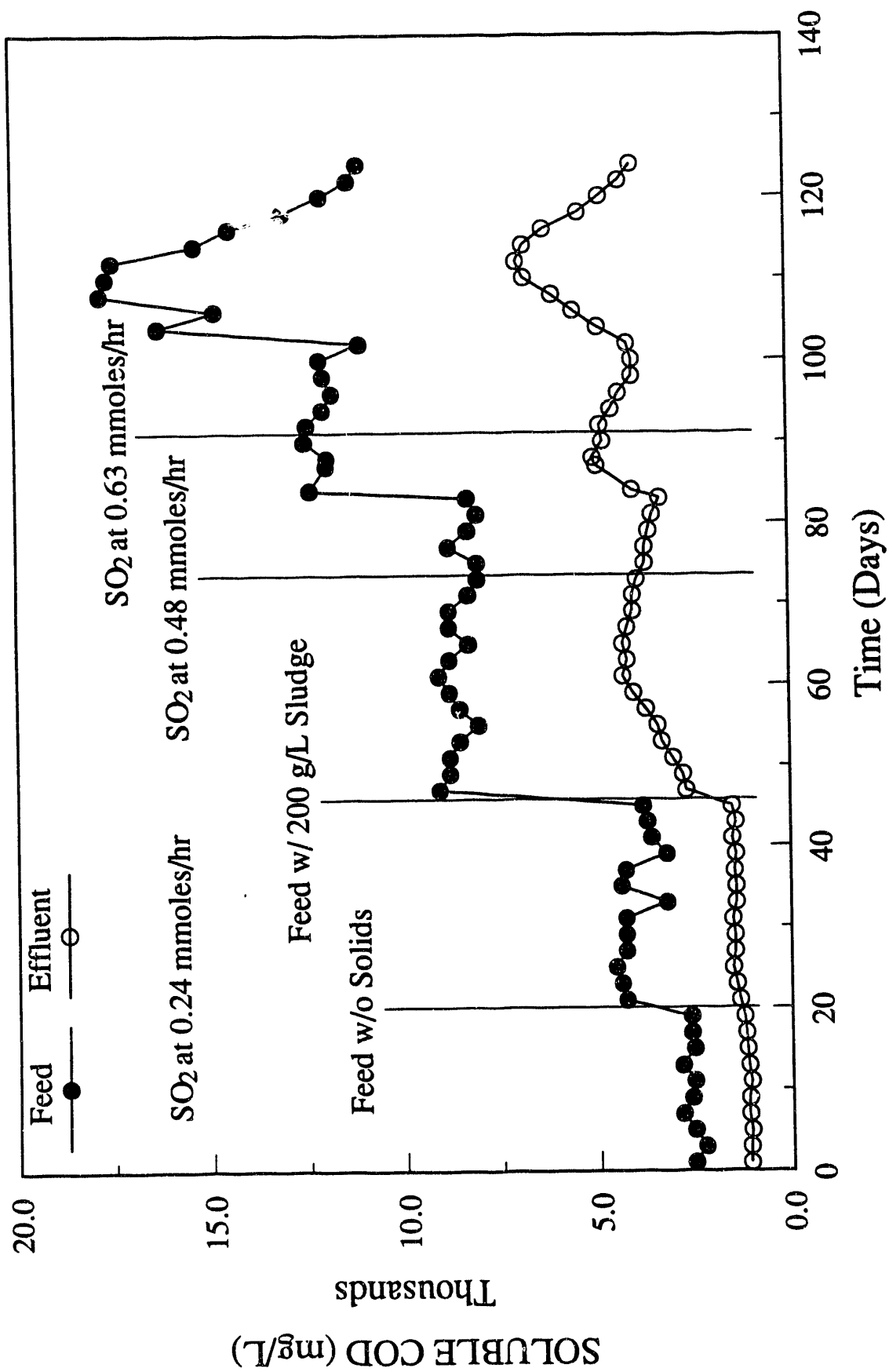


Figure 42. Soluble COD concentration in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO₂-reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge.

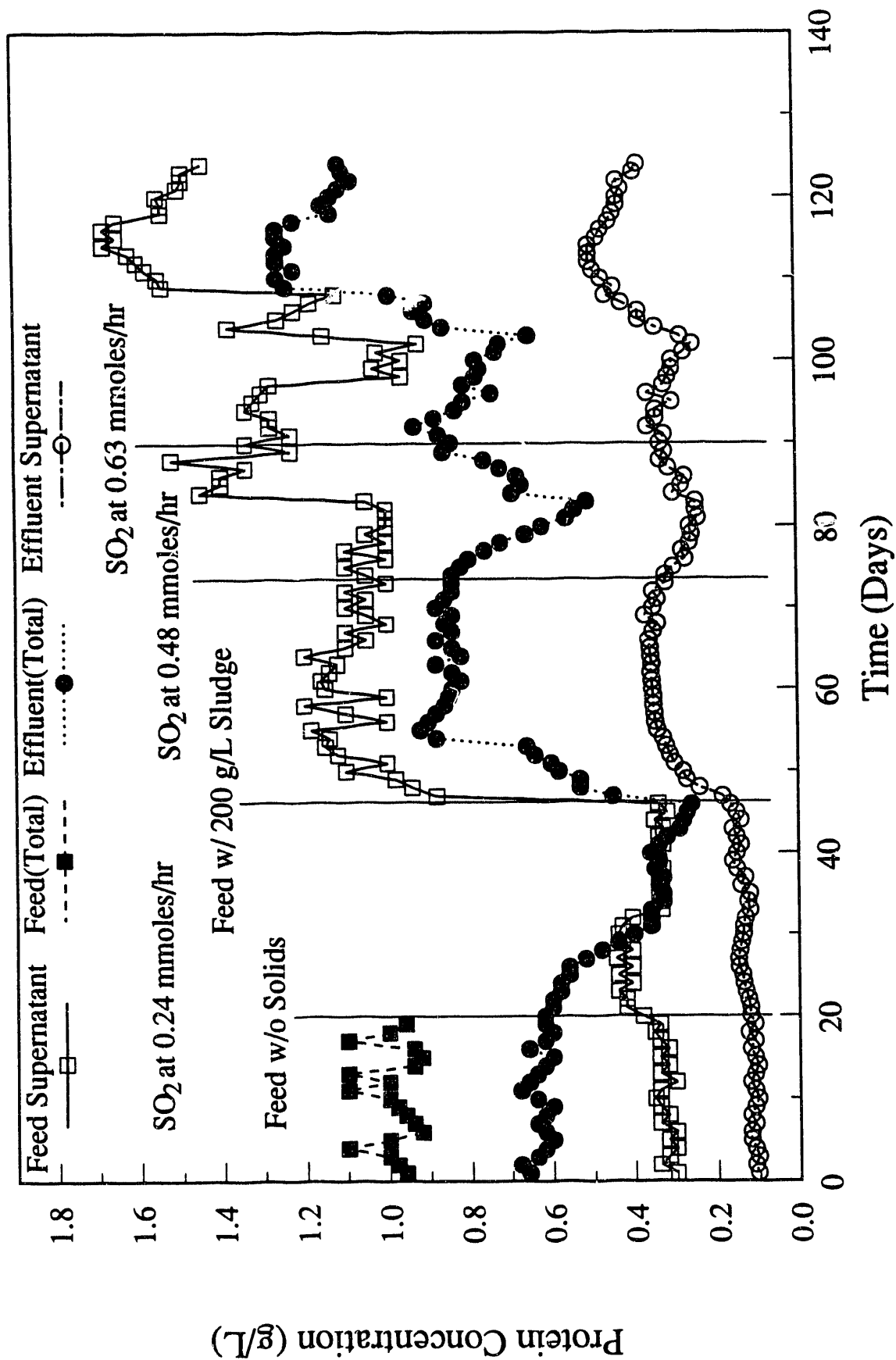


Figure 43. Protein concentrations in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO₂-reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge.

feed rate was 8.0 mL/hr. The SO_2 feed rate was 9.8 mL/min (1.0% SO_2 , 5% CO_2 , balance N_2) which corresponded to a molar SO_2 feed rate of 0.236 mmoles/hr. The culture also received a gas feed of 308 mL/min N_2 . On day 20, the feed preparation was changed in that insoluble solids were removed from feed preparations by centrifugation at 5000 g and 25 C. After the culture reached steady state (Figure 43), the method of feed preparation was again changed in that 200 g of wet-packed sludge per liter was used in the feed preparation rather than 100 g/L. As seen in Figure 42, the soluble COD in the feed doubled. There was also a corresponding increase in the soluble COD in the effluent indicating increased availability of carbon and energy sources for the culture. This was a necessary prerequisite to increasing the SO_2 feed rate to prevent the culture from being limited by the carbon and energy source.

At 73 days the SO_2 feed rate was increased to 0.48 mmoles/hr. There was corresponding increase in H_2S production and after some time (Figure 44) a slight increase in the sulfite concentration in the liquid phase. This did not represent an upset condition which is characterized by runaway sulfite production. As seen in Figures 43 and 44, the increase in SO_2 feed rate also produced a decrease in the effluent soluble COD and soluble protein concentrations as expected. At about 82 days the soluble COD and soluble protein in the feed were seen to increase dramatically. This was not due to any change in the method of feed preparation but resulted from the variability of the municipal sludge. Another sharp increase was seen at about 105 days.

At 86 days the SO_2 feed rate was again increased to 0.63 mmoles/hr. There was another increase in the sulfite concentration in

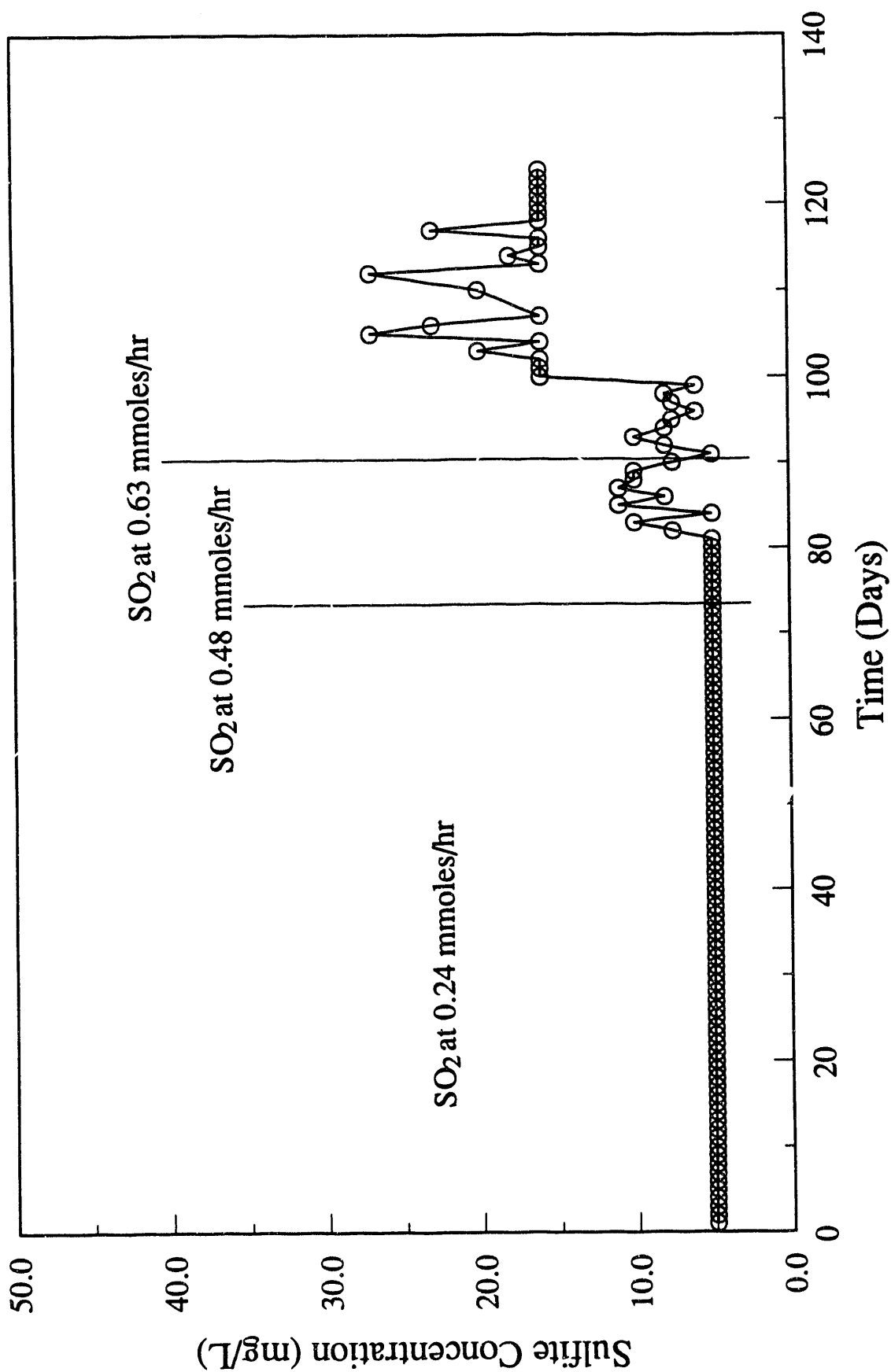


Figure 44. Sulfite concentration in the feed and effluent of a second continuous SO_2 -reducing culture operating with a feed of heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge.

the liquid phase (Figure 44); however, the concentration stabilized at about 15-17 mg/L. As the culture operates at this SO₂ feed rate the SRB concentration will slowly increase allowing further increases in SO₂ utilization. At present the maximum volumetric productivity observed is 0.44 mmoles SO₂ reduced /L-hr.

5.1.6.1 Improving Volumetric Productivity in a Continuous SO₂-Reducing Culture with Pretreated Municipal Sludge

During the operation of this second continuous SO₂-reducing culture efforts were initiated to improve the volumetric productivity (moles SO₂ reduced/unit volume of reactor). The reuse of effluent solids in formulation of the feed was considered as a means of improving the efficiency of utilization of carbon and energy sources and reducing waste streams. A suspension of effluent solids was subjected to heat/alkali treatment at pH 12, 121°C (autoclave) for 60 min. After cooling and neutralization the MLSS, soluble COD and soluble protein were determined. Results are shown in Table 24. As seen in this table very little solubilization of these solids took place. This is not surprising since this represents the second such treatment for a major fraction of these solids. As seen in Table 24, 46 mg of soluble COD was produced per g of MLSS treated. This compares to 290 mg/g for raw sewage sludge solids. Likewise heat/alkali treatment of effluent solids produced 0.044 g soluble protein per g of MLSS treated. This compares to 0.28 g/g for raw sewage sludge solids.

In a continuous bioreactor recycle or retention of the biomass allows the hydraulic and biomass retention times to be decoupled. Therefore, biomass recycle or retention is a key parameter in

Table 24. Heat/Alkali Treatment of a Suspension of Effluent Solids

<u>Parameter</u>	<u>Before Treatment</u>	<u>After Treatment</u>
MLSS (mg/L)	9550	8050
Filtrate COD (mg/L)	402	821
	388	844
Filtrate Protein (g/L)	0.02	0.44
	0.015	0.43

controlling volumetric productivity. However, before experiments in biomass recycle or retention can be initiated some means of enumerating key bacteria must be available. In the case of the continuous SO_2 -reducing culture the process culture contains insoluble proteins and other bio-derived solids from the feed as well as the sulfate-reducing bacteria responsible for SO_2 reduction. Therefore, it would be difficult to determine SO_2 -active biomass concentrations through protein determinations. Because of the solids in the process culture and the possibility of agglomeration of SRB and other culture solids, viable plate counts are impractical. We chose to use the most probable number (MPN) method (20). The MPN method employs serial dilutions of process cultures to inoculate a selective medium for SRB. From the dilutions showing growth of the SRB a statistical analysis is done to arrive at an estimate of the concentration of SRB in the original sample. This technique is frequently used to estimate bacterial counts in soils and sediments.

As previously noted the SO_2 -reducing cultures contain a high concentration of settleable solids. However, the MLSS concentration in the culture is roughly the same as the MLSS concentration in the feed. With regard to the issue of biomass recycle or retention it is important to know how the SRB are distributed in the process culture between the solids and the liquor. A sample (100 mL) of reactor mixed liquor was diluted to a MLSS concentration of 1.5 g/L and the solids allowed settle under gravity. The supernatant (85 mL) and solids (15 mL) were then separated. A MPN count of SRB was then made in the supernatant using BTI-SRB medium from Bioindustrial Technologies, Inc. (Grafton, NY). The solids fraction was then diluted back to 100 mL

and allow to settle again. This process was then repeated. After dilution back to the original volume of 100 mL, a MPN count of the SRB was obtained. The results of these counts are given in Table 25. As seen in Table 25, only 35% of the SRB in the process culture are associated with the solids. Therefore, recycle of a fraction of the effluent solids would be an inefficient way of recycling SO_2 -active biomass. Future efforts in this regard will concentrate on 1) eliminating solids from the feed, 2) increasing the concentration of soluble COD and 3) addition of anaerobic floc-forming bacteria to the process culture. Increasing the concentration of soluble COD in the feed will increase the steady state concentration of SO_2 -active biomass in the reactor. It is anticipated that the addition of anaerobic floc-forming bacteria (from an anaerobic digester) may flocculate the SO_2 -reducing bacteria facilitating biomass recycle.

One last issue to address as we began this phase of the project is to estimate the specific activity of the SO_2 -active biomass for SO_2 reduction. This can be accomplished now that we have a way of estimating the concentration of SRB using the MPN technique. A mixed liquor sample of the continuous SO_2 -reducing process culture was obtained and a MPN count of SRB made. The result was 4.5×10^7 cells/mL. The SO_2 feed rate was increased step-wise until sulfite began to accumulate in the culture medium indicating that the specific activity of the SO_2 -active biomass had been exceeded. From this determination the maximum specific activity of the SO_2 -active biomass was estimated to be $0.73 \text{ mmol } \text{SO}_2/\text{hr} - 10^{11} \text{ cells}$. This compares well with the specific activity of *D. desulfuricans* for SO_2 reduction in mixed cultures with glucose as a carbon and energy source (8).

Table 25. Results of Most Probable Number Count of *D. desulfuricans* in the Solids and Liquid Fractions of an SO₂-Reducing Culture Operating on a Feed of Pretreated Municipal Sewage Solids

<u>Fraction</u>	<u>MPN (Cells/mL)</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>
Solids*	5.2 X 10 ⁷	35
Liquid	1.0 X 10 ⁸	65

*Based on original concentration of gravity settleable solids and corrected for contribution of accompanying liquid phase

5.2 CO₂/H₂ as Carbon and Energy Sources in SO₂ - Reducing Cultures

An investigation of the use of CO₂/H₂ as carbon and energy sources for SO₂-reducing cultures was initiated with a study of sulfate-reducing bacterium, *Desulfotomaculum orientis*. *D. orientis* has been shown to grow autotrophically on H₂ and CO₂ and heterotrophically on lactate, formate, methanol and ethanol with sulfate at the terminal electron acceptor (21).

D. orientis (ATCC 19365) was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD). Stocks were grown in an autotrophic medium (Table 27) in 100-mL septum bottles. Bottles contained 15 mL of medium and were gassed with H₂/CO₂/N₂ (5:5:90, v/v). When H₂ depletion was indicated bottles were regassed. Hydrogen in the bottle was determined by gas chromatography as described in Table 30. Some typical results are shown in Figure 45.

For SO₂-reducing experiments, *D.orientis* was grown septically in 1.5-L cultures in a B. Braun Biostat M fermenter at pH 7.3 and 30°C (agitation rate 200 rpm) in the autotrophic medium described in Table 31. Cultures were inoculated with fresh stocks (15 mL) with demonstrated H₂-utilizing capability.

The first of these cultures originally received two gas feeds: 10% H₂, 5% CO₂, balance N₂ and 5% CO₂, balance, N₂ at 50 mL/min and 150 mL/min, respectively. The original protein concentration in the reactor was 10 mg/L. (Protein was used as an indicator of biomass concentration). The protein concentration and the production of H₂S from sulfate remained quite low for six days. To increase the biomass growth rate 3.5 mL of 60% sodium lactate was added on the 7th day. Lactate addition was repeated on the 9th and 10th day. During this

Table 27. Autotrophic Medium for *D. orientis*

<u>Component</u>	<u>g/L</u>
KH_2PO_4	0.3
NH_4Cl	0.5
NaCl	1.0
MgSO_4	1.0
Na_2SO_4	1.0
$\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.1
NaHCO_3	1.0
$\text{Fe}(\text{NH}_4)_2(\text{SO}_4)_2$	0.05
Trace Element Solution (Table 28)	1 mL
Wolfe's Vitamin Solution (Table 29)	1 mL

Table 28. Trace Element Solution for *D. orientis*

<u>Component</u>	<u>Quantity/L</u>
HCl (25%; 7.7M)	10.0 mL
FeCl ₂ ·4H ₂ O	1.5 g
ZnCl ₂	70.0 mg
MnCl ₂ ·4H ₂ O	100.0 mg
H ₃ BO ₃	6.0 mg
CoCl ₂ ·6H ₂ O	190.0 mg
CuCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O	2.0 mg
NiCl ₂ ·6H ₂ O	24.0 mg
Na ₂ MoO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	36.0 mg

First dissolve FeCl₂ in the HCl, then dilute with water, add and dissolve the other salts, adjust pH to 6.0 with NaOH, finally adjust to 1.0 L with distilled water.

Table 29. Wolfe's Vitamin Solution

<u>Component</u>	<u>mg/L</u>
Biotin	2.0
Folic acid	2.0
Pyridoxine HCl	10.0
Thiamine HCl	5.0
Riboflavin	5.0
Nicotinic acid	5.0
Calcium pantothenate	5.0
Cyanocobalamine	0.10
p-Aminobenzoic acid	5.0
Thioctic acid	5.0

Table 30. Chromatographic Conditions for Analysis
of H₂ in Reactor Outlet Gas

Instrument:	Hewlett Packard 5890
Column: steel	20 ft. x 1/8-in ID stainless 100/200 Haye Sep D
Carrier Gas & Flow Rate:	He , 30 mL/min
Oven Temperature:	40°C (2 min) then 24°C/min, 120°C max
Injection Oven & Detector Temperature:	100°C, 140°C
Detector:	Thermal Conductivity Detector

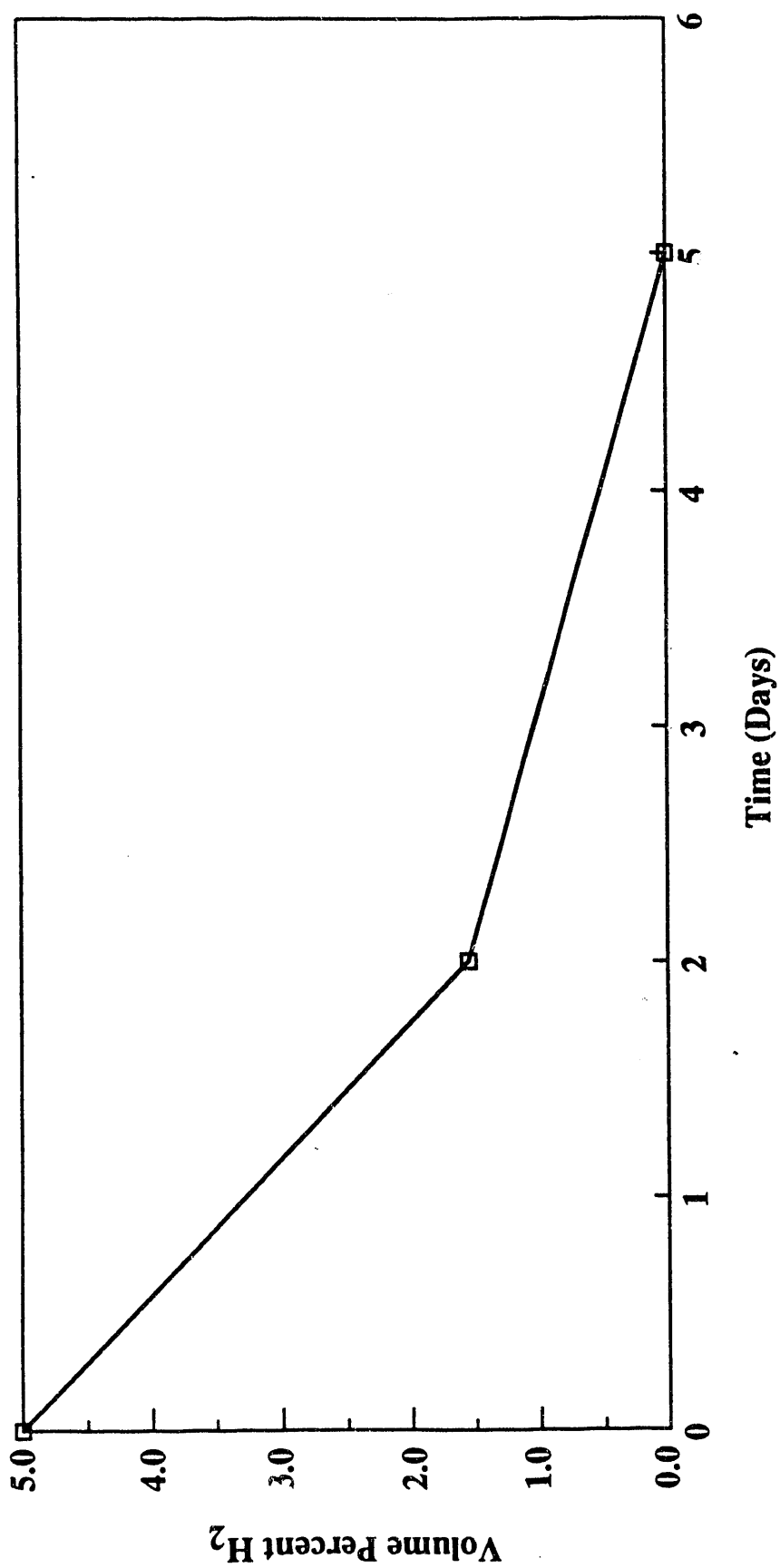


Figure 45. . H₂ concentration in the gas space of a D. orientis stock culture.

time, the H_2 feed was maintained in order to ensure that enzymes required for H_2 utilization remained induced. By the 10th day the biomass concentration had increased to about 86 mg/L. However, the concentration was fluctuating due to some adherence of biomass to the reactor wall. The H_2S concentration in the outlet gas (approximately 200 mL/min) ranged from 500-1200 ppmv.

On the 11th day, the biomass was harvested by centrifugation at 4900g and 25°C, resuspended in autotrophic medium (Table 27) without lactate and transferred back to the fermenter. Gas feeds were restarted and the culture maintained at 30°C and pH 7.3. For the next 48 hours, the H_2S concentration in the outlet gas averaged about 150 ppmv. At this time, it was suspected that growth of *D. orientis* was mass transfer limited. To determine if this was the case, the H_2 mixture was replaced with 100% H_2 . At this time, the gas feeds consisted of 60 mL/min H_2 and 150 mL/min 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 . The increase in H_2 partial pressure resulted in an increase in H_2S production giving an average H_2S concentration in the outlet gas of about 2000 ppmv. Therefore, growth of *D. orientis* had been clearly mass transfer limited and not limited by the intrinsic H_2 utilization rate of the biomass.

On day 27, the biomass was again harvested by centrifugation as described above and resuspended in modified autotrophic medium (Table 31). This medium is similar to that described in Table 27 with the exception that all sulfate had been removed. The suspension was then sparged with H_2 (60 mL/min) and 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 (130 mL/min) for 2 hours to allow any residual sulfate to be consumed. At the end of this time, an additional gas feed 1.0% SO_2 , 5% CO_2 , and balance N_2 was

Table 31. SO₂ Growth Medium for *D. orientis*

<u>Component</u>	<u>g/L</u>
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.3
NH ₄ Cl	0.6
NaCl	1.0
MgCl ₂	0.96
CaCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O	0.1
NaHCO ₃	1.0
FeCl ₃	0.02
Trace Element Solution (Table 28)	1 mL
Wolfe's Vitamin Solution (Table 29)	1 mL

introduced at a rate of 6.8 mL/min. This corresponds to a molar flow rate of 0.167 mmol/hr SO₂. The culture was maintained under these conditions for an additional 15 days during which time the outlet gas was monitored for H₂S and the culture medium analyzed to demonstrate growth of *D. orientis* under these conditions.

With a molar flow rate of 0.167 mmol/hr, the H₂S concentration in the outlet gas averaged 315 ppmv. The total outlet gas flow was 211 mL/min. Therefore, greater than 96% conversion of SO₂ to H₂S was demonstrated with 1-2 s of gas-liquid contact time. Sulfite concentrations in the bulk aqueous phase were relatively constant and averaged less than 10 mg/L indicating complete reduction of inlet SO₂ to H₂S. During this time, the biomass protein concentration in the culture medium was seen to increase as shown in Figure 46. Ammonium ion, a source of reduced nitrogen for the biomass, was also seen to decline as SO₂ was removed from the feed gas. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that growth of a sulfate-reducing bacterium on H₂/CO₂/SO₂ has been demonstrated.

These experiments were duplicated at higher biomass concentrations as follows. *D. orientis* working cultures (1.5 L) were prepared by growing the organism septically in a B. Braun Biostat M at pH 7.3 and 30°C in the autotrophic medium described in Table 27 supplemented with 5.9 mL of 60% sodium lactate. Cultures were inoculated with fresh stocks (15 mL) with demonstrated H₂-utilizing capability. Lactate was replenished as it was utilized (5.8 mL every 2 days) until the biomass total protein concentration was 0.2-0.3 g/L. At this time the biomass was harvested by centrifugation at 4900 x g and 25°C and resuspended in 1.5 L of fresh medium (Table 24 without

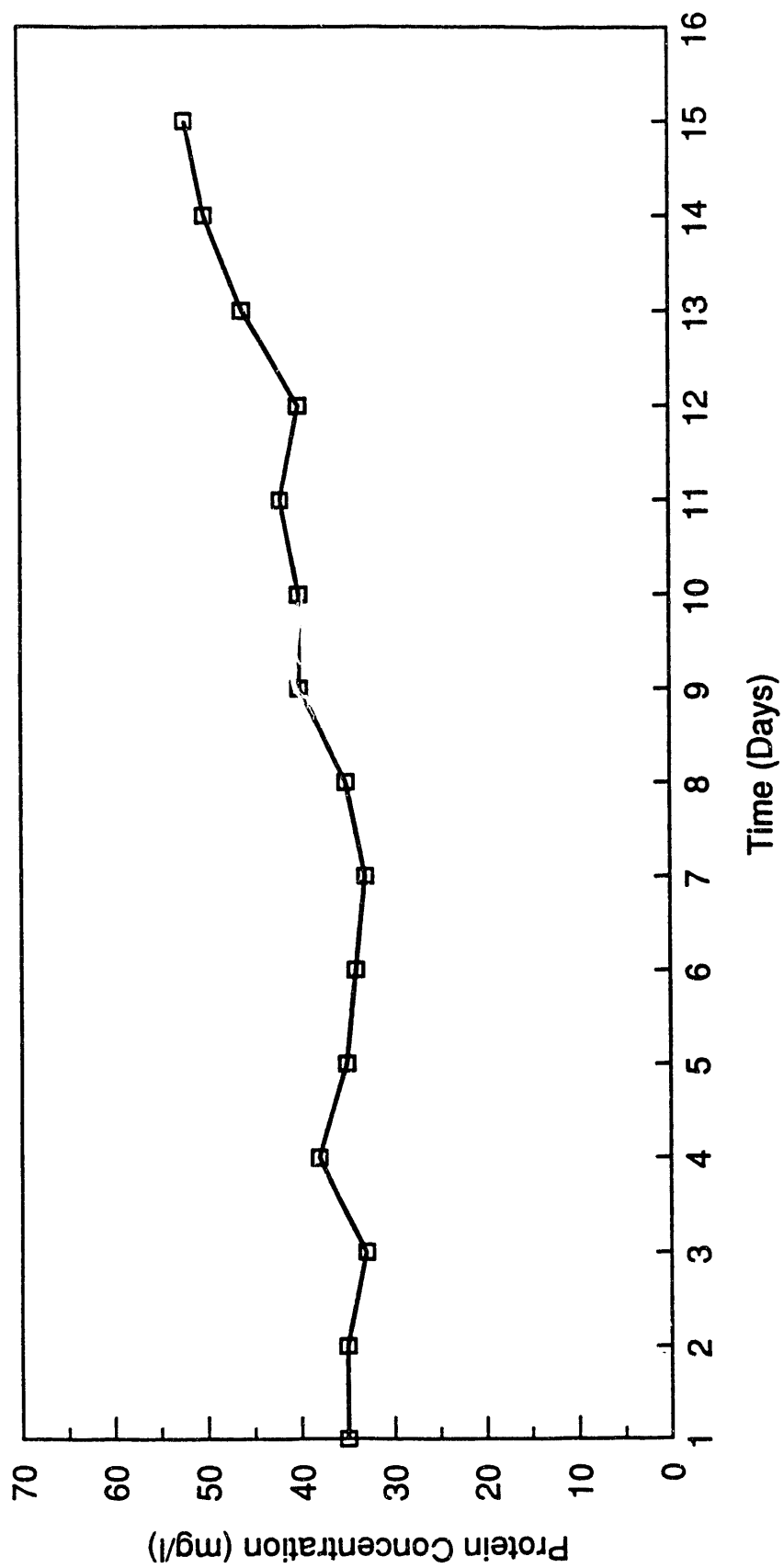


Figure 46. Biomass protein concentration in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture of D. orientis operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

sulfate) in the fermenter. After resuspension the fermenter received gas feeds of 140 mL/min 5% CO₂, balance N₂, 70 mL/min H₂ and 7.5-9.6 mL/min of 1% SO₂, 5% CO₂, balance N₂. The molar feed rate of SO₂ was 0.19-0.24 mmoles/hr. Cultures were maintained under these conditions at pH 7.3 and 30°C for 15-30 days during which time the outlet gas was monitored for H₂S and the culture medium analyzed to demonstrate growth of *D. orientis* under these conditions.

With a molar flow rate of 0.185 mmoles/hr, the H₂S concentration in the outlet gas (total flow rate 218 mL/min) averaged 340 ppmv. Table 32 shows the result of sulfur balances performed at various times during the course of three batch experiments. Complete conversion of SO₂ to H₂S is indicated. Sulfate concentrations in the bulk aqueous phase were relatively constant and average less than 5 mg/L. (Routine analysis of the outlet gas for H₂S was performed by gas chromatography as described in Table 17. However, outlet gases were also periodically analyzed by trapping of H₂S by precipitation as ZnS and subsequent spectrophotometric analysis as described in Section 5.1.5).

As SO₂ was removed from the feed gas and reduced to H₂S, the biomass protein in these reactors was seen to increase as shown in Figures 47 and 48. The data are somewhat erratic due to a tendency for the biomass to adhere to the walls of the vessel; however, a clear upward trend is evident indicating growth of the organism on H₂/CO₂/SO₂. Ammonium ion, a source of reduced nitrogen for the organism, was seen to decrease as SO₂ was removed from the feed gas (Figure 49).

Table 32. Sulfur Balances in *D. orientis* SO₂-Reducing Batch Cultures

<u>Experiment</u>	<u>SO₂ Feed Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S Production Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S/SO₂</u>
B1	0.165	0.173	1.05
B2	0.237	0.236	1.00
		0.241	1.02
		0.236	1.00
B3	0.185	0.189	1.02
		0.182	0.98
		0.184	0.99

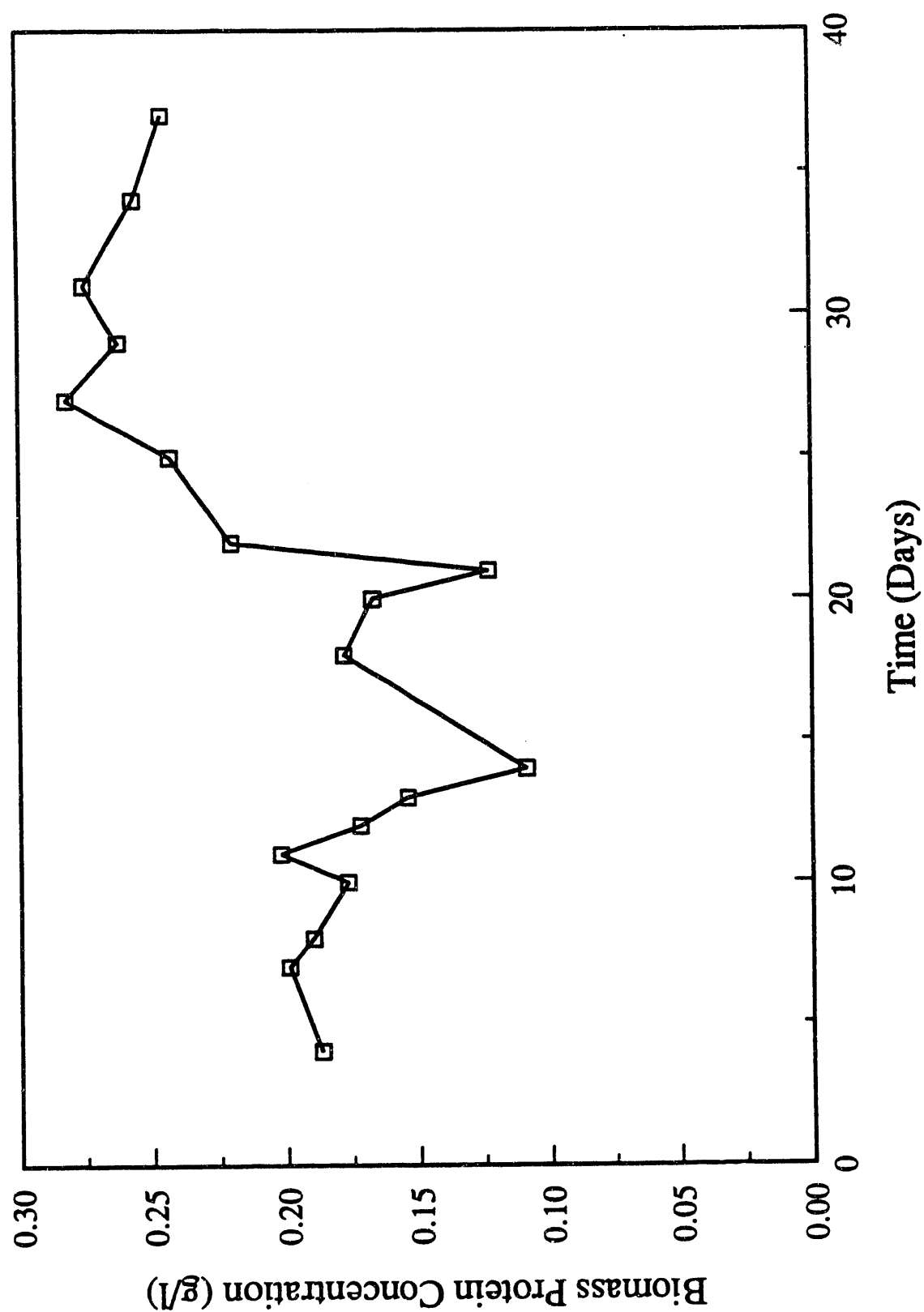


Figure 47. Biomass protein concentration in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture (B2) of D. orientis operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

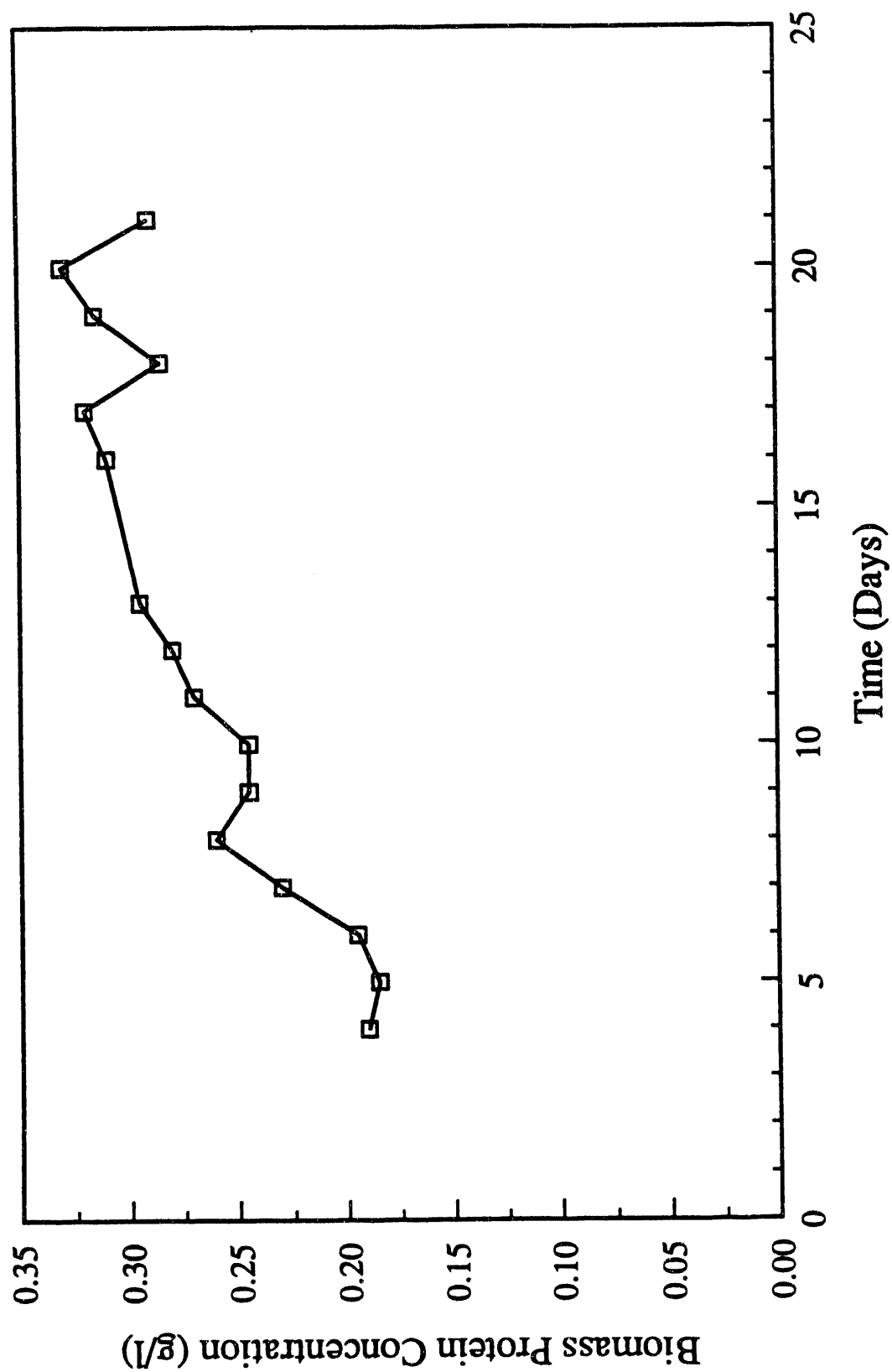


Figure 48. Biomass protein concentration in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture (B3) of *D. orientis* operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

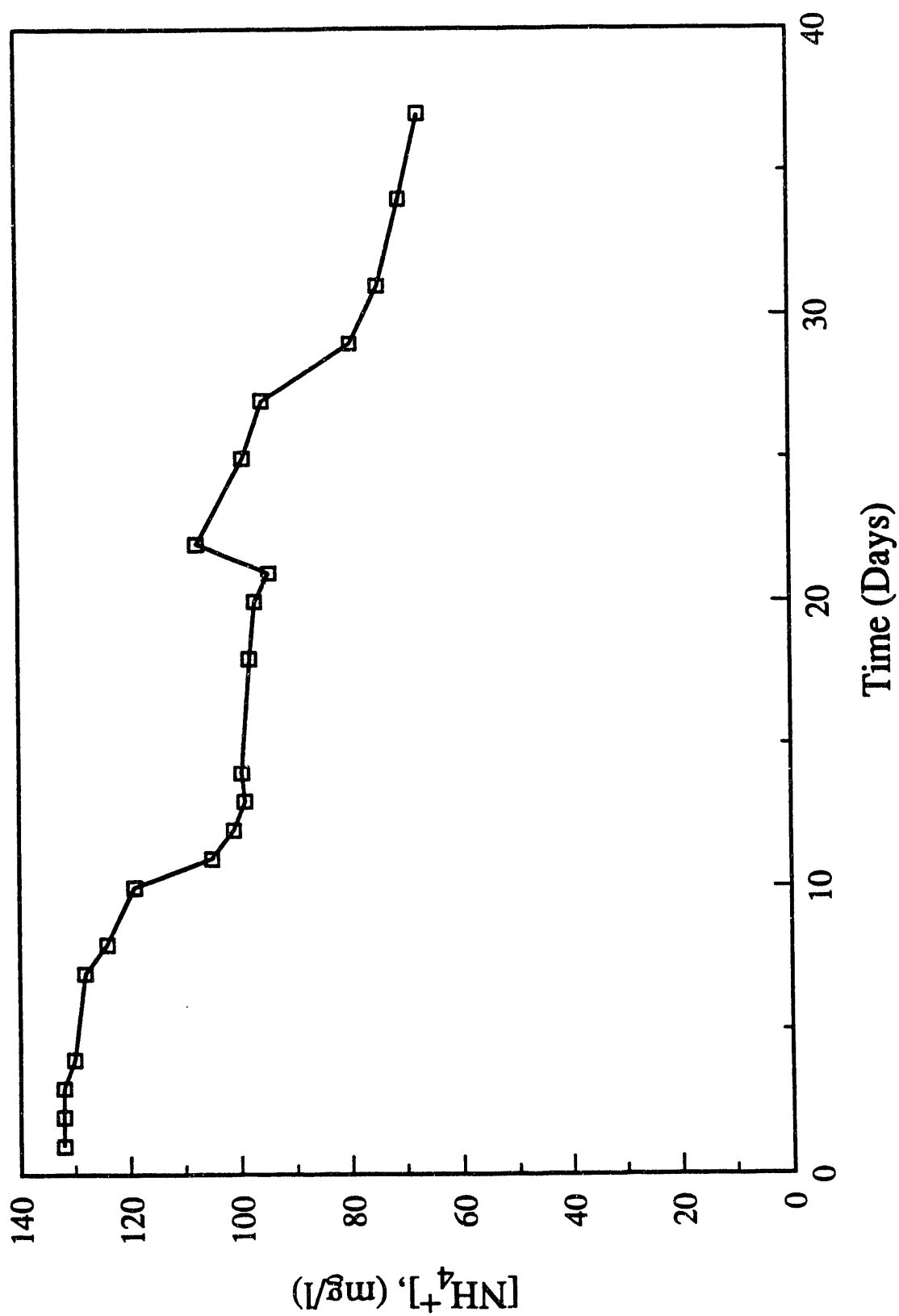
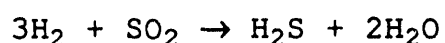


Figure 49. Ammonium in concentration in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture (B3) of D. orientis operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

Analysis of the culture medium from one of these batch experiments (B3) produced some rather surprising results. As seen in Figures 50 and 51, acetic acid and butyric acid were observed to accumulate to rather high concentrations as SO₂ was reduced to H₂S. Lesser amounts of propionic acid, isobutyric acid, isovaleric acid and valeric acid accumulated. These observations will be investigated further and if confirmed may represent a new method of producing carboxylic acids from H₂/CO₂. However, for SO₂-reducing applications it will be necessary to utilize these carboxylic acids to support SO₂ reduction in order to improve the efficiency of the process and reduce the effluent COD.

The equation for the purely chemical reduction of SO₂ by H₂ would be as follows:



In D. orientis cultures operating on a feed of H₂/CO₂/SO₂, a H₂/SO₂ ratio of slightly higher than 3.0 would be expected since some H₂ oxidation would be required to reduce CO₂ for production of biomass. In the experiments reported here the molar ratio of H₂/SO₂ in the feed gas was on the order of 700-900. Therefore, it is difficult to determine the stoichiometry of the bioprocess with respect to H₂ utilization by analysis of the feed gas with any accuracy. GC analysis indicated a 4% loss of H₂ from the feed gas which is within experimental error for the analysis.

In order to firmly establish that SO₂ reduction in these cultures was occurring at the expense of the H₂ oxidation, two experiments were conducted in batch SO₂-reducing cultures in which H₂ feed was turned off and the results observed. If reducing equivalents required for

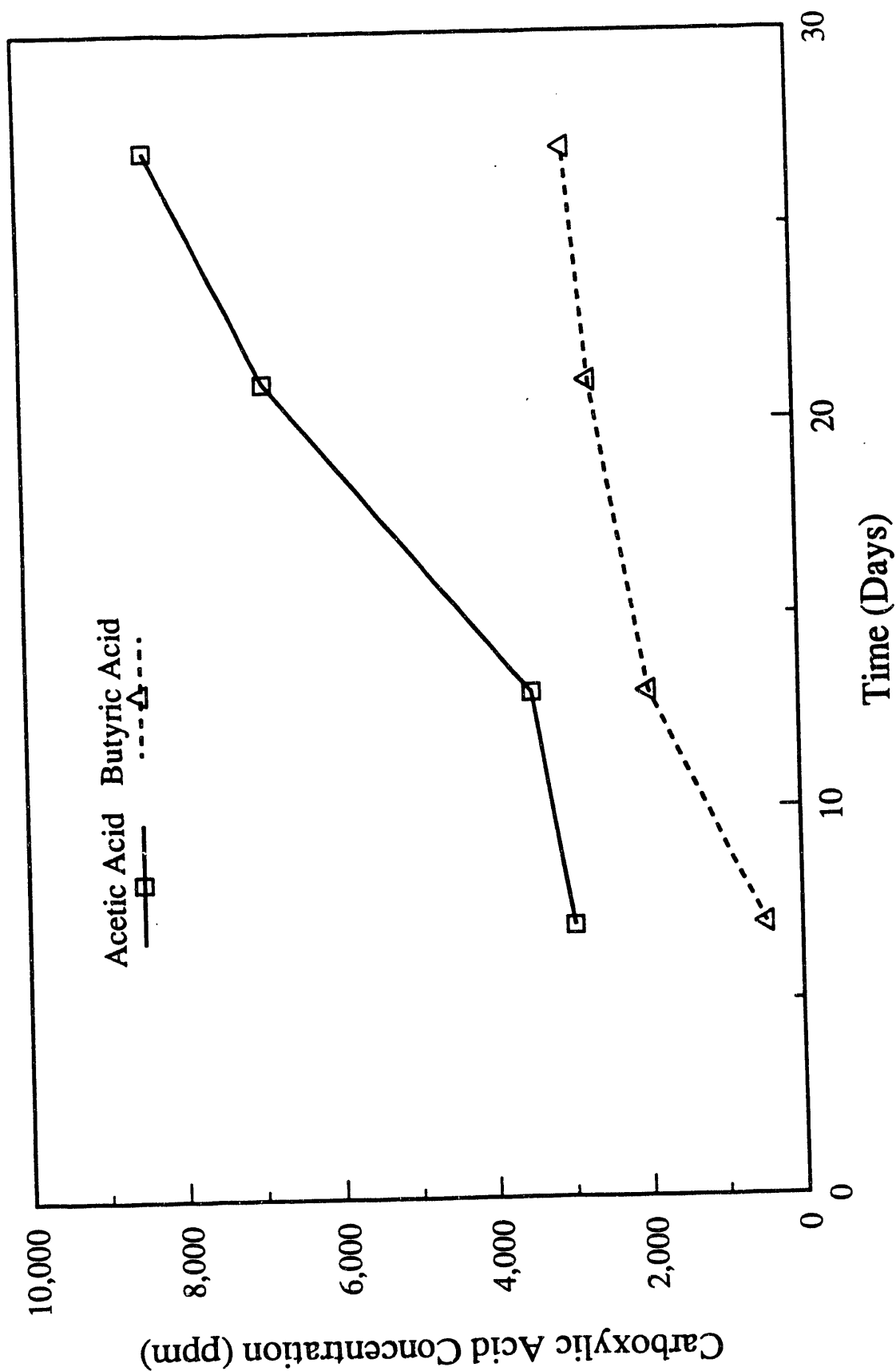


Figure 50. Acetic acid and butyric acid concentrations in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture (B3) of D. orientis operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

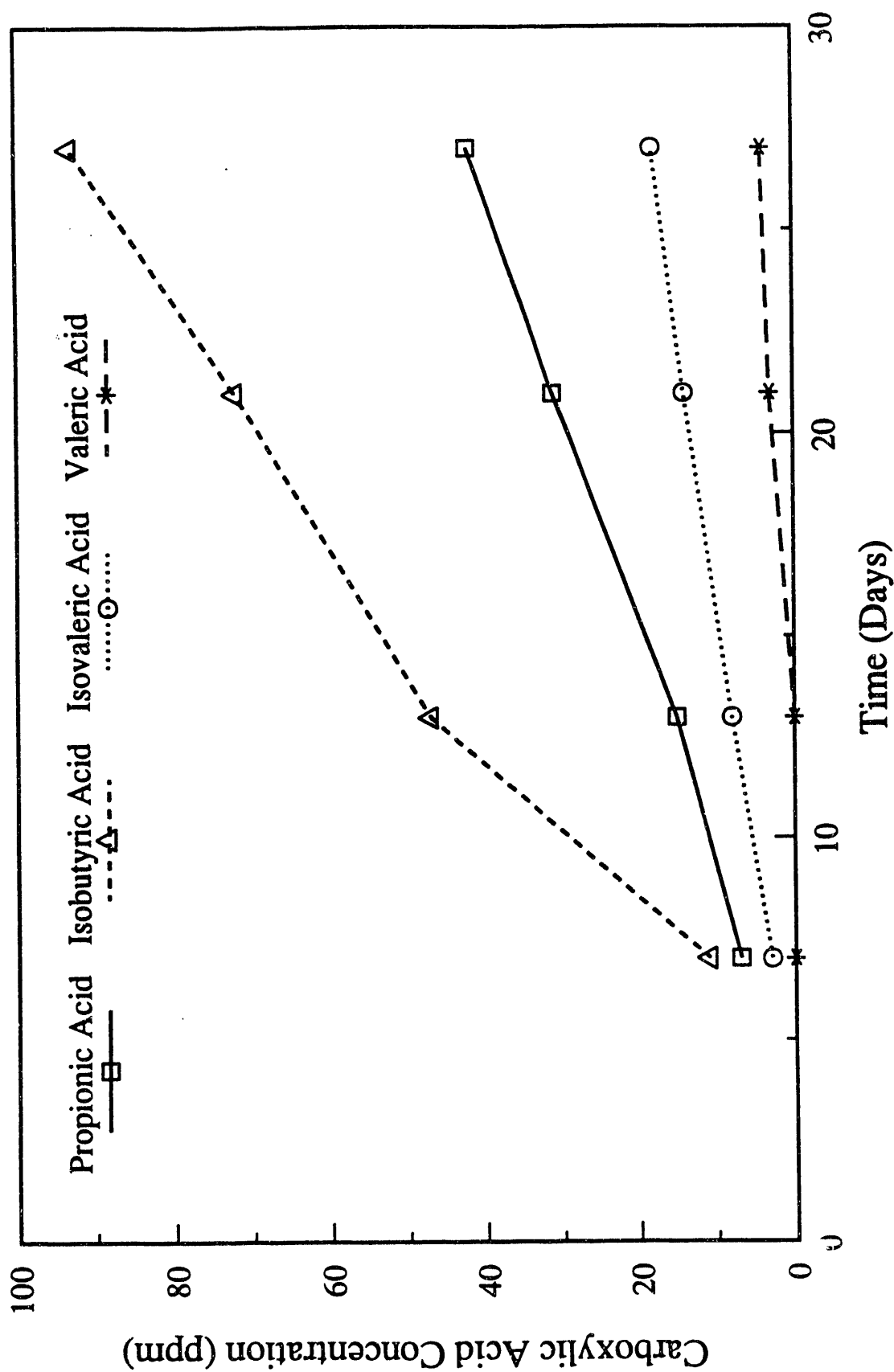


Figure 51. Concentrations of various carboxylic acids in a batch SO_2 -reducing culture (B3) of D. orientis operating with a CO_2/H_2 feed.

SO₂ reduction came from H₂ oxidation, the cessation of H₂ feed would produce a reduction in the outlet H₂S concentration and an accumulation of sulfite in the culture medium. As shown in Figure 52 and 51 this was indeed the case. Before the H₂ feed was turned off the total gas feed rate in these experiments was 220 mL/min consisting of 9.6 mL/min of 1% SO₂, 5% CO₂, balance N₂; 71 mL/min H₂; and 140 mL/min of 5% CO₂, balance N₂. The H₂S concentration in the outlet gas was about 340 ppm. When the H₂ feed was turned off the H₂S concentration in the outlet gas increased to 500 ppm due the decrease in total gas flow. As seen in Figure 52 the H₂S concentration then decreased dramatically over the next four hours. At the same time sulfite was observed to accumulate in the culture medium (Figure 53). Five hours after the H₂ feed was turned off, the SO₂ feed was turned off and the H₂ feed restarted. Consequently, the sulfite concentration returned to very low levels within 30 min and there was a corresponding transient surge in H₂S production. After another 3.5 hrs the SO₂ feed was restarted at the original feed rate. The H₂S concentration in the outlet gas then returned to about 340 ppm representing stoichiometric reduction of SO₂ to H₂S.

As noted above, rather high concentrations of acetic acid and butyric acid were observed in cultures of *D. orientis* operating on a feed of H₂, CO₂ and SO₂. Additional experiments were conducted to better document the role of carboxylic acids in these cultures for two reasons. First, as noted previously, these cultures may represent a new method of producing carboxylic acids from H₂/CO₂. Secondly, these carboxylic acids represent the under-utilization of electron donors in the cultures. Either the accumulation of these carboxylic acids must

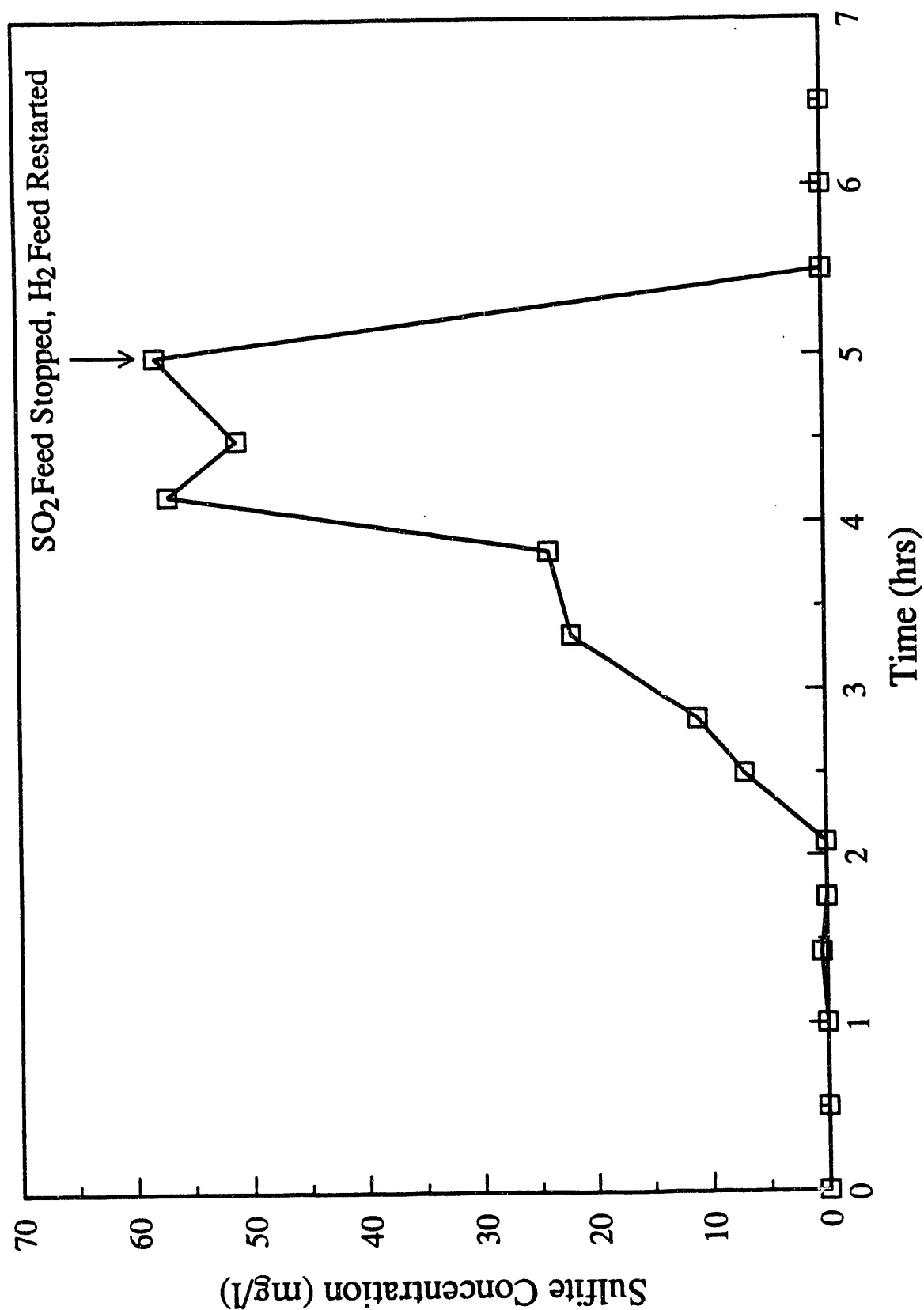


Figure 53. Sulfite concentration in a batch SO₂-reducing culture of D. orientis following cessation of H₂ feed.

be inhibited or additional species of SRB capable of utilization of carboxylic acids (and SO_2 reduction) must be added to the culture.

For these experiments, working cultures (1.5 L) of *D. orientis* were prepared by growing the organism separately on lactate as described above followed by transfer to an autotrophic medium (Table 31). After resuspension, the fermenter received gas feeds of 140 mL/min of 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 ; 70 mL/min H_2 ; and 7.6 mL/min 1.0% SO_2 , 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 . The molar feed rate of SO_2 was 0.185 mmoles/hr.

Two experiments were conducted using these operating conditions. In the first experiment the culture was operated for 145 hrs on the SO_2 feed with accumulation of acetic acid and butyric acid in the culture medium as seen in Figure 54. At this time, the SO_2 feed was terminated; however, gas feeds of 140 mL/min of 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 and 70 mL/min H_2 were continued. As shown in Figure 54, the production of acetic acid and butyric acid essentially leveled off indicating that production of carboxylic acids was linked to SO_2 reduction by *D. orientis*. Figure 55 shows the biomass protein concentration in the reactor during the experiment. Some continued growth of biomass is indicated after the SO_2 feed was stopped.

In a second similar experiment, the SO_2 feed was stopped (while CO_2/N_2 and H_2 feeds were maintained) at a lower accumulated acetic acid concentration (about 5000 ppm). For about 50 hrs following the cessation of SO_2 feed the acetic acid concentration continued to increase at roughly the same rate (Figure 56). However, after 50 hrs the acetic acid concentration remained relatively constant for the next 120 hrs of operation without a SO_2 feed. As shown in Figure 56, the butyric acid accumulation ceased almost immediately after the SO_2

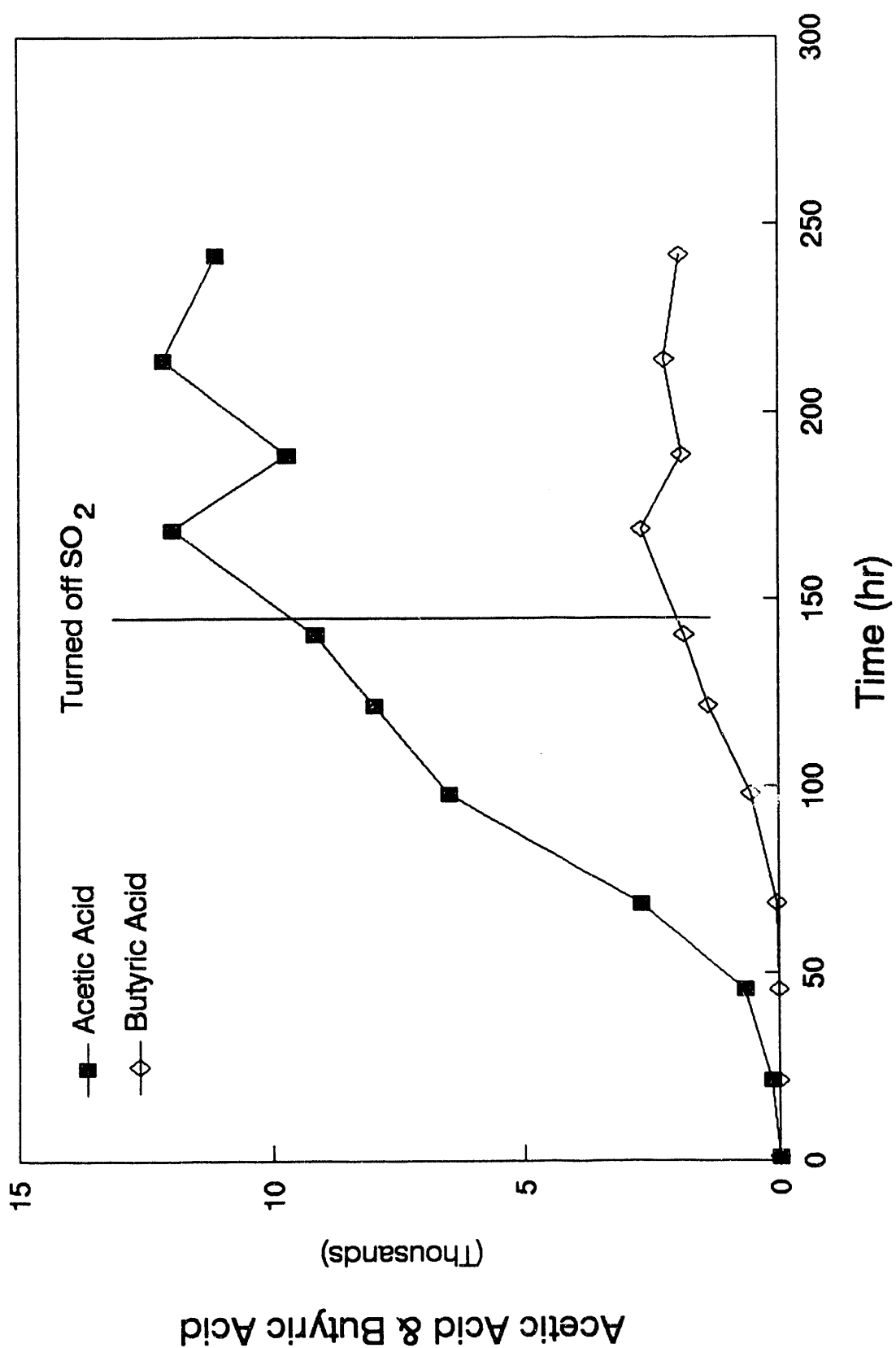


Figure 54. Accumulation of acetic acid and butyric acid in a culture of *D. orientis* with and without SO₂ feed (E1).

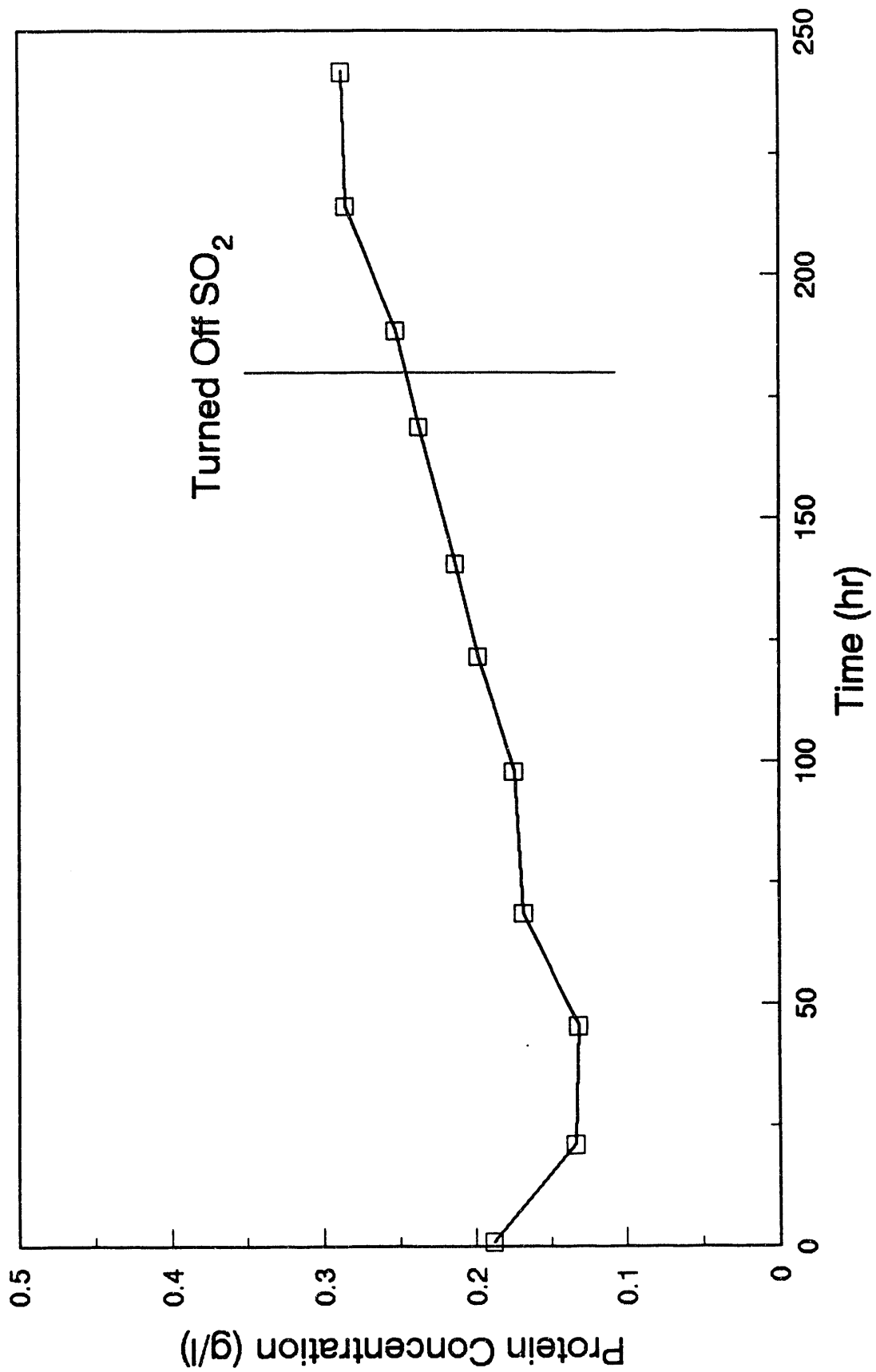


Figure 55. Biomass protein concentration in a *D. orientis* culture with and without SO₂ feed (E1).

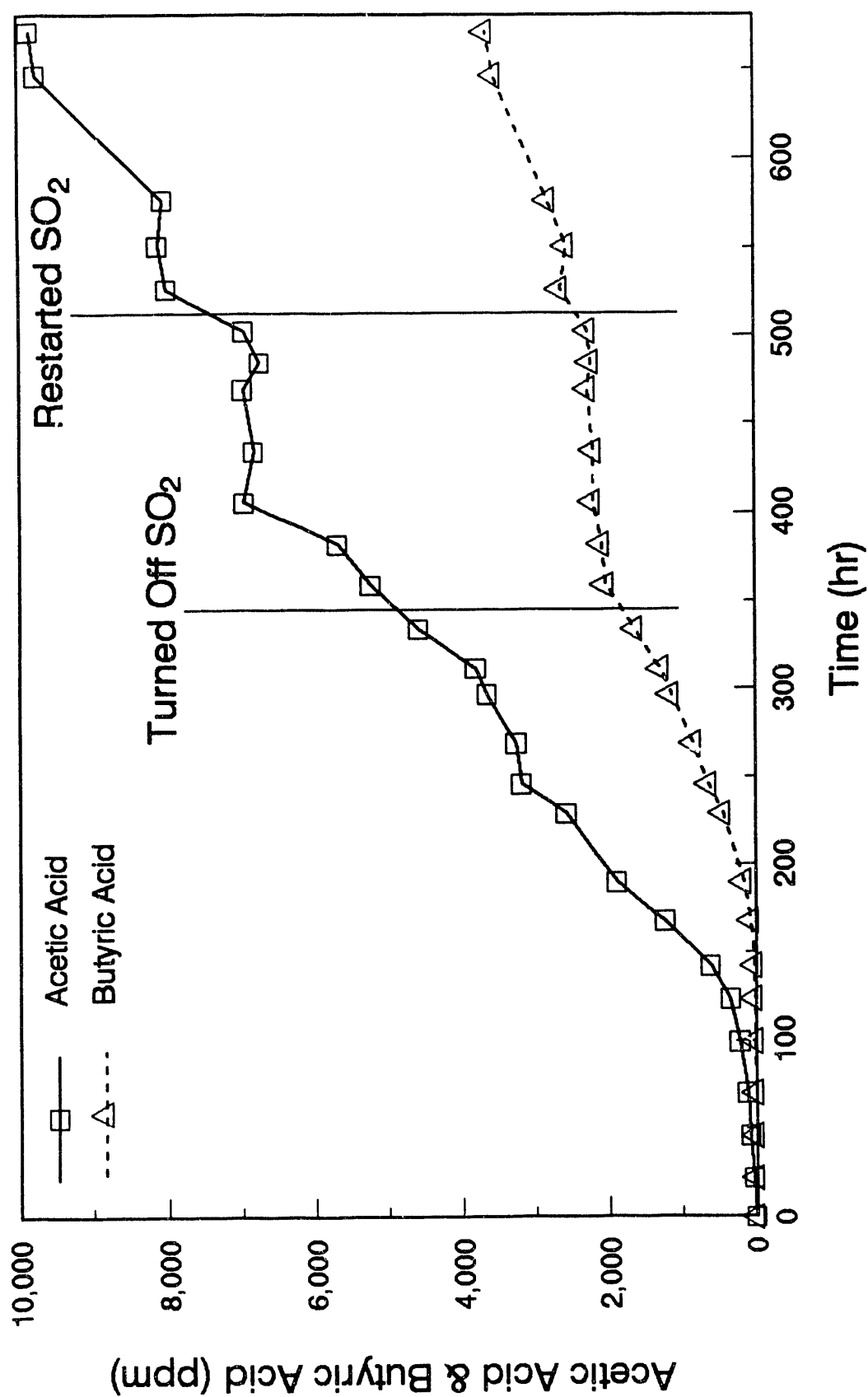


Figure 56. Accumulation of acetic acid and butyric acid in a culture of *D. orientis* with and without SO_2 feed (E2).

feed was stopped. After 175 hrs of operation without the SO₂ feed, the SO₂ feed was restarted at the original rate (0.185 mmoles/hr). As shown in Figure 56, acetic acid and butyric acid again began to accumulate in the reactor medium. Figure 57 shows the biomass protein concentration in the culture during the course of the experiment. At present, we have no explanation for the decrease in biomass protein prior to the cessation of SO₂ feed. However, as shown in Figure 57, the biomass protein concentration was relatively constant from the time the SO₂ feed was stopped until the end of the experiment. As shown in Figure 58, the ammonium ion (source of reduced nitrogen) concentration was seen to decline while SO₂ was available to the culture but essentially leveled off when the SO₂ feed was stopped.

It was our intention when initiating the further experiments described below to create mixed cultures of *D. orientis* and SRB capable of utilizing carboxylic acids as carbon and energy sources. The goal was to prevent the accumulation of carboxylic acids in the culture medium and improve the utilization of electron donors for SO₂ reduction. However, as detailed below the carboxylic acids never again appeared in any appreciable concentration.

Working cultures (1.5 L) of *D. orientis* were prepared by growing the organism septically on lactate as described above followed by transfer to an autotrophic medium (Table 31). After resuspension the fermenter received gas feeds of 140 mL/min of 5% CO₂, balance N₂; 70 mL/min H₂; and 6.8 mL/min 1.0% SO₂, 5% CO₂, balance N₂. The molar feed rate of SO₂ was 0.166 mmoles/hr.

The culture was maintained on lactate for eight days. At the end of this time the outlet gas typically contained over 1000 ppmv H₂S

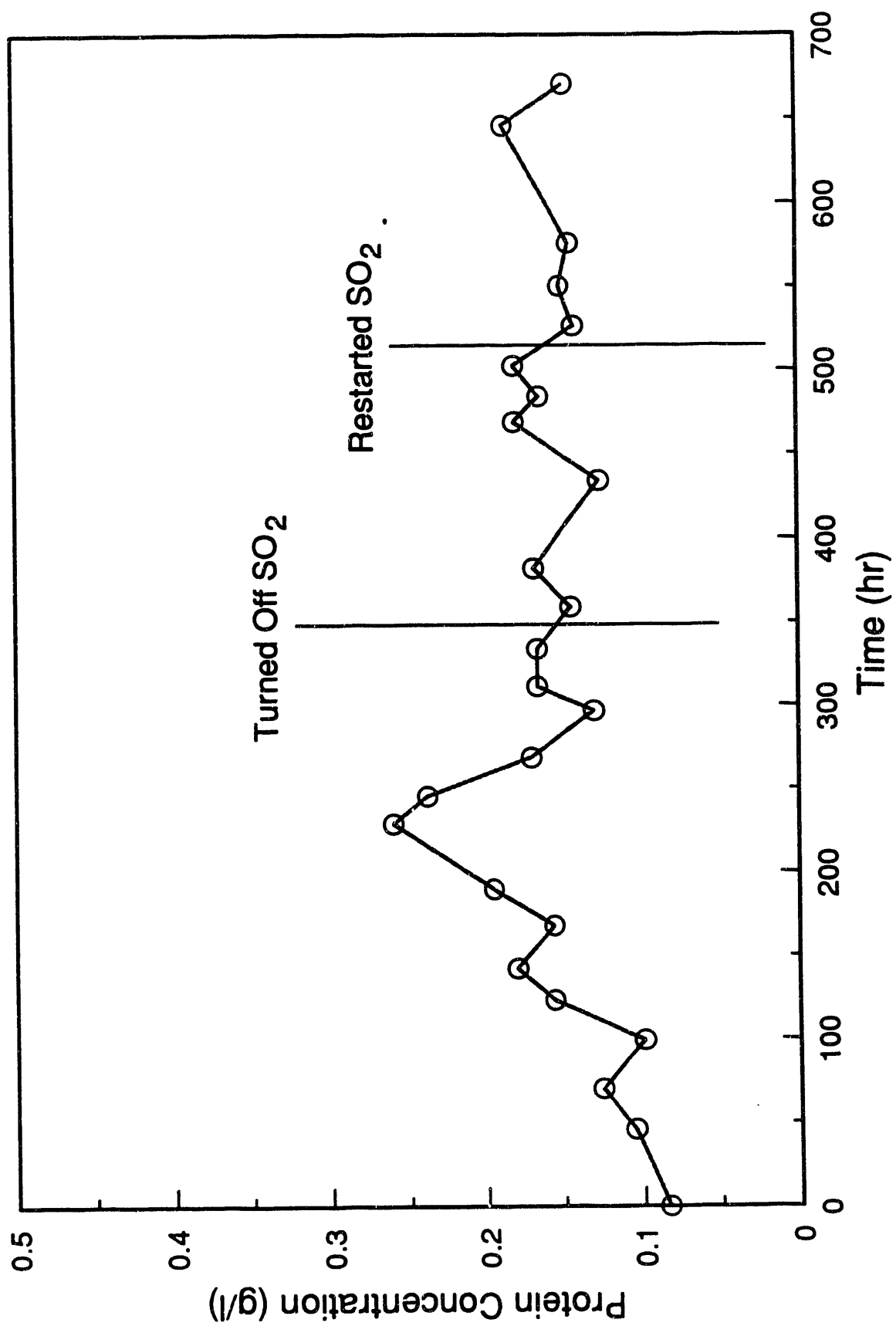


Figure 57. Biomass protein concentration in a *D. orientis* culture with and without SO₂ feed (E2).

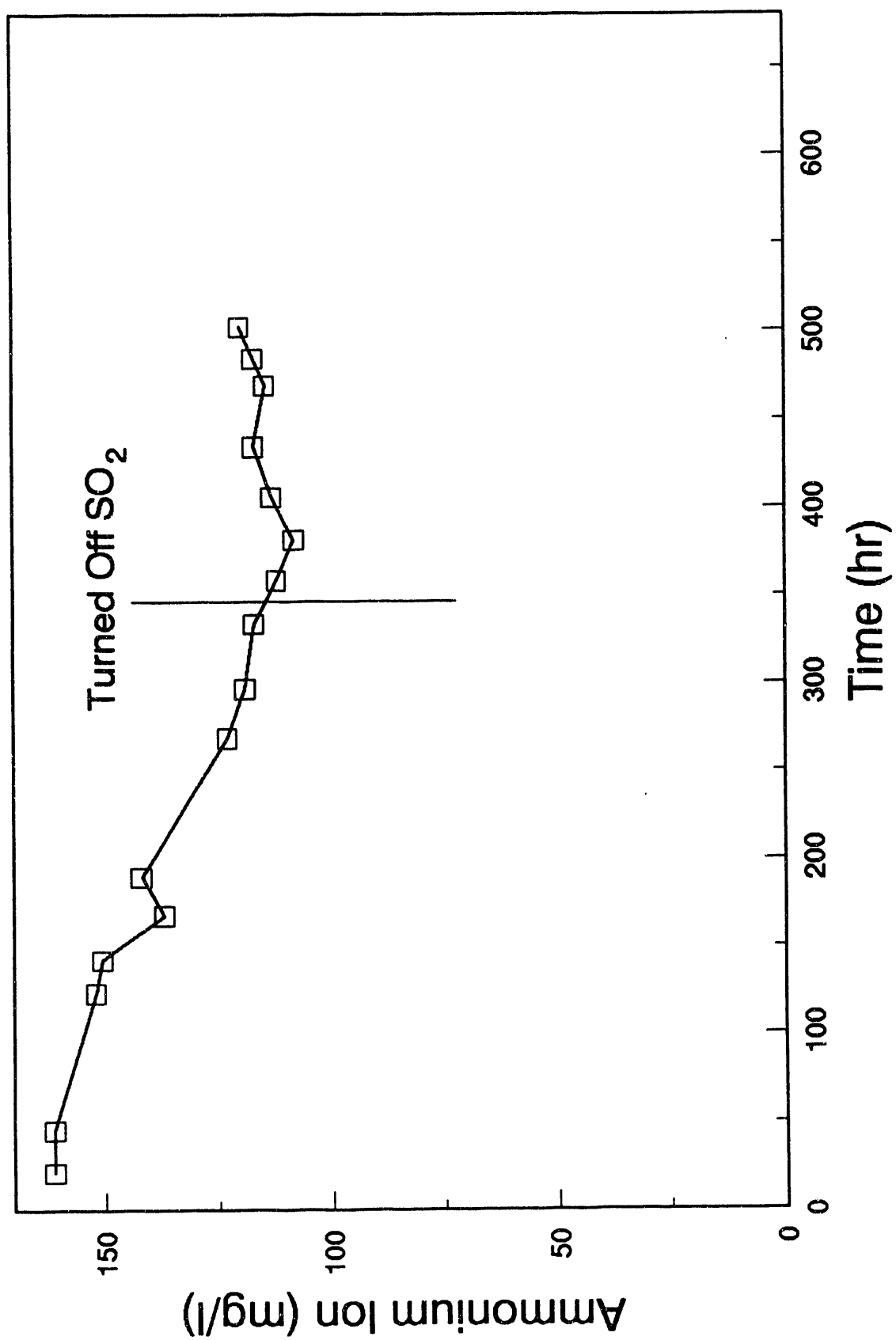


Figure 58. Ammonium ion concentration in a *D. orientis* culture with and without SO₂ feed (E2).

(150 mL 5% CO₂ in N₂ as inlet). Following transfer to the autotrophic medium the culture was operated on an SO₂ feed for an additional 15 days. Complete reduction of SO₂ to H₂S was observed. However, no carboxylic acids were observed.

After 15 days on an SO₂ feed (Phase I of growth on SO₂), the culture biomass was harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in fresh autotrophic medium with lactate as the electron donor and sulfate as the electron acceptor. The culture was maintained with daily additions of lactate (as previously described) for seven days. at the end of this time the culture biomass was harvested and again transferred to the autotrophic medium described in Table 31 (without sulfate). Gas feeds of H₂/CO₂/SO₂ were initiated as described above (Phase II of growth on SO₂). The culture was maintained under these conditions for another 19 days. The culture operated normally with respect to SO₂ reduction to H₂S. However, no carboxylic acids were found until the 17th day. For the last three days of operation carboxylic acids were found at the following concentrations: acetic acid, 15-30 mg/L; propionic acid, 12-16 mg/L; isobutyric acid, 9 mg/L; and butyric acid, 17-18 mg/L. These are the same carboxylic acids observed in previous experiments but the concentrations observed in this experiment are orders of magnitude lower.

Figure 59 shows the biomass protein in the culture medium during growth on SO₂ as a terminal electron acceptor. Very little accumulation of biomass was observed. However, these observations must be viewed with some caution since *D. orientis* biomass has a tendency to adhere to the walls of the fermenter.

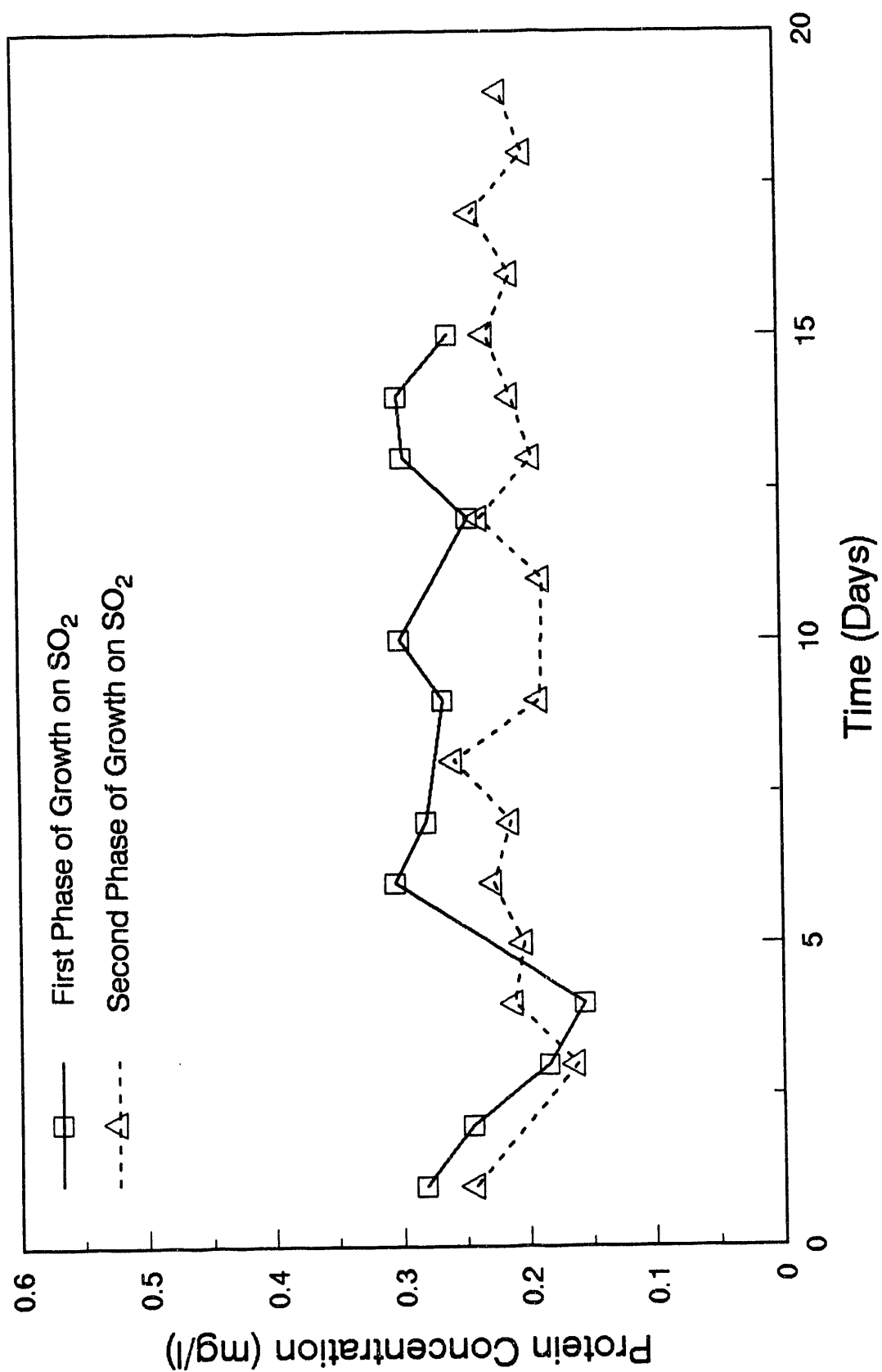


Figure 59. Protein concentration in the first of two SO_2 -reducing cultures of *D. orientis* in which no carboxylic acids formation was observed.

In a similar experiment the culture was developed in lactate/sulfate for nine days and then transferred to fresh autotrophic medium without sulfate and established on $H_2/CO_2/SO_2$ as described above. Complete reduction of SO_2 to H_2S was again observed. However, after 12 days of operation on a feed of $H_2/CO_2/SO_2$ no carboxylic acids have been observed. Figure 60 shows the biomass protein concentration in this culture. A slow increase in the biomass protein was observed.

At this point in time these observations are without explanation. These experiments described early in this section clearly indicate that when carboxylic acids are found in significant quantities their accumulation is linked to SO_2 reduction. One possible explanation is that those cultures were contaminated with an acetogen which produced carboxylic acids from CO_2 . However, the linkage to SO_2 reduction is hard to explain. In addition, it is hard to accept that two cultures started from different stocks of the inoculum (*D. orientis*) both became contaminated with an acetogen but two subsequent cultures operated in the same lab in the same manner did not.

Two additional experiments were conducted to verify the sulfur balance in the absence of carboxylic acid formation and to estimate the specific activity of the organism for SO_2 reduction.

In the first experiment *D. orientis* was first grown on lactate and sulfate as described in Section 5.2 before resuspension in fresh medium (Table 31) and initiation of H_2 and SO_2 gas feeds. After resuspension gas feeds consisted of 140 mL/min of 5% CO_2 , balance nitrogen; 8.1 mL/min 1.0% SO_2 , 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 ; and 74.1 mL/min H_2 . The culture was maintained on $SO_2/CO_2/H_2$ feed for eleven days following

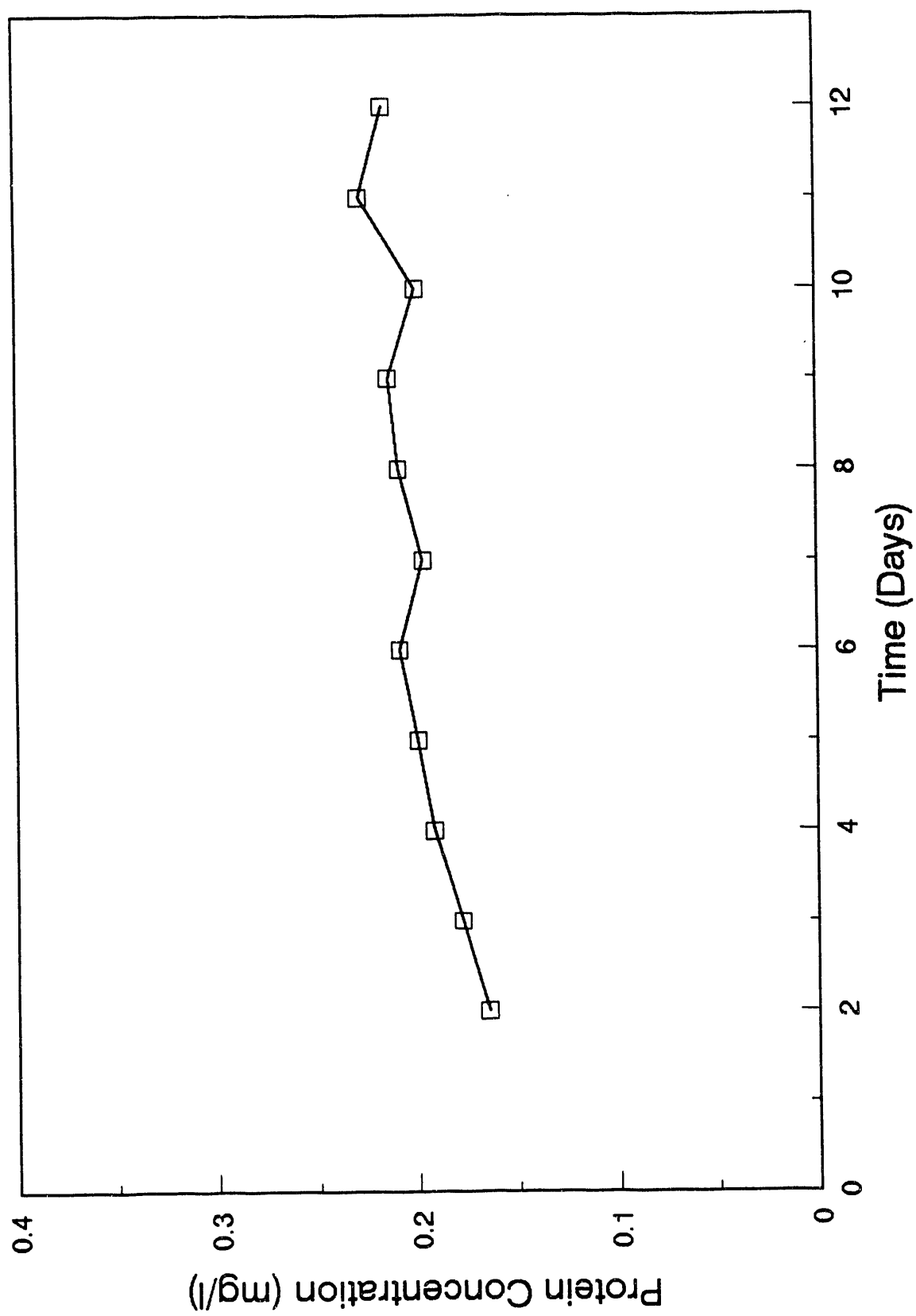


Figure 60. Protein concentration in the second of two SO_2 -reducing cultures of *D. orientis* in which no carboxylic acids formation was observed.

initiation of SO₂ feed. No carboxylic acids were seen to accumulate during this time beyond trace quantities (<10 mg/L). Table 33 gives the results of a series of sulfur balances performed during this time. Hydrogen sulfide was determined by precipitating H₂S from the outlet gas as ZnS followed by analysis by the methylene blue method (Section 5.2). Essentially 100% reduction of SO₂ to H₂S was observed. The liquid phase sulfite concentration was always less than 5 mg/L.

A second similar experiment produced the results shown in Table 34. Again essentially no carboxylic acids were observed. Following the establishment of the sulfur balance the SO₂ feed rate was increased stepwise until runaway sulfite production was observed indicating that the specific activity of the biomass for SO₂ reduction had been exceeded. The upset could not be reversed by increasing the H₂ feed rate. Only a reduction in the SO₂ feed rate could result in a decrease in the liquid phase sulfite concentration. The maximum SO₂ feed rate achieved was about 39 mL/min (1.0% SO₂) or 0.96 mmoles SO₂/hr. The total biomass protein in the reactor at that time was 148 mg. Therefore, the specific activity was 6.5 mmoles SO₂/hr - g of total biomass protein. Since this was a septic culture all of the protein cannot be attributed to *D. orientis*.

5.3 Microbial Reduction of Nitric Oxide by Denitrifying Bacteria

5.3.1 *Paracoccus denitrificans*

A survey of denitrifying bacteria for the capability of using NO as a terminal electron acceptor (with reduction to N₂) was initiated with a study of *Paracoccus denitrificans*.

P. denitrificans (ATCC 13543) was originally grown anaerobically in a succinate minimal medium (Table 35) in Marubishi MD 300 fermenter

Table 33. Sulfur Balances in a Batch Culture
of *D. orientis* Receiving an SO₂ Feed

<u>Sample #</u>	<u>SO₂ Feed Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S Production Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S/SO₂</u>
1	0.200	0.194	0.97
2		0.209	1.05
3		0.192	0.96
4		0.179	0.90
5		0.189	0.95
6		0.186	0.93
7		0.181	0.91
8		0.182	0.91
9		0.188	0.94
10		0.174	<u>0.87</u>
		Avg.	0.94

Table 34. Sulfur Balances in a Batch Culture
of *D. orientis* Receiving an SO₂ Feed

<u>Sample #</u>	<u>SO₂ Feed Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S Production Rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>H₂S/SO₂</u>
1	0.206	0.202	0.98
2	0.206	0.211	1.02
3	0.191	0.176	0.92
4		0.184	0.96
5		0.187	0.98
6		0.185	0.97
7		0.211	1.11
8		0.177	0.93
9		0.184	0.96
10		0.180	0.94
11		0.173	<u>0.91</u>
		Avg.	0.97

Table 35. Minimal Medium for *Paracoccus denitrificans*

<u>Component</u>	<u>Quantity/L</u>
KNO ₃	5.0 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	2.0 g
NaHCO ₃	1.0 g
NH ₄ Cl	0.5 g
MgSO ₄	0.8 g
Succinic acid, disodium salt hexahydrate	10.0 g
Trace element solution (Table 36)	2.0 mL

Table 36. Trace Element Solution for *Paracoccus denitrificans*

<u>Component</u>	<u>g/L</u>
EDTA	50.0
ZnSO ₄	3.0
CaCl ₂	6.8
MgCl ₂	7.9
FeSO ₄	7.0
(NH ₄) ₆ Mo ₇ O ₂₄ · 4H ₂ O	1.15
CuSO ₄	2.1
CoCl ₂	1.6

(culture volume 2L) at pH 7.0 and 30°C. When the optical density (520 nm) reached about 0.6, the biomass was harvested aseptically by centrifugation at 4900g and 25°C and resuspended in the same medium without nitrate and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time, a gas feed of 5000 ppmv NO, 5% CO₂, balance N₂ was initiated at 30 mL/min. The initial agitation rate was 150 rpm. As seen in Figure 61, removal of NO from the feed gas was observed which could be increased by increasing the agitation rate. Ultimately NO was undetectable in the outlet gas by chromophoric Gas Tech analyzer tubes. Accompanying the removal of NO was an increase in optical density of the culture (Figure 62) and a decrease in the ammonium ion concentration (Figure 63) which served as a source of reduced nitrogen.

Following these preliminary experiments, a more comprehensive study of the reduction of NO by *Paracoccus denitrificans* has been undertaken as follows. *P. denitrificans* was grown anaerobically in succinate minimal medium (Table 35) in a Marubishi MD300 fermenter (culture volume 2L) at pH 7.0 and 30°C. When the optical density (520 nm) reached about 0.6, the cells were harvested aseptically by centrifugation at 4900 x g and 25° and resuspended in the same medium without nitrate and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time a gas feed of 0.5% NO, 5% CO₂ and balance N₂ was initiated at 30 mL/min. The agitation rate was 450 rpm.

Nitric oxide in the feed gas and outlet gas was determined by two methods. Routine measurements were obtained by using chromophoric analyzer tubes (GasTec, Yokohama, Japan). More accurate analyses were done by gas chromatography as described in Table 37.

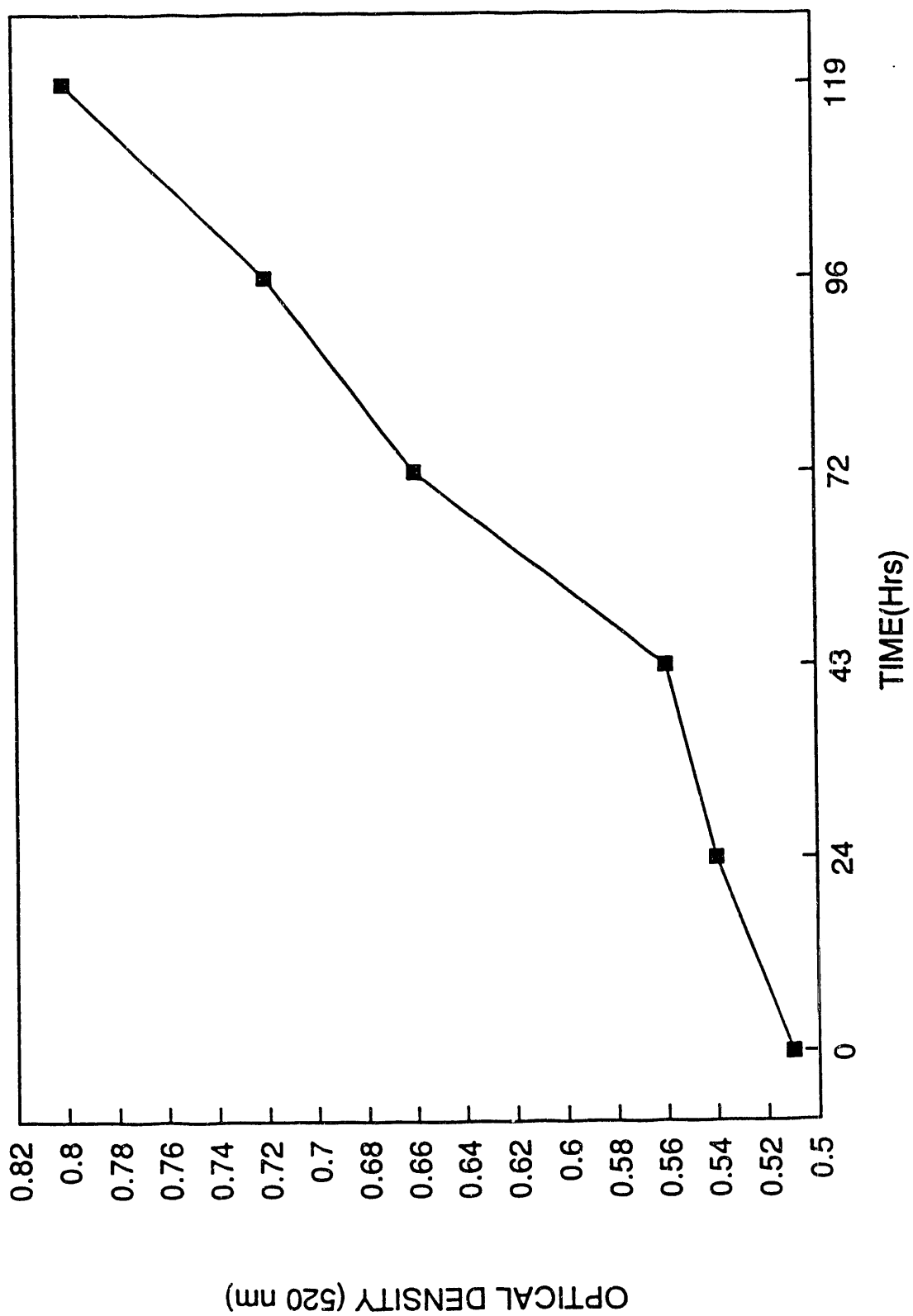


Figure 62. Optical density (520 nm) of a culture (2L) of Paracoccus denitrificans receiving a feed of 30 mL/min 5000 ppmv NO.

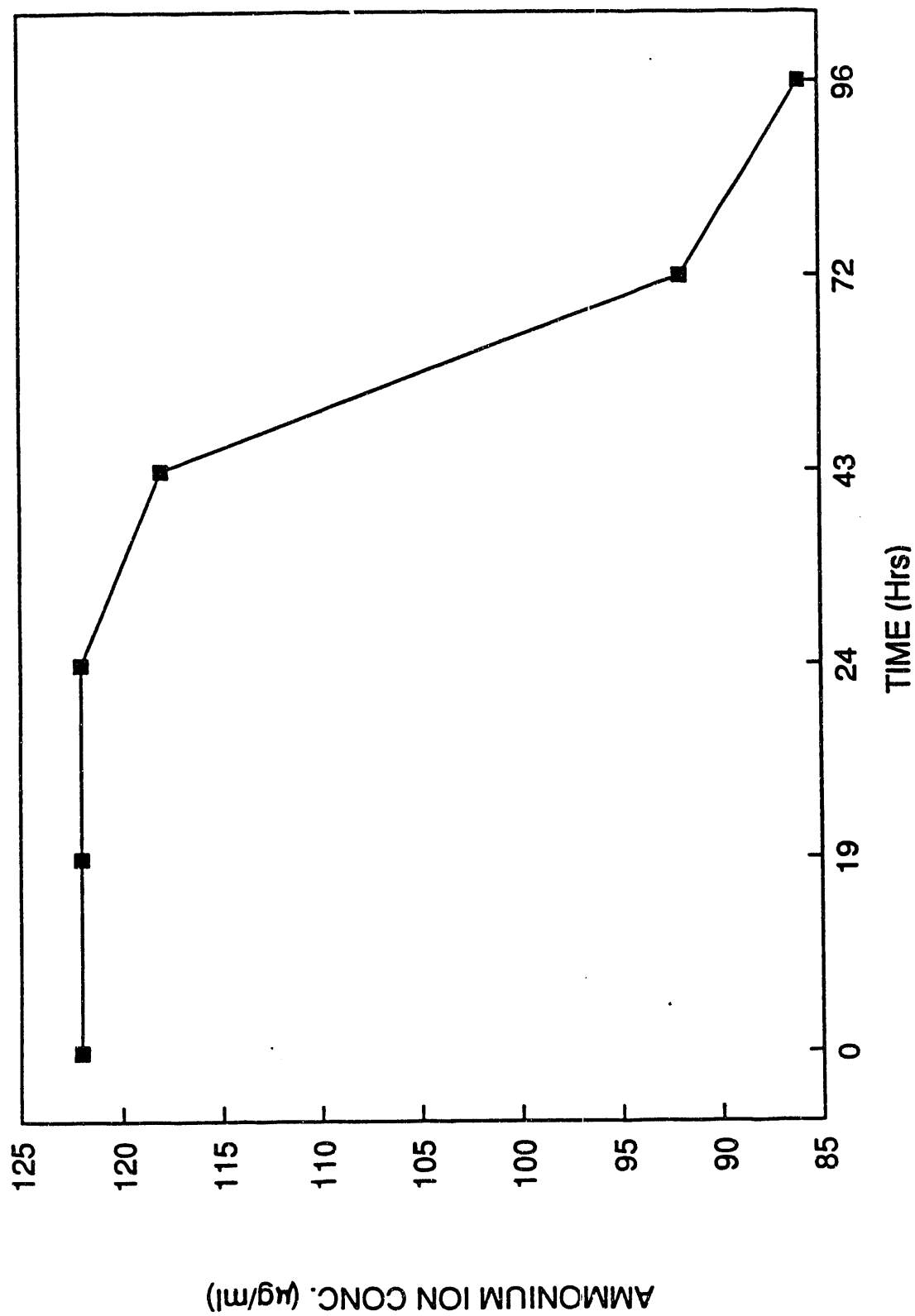


Figure 63. Ammonium ion concentration in a culture (2L) of Paracoccus denitrificans receiving a feed of 30 mL/min 5000 ppmv NO.

Table 37. Chromatographic Conditions for Analysis
of NO in Reactor Outlet Gas

Instrument:	Hewlett Packard 5890
Column:	30 ft. x 1/8-in. ID stainless steel Haye Sep DB 100/120 mesh
Carrier Gas & Flow Rate:	He , 30 mL/min
Oven Temperature:	25°C
Injector Oven Temperature:	25°C
Detector Oven Temperature:	140°C
Detector:	Thermal Conductivity Detector

Complete removal of NO from the feed gas was observed. As NO was removed from the feed gas, succinate (Figure 64) and ammonium ion (Figure 65) were depleted from the medium. As seen in Figure 66 there was a corresponding increase in the optical density of the culture medium. These data indicate that *P. denitrificans* was growing on succinate as a carbon and energy source and NO as a terminal electron acceptor.

In another experiment, *P. denitrificans* was again grown in succinate minimal medium as described in Section 5.3 with nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor. When the optical density (520 nm) reached about 0.6, the cells were harvested aseptically by centrifugation and resuspended in the same medium without nitrate and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time, a gas feed of 0.5% NO, 5% CO₂ and balance N₂ was initiated at 30 mL/min.

Similar results (Figures 67-70) were obtained compared to those described above. Complete removal of NO from the feed gas was observed. A more careful analysis of the culture medium allowed the stoichiometry to be determined. During the course of the experiment 33 mmoles of NO was reduced accompanied by the utilization of 52.6 mmoles of succinate and 11.2 mmoles of ammonium ion and the production of approximately 253 mg of biomass. *P. denitrificans* cells were difficult to break by sonication for protein determination. Therefore, biomass concentrations have been estimated based on an optical density vs biomass concentration correlation developed for another organism of similar size (*Thiobacillus denitrificans*). This estimation procedure cannot account for the contribution of storage granules (see below).

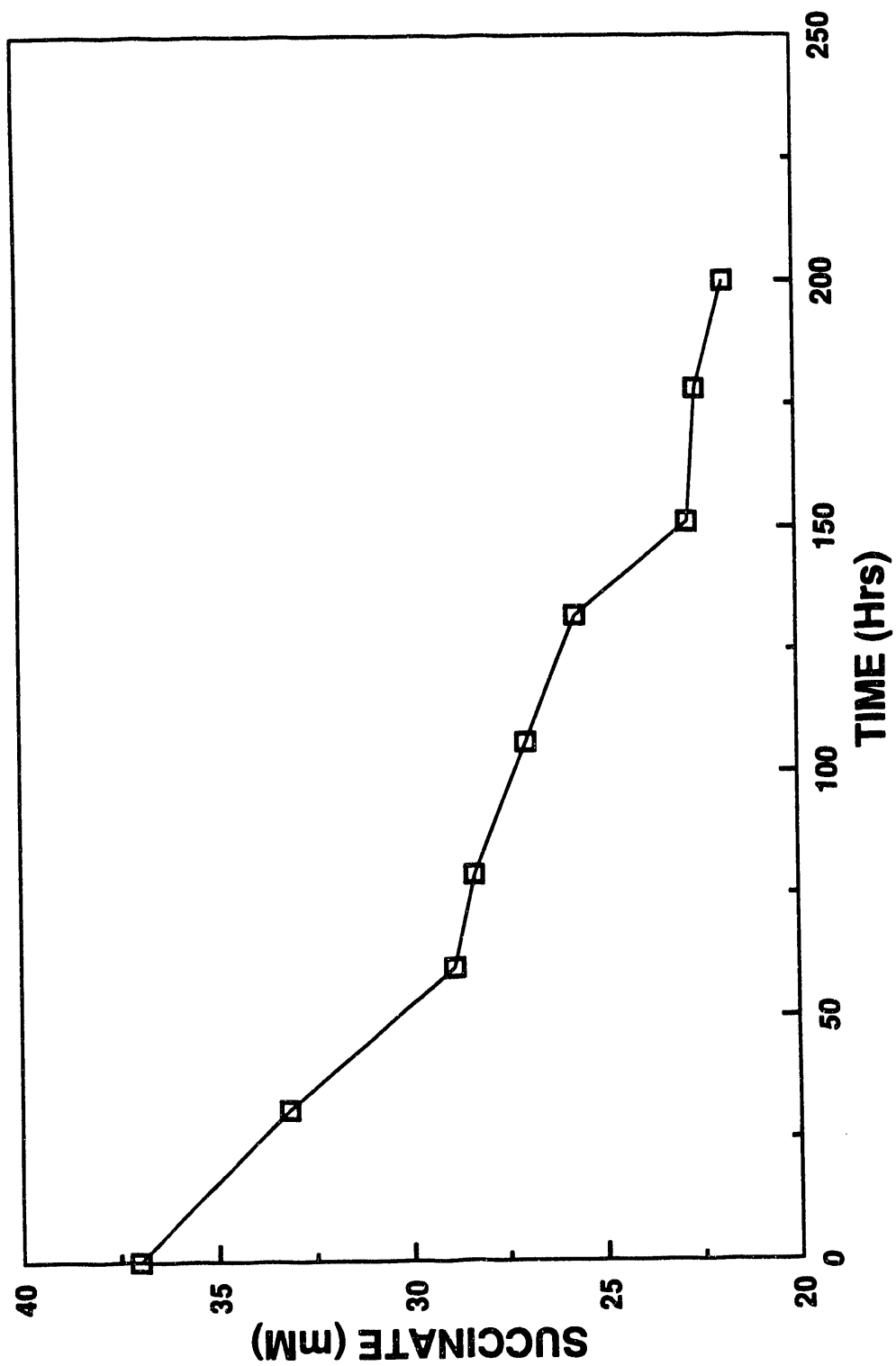


Figure 64. Succinic acid concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

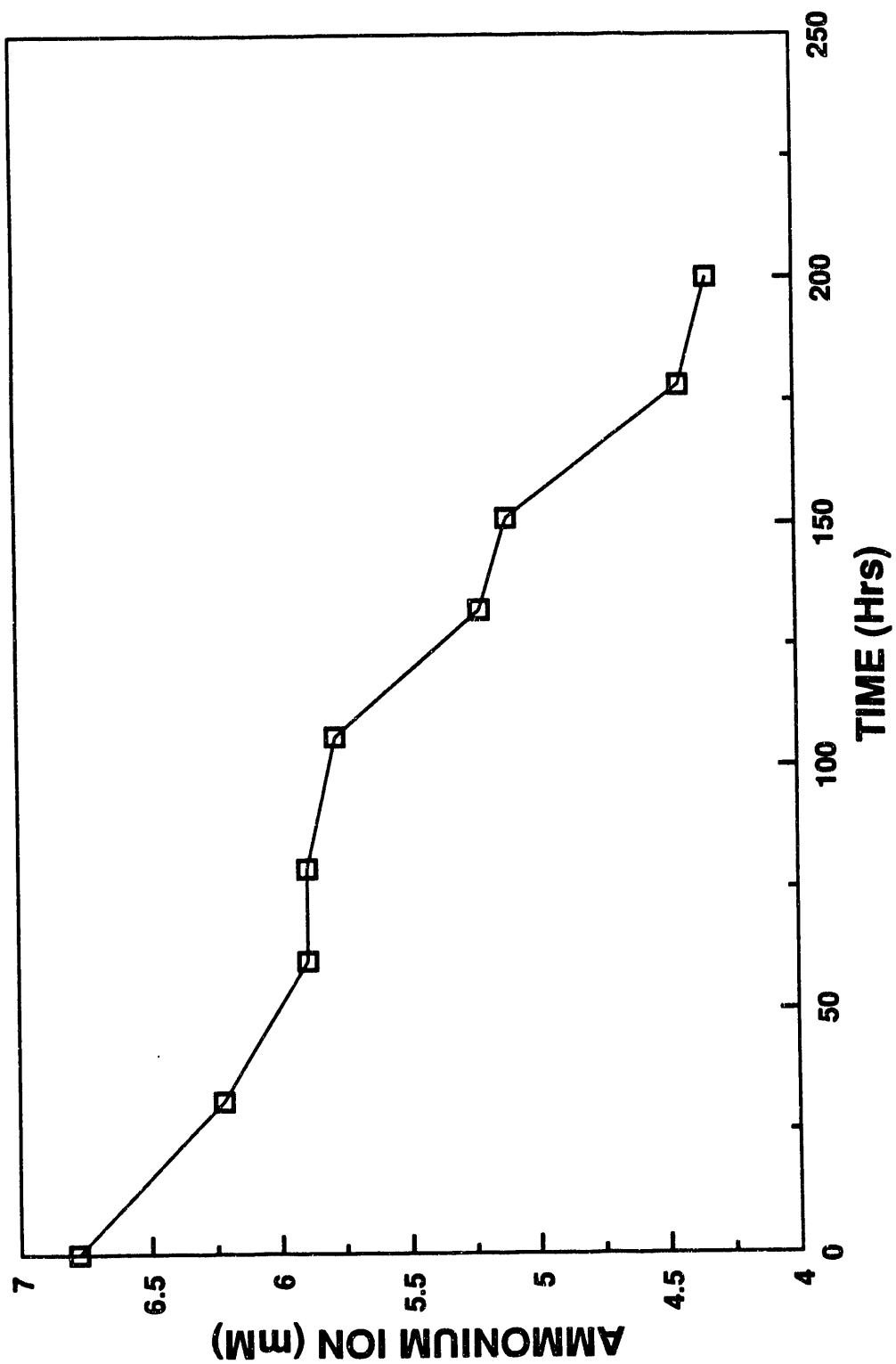


Figure 65. Ammonium ion concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

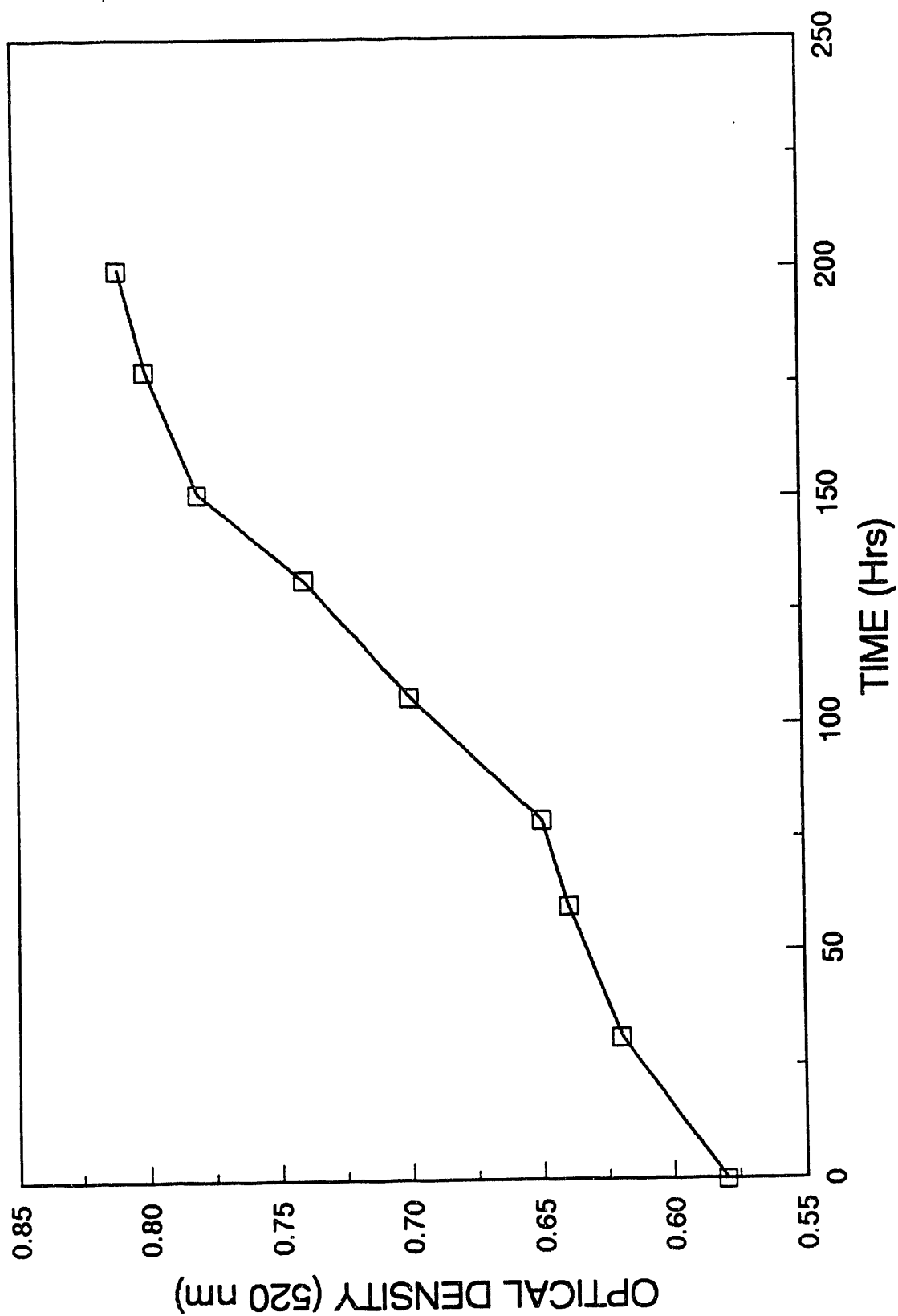


Figure 66. Optical density (520 nm) of a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

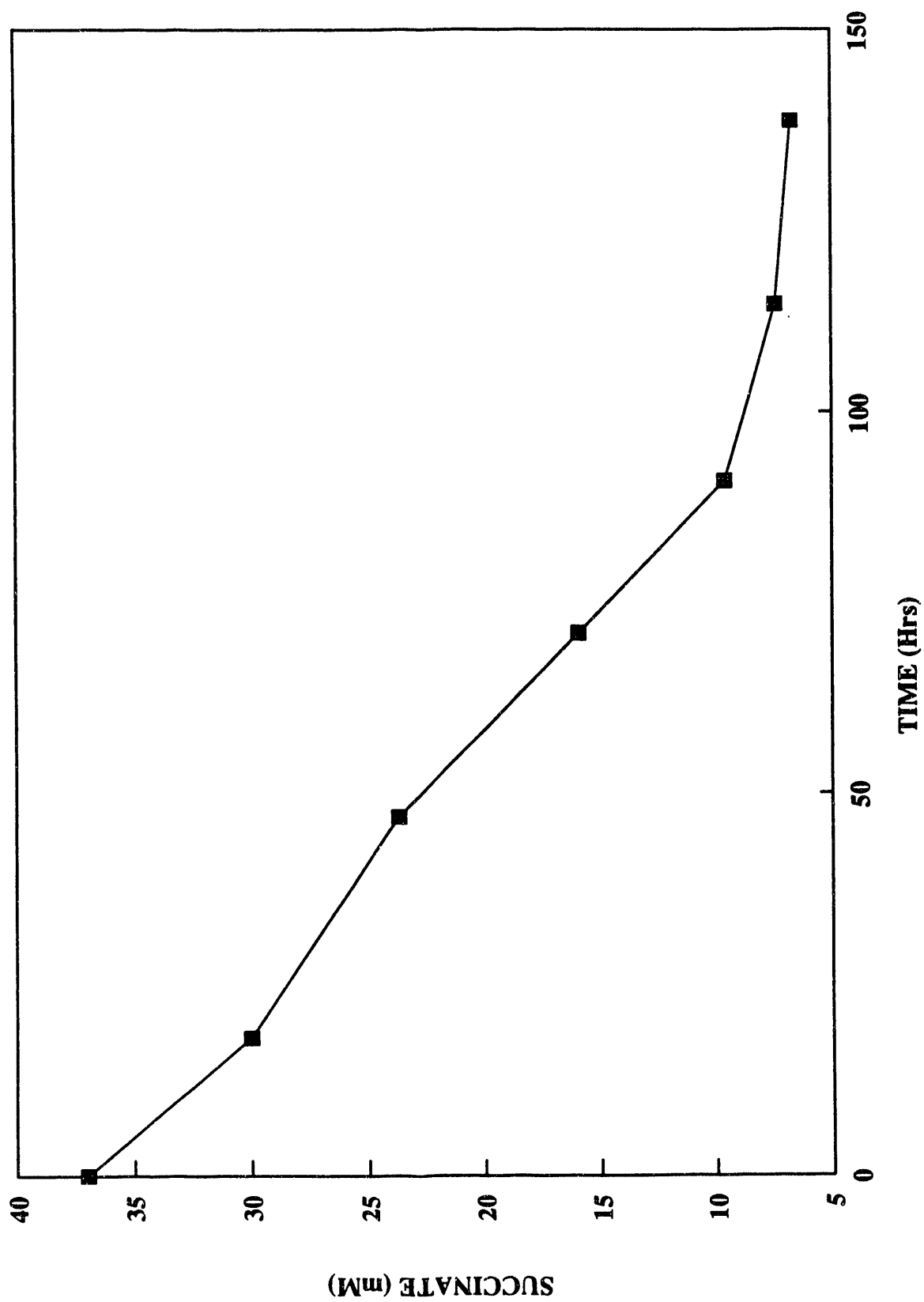


Figure 67. Succinic acid concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

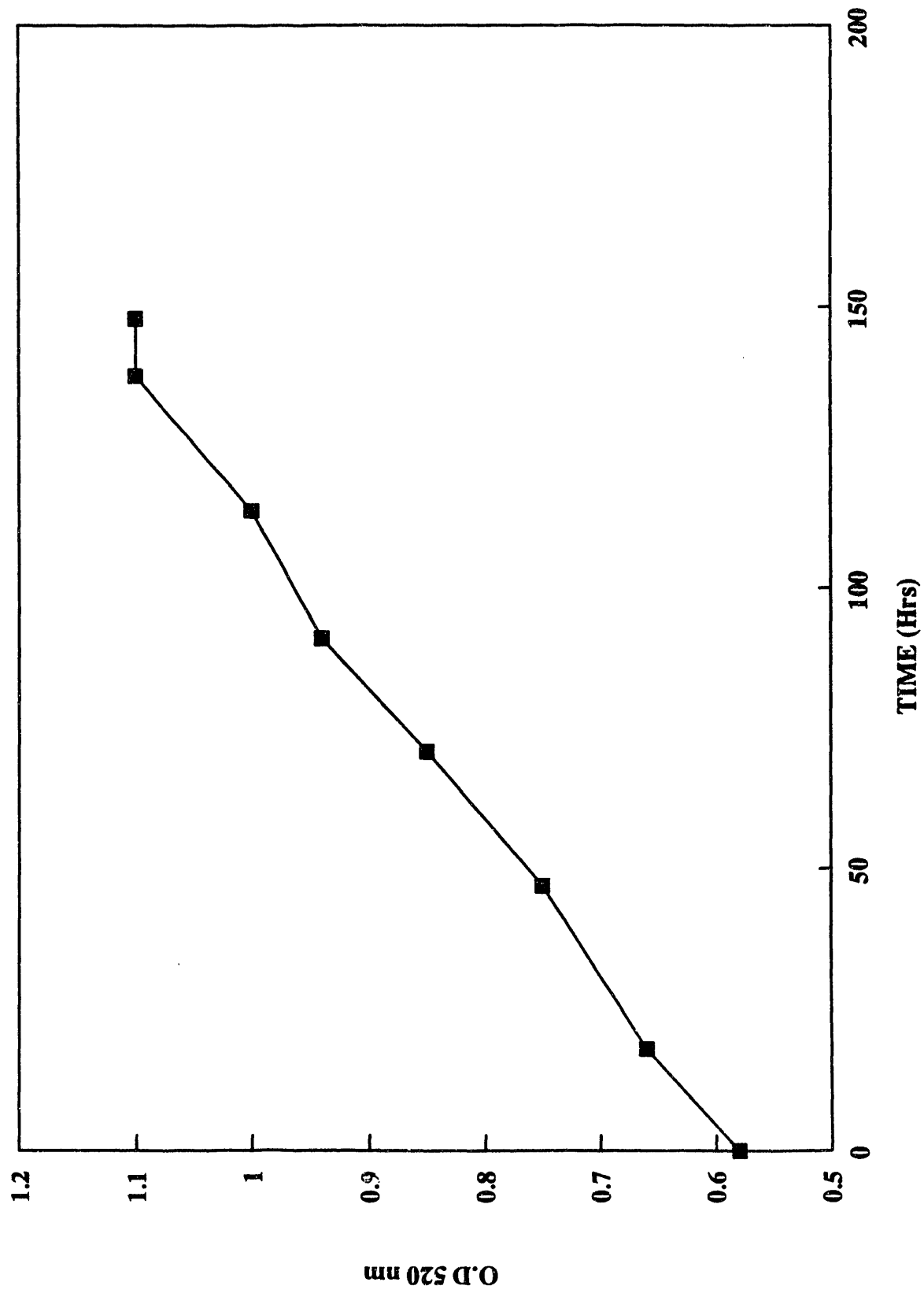


Figure 68. Optical density (520 nm) of a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

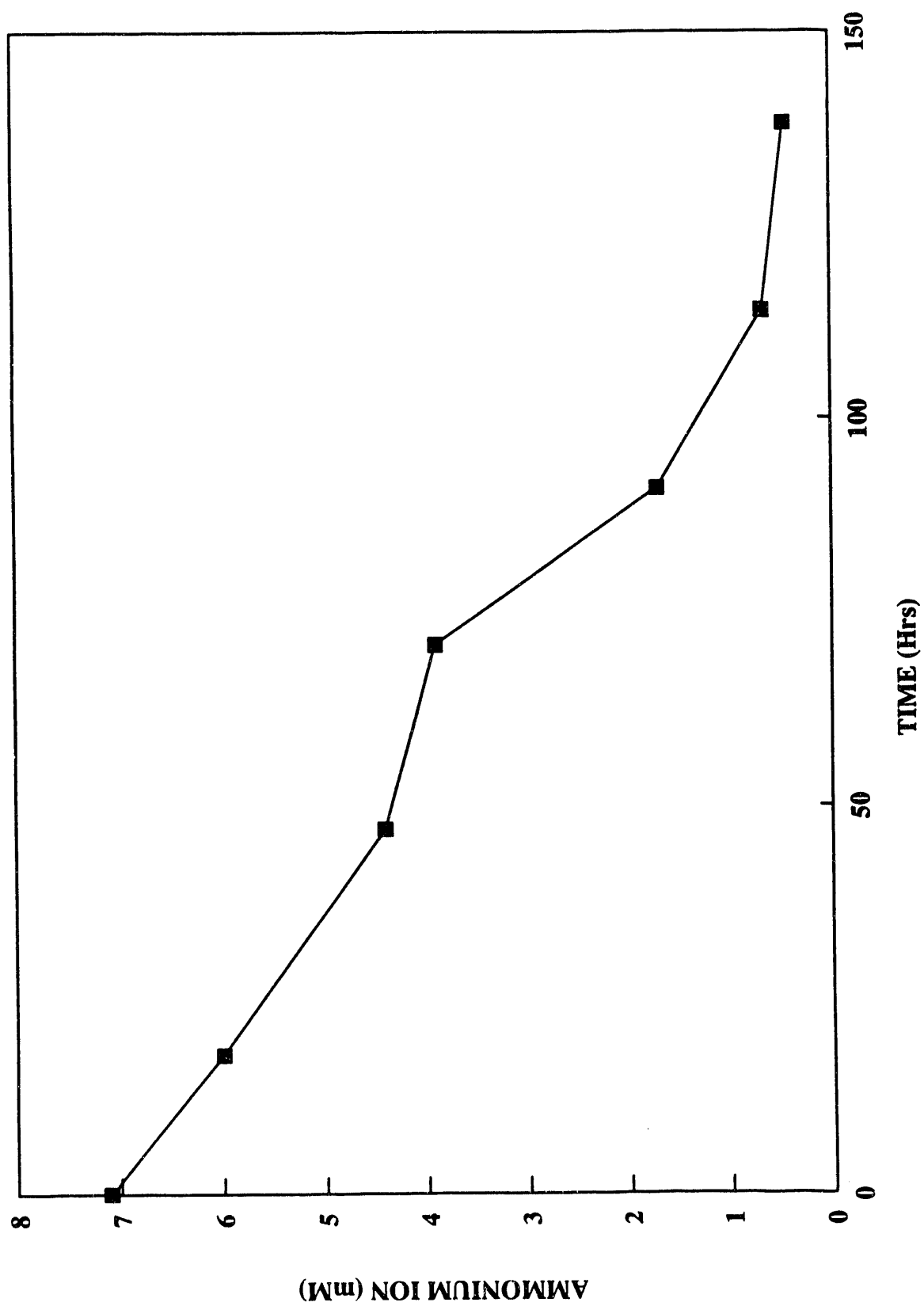


Figure 69. Ammonium ion concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

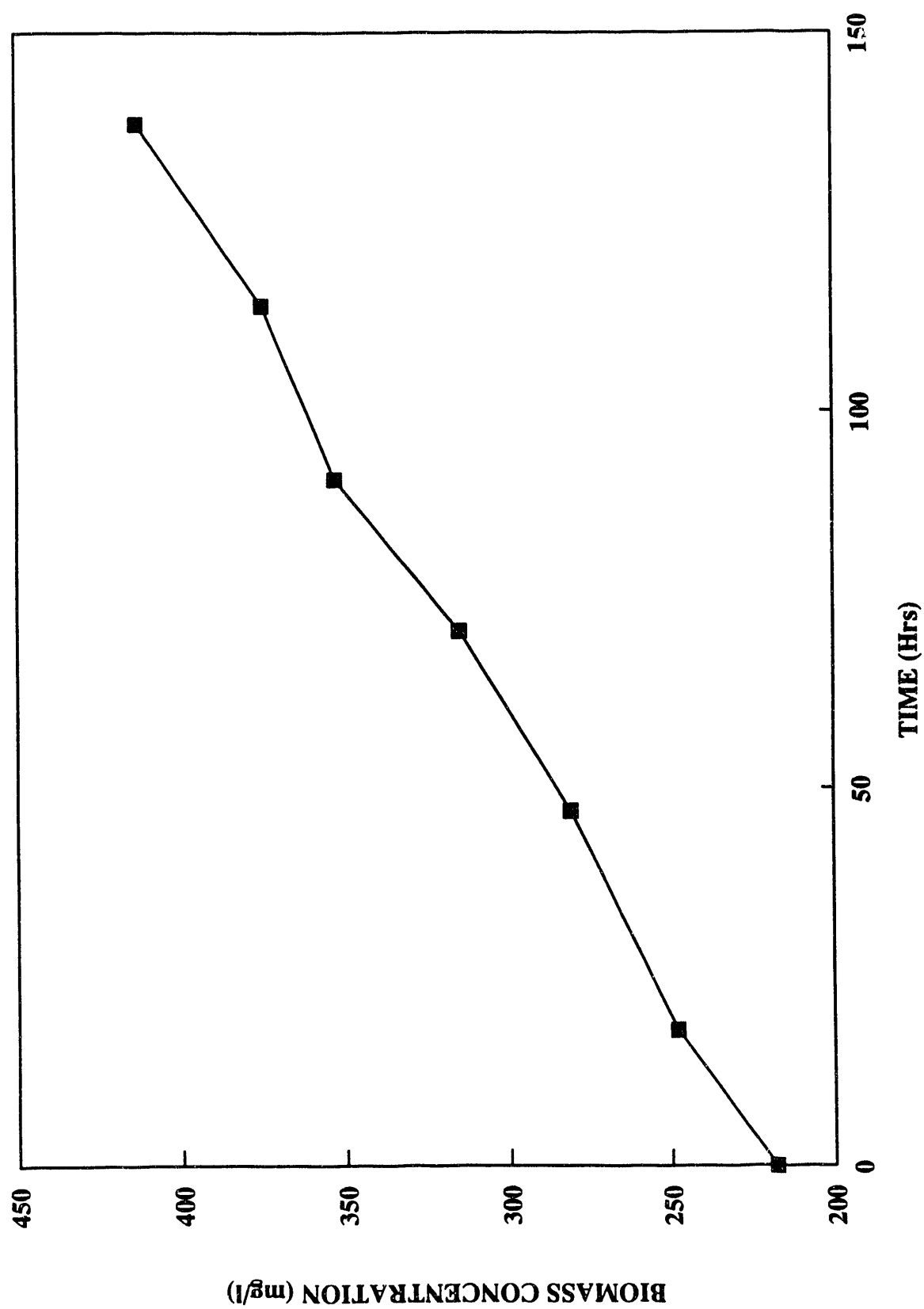


Figure 70. Biomass concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture operating with a NO feed.

The purely chemical oxidation of succinate by NO would require 7 moles of NO per mole of succinate oxidized to CO₂. The NO/succinate ratio observed in this experiment was 0.63. In other words, the NO utilized can account for the complete oxidation of only 4.7 mmoles of succinate. The metabolic fate of the remaining succinate is not clear. Some succinate carbon was incorporated into biomass. Additional succinate carbon was likely converted into poly-β-hydroxybutyrate which is a common storage polymer in this organism. Under electron acceptor-limiting conditions the organism would be expected to accumulate storage polymers. Other possible pathways for succinate carbon include fermentation although no smaller molecular weight carboxylic acids (possible end products) were detected. The utilization of succinate for growth by this organism under electron acceptor-limiting conditions may result in loss of the more oxidized carbons as CO₂.

A similar series of experiments were conducted to determine if *P. denitrificans* could utilize heat and alkali pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with NO as a terminal electron acceptor. *P. denitrificans* was first grown on succinate in the minimal medium (Table 35) as described above. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in medium prepared as follows: 100 g of wet-packed sludge was suspended in 1L of the medium described in Table 35 without succinate or nitrate. The pH was adjusted to 12 with 10N NaOH and the suspension autoclaved at 121°C for 30 min. The cooled suspension was adjusted to pH 7.0 with 6N HCl, diluted to 1.5 L with additional medium and transferred to the fermenter.

At this time a gas feed consisting of 0.5% NO, 5% CO₂ and balance N₂ was initiated at 30 mL/min. The agitation rate was 450 rpm. The pH and temperature were maintained at 7.0 and 30°C, respectively. Nitric oxide in the feed and outlet gases was determined as described above.

Complete removal of NO from the feed gas was observed. As NO was removed from the feed gas there was a corresponding decrease in the concentration of soluble COD (Figure 71). These data indicate that *P. denitrificans* was utilizing biomolecules solubilized from the sewage sludge as sources of carbon and energy and NO as a terminal electron acceptor. The ammonium ion concentration was seen to increase (Figure 72) as NO was removed from the feed gas. This has preliminarily been attributed to the liberation of NH₄⁺ during metabolism of N-containing compounds from the sewage sludge.

In order to demonstrate clearly that the utilization of soluble COD in these cultures was directly linked to the utilization of NO as a terminal electron acceptor, two additional types of experiments were conducted. In the first type, *P. denitrificans* cultures were grown on a pretreated sewage sludge and a NO gas feed as described above. When utilization of soluble COD in the culture medium was clearly established the NO gas feed was stopped. As seen in Figure 73, when NO was no longer available as a terminal electron acceptor, the soluble COD concentration remained stable. When the NO feed was restarted about 72 hrs later the soluble COD concentration again began to decline.

In a second type of experiment, nitrate (3 g/L KNO₃) was added to a *P. denitrificans* culture growing on pretreated sewage sludge and

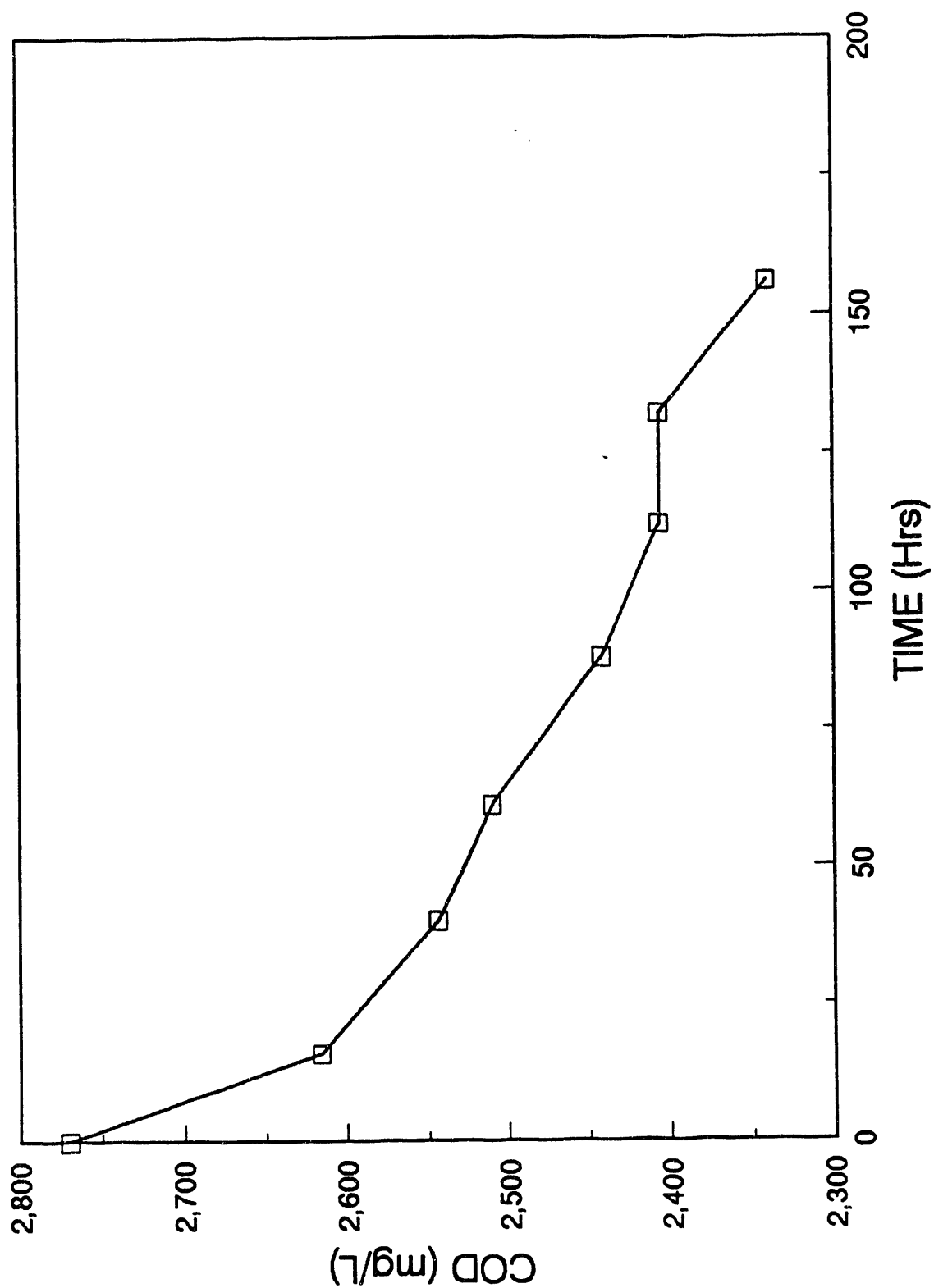


Figure 71. Soluble COD in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture using pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with a NO feed.

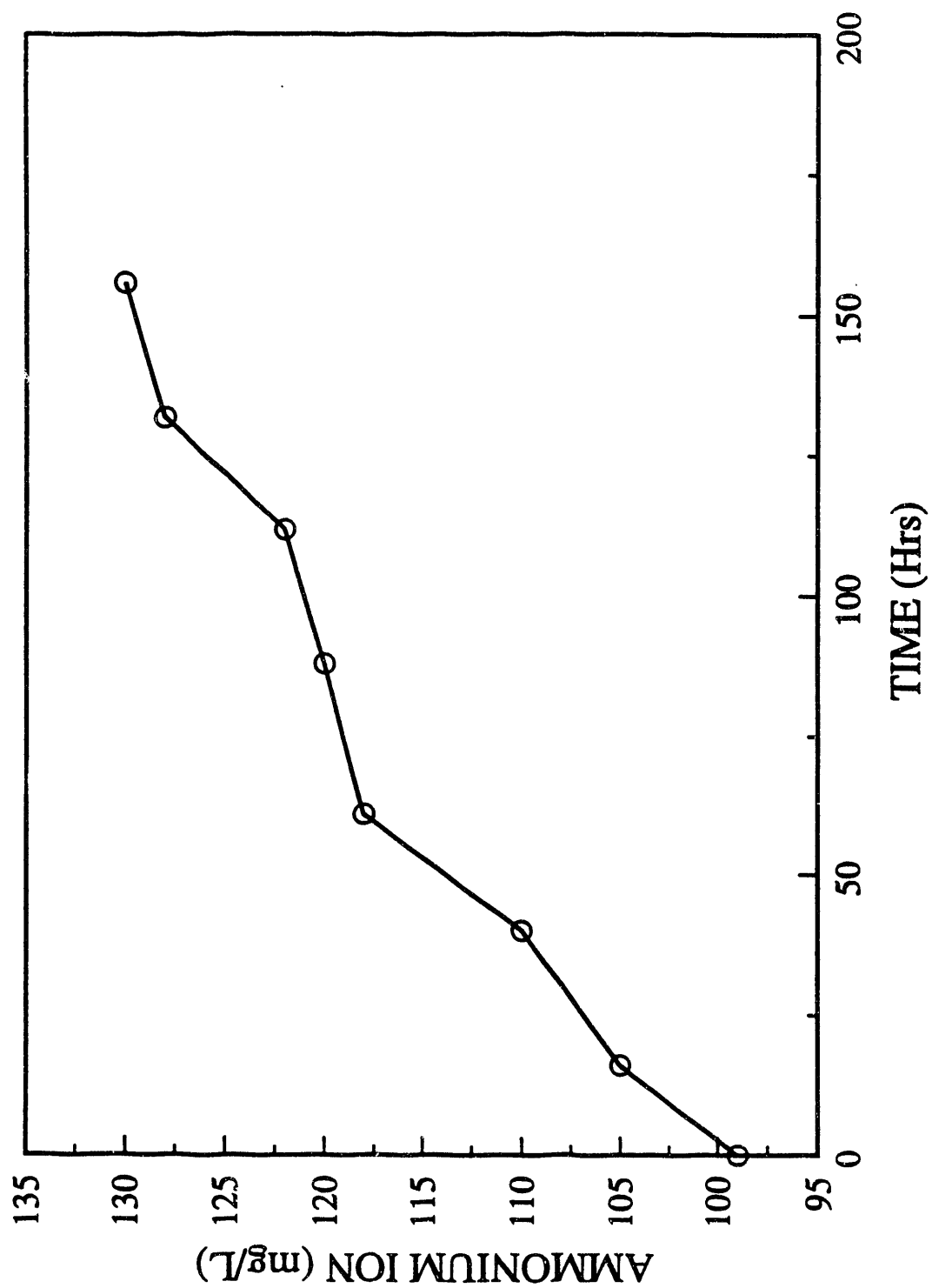


Figure 72. Ammonium ion concentration in a *P. denitrificans* batch culture using pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with a NO feed.

NO. If NO were acting as a terminal electron acceptor in these cultures nitrate should suppress the utilization of NO. Within 72 hrs of the addition of KNO_3 , NO was seen to breakthrough in the outlet gas at concentrations of about 1000 ppm. Further addition of pretreated sewage sludge did not reverse the NO breakthrough.

One additional observation is worthy of note. *P. denitrificans* cultures growing on pretreated sewage sludge were occasionally subject to NO breakthrough even when soluble COD was still available in the medium. However, addition of more pretreated sludge resulted once again in completed NO removal. These observations indicate that *P. denitrificans* could use only certain components of the soluble COD as carbon and energy sources.

Because of the unexpectedly low NO/succinate stoichiometric ratio observed when *P. denitrificans* was grown on succinate as a carbon and energy source and nitric oxide as a terminal electron acceptor, that experiment was repeated during the current reporting period. *P. denitrificans* was again grown in succinate minimal medium (Table 35) with nitrate as a terminal electron acceptor. When the OD (520 nm) reached about 0.6, the cells were harvested aseptically by centrifugation and resuspended in the same medium without nitrate and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time, a gas feed of 0.5% NO, 5% CO_2 and balance nitrogen was initiated at 30 mL/min.

Results are shown in Figures 74-76. Complete removal of NO from the feed gas was observed. However, the rate of utilization of succinic acid in this experiment was much lower than previously observed. During the course of the experiment 32.3 mmoles of NO was reduced accompanied by the utilization of 5.0 mmoles of succinic acid.

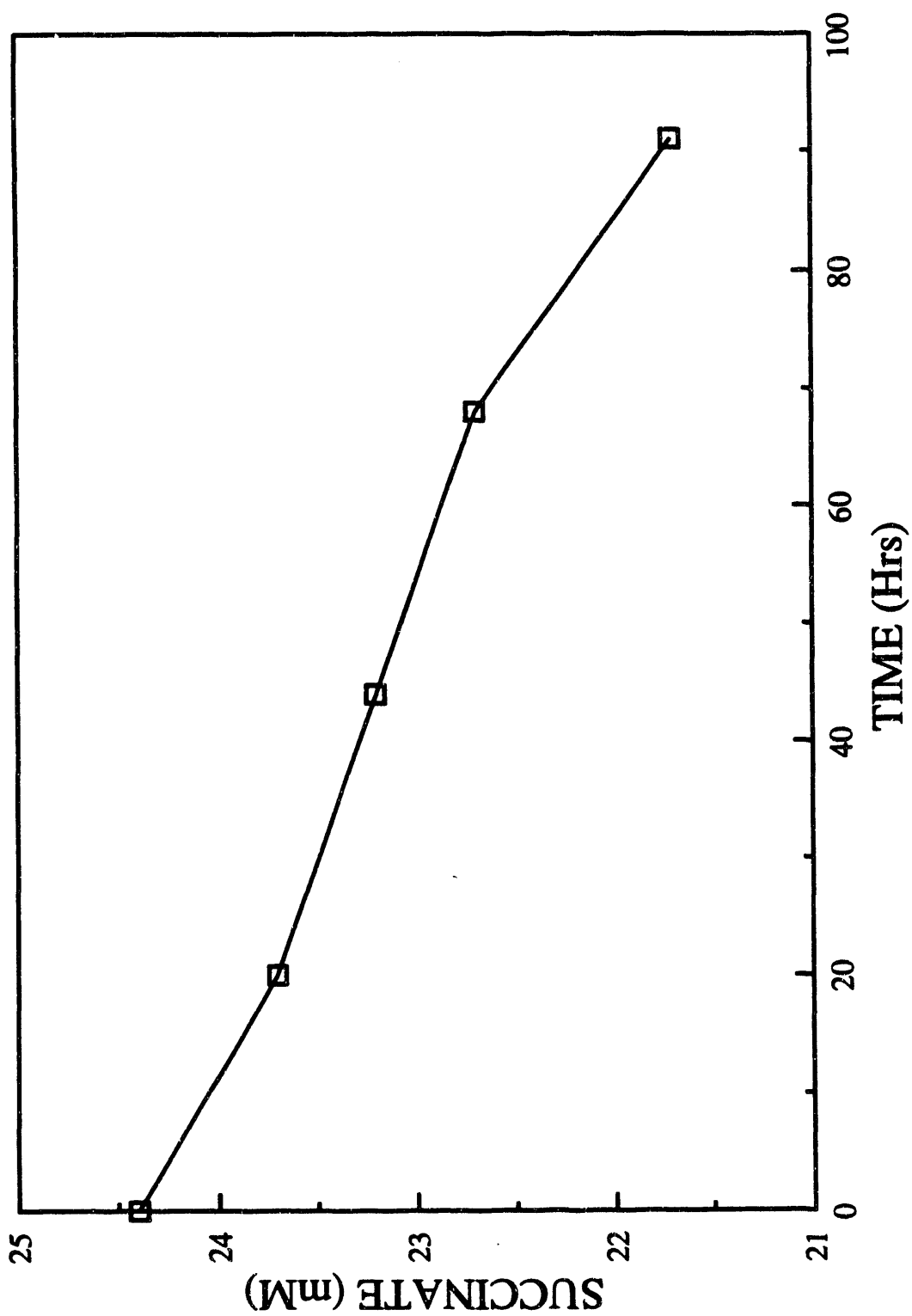


Figure 74. Succinic acid concentration in a *P. denitrificans* culture receiving a NO feed (30 mL/min of 0.5%).

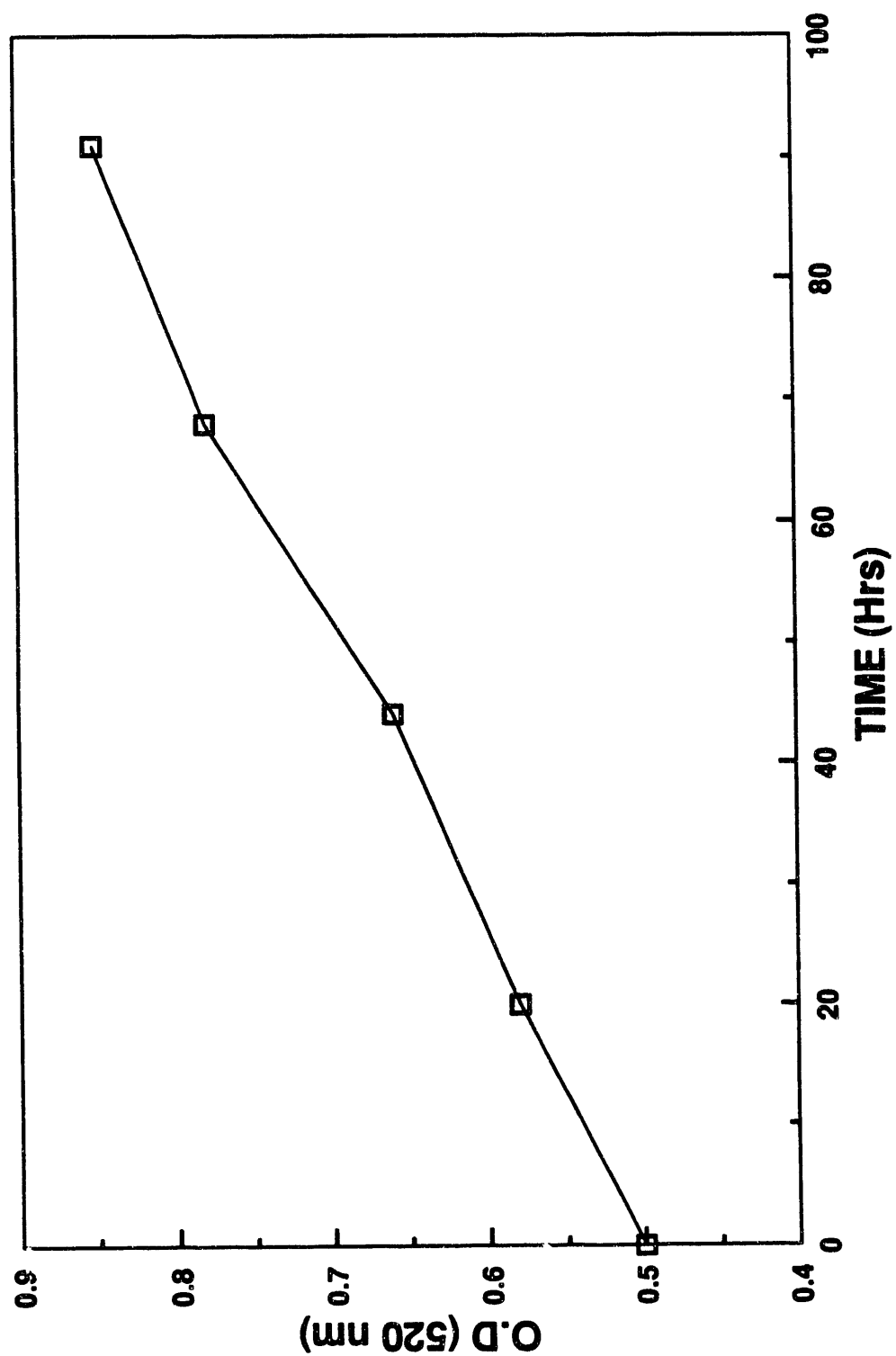


Figure 75. Optical density in a *P. denitrificans* culture receiving a NO feed (30mL/min of 0.5%).

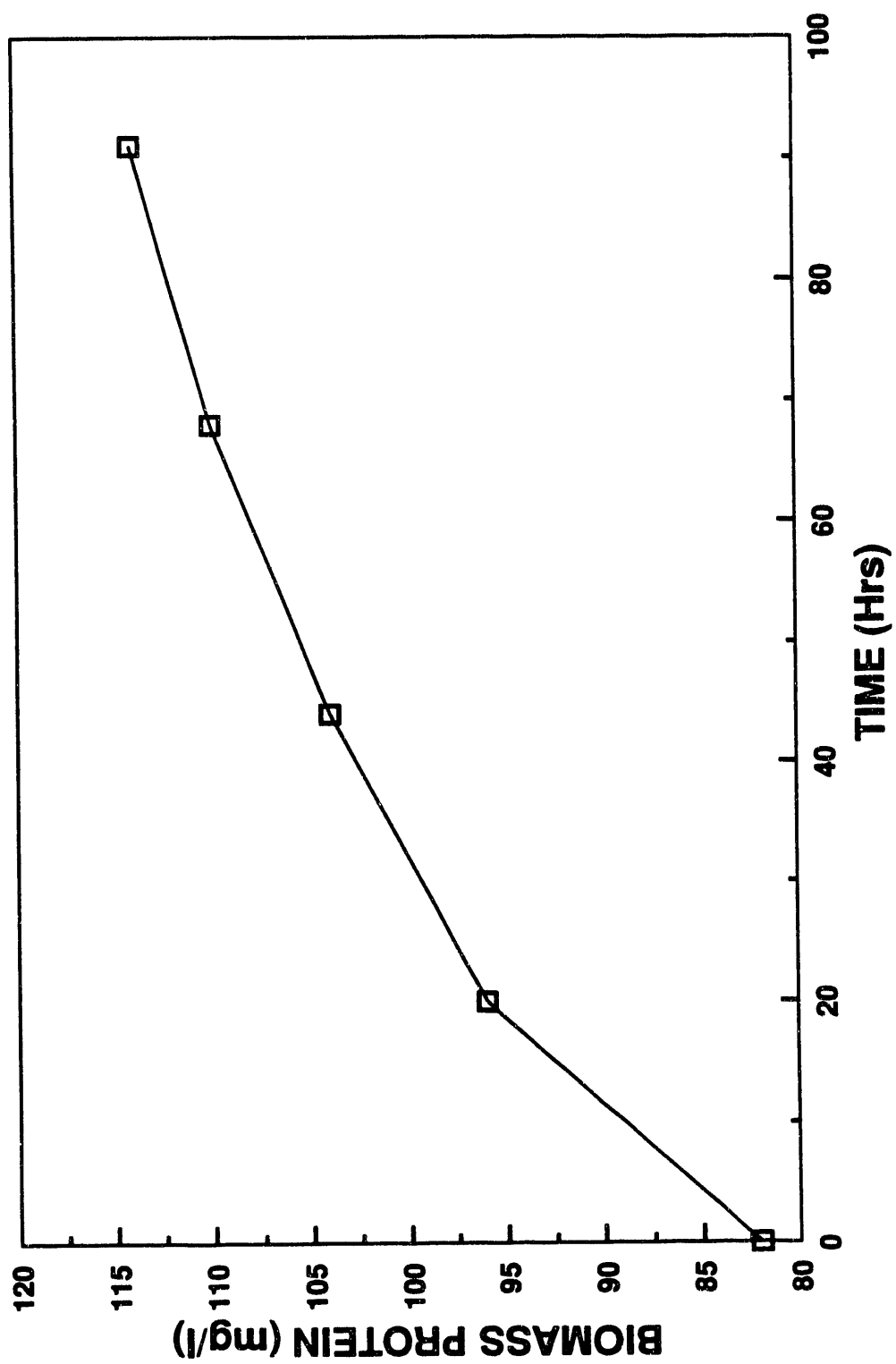


Figure 76. Biomass protein concentration in a *P. denitrificans* culture receiving a NO feed (30ml/min of 0.5%).

The NO/succinate ratio was, therefore, 6.5. This is much closer to the NO/succinate ratio of 7.0 predicted from the purely chemical oxidation of succinate (to CO₂ and H₂O). The difference can be attributed to diversion of succinate reducing equivalents for biosynthesis rather than growth. The NH₄⁺/NO stoichiometric ratio observed in this experiment was 0.023 which is more than ten times less NH₄⁺ utilization than previously observed. Lastly, the reduction of 32.3 mmoles of NO was accompanied by the production of 99.3 mg of biomass protein (by Bradford with a bovine serum albumin standard). If it is assumed that *P. denitrificans* is about 50% protein by weight, this corresponds to about 200 mg of biomass. This is comparable (on the low side) to that observed in previous experiments. However, previous experiments used a turbidity/biomass relationship developed for another organism.

In summary, the stoichiometry observed in this experiment appears to be in line with what would be predicted based on a comparison with a purely chemical oxidation of succinic acid by NO. Previously observed low NO/succinate ratios may have resulted from contamination. However, *P. denitrificans* is a Gram-negative coccus. Most common laboratory contaminants are also Gram-negative but are short rods and easily distinguishable from coccus forms. Reference was made above to the production of poly-β-hydroxybutyrate as a storage polymer in this organism. The production (or lack of production of) storage granules would be expected to have a significant impact on the succinic acid utilization rate.

At the conclusion of the experiment described above, the culture was diluted with fresh succinic acid medium to a final biomass protein

concentration of 48 mg/L. Two liters of this suspension was transferred back to the fermenter and the NO feed reinitiated. Over the next four hours the NO volumetric feed rate was increased stepwise in an effort to exceed the specific activity of the biomass for NO reduction. Results are shown in Figure 77. As shown in Figure 77 specific feed rates as high as 24.6 mmol NO/g-biomass failed to produce significant breakthrough (beyond mass transfer limitations) of NO. Following 17 hrs of operation at a NO feed rate of 200 mL/min (2.36 mmol/hr), the feed rate was lowered to 140 mL/min. The outlet NO concentration decreased to zero and remained so for 72 hrs of operation at this flow rate. During this time, the succinate, ammonium ion and biomass protein concentrations were monitored. Results are shown in Figures 78-80. The reduction of 119 mmol of NO was accompanied by the oxidation of 22.1 mmol succinate and the utilization of 5.0 mmol of NH_4^+ . A total of 280 mg of biomass protein was produced. The corresponding stoichiometric ratios are:

$$\frac{\text{NO}}{\text{Suc}} = 5.4 \text{ mole/mole}$$

$$\frac{\text{NH}_4^+}{\text{NO}} = 0.042 \text{ mole/mole}$$

$$\frac{\text{Biomass protein}}{\text{NO}} = 2.35 \text{ g/mole}$$

5.3.2 *Pseudomonas denitrificans*

Ps. denitrificans (ATCC 13867) was grown anaerobically in a yeast extract, mineral salts medium (Table 38) in a Marubishi MD300 fermenter (culture volume 2L) at pH 7.0 and 30°C. When the optical density reached about 0.25, the cells were harvested aseptically by centrifugation at 4900 x g and 25°C and resuspended in the same medium

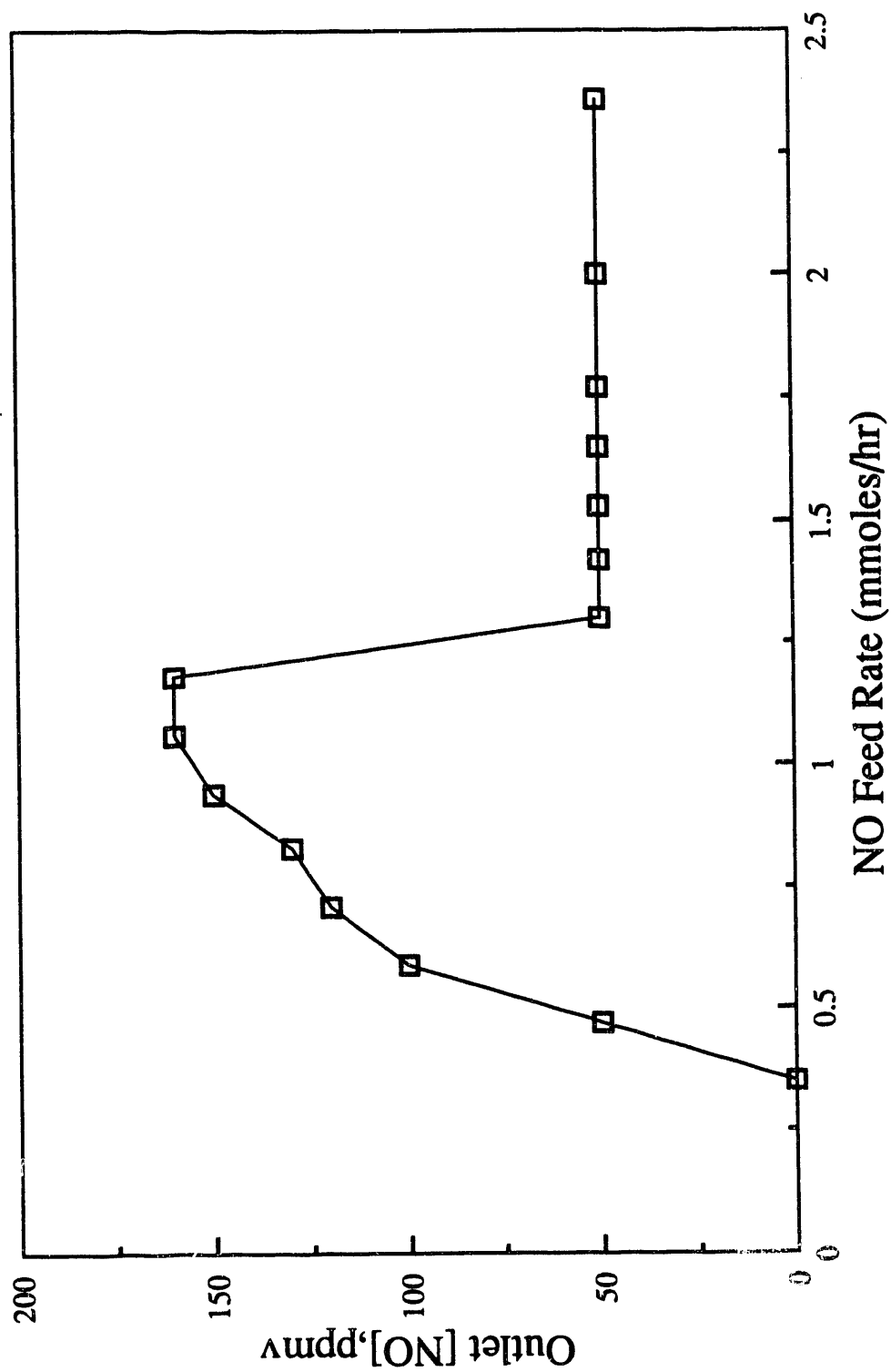


Figure 77. Outlet NO concentration from a 2 L *P. denitrificans* culture (on succinic acid) with increasing NO feed rate. Data collected over two hrs at a biomass protein concentration of 48 mg/L.

Table 38. Yeast Extract/Mineral Salts Medium
for *Pseudomonas denitrificans*

<u>Component</u>	<u>quantity per liter</u>
KNO ₃	5.0 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	2.0 g
NaHCO ₃	1.0 g
NH ₄ Cl	0.5 g
MgSO ₄	0.8 g
Yeast extract	3.0 g
Trace element solution (Table 14)	2.0 mL

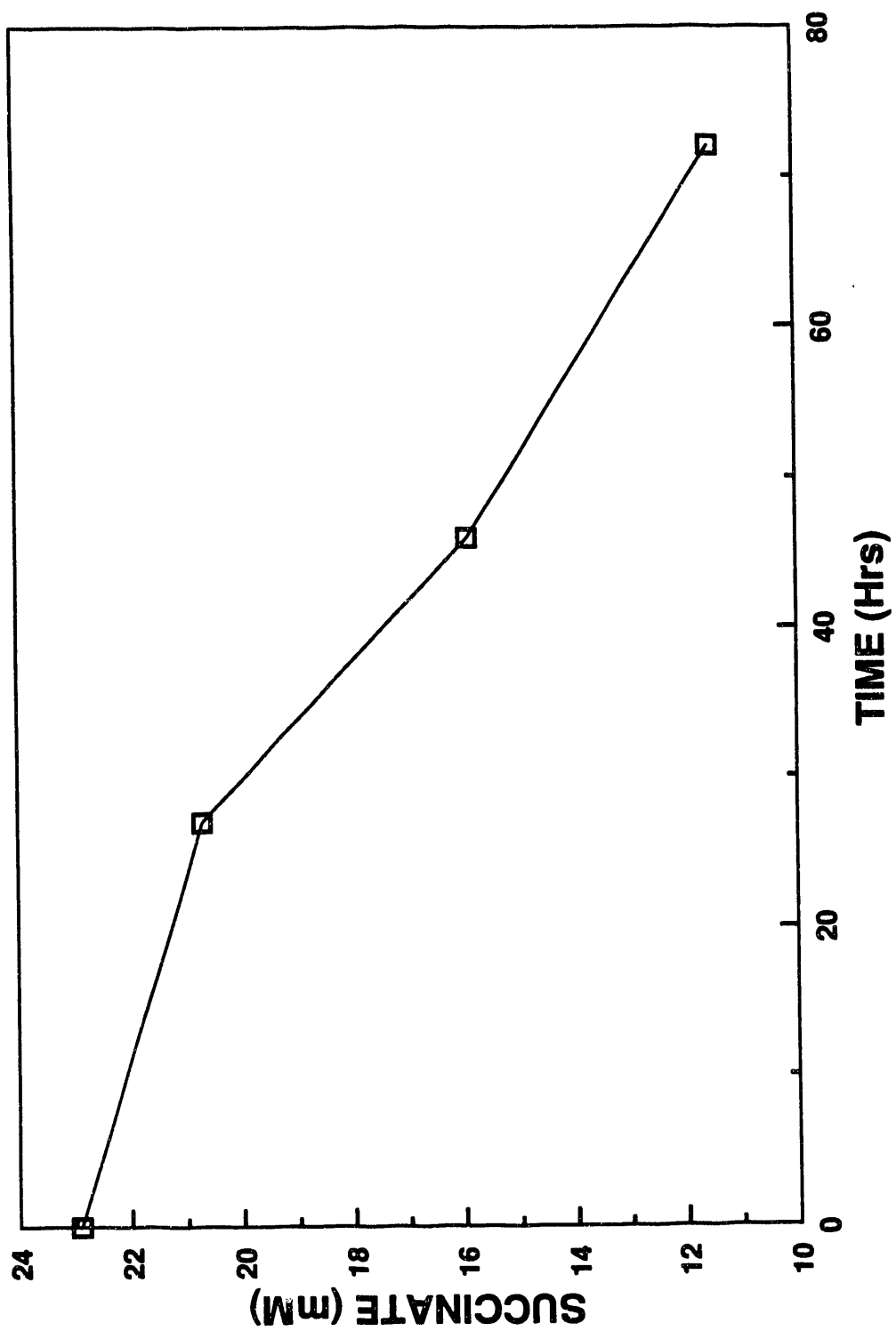


Figure 78. Succinic acid concentration in a *P. denitrificans* culture receiving a NO feed (140 mL/min of 0.5%).

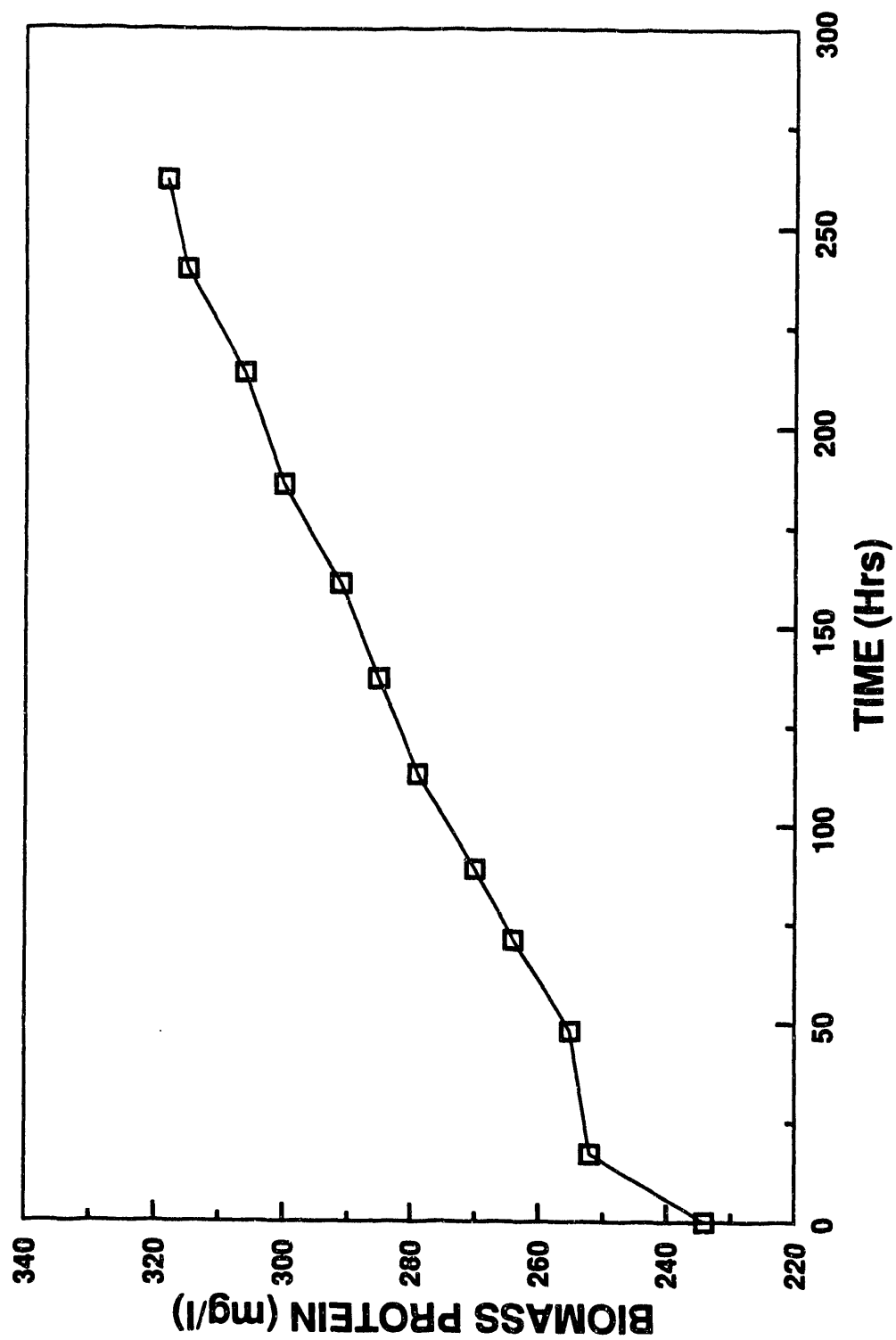


Figure 86. Biomass protein concentration in a *Ps. denitrificans* culture growing on heat/alkali pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source and NO as a terminal electron acceptor.

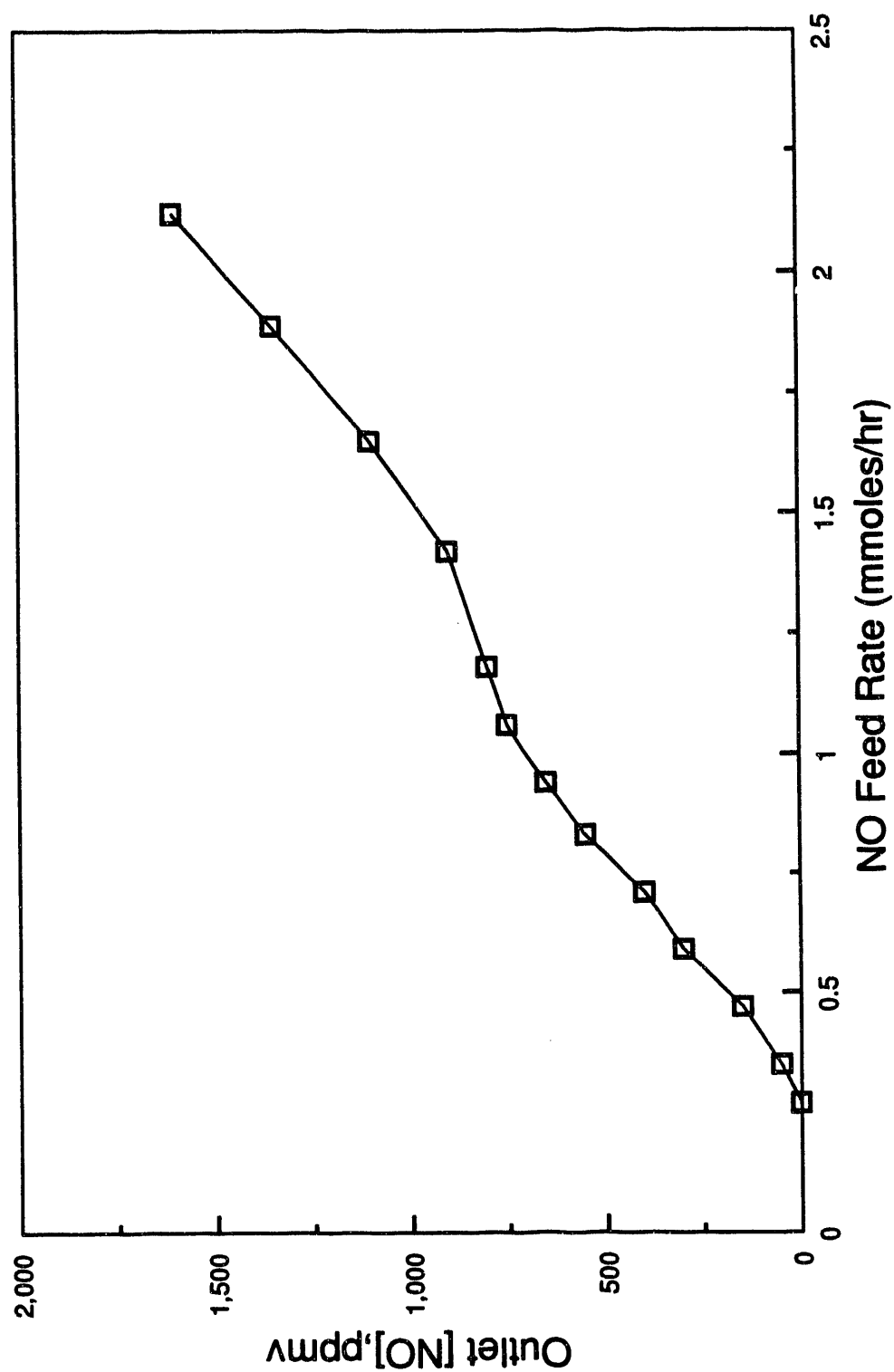


Figure 87. Outlet NO concentration from a 2 L *Ps. denitrificans* culture (on pretreated sewage sludge) with increasing NO feed rate. Data collected over six hrs at a biomass protein concentration of 200 mg/L.

5.3.3 *Alcaligenes denitrificans*

A. denitrificans (ATCC 31040) was grown anaerobically in a yeast extract, mineral salts medium (Table 38) in a Marubishi MD 300 fermenter (culture volume 2L) at pH 7.0 and 30 C. When the optical density (520 nm) reached about 0.6, the cells were harvested aseptically by centrifugation at 5000 g and 25 C and resuspended in the same medium (without nitrate) and transferred back to the fermenter. At this time, a gas feed of 0.50% NO, 5% CO₂, balance N₂ was initiated (30 mL/min) and maintained for about 115 hrs. At this time, the NO feed was replaced with N₂. At a total elapsed time of about 215 hrs the NO feed was reinitiated. (The culture remained on a N₂ feed for about 100 hrs.)

The results of this experiment was shown in Figures 88-91. As seen in Figure 88, the soluble COD (yeast extract components) declined only when NO was available as a terminal electron acceptor. As indicated in Figures 89 and 90, there was essentially no accumulation of biomass in the absence of NO. Growth of the organism on yeast extract as a carbon and energy source and NO as a terminal electron acceptor is clearly indicated. As seen in Figure 91, the ammonia nitrogen concentration increased with time while NO was available. This has been seen before with complex carbon and energy sources which contain nitrogen.

A similar series of experiments were conducted to determine if *A. denitrificans* could utilize heat-and alkali-pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with NO as a terminal electron acceptor. *A. denitrificans* was first grown on yeast extract in the minimal medium (Table 38) as described above. Cells were then harvested by

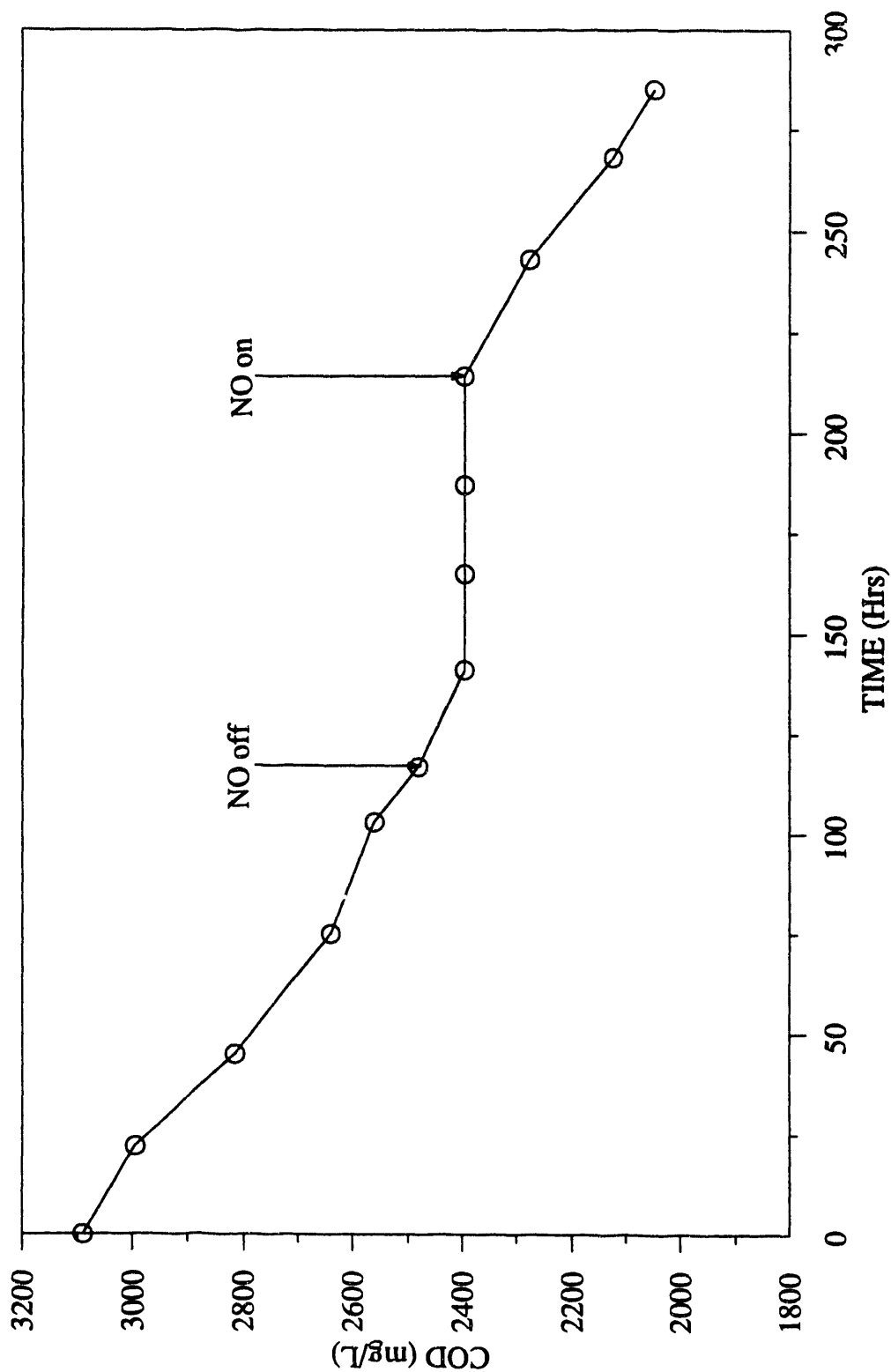


Figure 88. Soluble COD concentration in an *A. denitrificans* culture growing on yeast extract as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

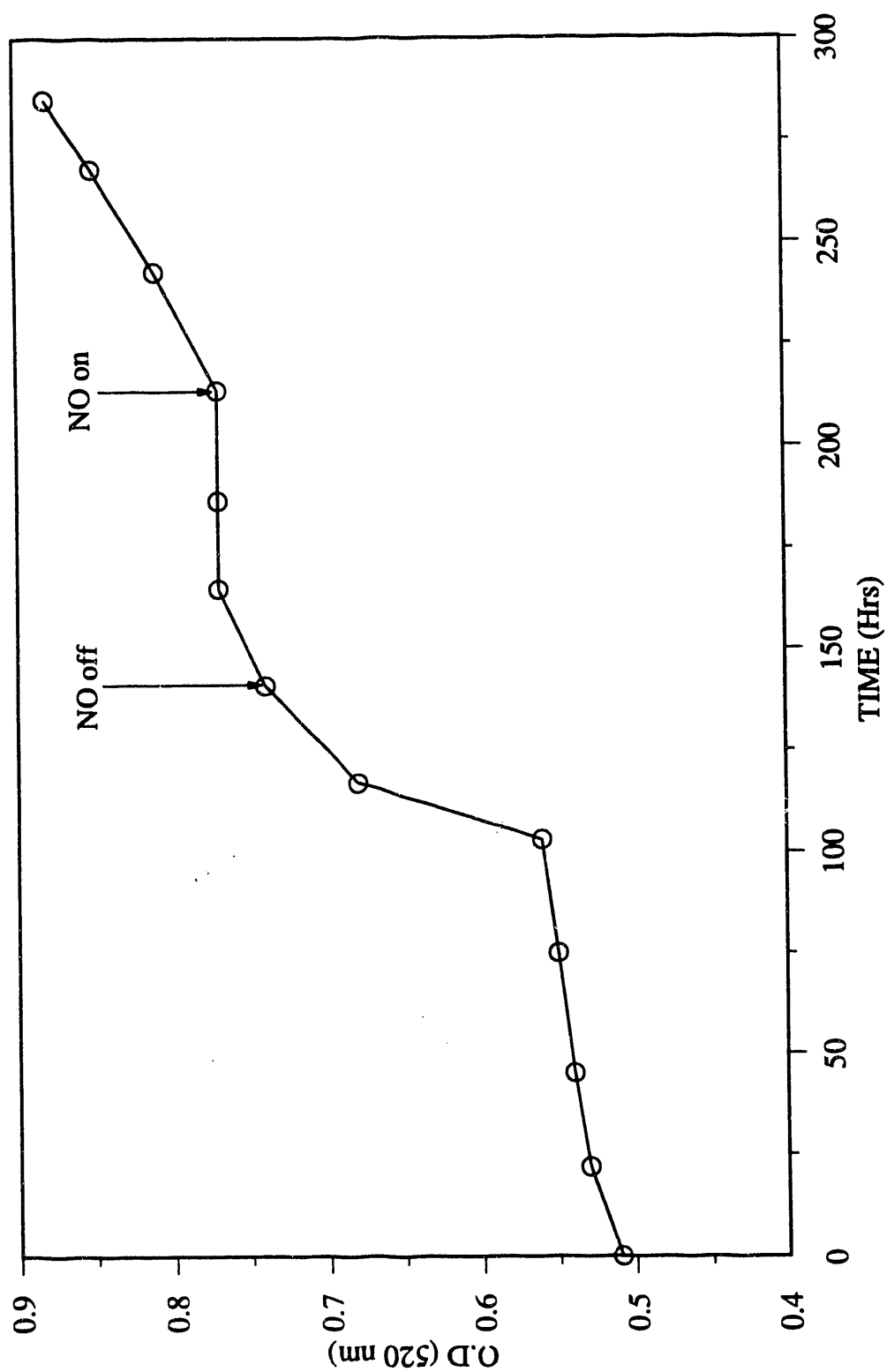


Figure 89. Optical density (520 nm) in an *A. denitrificans* culture growing on yeast extract as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

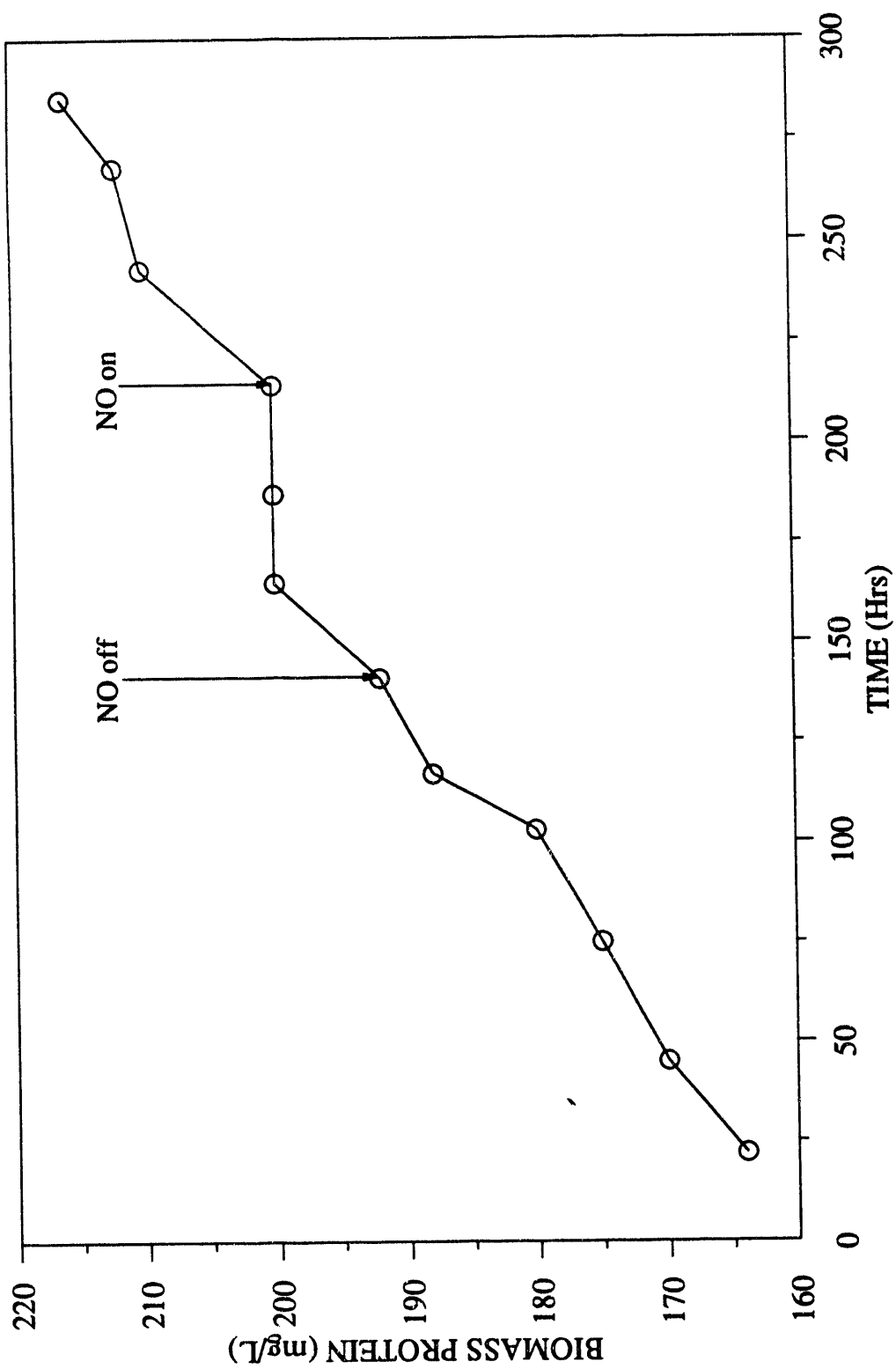


Figure 90. Biomass protein concentration in an *A. denitrificans* culture growing on yeast extract as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

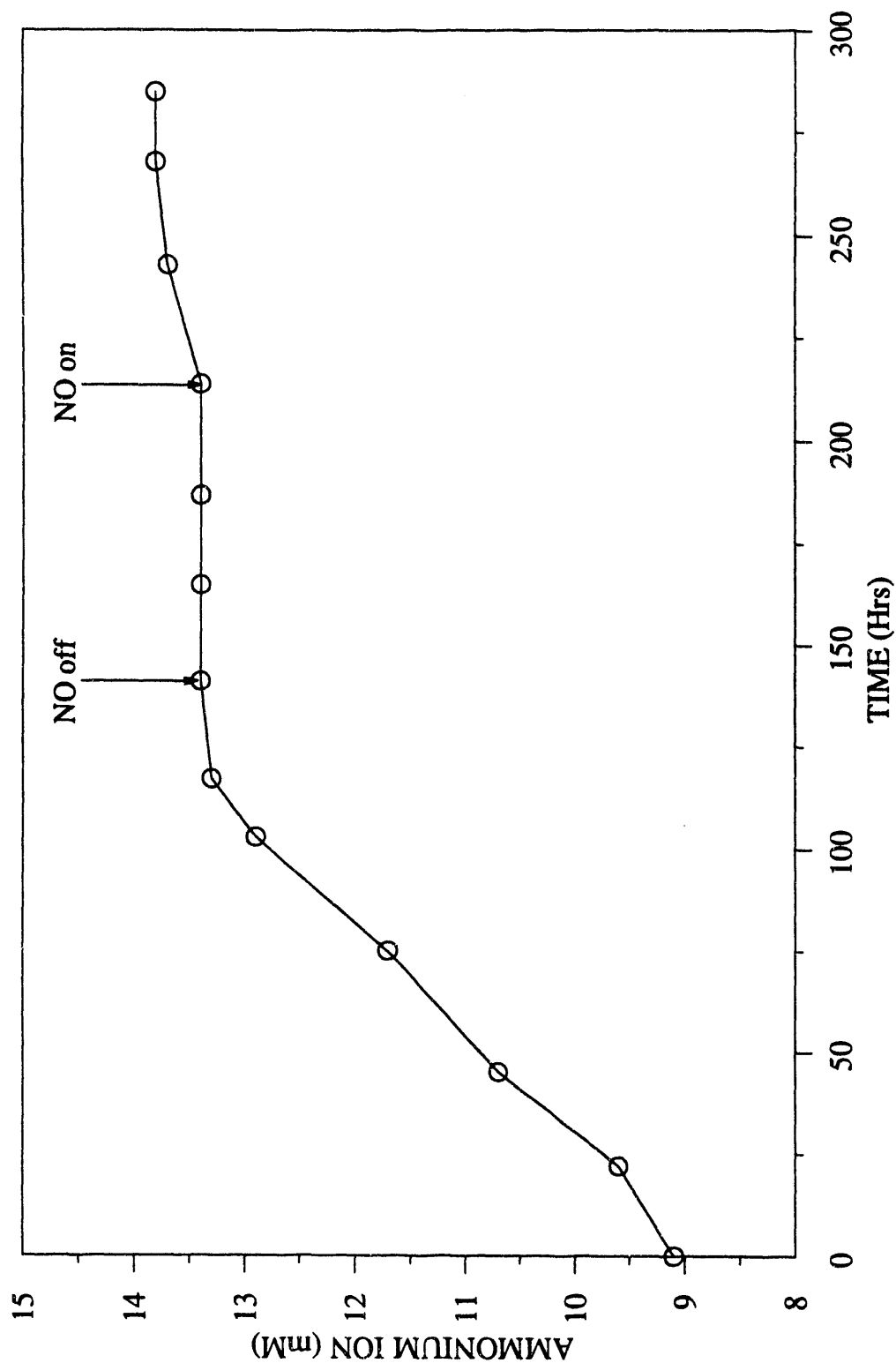


Figure 91. Ammonium ion concentration in an *A. denitrificans* culture growing on yeast extract as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

centrifugation and resuspended in medium prepared as follows: 100 g of wet-packed sludge was suspended in 1L of the medium described in Table 36 without yeast extract or nitrate. The pH was adjusted to 12 with 10N NaOH and the suspension autoclaved at 121 C for 30 min. The cooled suspension was adjusted to pH 7.0 with 6N HCl, diluted to 1.5 L with additional medium and transferred to the fermenter.

At this time, a gas feed consisting of 0.50% NO, 5% CO₂ and balance N₂ was initiated at 30 mL/min. The agitation rate was 450 rpm. The pH and temperature were maintained at 7.0 and 30 C, respectively. Nitric oxide in the feed and outlet gases was determined as described above.

Complete removal of NO from the feed gas was observed. As NO was removed from the feed gas there was a corresponding decrease in the concentration of soluble COD (Figure 92). These data indicate that *A.denitrificans* was utilizing biomolecules solubilized from the sewage sludge as sources of carbon and energy and NO as a terminal electron acceptor. When utilization of soluble COD in the culture medium was clearly established the NO gas feed was replaced by pure N₂. As seen in Figure 94, when NO was no longer available as a terminal electron acceptor, the soluble COD concentration remained stable. When the NO feed was restarted about 72 hrs later the soluble COD concentration again began to decline. The results of a duplicate experiment are shown in Figure 93.

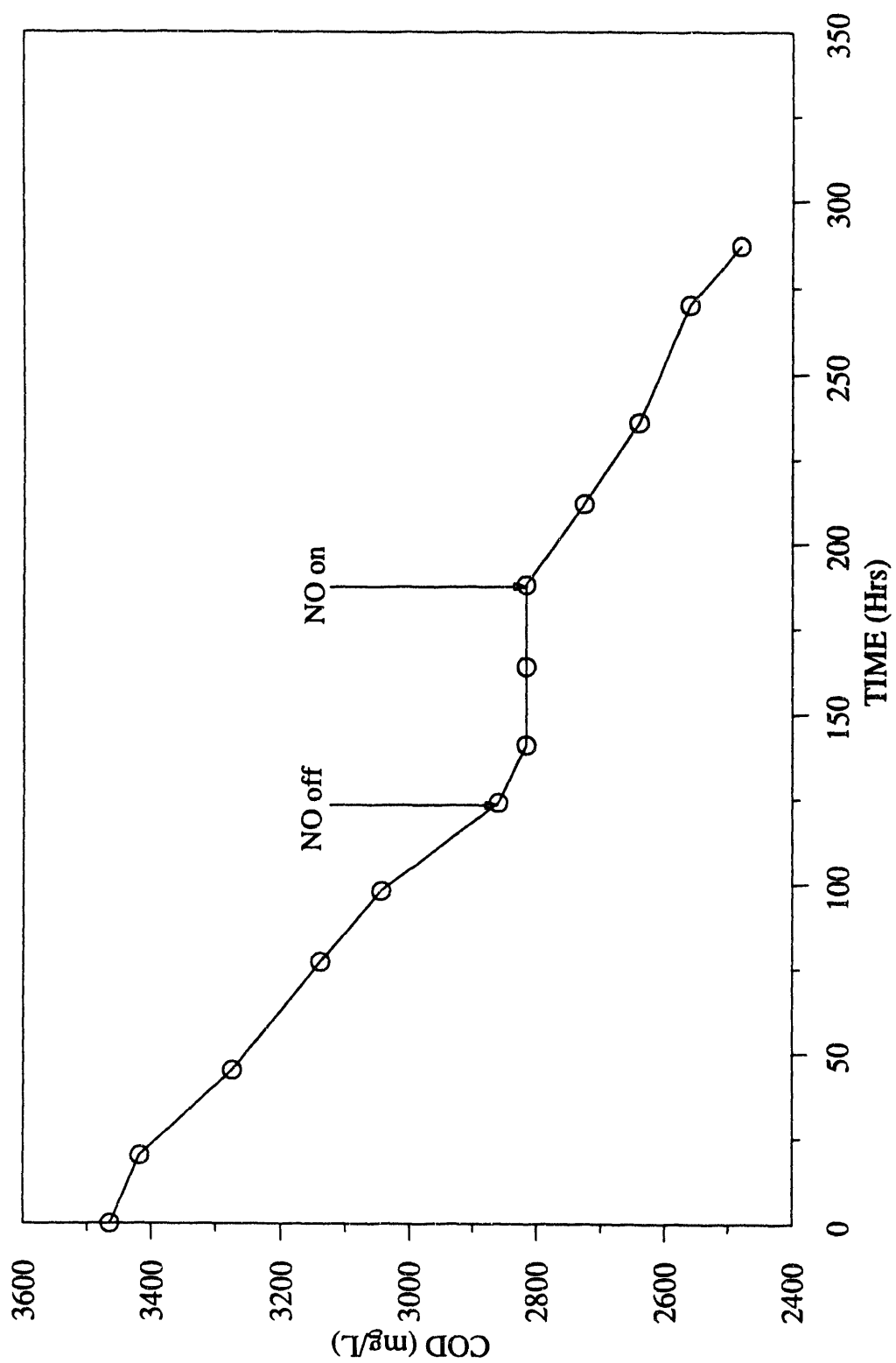


Figure 92. COD concentration in an *A. denitrificans* culture growing on pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

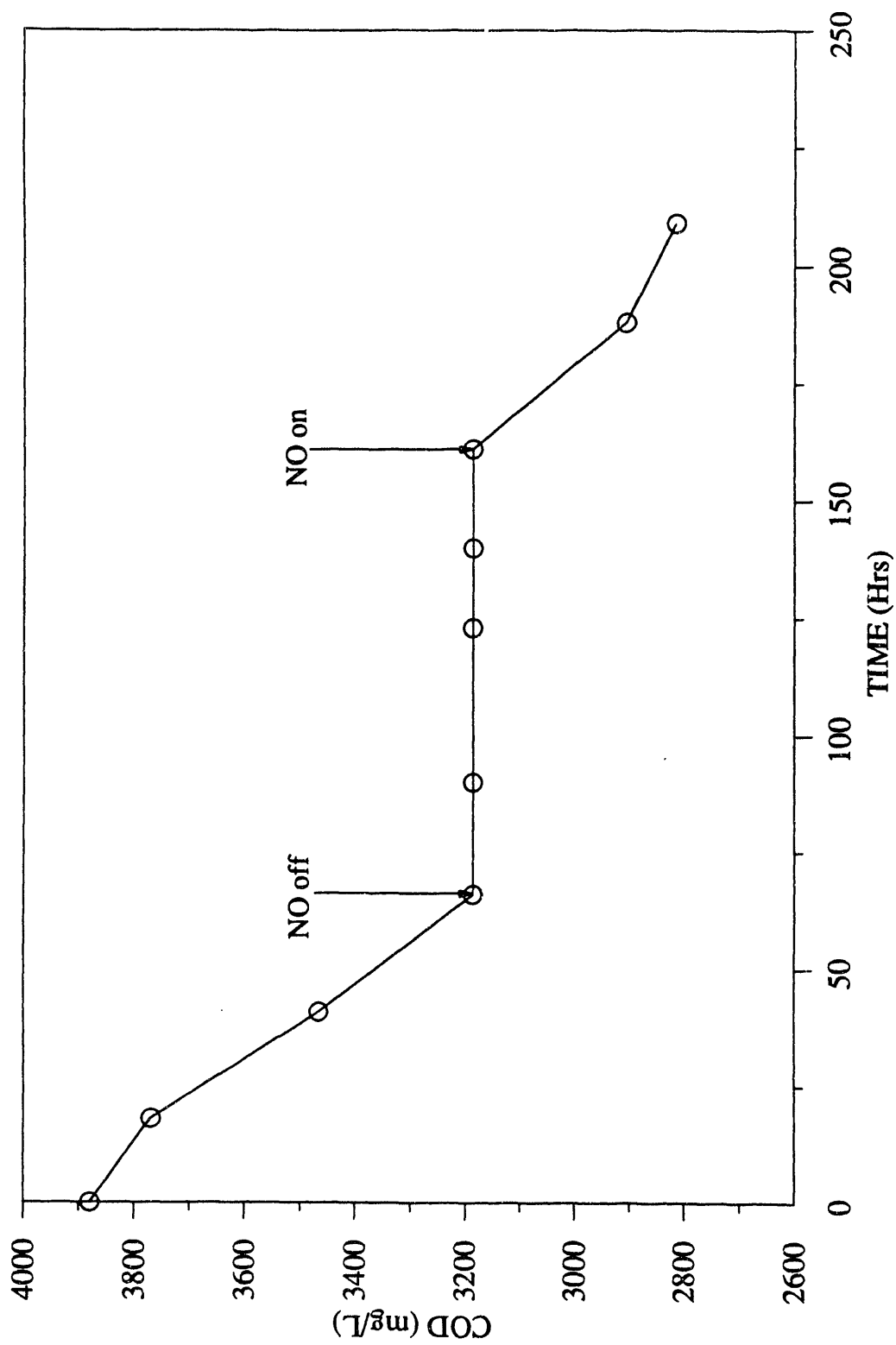


Figure 93. COD concentration in a second *A. denitrificans* culture growing on pretreated sewage sludge as a carbon and energy source with an intermittent NO feed.

6.0 WORK COMPLETED DURING CURRENT REPORTING PERIOD

Note: Progress during the current reporting period has been slowed due to the following: 1) The post-doc working on SO_2 reduction with H_2 as an electron donor has been out for five weeks on pregnancy leave. She is now back. Both of the M.S. students working on sewage sludge as an electron donor and reduction of NO by denitrifying bacteria have been writing their thesis during this period. One has graduated and the second will graduate soon. A new doctoral level student has been added (in Sept.) to assume these duties. An undergraduate honor student in chemical engineering has also been added to the project at no cost.

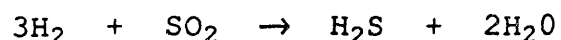
6.1 Municipal Sewage Sludge as a Carbon and Energy Source for SO_2 -Reducing Cultures

The continuous SO_2 -reducing culture of *D. desulfuricans* described in the latter part of Section 5.1.6 has continued to be operated during the current reporting period primarily for maintenance of the process culture during this student transition period.

The new student is now working on flocculation of the process culture to facilitate biomass recycle and improve volumetric productivity. We are also looking at lower cost methods of pretreating the sewage sludge to produce soluble fermentable substrates for the process culture.

6.2 CO_2/H_2 as Carbon and Energy Sources in SO_2 -Reducing Cultures

During the current reporting period the stoichiometry of microbial reduction of SO_2 with H_2 as electron donor has again been investigated to determine the H_2/SO_2 ratio. As noted in Section 5.2 the purely chemical reduction of SO_2 by H_2 would be described by the equation below:



In *D. orientis* cultures operating on a feed of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}_2/\text{SO}_2$, a H_2/SO_2 ratio of slightly higher than 3.0 would be expected since some of H_2 oxidation would be required to reduce CO_2 for production of biomass.

In experiments reported in Section 5.2, the H_2/SO_2 molar ratio in the feed gas was on the order of 700-900 since pure H_2 was used as the H_2 source. Therefore, it was difficult to determine the stoichiometry of the bioprocess with respect to H_2 utilization by the analyses of the feed and effluent gas streams with any accuracy.

We have now obtained a gas mixture containing 10.0% H_2 , 5% CO_2 , balance N_2 (v:v:v) to use as a source of H_2 . With a lower concentration of H_2 in the feed gas mixture, changes in the H_2 concentration resulting from contact with the process culture could be more accurately determined.

An SO_2 -reducing culture of *D. orientis* received the gas feeds indicated in Table 39. The H_2 consumed in the process culture was determined by GC analysis (Table 40) of the total feed gas and effluent gas streams. Hydrogen and SO_2 consumed during two duplicate experiments are also given in Table 39, along with the H_2/SO_2 ratio observed. The average ratio was 3.28, very close to that predicted for the purely reaction. The extra H_2 oxidation produced reducing equivalents for reduction of CO_2 for biomass production.

Table 39. Stoichiometry of H₂ Consumption in an SO₂-Reducing Culture of *D. orientis*

Trial #	Gas Flowrates (mL/min)					SO ₂ Consumed <u>(mmole/hr)</u>	H ₂ /SO ₂
	10% H ₂ , 5% CO ₂ <u>bal N₂</u>	5% CO ₂ <u>in N₂</u>	1.0% SO ₂ , 5% CO ₂ <u>bal N₂</u>	H ₂ Consumed <u>mmole/hr</u>			
1	29.3	73.1	9.36	0.770	0.230	3.35	
2	29.3	73.1	9.14	0.719	0.224	3.21	

Table 40. Gas Chromatographic Conditions for Analysis of H₂ in Feed and Effluent Gas Streams in an SO₂-Reducing Culture of *D. orientis*

Instrument: Hewlett Packard - HP 5980

Detector: Thermal Conductivity

Carrier: Nitrogen at 30 mL/min

Temperatures:

Column - 50 C for 2 min, 24 C/min to 120 C final

Injector - 110 C

Detector - 140 C

6.3 Microbial Reduction of Nitric Oxide

6.3.1 Specific Activity of Denitrifying Bacteria for NO Reduction

During the current reporting period the specific activity of *Ps. denitrificans*, *P. denitrificans*, *A. denitrificans* and *T. denitrificans* for NO reduction have been compared under similar experimental conditions. In each case the organism was grown anoxically in a Marubishi MD 300 fermenter under optimum growth conditions in a yeast extract/mineral salts medium (*A. denitrificans*, *Ps. denitrificans*, *Ps. denitrificans*) or thiosulfate mineral medium (*T. denitrificans*) to an optical density of about 0.8. In each case nitrate served as the terminal electron acceptor. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation at 5000 g and 25 C and resuspended in the same media without nitrate. Cell suspensions (25.0 mL) were then transferred to 125 mL serum bottles and gassed with 0.50% NO, 5% CO₂, balance N₂. Bottles were then shaken in an environmental shaker at 30 C. The gas volume was sampled periodically and analyzed for NO by gas chromatography as previously described. Controls containing 25 mL of medium without nitrate or cells were treated and analyzed in an identical manner. At the end of each experiment, each suspension containing cells was analyzed for total biomass protein.

Results are shown in Figures 94-97. Nitric oxide uptake was observed with each organism. Rates of NO uptake relative to controls, biomass protein levels and observed specific activities for NO reduction are given in Table 41.

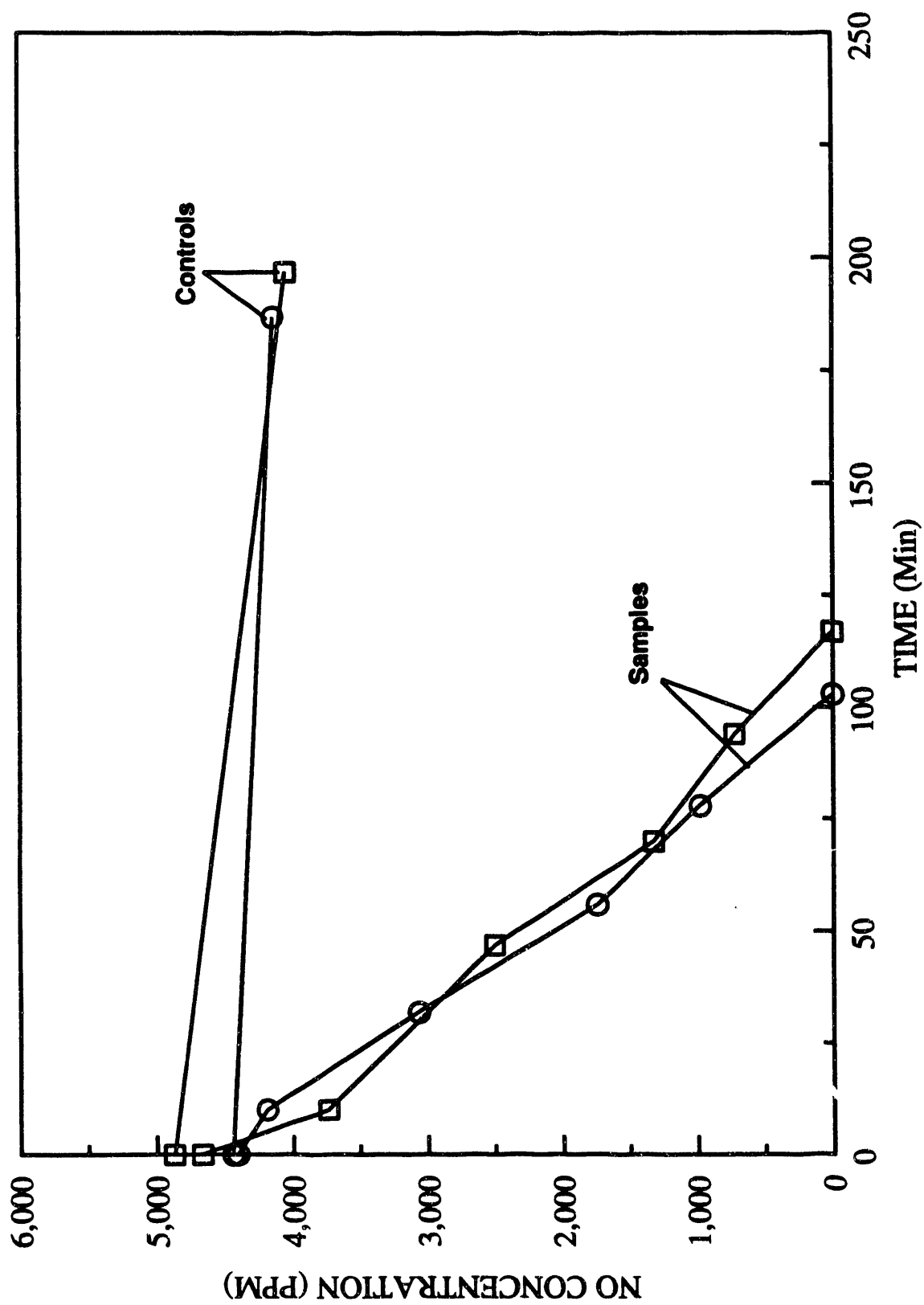


Figure 94. Uptake of nitric oxide by a suspension of *A. denitrificans* in yeast extract/mineral salts medium without nitrate.

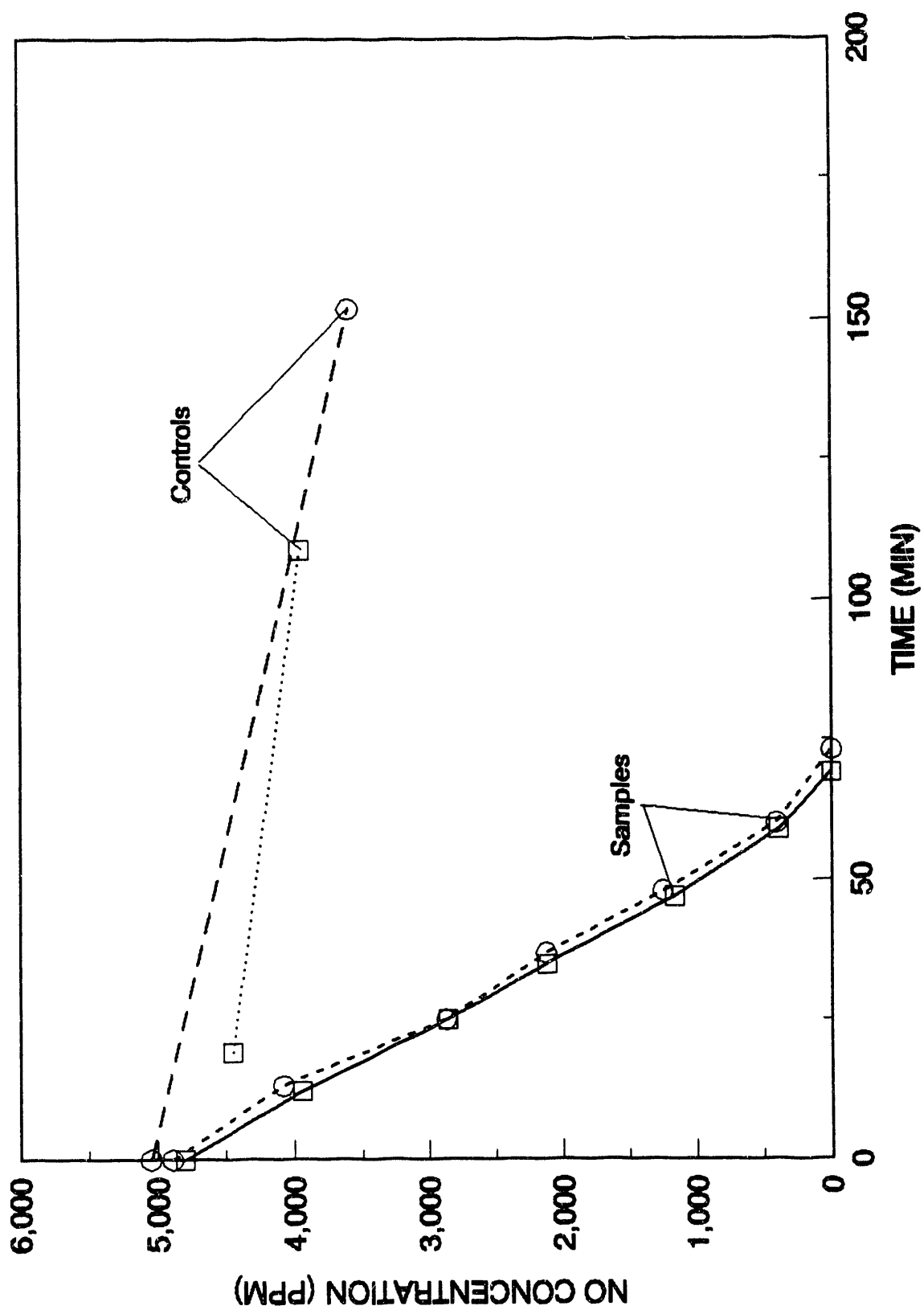


Figure 95. Uptake of nitric oxide by a suspension of *P. denitrificans* in yeast extract/mineral salts medium without nitrate.

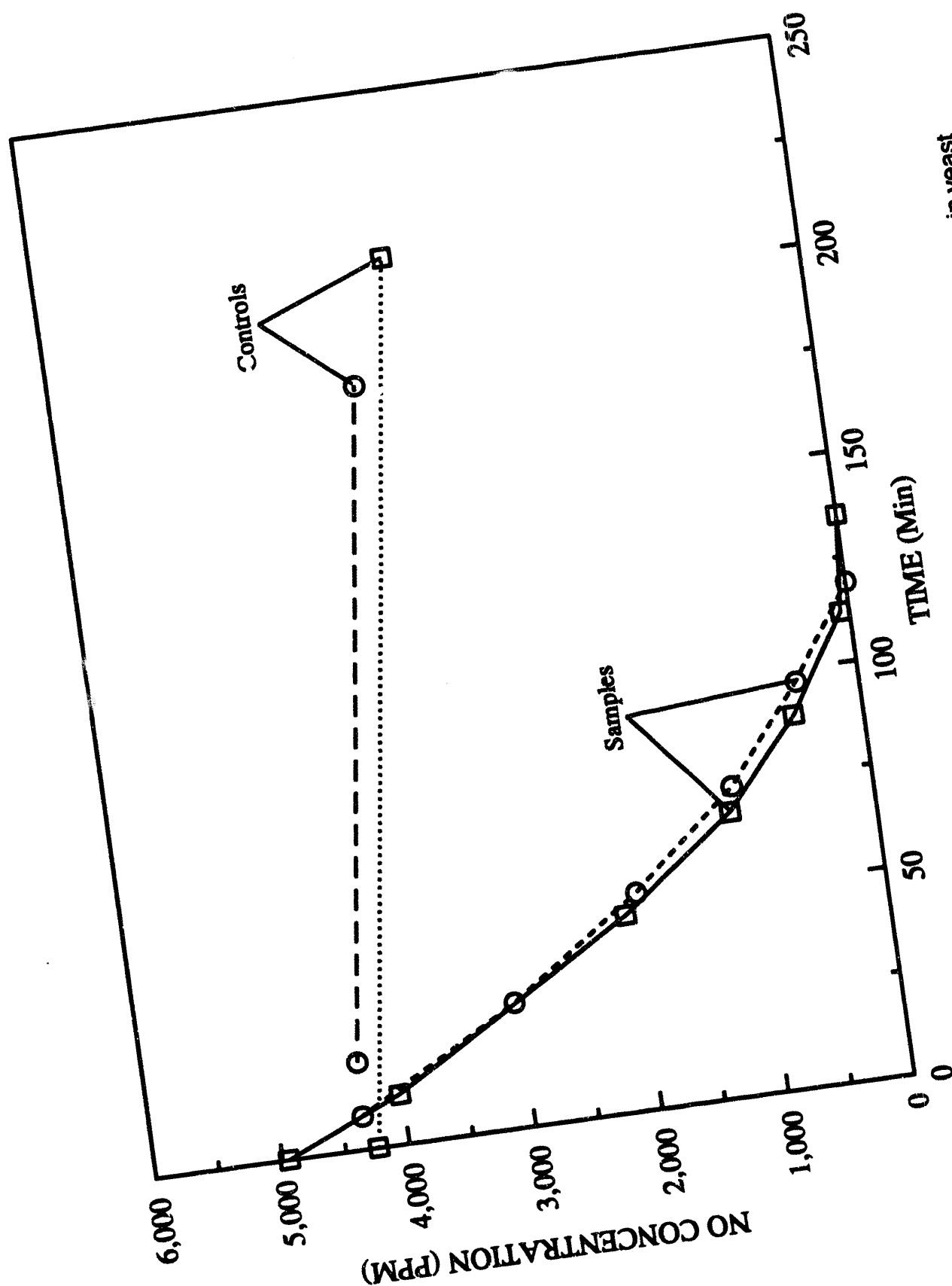


Figure 96. Uptake of nitric oxide by a suspension of *Ps. denitrificans* in yeast extract/mineral salts medium without nitrate.

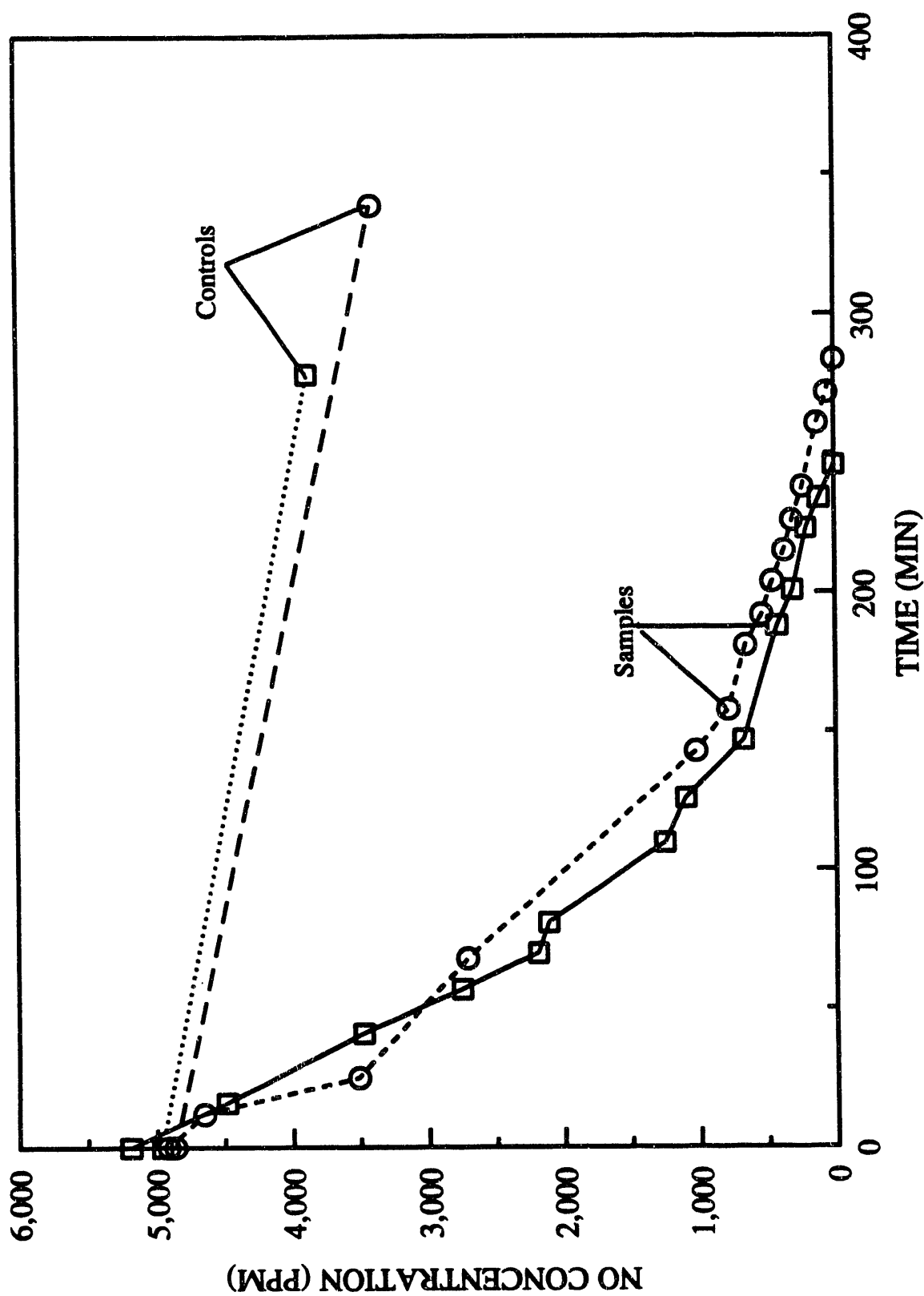


Figure 97. Uptake of nitric oxide by a suspension of *T. denitrificans* in a thiosulfate mineral salts medium without nitrate.

Table 41. Specific Activity of Denitrifying Bacteria for NO Reduction

<u>Organism</u>	<u>Biomass Protein (mg)</u>	<u>NO depletion rate (mmoles/hr)</u>	<u>Specific Activity (mmoles NO/hr-g protein)</u>
<i>A. denitrificans</i>	14.2	7.92X10 ⁻³	0.56
	14.1	9.84X10 ⁻³	0.70
<i>P. denitrificans</i>	13.0	1.52X10 ⁻²	1.17
	12.3	1.39X10 ⁻²	1.13
<i>Ps. denitrificans</i>	12.5	1.27X10 ⁻²	1.02
	12.5	1.13X10 ⁻²	0.90
<i>T. denitrificans</i>	10.6	8.82X10 ⁻³	0.83
	9.6	6.54X10 ⁻³	0.68

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