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1 Anaerobic digester bioaugmentation influences quasi steady state

2 performance and microbial community

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9 Abstract

10 Nine anaerobic digesters, each seeded with biomass from a different source, were operated identically and their quasi steady state function was compared. Subsequently, 11 12 digesters were bioaugmented with a methanogenic culture previously shown to increase 13 specific methanogenic activity. Before bioaugmentation, different seed biomass resulted 14 in different quasi steady state function, with digesters clustering into three groups 15 distinguished by methane (CH₄) production. Digesters with similar functional 16 performance contained similar archaeal communities based on clustering of Illumina 17 sequence data of the V4-V5 region of the 16S rRNA gene. High CH₄ production 18 correlated with neutral pH and high Methanosarcina abundance, whereas low CH₄ 19 production correlated to low pH as well as high Methanobacterium and DHVEG 6 family 20 abundance. After bioaugmentation, CH_4 production from the high CH_4 -producing 21 digesters transiently increased by 11±3% relative to non-bioaugmented controls (p <0.05, 22 n=3), whereas no functional changes were observed for medium and low CH₄ producing 23 digesters that all had pH higher than 6.7. The CH₄ production increase after 24 bioaugmentation was correlated to increased relative abundance of Methanosaeta and

Methaospirillum originating from the bioaugment culture. In conclusion, different anaerobic digester seed biomass can result in different quasi steady state CH₄ production, SCOD removal, pH and effluent VFA concentration in the timeframe studied. The bioaugmentation employed can result in a period of increased methane production. Future research should address extending the period of increased CH₄ production by employing pH and VFA control concomitant with bioaugmentation, developing improved bioaugments, or employing a membrane bioreactor to retain the bioaugment.

32 Keywords

33 Digester efficiency; Methanobacterium,

Methanosaeta,

Methanosarcina,

34 Methanospririllum; Next generation sequencing

35 <u>1. Introduction</u>

36 Adding beneficial microorganisms to anaerobic digesters (i.e. bioaugmentation) has been 37 shown to increase degradation rates of specific organics and reduce upset digester recovery time (Guiot et al. 2000; Hajji et al. 2000; Guiot et al. 2002; Cirne et al. 2006; 38 39 Schauer-Gimenez et al. 2010; Tale et al. 2011). Anaerobic digester bioaugmentation may 40 be more widely applicable if a culture was enriched to target a key, ubiquitous 41 intermediate in existing anaerobic processes. The existing anaerobic processes typically 42 treat readily degradable substrates, such as food production and dairy wastewater. When treating readily degradable substrates, one ubiquitous and potentially problematic 43 44 intermediate is propionate (Schauer-Gimenez et al. 2010; Tale et al. 2015). Propionate 45 accumulation is often an indicator of process imbalance in anaerobic digesters which can be caused by organic overload, nutrient deficiency, toxicant exposure or other factors 46 47 (Mccarty & Smith 1986; Speece et al. 2006; Ma et al. 2009). The subsequent recovery 48 time of upset digesters depends on the abundance of microorganisms that can 49 biotransform an intermediate (i.e. propionate) or inhibitory compound into less harmful 50 products (Herrero & Stuckey 2014).

Intermediates such as propionate can be biotransformed by a specific consortium of synergistic microorganisms (McCarty & Smith 1986; Speece et al. 2006). Bioconversion of propionate to acetate and hydrogen (H₂) is thermodynamically favorable only when the partial pressure of the generated H₂ remains below 10^{-4} atm. Thus, degradation of propionate requires a synergistic relationship between H₂ producing and H₂ consuming microorganisms to maintain low H₂ concentrations (McCarty & Smith 1986). It was shown previous that adding cultures enriched to consume H₂ or propionate to anaerobic

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58 digesters can reduce recovery time after organic overload or toxicant exposure (Schauer-59 Gimenez et al. 2010; Tale et al. 2011). Tale et al., (2015) employed aerotolerant 60 propionate consuming, methanogenic cultures for bioaugmentation. The aerotolerant 61 culture may be commercially beneficial since it can be easily handled and dried in 62 ambient air (Zitomer 2013). In addition, micro-aerated cultures outperformed a strictly 63 anaerobic culture when used for bioaugmentation, resulting in higher specific 64 methanogenic activity (SMA) against propionate and shorter recovery time after organic 65 overload (Tale et al. 2015).

Despite some success, anaerobic digester bioaugmentation is still at a nascent stage. A 66 67 comprehensive review published by Herrero & Stuckey (2014) reported either transient improvement in performance or a complete failure of bioaugmentation to improve 68 anaerobic digestion, but no instances of long-term improvement. Therefore, it is still 69 70 questionable whether or not adding a limited quantity of externally cultured 71 microorganisms can increase long-term methane production (Herrero & Stuckey 2014). 72 Microbial community analysis has often been employed to understand the relationship between microorganisms and digester function (Venkiteshwaran et al. 2016). However 73 74 changes in digester microbial communities after bioaugmentation have not been 75 extensively studied.

In this work, bioaugmentation using a methanogenic, aerotolerant propionate enrichment culture was investigated as a possible method to improve methane production after quasisteady operation for anaerobic digesters fed a readily degradable waste. Nine groups of anaerobic digesters were seeded with different starting biomass to obtain different

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80 microbial communities and digesters were then bioaugmented and monitored for changes

81 in function and microbial community using high throughput Illumina sequencing.

82 2. Material and Methods

83 <u>2.1 Anaerobic digesters</u>

Biomass samples were obtained from nine full-scale municipal anaerobic digesters in 84 85 different US states; Delaware (Set-D), Florida (Set-B), Michigan (Set-I), Mississippi 86 (Set-F), New Jersey (Set-H), Ohio (Set-E), South Dakota (Set-G), West Virginia (Set-C) 87 and Wyoming (Set-A) to obtain a variety of microbial communities. With the exception 88 of a thermophilic digester in Michigan, all other biomass samples were from mesophilic 89 digesters. All digesters were continuous stirred-tank reactors stabilizing municipal 90 wastewater sludge with solids retention times between 15 and 30 days. The Florida digester was also fed food waste as a co-digestate. 91

92 Each biomass sample was used to seed two sub-sets (bioaugmented and non-93 bioaugmented) of triplicate, 160-mL lab-scale digesters with 50-mL working volume and 94 biomass concentration of 8g volatile solids (VS)/L. Digesters were operated at a 10-day 95 HRT and fed synthetic wastewater (non fat-dry milk) and basal nutrient media at an 96 organic loading rate (OLR) of 3 g COD/L-day. The digesters were operated for 60 days 97 until they attained quasi-steady state operation during which the digester daily biogas 98 production coefficient of variation was less than 20%. The bioaugmented digesters 99 received a daily dose of the enrichment culture from day 60 to 70. The daily dose was 100 equivalent to 1 % of the digester biomass total adenosine triphosphate (tATP) mass (this was equivalent to 1.5-2 % of the digester VS mass). Simultaneously, the non-101 102 bioaugmented digesters received a COD equivalent dose of inactivated (autoclaved) enrichment culture. Functional parameters including effluent soluble COD (SCOD) and
volatile fatty acids (VFA) concentrations as well as biogas CH₄ concentration were
monitored between days 60 and 80. Digester biomass samples were collected on day 71
for amplicon sequencing.

107 Cumulative methane volume produced was calculated by summing the daily methane
108 production volumes (ml CH₄/day) from days 60 to 80. Biomass production rate was
109 calculated as the product of VSS concentration (mg VSS/L) and effluent flow (L/day).
110 Observed biomass yield was calculated as the quotient of biomass production rate and
111 COD added to the digester per day (mg COD/day).

112 <u>2.2 Enrichment culture for bioaugmentation</u>

113 A moderately aerated, propionate-utilizing, mixed methanogenic enrichment culture 114 developed by Tale et al. (2011) was employed for bioaugmentation. The original seed 115 biomass for the enrichment culture was from an upflow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) 116 reactor treating brewery wastewater that exhibited a high methanogenic activity (Tale et 117 al. 2011). When previously used for bioaugmentation, this aerotolerant mixed microbial culture reduced the recovery time of transiently organically overloaded digesters (Tale et 118 119 al. 2015). The enrichment was maintained in two completely mixed vessels with a 120 volume of four liters at 35 °C at a 15 day HRT and fed 0.17 g propionate/L-day as 121 calcium propionate with basal nutrient media. Immediately after feeding, ambient air was 122 added directly into the headspace of the vessel at a volume equivalent to 25 mg O₂/L-day 123 or 10% of the OLR to provide a micro-aerated environment.

124 <u>2.3 Basal nutrient media</u>

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Basal nutrient media, as described by Speece (2008), contained the following [mg/L]: NH₄Cl [400]; MgSO₄.6H₂O [250]; KCl [400]; CaCl₂.2H₂O [120]; (NH₄)₂.HPO₄ [80]; FeCl₃.6H₂O [55]; CoCl₂.6H₂O [10]; KI [10]; the trace metal salts MnCl₂.4H₂O, NH₄VO₃, CuCl₂.2H₂O, Zn(C₂H₃O₂)₂.2H₂O, AlCl₃.6H₂O, Na₂MoO₄.2H₂O, H₃BO₃, NiCl₂.6H₂O, NaWO₄.2H₂O, and Na₂SeO₃ [each at 0.5]; yeast extract [100]; NaHCO₃ [6000]; and resazurin [1].

131 <u>2.4 Analytical methods</u>

132 tATP concentration was analyzed using a commercial kit following the manufacturer 133 instructions (BacTiter-Glo, Promega, Madison WI, USA). The inactive culture added to 134 non-bioaugmented digesters was placed in an autoclave (Model 3870E, Tuttnauer Co., Hauppauge, NY, USA) at 15 Psi and 121°C for 30 minutes prior to augmentation 135 experiments. Daily biogas volume produced was measured by inserting a needle with a 136 137 wetted glass barrel syringe through serum bottle septa. SCOD was measured by filtering 138 the sample through a 0.45 µm pore size membrane syringe filter and determining the 139 filtrate COD by standard methods (APHA et al., 1998). Biogas methane concentration 140 was measured by gas chromatography (GC System 7890A, Agilent Technologies, Irving, 141 TX, USA) using a thermal conductivity detector. VFA concentrations were measured by 142 gas chromatography (GC System 7890A, Agilent Technologies, Irving, TX, USA) using 143 a flame ionization detector. The VS, TSS and VSS analyses were performed by standard 144 methods (APHA et al., 1998). Statistical analysis such as two-sample Student's t-test 145 with unequal variance and Pearson's coefficient were calculated on Microsoft Excel 2010 146 (Version 14.3.2) using built in functions.

147 <u>2.5 Microbial community analysis</u>

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DNA was extracted from all bioaugmented and non-bioaugmented digesters (including 148 149 all replicates, n=54) on Day 71 using the PowerSoil[™] DNA Isolation Sample Kit 150 (MoBio Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's 151 instructions. The biomass samples were subjected to bead beating on a vortex (Model 152 58816-121, VWR International, Radnor, PA, USA) for 10 minutes. Primer pair 515-532U 153 and 909-928U was used (Wang & Qian 2009) including their respective linkers, to 154 amplify the V4-V5 region of the 16S rRNA gene over 30 amplification cycles at an 155 annealing temperature of 65 °C. The primer pairs target both archaeal and bacterial 16S 156 rRNA genes. An index sequence was added in the second PCR of 12 cycles, and the 157 resulting products were purified and loaded onto the Illumina MiSeq cartridge for 158 sequencing of paired 300 bp reads following manufacturer's instructions (v3 chemistry). 159 Sequencing and library preparation were performed at the Genotoul Lifescience Network 160 Genome and Transcriptome Core Facility in Toulouse, France (get.genotoul.fr). A 161 modified version of the standard operation procedure for MiSeq data (Kozich et al. 2013) 162 in Mothur version 1.35.0 (Schloss et al. 2009) was used to assemble forward and reverse 163 sequences and preclustering at 4 differences in nucleotides over the length of the 164 amplicon. Uchime was used for chimera checking (Edgar et al. 2011). Sequences that 165 appear less than three times in the entire data set were removed. Alignment of the 16S 166 rRNA sequences was done using SILVA SSURef NR99, release 119, as provided by 167 Mothur (Schloss et al. 2009). The same database was used in Mothur's classify.seqs() 168 command to assign taxonomic affiliation using a cutoff value of 80%. Custom R scripts 169 were used to perform dual hierarchical clustering (using R command hclust and heatmap) 170 and nonmetric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) (using the default Bray-Curtis index),

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171 of anaerobic community sequence data gathered from Illumina sequencing (Carey et al.

172 2016; McNamara & Krzmarzick 2013).

173 **<u>3. Results and Discussion</u>**

All nine digester sets reach quasi-steady state based on less than 20% coefficient of 174 175 variation in daily biogas production by day 60 when bioaugmentation was initiated 176 (Figure 1 and S1). Effluent VFA concentrations for all digesters were higher than 2 g/L 177 and methane production was below 70% of the theoretical value assuming all COD was 178 converted to methane. Therefore, residual COD was available and could possibly be 179 removed if system changes occurred. This challenged condition was desired so that 180 bioaugmentation effects could be observed. During the dosage period, autoclaved 181 propionate enrichment culture was added to the non-bioaugmented digesters, whereas 182 live propionate enrichment culture was added to the bioaugmented digesters. Adding 183 inactivated enrichment culture did not result in a statistical change in biogas production 184 rate (Figure 1 and S1). This was expected since the daily COD fed to the digesters from 185 the augments was low and was less than 8% of the total synthetic wastewater COD fed.

186 <u>3.1 Non-bioaugmented digester function</u>

Although operated identically, the digester sets did not achieve identical operational values. For example, the quasi steady state methane production rates ranged from 0.3 to 0.8 L CH₄ per L of digester per day (L CH₄/L_R-day) (Table 1). Each non-bioaugmented digester set was classified into one of three distinct groups based on statistically similar methane production rate, SCOD removal, pH and effluent acetate concentration (p value <0.05, n=3) (Table 1). Group 1 (G1) (sets A, B and C) contained the best performing digesters with the highest methane production rate, highest SCOD removal rate, highest

194 pH and lowest effluent acetate concentration; Group 2 (G2) (sets D, E, F and G) showed 195 intermediary performance and Group 3 (G3) (sets H and I) contained the poorest 196 performing digesters with the lowest methane production rate, lowest SCOD removal 197 rate, lowest pH and highest effluent acetate concentration (Figure 2). The functional 198 variation among digester sets can be attributed to the differences in the microbial 199 communities the seed biomass used for each set. Future research is warranted to elucidate 200 quantitative relationships between microbial community descriptors and digester function 201 so that the suitability of various seed biomass samples can be estimated. This would be 202 helpful to identify the most suitable biomass for a given process startup or re-seeding 203 application.

204 <u>3.2 Non-bioaugmented digester archaeal community</u>

205 A total of 32 archaeal OTUs, based on 97% similarity, were identified among all the 206 digester samples analyzed. The relative abundance of archaeal sequences varied from 1 to 207 4% for G1, G2 and 0.1 to 1% for G3 digesters, respectively. Eight archaeal OTUs 208 represented more than 99% of the archaeal abundance in all non-bioaugmented digesters 209 (Figure S2). These eight OTUs were most similar to the genera Methanofollis, 210 Methanosarcina, Methanospirillum, Methanosaeta, Methanobacterium, Candidatus 211 Methanomethylophilus and two unclassified genera in the order WCHA1-57 and the 212 family Deep Sea Hydrothermal Vent Grp 6 (DHVEG 6), based on the SILVA SSURef 213 NR99 v119 reference database from Mothur (Schloss et al. 2009) (Figure S2). 214 The nine non-bioaugmented digester sets clustered in the same three groups that were

215 identified by functional data (95% confidence interval) (Figure 3). Digesters with similar

216 functional performance contained similar archaeal communities. Non-bioaugmented G1

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digester communities were distinguished from G2 and G3 communities by high relative abundance of *Methanosarcina*, which ranged from 60 to 95% of archaea in G1 digesters (Figure S2). *Methanobacterium* dominated non-bioaugmented G2 digesters, with a relative abundance that ranged from 80 to 99% of the archaeal diversity. The G3 digesters were distinguished by high relative abundance of the *DHVEG* 6family, with *Methanobacterium* also observed in high relative abundance (Figure S2).

223 Methanosarcina and Methanosaeta are the only two methanogenic genera known to 224 consume acetate (Liu & Whitman 2008). High relative abundance of Methanosarcina in 225 the high-performing G1 digesters correlated to higher methane production and lower 226 effluent acetate concentration. This is ostensibly because the Methanosarcina maximum 227 specific substrate utilization rate is higher than that of Methanosaeta (Liu & Whitman 228 2008). Therefore, the presence of *Methanosarcina* in digesters with moderate to high 229 VFA concentrations, such as the ones of this study, may be beneficial to maintain more 230 rapid bioconversion of acetate to methane. Compared to G1 digesters, Methanosarcina 231 relative abundance in the lesser performing, non-bioaugmented G2 digesters was lower, ranging from 0.5 to 18%. In addition, Methanosarcina was undetectable in the poorest 232 233 performing, non-bioaugmented G3 digesters which had the highest acid concentrations 234 and lowest pH.

The poor performing G3 digesters were distinguished from the better performing G1 and G2 digesters by the low archaeal sequence abundance ($\leq 1\%$ of the total sequence) and further by high relative abundance of *DHVEG 6*, which ranged from 60-90% in G3 digesters (Figure S2). *DHVEG 6* have been observed in acidic environments, marine environments, terrestrial soils, hydrothermal sediments, deep sea methane seep

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sediments, rice paddy soil and saline lakes (Casamayor et al. 2013; Nunoura et al. 2010;
Nunoura et al. 2011; Hugoni et al. 2013; Grosskopf et al. 1998). Given that *DHVEG6*microorganisms have been observed in extreme environmental conditions that typically
are not present in a healthy functioning digester, high abundance of *DHVEG 6* in
anaerobic digesters ostensibly indicates an upset digester with low pH and low biogas
production such as the G3 digesters.

246 <u>3.3 Non-bioaugmented digester bacterial community</u>

Approximately 1300 bacterial OTUs were identified based on 97% similarity among all the biomass samples analyzed in this study. The 29 OTUs having the highest relative abundance among all the digesters and the enrichment culture were considered for bacterial community analysis. These 29 OTUs contributed 70-85% of the total bacterial sequences in the non-bioaugmented digesters.

252 The nine digesters bacterial communities formed two clusters, with G1 and G2 non-253 bioaugmented digesters forming one bacterial cluster and G3 non-bioaugmented digesters 254 in the second bacterial cluster (Figure 4). Bacterial communities in all nine digester sets 255 were dominated by OTUs most similar to fermenters belonging to the phyla Firmicutes, 256 Bacteroidetes and Synergistetes (Figure S3). The most common bacterial OTUs that were 257 observed in the digesters were the genera Bacteroides, Peptostreptococcus, 258 Pyramidobacter, Aminobacterium, Atopobium and RC9 Gutgroup. Non-bioaugmented 259 G1 and G2 digesters were distinguished from G3 digesters by the higher abundance of 260 the genera Porphyromonas, Petrimonas and unclassified FamilyXI, whereas non-261 bioaugmented G3 digesters were dominated by OTUs most similar to RC9 Gut Group

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262 microorganisms which contributed more than 60% of the total bacterial relative263 abundance (Figure S3).

264 <u>3.4 Enrichment culture</u>

The enrichment culture functional parameters were stable between days 60 to 80, with 99% SCOD removal, no detectable VFAs, pH of 7.5 ± 0.2 , $60\pm3\%$ biogas methane content, methane yield of 330 ± 16 mLCH₄/g-COD removed and observed biomass yield of 0.08 ± 0.01 gVSS/gCOD.

269 More than 700 bacterial OTUs were identified in the enrichment culture based on 97% 270 similarity. The 25 bacterial OTUs with the highest relative abundance represented 271 approximately 80% of total bacterial sequences and are shown in Figure S4. The two 272 most abundant bacterial taxa were most similar to an unclassified genus within 273 Spirochaetaceae (30% of the total bacterial relative abundance) and Thermovirga within 274 Synergistaceae (12% of the total bacterial relative abundance) (Figure S4). Thermovirga 275 is currently represented by a single member species Thermovirgalienii, which is a 276 moderately thermophillic, amino acid degrading fermentative bacterium (Dahle 2006). 277 Some members of the Spirochaetaceae family such as Treponema species, are reported to 278 be abundant in iron-reducing consortia that were used by othersto bioaugmentanaerobic 279 digesters (Baek et al. 2015). Bacteria related to Spirochaetes may be beneficial for the 280 overall process since some of them have been suggested as syntrophic acetate-oxidizing 281 bacteria (Hattori 2008; Lee et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2015). Iron-reducing bacteria (IRB) are 282 commonly observed in anaerobic systems and can utilize acetate, H₂, ethanol and other 283 complex substrates and ferric iron as an electron acceptor (Kim et al. 2014). They are 284 also known to form syntrophic associations and, via interspecies electron transfer,

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transfer electron directly to their methanogenic partner, which can facilitate CO_2 reduction to CH_4 (Stams & Plugge 2009; Rotaru et al. 2014). Addition of an IRB consortium has been shown to increase the methane production rate in anaerobic digesters (Baek et al. 2015).

Given that the enrichment culture was fed calcium propionate, it was expected that bacteria associated with syntrophic propionate degradation would be abundant. Of the known bacterial genera with members capable of degrading propionate, *Desufobulbus*, *Smithella*, and *Syntrophobacter* were observed with a combined relative abundance of 9% (De Bok et al. 2001; De Bok et al. 2004; Stams & Plugge 2009), with *Desulfobulbus* contributing 7% (Figure S4).

295 15 archaeal OTUs were detected in the enrichment culture based on 97% similarity, of 296 which 6 OTUs contributed more than 99% of the total archaeal sequences (Figure S5). 297 Archaeal sequences constituted approximately 5-6% of the total sequences detected in the 298 enrichment culture. The archaeal community was dominated by sequences most similar 299 to Methanosaeta, constituting 65% of the total archaeal sequences (Figure S5). 300 Methanosarcina constituted only 1.2% of the total archaeal sequences in the enrichment 301 culture (Figure S5). Unlike Methanosarcina, Methanosaeta have a high substrate affinity 302 and a lower maximum specific substrate utilization rate. Hence, Methanosaeta usually 303 dominate over Methanosarcina in cultures such as the enrichment culture in this study 304 having acetate concentrations lower than 500 mg/L (Liu & Whitman 2008).

Apart from acetoclastic methanogens, the enrichment culture archaeal composition
 consisted of OTUs most similar to known hydrogenotrophic methanogens including
 Methanospirillum, Methanobacterium, Methanolinea and an unclassified genus in the

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308 order WCHA1-57 (Figure S5) (Liu & Whitman 2008). Conversion of propionate to 309 methane only becomes thermodynamically favorable through H₂ utilization. Therefore, 310 the significant presence of hydrogenotrophic methanogens contributing 30-35% of the 311 total archaeal sequences could have positive functional results. The presence of 312 microorganisms classified in the genera Methanospirillum, Methanobacterium, 313 Methanolinea has previously been reported to play an important role in propionate 314 utilization during digester recovery after organic overload (Tale et al. 2011; Tale et al. 315 2015; Schauer-Gimenez et al. 2010).

316 The archaeal order WCHA1-57 was observed at a significant relative abundance (12%) in 317 the enrichment culture. Although many WCHA1-57-related 16S rRNA gene sequences 318 have been identified in anaerobic digesters (Chouari et al. 2005; Rivière et al. 2009; 319 Schauer-Gimenez et al. 2010), no reports were found regarding their role in propionate 320 oxidation or methane production. In some anaerobic digesters treating municipal sewage 321 sludge, the WCHA1-57 phylotype population represented one of the predominant 322 archaeal components, with relative abundance >70% in archaeal clone libraries (Chouari 323 et al. 2005; Rivière et al. 2009). These observations indicate that WCHA1-57 archaea 324 represent a potentially important group in anaerobic digesters. Chouari et al. (2005) 325 reported the enrichment of WCHA1-57 phylotypes in cultures fed formate or H_2/CO_2 . 326 This indicates that WCHA1-57 plays a role in reducing hydrogen concentration and, 327 therefore, aiding in conversion of propionate to methane.

Both bacterial and archaeal enrichment culture communities were distinct from those of the nine digester sets. The nMDS scaling plots based on the top eight archaeal (Figure 3) and 29 bacterial (Figure 4) OTUs, selected based on their relative abundance and

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- 331 prevalence among all the biomass samples, shows distinct clustering of the enrichment
- 332 culture separate from the G1, G2 and G3 non-bioaugmented and bioaugmented digesters.
- 333 <u>3.5 Bioaugmentation, digester function and microbial community changes</u>

Cumulative methane produced by both non-bioaugmented and bioaugmented digesters between days 60 and 80 were calculated and compared to observe any difference in performance (Figure 5). Only the three G1 digester sets A, B and C showed a statistically significant increase (P <0.05, n = 3) in average methane production of $11\pm 3\%$ after bioaugmentation, with increases of $9\pm1\%$, $12\pm2\%$ and $13\pm2\%$, respectively, compared to non-bioaugmented controls (Figure 5).

The increased methane production in G1 digestersafter bioaugmentation was not sustained. The period of increased methane production averaged 9 days, and was 7, 11 and 9 days for sets A, B and C, respectively (Figure 1, S1A and S1B). Also, the increased methane production did not occur immediately after bioaugmentation was initiated. The lag between the dosage period start (Day 60) and the first day of increased methane production for set A, B and C bioaugmented digesters averaged 10 days, and was 12, 8 and 9 days, respectively (Figure 1, S1A and S1B).

The archaeal communities in the bioaugmented digesters were grouped into three distinct clusters based on archaeal sequences (Figure 3). The archaeal community of the bioaugmented digesters belonging to functional groups G2a and G3a, which did not improve after bioaugmentation, did not significantly change after bioaugmentation (Figure 3). In contrast, however, the G1 bioaugmented digesters showed a statistical improvement in methane production and the archaeal community changed significantly

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after bioaugmentation (Figure 3). After bioaugmentation, the archaeal community of G1digesters became more similar to that of the enrichment culture (G4).

355 The community structure shift in G1 digesters after bioaugmentation was primarily 356 caused by the increased abundance of two archaeal genera: Methanosaeta and 357 Methanospirillum (Figure 6), which are in high abundance in the enrichment culture 358 (Figure S5). In contrast, the relative abundance values of Methanosaeta and 359 Methanospirillum were very low (<1%) in G2 and below detection in the G3 360 bioaugmented digesters, respectively. The bacterial community compositions of the 361 bioaugmented digesters did not show any significant shift after bioaugmentation (Figure 362 4). Sequences related to the two most abundant bacterial genera observed in the 363 enrichment culture, unclassified Spirochaeata and Thermovirga, which were not detected in the non-bioaugmented digesters, were detected in all the bioaugmented digesters, but 364 365 their relative abundance remained below 1% after bioaugmentation.

366 The resulting increase in methane production observed in G1 digesters from 367 bioaugmentation was associated with a shift in the archaeal community structure. 368 Increased relative abundance of the genera Methanosaeta and Methaospirillum was 369 observed in digesters with improvement in the methane production rate. The relative 370 abundance of Methanosaeta and Methanospirillum increased from below detection in the 371 non-bioaugmented digesters to 10-40% and 10-30%, respectively, in the bioaugmented 372 G1 digesters (Figure 6). However, it is important to note that the methane production 373 rate increase lasted only 7 to 11 days in the bioaugmented G1 digesters. This could be 374 due to washout of Methanosaeta and Methanospirillum once bioaugmentation ceased. It 375 may be possible to improve the methane production further by increasing the dose of the

enrichment biomass or extending the duration of the dosage period. In addition microbial
carriers, such as alginate beads or granular activated carbon, or membrane bioreactors
could be used to retain the bioaugment in the bioreactor.

379 The enrichment culture used in this study was produced at a pH of 7.5 with no detectable 380 VFAs present. The most abundant methanogens in the enrichment culture, Methanosaeta 381 and Methanospiririllum (i.e., M. hungatii), are sensitive to low pH and high acid or 382 propionate concentrations (Liu & Whitman 2008; Barredo & Evison 1991). It is likely 383 that the methane production increase in G1 digesters after bioaugmentation was due to 384 the relatively low VFA concentration and neutral pH, which was conducive for the 385 activity of Methanosaeta and Methanospiririllum added via the bioaugment. In contrast, 386 the low pH, high VFA concentration environment in G2 and G3 digesters may have inhibited the enrichment culture microorganisms. Therefore, the environment the 387 388 enrichment culture is being added into must be carefully considered and additional steps 389 such as acclimating the augment culture or increasing the digester pH before 390 bioaugmentation may be required to increase methane production and COD removal by 391 bioaugmentation.

392 <u>4. Conclusion</u>

393 Different anaerobic digester seed biomass can result in significantly different quasi
394 steady state functional parameters, including methane production rate, SCOD removal,
395 pH and effluent VFA concentration. Therefore, care should be taken to select seed
396 biomass with high activity for digester startup or re-seeding.

397 Identically operated digesters that contain different archaeal communities can exhibit398 different functional characteristics during quasi steady state operation. When operating

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399 under challenging conditions, digesters with high methane production rates can be 400 distinguished by high Methanosarcina relative abundance. The presence of 401 Methanosarcina in digesters with moderate to high VFA concentrations is beneficial to 402 maintain more rapid bioconversion of acetate to methane. In contrast, digesters with low 403 methane production can be distinguished by high abundance of Methanobacterium and 404 DHVEG 6 family organisms. Since DHVEG6 microorganisms have been found in 405 extreme environments, including deep-sea hydrothermal vents, their high abundance in 406 anaerobic digesters may indicate past or current digester upset (i.e., high VFA 407 concentration and low methane production).

Bioaugmentation with a methanogenic, propionate degrading enrichment culture resulted in a significant increase in methane production when digester pH was neutral or greater. However, methane production did not change after bioaugmenting digesters that had pH values less than neutral. Therefore, when predicting bioaugmentation outcomes, the environment into which an augment culture is added must be carefully considered as well as the composition of the bioaugment itself. Steps such as increasing low digester pH before bioaugmentation may be necessary to improve digester function.

The methane production increase after bioaugmentation was correlated with increased relative abundance of *Methanosaeta* and *Methaospirillum* that were in the bioaugment culture employed. However, the methane production rate increase was only temporary. More research is warranted to develop sustained, steady state improvements via bioaugmentation or bioaugmentation combined with pH adjustment for challenged digesters.

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Group->	G1	G2	G3
Digester Sets->	A, B and C	D, E, F and G	H and I
Methane production rate (L-CH ₄ /L _R -day at 35°C, 1 atm)	0.77±0.12	0.6±0.04	0.34±0.02
SCOD removal (%)	67±10	55±4	30±4
рН	7.2±0.06	6.6±0.05	6.3±0.0
Acetate (g/L)	2.4±0.6	5.4±1	7.3±2
Propionate (g/L)	2.1±1	4±1	4.3±3

 Table 1: Performance parameters of digester groups.



Figure 1: Typical quasi steady state biogas production.

Daily biogas production rate observed from non-bioaugmented and bioaugmented digesters of (A) Set-A, (B) Set D and (C) Set H, respectively. The error bars represent standard deviation among triplicate digesters; some error bars are small and not visible. The dosage period represents the 10-day period during which inactivated and active enrichment cultures were added to non-bioaugmented and bioaugmented digesters, respectively. The Period of Increased Activity (period when bioaugmented digester methane production was statistically greater than that of non-bioaugmented digesters (p value <0.05, n =3)). PIA was not observed for Set-D (B) and Set-H (C) digester systems.



Figure 2: Digester group functional parameters.

(A) Average methane production rate (L-CH₄/L_R-day), (B) average percent COD removal, (C) average effluent acetate and propionate concentration, (D) and average effluent pH. Error bars represent standard deviation among triplicates. Based on average functional performance, the nine digester sets were divided into three statistically distinct groups (p<0.05, n = 3): digester groups G1 (Sets A, B and C), G2 (Sets D, E, F and G) and G3 (Sets H and I).





Non-bioaugmented digesters cluster 1, G1 (\bigcirc); non-bioaugmented digesters cluster 2, G2 (\bullet); non-bioaugmented digesters cluster 3, G3 (\bullet); bioaugmented digesters cluster 1, G1a (\triangle); bioaugmented digesters cluster 2, G2a (\bullet); bioaugmented digesters cluster 3, G3a (\triangle); bioaugmented digesters cluster 2, G2a (\bullet); bioaugmented digesters cluster 3, G3a (\triangle); and enrichment culture G4 (\boxtimes). The ellipses represent 95% confidence interval for each cluster. Eight archaeal OTU's, identified based on 97% similarity and representing >99% of the total archaeal sequences in all digesters, including the enrichment culture, were employed for nMDS analysis.



Figure 4: Bacterial sequence nMDS plot.

Non-bioaugmented digesters cluster 1, G1 and G2 (\bullet); non-bioaugmented digesters cluster 2, G3 (\bullet); enrichment culture G4 (\boxtimes); bioaugmented digesters cluster 1, G1a and G2a (\blacktriangle); and bioaugmented digester cluster 2, G3a (\blacktriangle). The ellipses represent 95% confidence interval for each cluster. The 29 OTUs detected in all digesters with the highest relative abundance, including the enrichment culture, were employed for nMDS analysis.



Figure 5: Cumulative CH₄ produced between day 60-80.

Error bars represent standard deviation among triplicates. Bioaugmented digesters of Sets A, B and C showed statistically higher cumulative CH_4 production (p<0.05, n=3).



OTU	Class	Order	Family	Genus
1	Thermoplasmata	WCHA1-57	unclassified	unclassified
2	Methanomicrobia	Methanomicrobiales	Methanospirillaceae	Methanospirillum
3	Methanomicrobia	Methanosarcinales	Methanosaetaceae	Methanosaeta
4	Methanomicrobia	Methanomicrobiales	Methanomicrobiaceae	Methanofollis
5	Methanobacteria	Methanobacteriales	Methanobacteriaceae	Methanobacterium
6	Thermoplasmata	Thermoplasmatales	Thermoplasmatales Incertae Sedis	Candidatus Methanomethylophilus
7	Methanomicrobia	Methanosarcinales	Methanosarcinaceae	Methanosarcina

Figure 6: Dual hierarchal clustering of the top seven archaeal OTUs observed in the enrichment culture and G1 digesters.

These seven OTU's, based on 97% similarity, represent >99% of the total archaeal abundance in the enrichment culture and G1 digesters. The gradient scale ranges from 0 to 100% relative abundance. Sample names x1, x2 and x3 represent the enrichment culture. The sample names for digesters are denoted as follows: for example "nB1" and bB1 – the prefix "n" and "b" represents "non-bioaugmented" and "bioaugmented", respectively, the middle letter "B" represents Set-B and the suffix "1" represent the replicate number. The enrichment culture is dominated by *Methanosaeta*(OTU 3), *Methanospirillum* (OTU 2) and *WCHA1-57* (OTU 1). The non-bioaugmented digesters are dominated by *Methanosarcina* (OTU 7), followed by *Methanobacterium* (OTU 5). The bioaugmented digester of Set-A, B and C showed a significant abundance of *Methanosaeta*(OTU 3) and *Methanospirillum* (OTU 2) as compared to the non-bioaugmented digesters.

Highlights

- Digesters with similar functional performance have similar methanogenic community structure and vice versa
- Bioaugmentation can improve methane production by shifting the digester's methanogenic community structure
- Washout of microorganisms, low pH and high acid concentrations may decrease the effectiveness of bioaugmentation