



MONASH University

**Highly efficient biohydrogen production by diverse microbial community
in landfill leachate sludge using dark fermentative batch reactor**

Wong Yee Meng

*A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
at Monash University in September 2014*

Faculty of Science



Copyright Notices

Notice 1

Under the Copyright Act 1968, this thesis must be used only under the normal conditions of scholarly fair dealing. In particular no results or conclusions should be extracted from it, nor should it be copied or closely paraphrased in whole or in part without the written consent of the author. Proper written acknowledgement should be made for any assistance obtained from this thesis.

Notice 2

I certify that I have made all reasonable efforts to secure copyright permissions for third-party content included in this thesis and have not knowingly added copyright content to my work without the owner's permission.

General Declaration

In accordance with Monash University Doctorate Regulation 17.2 Doctor of Philosophy and Research Master's regulations the following declarations are made:

I hereby declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

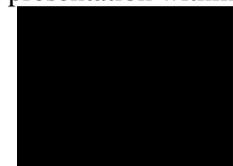
This thesis includes five original papers published in peer reviewed journals and three unpublished publications. The core theme of the thesis is Highly Efficient Bio-hydrogen Production Revealed in a Diverse Microbial Community from Landfill Leachate Sludge using Dark Fermentative Batch Reactor. The ideas, development and writing up of all the papers in the thesis were the principal responsibility of myself, the candidate, working within the School of Science under the supervision of Assoc. Pro. Dr. Juan Joon Ching.

The inclusion of co-authors reflects the fact that the work came from active collaboration between researchers and acknowledges input into team-based research.

In the case of Chapter 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 6a my contribution to the work involved the following:

Thesis chapter	Publication title	Publication status	Nature and extent of candidate's contribution
2	A review of sustainable hydrogen production using seed sludge via dark fermentation doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2014.03.008	Published	I was responsible for 95% of drafting and writing.
3	High efficiency bio-hydrogen production from glucose revealed in an inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2014.05.088	Published	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 95% of drafting and writing.
4	Comparison of microbial communities at different fermentation phase of hydrogen production using Illumina MiSeq	Submitted	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 90% of drafting and writing.
5	Production of bio-hydrogen from dairy wastewater by using pretreated landfill leachate sludge as an inoculum	Submitted	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 95% of drafting and writing.
6	Discovery of three new Clostridium strains provided a new insight for biohydrogen production	Submitted	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 95% of drafting and writing.
6 a	Draft Genome Sequence of Clostridium perfringens Strain JJC, a Highly Efficient Hydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge doi:10.1128/genomeA.00064-14	Published	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 90% of drafting and writing.
	Draft Genome Sequence of Clostridium bifermentans Strain WYM, a Promising Biohydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge doi:10.1128/genomeA.00077-14	Published	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 90% of drafting and writing.
	Draft Genome Sequence of Clostridium sp. Strain Ade.TY, a New Biohydrogen- and Biochemical-Producing Bacterium Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge doi:10.1128/genomeA.00078-14	Published	I was responsible for 100% of analysis and interpretation of data and 90% of drafting and writing.

I have renumbered sections of submitted or published papers in order to generate a consistent presentation within the thesis



Wong Yee Meng
Date: 9 Sept 2014

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my greatest gratitude to the following people who have been supporting me unconditionally to achieve the milestone of my life.

Deepest thanks to my supervisors, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Juan Joon Ching, Dr. Adeline Tine and Dr. Wu Ta Yeong for their continuous guidance and support. A very special thanks to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Juan Joon Ching for ceaseless motivation, patience and enthusiasm. His guidance and encouragement have lead me through various bottle necks in my research, without him completing my PhD would have been impossible.

Members of my Review Panel committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Lim Yau Yan and Dr. Lee Sue Mei, Prof Gary Dykes and Assoc. Prof. Song Keang Peng for their construction advice and feedback.

Research collaborators: Mr. How Lim Sek and staffs from KUB-Berjaya Enviro Sdn. Bhd.) and Mr. Zamri Abd Rahman and staff from Worldwide Landfills Sdn. Bhd. for their assistance in sample collections. Prof. Chris M Austin for Dr. Gan Han Ming and Ms. Puviarasi Meganathan for their assistance in Next Generation Sequencing Projects.

Funding and scholarship provider: Monash University Malaysia and MOSTI (e-science fund 06-02-10-SF0130) for funding and scholarship throughout my PhD candidature period.

Administrative and Laboratory Management staff: Ms. Bawani Veeriah, Ms. Irdawani B.M. Selamat and Ms. Masitah M. Salleh, Ms. Nicola Ng Wei Lin, Mr. Chua Chong Boon, Mr. Ragavan s/o Murugiah, Mr. Evaraj A/L Aya Thurai, Mr. Sri Jegan s/o Ramasamy and Ms. Amreeta Sarjit for their help and support in every way.

Laboratory Management and technical Staff in School of Engineering, Monash University Malaysia for their technical assistance with the Agilent gas chromatography and the Zeta-sizer and Scanning Electron Microscope.

All former and current research colleagues in Monash University Malaysia for their kind assistance, support and the fun time throughout my PhD candidature.

Finally, I would like to express my greatest appreciation to my family and friends for their endless care and encouragement. Typically, a very special thanks to my mother Mdm. Michelle Lim Huen Guat for her unconditional love and support, without her my life would not have been the same.

Abstract

This study investigated the microbiology in landfill leachate sludge for biological H₂ production. This sludge originated from sanitary landfill, hence the microbial community which survived in the sludge may have unique H₂-producing features. The landfill leachate sludge was pretreated at different temperatures and landfill leachate sludge pretreated at 65 °C revealed the maximum H₂ yield of 6.43 ± 0.16 mol H₂/mol glucose under the optimum conditions of 37°C and pH 6. This new record of high H₂ has exceeded the conventional theoretical yield of 4 mol H₂/ mol glucose. Under the same optimum condition (37°C and pH 6), the H₂ produced from dairy wastewater was 113.2 ± 2.9 mmol H₂/g COD (12.8 ± 0.3 mmol H₂/g carb.). The H₂ productions from glucose and wastewater were thermodynamically favourable with the Gibb's free energy of -34 and -40 kJ/mol, respectively. The microbial community was successfully revealed by 16S-rRNA Metagenomics using Illumin Miseq. Sludge pretreated at 65 °C was revealed to contain 98% of H₂-producing bacteria which mainly belong to the genera *Clostridium*, *Bacillus*, *Eubacterium* and *Sporacetigenium*. In comparison, untreated sludge which contained mainly H₂-consuming bacteria including genera *Pseudomonas*, *Sulfurimonas* and *Treponema*. The sludge pretreatment has successfully eliminated H₂-consuming bacteria and enriched H₂-producing bacteria which in turn improved H₂ yield up to 53%. Three H₂-producing bacteria were successfully isolated and identified as *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC (AWRZ000000000), *C. bifermentans* strain WYM (AVSU000000000) and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY (AVSV000000000). Based on multiple genome alignment, *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY is likely to be a new H₂-producing species as it does not aligned to the genome of its closest neighbour. The batch mode optimization showed that the maximum H₂ production attained from these isolates are in the descending order of *C. perfringens* strain JJC > *C. bifermentans* strain WYM > *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY with yield of 4.68 ± 0.12 , 3.29 ± 0.11 , 2.87 ± 0.10 mol H₂/ mol glucose, respectively. This shows that *C. perfringens* strain JJC could convert substrates to H₂ more efficiently as compared to the others. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the H₂ yield from single H₂-producing bacterium was less efficient as compared to the performance of H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum. In summary, landfill leachate sludge contains functional microbial community for efficient H₂ production with good potential in industrial application.



Abbreviations

Bio-H ₂	Biological hydrogen
HPB	Hydrogen producing bacteria
HCB	Hydrogen consuming bacteria
POME	Palm oil mill effluent
UASB	Up flow anaerobic sludge blanket
TVS	Total volatile solid
VS	Volatile solid
BES	2-bromoethanesulfonate
MSW	Municipal solid waste
VFA	Volatile fatty acid
Glu.	Glucose
Carb.	Carbohydrate
WGS	Whole genome sequencing
NGS	Next generation sequencing

Content

Copyright Notices	i
General Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Abstract	v
Abbreviations	vii
Content	viii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiv

Chapter 1

Introduction.....	1
1.0. Impending of fossil fuel depletion drives the development of alternative fuels	2
1.1. Hydrogen as alternative fuel	3
1.2. Methods of producing bio-hydrogen.....	3
1.3. Applications and economical value of hydrogen	5
1.4. Problem statement.....	6
1.5. Objectives.....	7

Chapter 2

Literature Review	8
2.0. Introduction	10
2.1. Factors affecting hydrogen production by seed sludge.....	12
2.1.1. Effects of sludge pretreatment.....	12
2.1.2. Physical pretreatments	13
A. Heat pretreatment.....	13
B. Ultrasonication.....	15
C. Ultraviolet irradiation.....	15
D. Aeration.....	15
E. Freeze and thaw	16
2.1.3. Chemical pretreatments	17
A. pH pretreatment	17
B. Chemical activation and inhibition	17
2.1.4. Combination pretreatments.....	19
2.2. Microbial diversity	20
2.3. Effects of operation conditions on hydrogen production by sludge inocula.....	23
2.3.1. Effects of substrate	23
2.3.2. Effects of pH.....	25
2.3.3. Effect of temperature	26
2.3.4. Effects of nutrients and inhibitors.....	26
A. Effects of organic acids.....	26
B. Effects of macro- and micronutrients	29
2.4. Conclusion.....	30

Chapter 3**High efficiency bio-hydrogen production from glucose by an inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge32**

3.0.	Introduction	34
3.1.	Methods and Materials	35
3.1.1.	Sampling Sites and samples collection.....	35
3.1.2.	Pretreatment of the landfill sludge.....	36
3.1.3.	Hydrogen production from pretreated landfill sludge	36
3.1.4.	Preparation of fermentation medium	37
3.1.5.	Analysis	39
3.1.6.	Kinetics study	40
3.1.7.	Thermodynamic analysis	41
3.2.	Results and discussions	42
3.2.2.	Effects of sludge pretreatment.....	46
3.2.3.	Effects of initial pH	49
3.2.4.	Effects of fermentation temperature	52
3.2.5.	Thermodynamic study	54
3.2.6.	Effects of substrate concentration.....	56
3.2.7.	Effects of neutralization with NaOH on H ₂ production and glucose consumption.....	58
3.2.8.	Formation of volatile fatty acids and solvents.....	62
3.3.	Conclusion.....	64

Chapter 4**Comparison of microbial communities at different fermentation phases of hydrogen production using new generation sequencer65**

4.0.	Introduction	67
4.1.	Materials and methods	68
4.1.1.	Inoculum and treatment conditions	68
4.1.2.	Experimental setup	68
4.1.3.	Analysis	69
4.1.4.	Genomic DNA extraction.....	69
4.1.5.	16S rRNA-metagenomics sequencing with next generation sequencing	69
4.1.6.	Bioinformatics analysis	70
4.2.	Results and discussion.....	70
4.2.1.	H ₂ production from repeated batch fermentation.....	70
4.2.2.	Relationship between microbial community and H ₂ production from different sludge samples	71
4.2.3.	Microbial community in landfill leachate sludge	75
A.	Hydrogen producing microbial community.....	75
B.	Hydrogen consuming microbial community	76
4.3.	Conclusion.....	76

Chapter 5**Production of bio-hydrogen from dairy wastewater using pretreated landfill leachate sludge as an inoculum.....77**

5.0.	Introduction	79
5.1.	Materials and methods	80
5.1.1.	Inoculum and treatment conditions	80
5.1.2.	Wastewater collection.....	80

5.1.3.	Experimental setup	81
5.1.4.	Analysis	81
5.1.5.	Kinetics and thermodynamic analysis	82
5.2.	Results and discussion.....	83
5.2.1.	H ₂ production from landfill leachate and dairy wastewater	83
5.2.2.	Effects of initial pH and fermentation temperature on H ₂ production from dairy wastewater	84
5.2.3.	Thermodynamics of H ₂ production from dairy wastewater	89
5.2.4.	Effect of organic load on H ₂ production from dairy wastewater.....	92
5.2.5.	Productions of volatile fatty acids and alcohol.....	93
5.3.	Conclusion.....	96

Chapter 6

Discovery of three new *Clostridia* strains provided new insight to biohydrogen production.....

6.0.	Introduction	99
6.1.	Materials and methods	100
6.1.1.	Isolation of bacteria strains and growth conditions	100
6.1.2.	Morphological test.....	100
6.1.3.	Genome project accession numbers.....	100
6.1.4.	H ₂ production in batch fermentation.....	101
6.1.5.	Analysis	101
6.1.6.	Kinetics and thermodynamic analysis	102
6.2.	Results and discussion.....	103
6.2.1.	Characterisation of H ₂ -producing isolates	103
6.2.2.	Effect of initial pH on H ₂ production	107
6.2.3.	Effect of fermentation temperature on H ₂ production	108
6.2.4.	Thermodynamics of H ₂ production from the isolates.....	112
6.2.5.	Effect of organic load on H ₂ production.....	115
6.2.6.	Production of volatile fatty acids.....	118
6.3.	Conclusion.....	121

Chapter 6a

Isolation and identification of H₂-producing bacteria.....

6a.1.	Introduction	124
6a.2.	Methods and Materials	124
6a.2.1.	Isolation of H ₂ producing bacteria	124
6a.2.2.	Sample preparation for whole genome sequencing using Illumina MiSeq	125
6a.2.3.	Bioinformatics analysis.....	126
6a.3.	Results and discussion.....	126
7.3.1.	Identification of H ₂ -producing isolates.....	126
A.	<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> strain JJC	126
B.	<i>Clostridium bifermentans</i> strain WYM.....	127
C.	<i>Clostridium</i> sp. strain Ade.TY	127
6a.4.	Conclusion.....	128

Chapter 7**Conclusion and future work129**

7.0. Major findings and contributions of this study 130

7.1. Future directions..... 132

References 133

Appendix 1-1: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from untreated sludge A-iAppendix 1-2: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge A-iiiAppendix 1-3: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from chemically pretreated sludge A-viiiAppendix 1-4: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from sludge pretreated with physical coupled with chemical pretreatment..... A-xi

Appendix 1-5: Supplementary table for literature review on Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge..... A-xiii

Appendix 2-1: Calculation for hydrogen yield A-xvii

Appendix 2-2: Chromatogram of biogas profile for H₂ production from glucose using landfill leachate sludge at optimum conditions A-xixAppendix 3-1: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from dairy wastewater A-xxviiiAppendix 4-1: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from isolates A-xxixAppendix 5-1: Taxonomy report for H₂ producing bacteria based on 16S rRNA sequence A-xxxii

Appendix 5-2: Multiple genome alignment A-xxxiv

List of Tables

Chapter 1

Table 1.1: Assessment of energy value and specific carbon emission different fuel types (8).	3
Table 1.2: Comparison between advantages and disadvantages of different methods producing hydrogen	4

Chapter 2

Table 2. 1: Example of H ₂ producing and consuming bacteria with their characteristics	11
Table 2. 2: Comparison of H ₂ yield between heat pretreated and untreated sludge	13
Table 2.3: H ₂ production from sludge pretreated with ultrasonication, ultraviolet irradiation, aeration and freeze and thaw method.....	16
Table 2.4: Comparison of H ₂ yield between pH pretreatment and untreated sludge.....	18
Table 2.5: H ₂ production from sludge pretreated with chemical activation and inhibition methods.....	19
Table 2.6: Hydrogen production from sludge pretreated with combination pretreatment	20
Table 2.7: Type of pretreated sludge that contains only H ₂ producing bacteria and both H ₂ producing and consuming bacteria	22
Table 2.8: Summary of factors responsible and recommended conditions for high H ₂ production from seed sludge via dark fermentation	31

Chapter 3

Table 3.1: Landfill leachate characteristics measured in sampling site.....	35
Table 3.2: Compositions of different fermentation media.....	39
Table 3.3: Characteristics of buffering agents in different fermentation media.....	45
Table 3.4: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ in the effect of sludge pre-treatment from Modified Gompertz Equation	47
Table 3.5: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ in the effect of initial pH from Modified Gompertz Equation	49
Table 3.6: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ in the effect of fermentation temperature from Modified Gompertz Equation	52
Table 3.7: Thermodynamics quantities of H ₂ production using landfill leachate sludge inoculum at optimum condition	55
Table 3.8: Effects of substrate concentration on H ₂ yield, final pH, glucose concentration and cell dry mass	56
Table 3.9: Profile of VFA and solvent with respective ratio of acetate to butyrate at different fermentation conditions	63

Chapter 4

Table 4.1: The 20 most abundant genera in untreated landfill leachate sludge.....	74
Table 4.2: The 20 most abundant genera in pretreated landfill leachate sludge.....	74
Table 4.3: The 20 most abundant genera in recycled landfill leachate sludge	74

Chapter 5

Table 5.1: Characteristics of landfill leachate and dairy wastewater.....	81
Table 5.2: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ from dairy wastewater using Modified Gompertz Equation	86
Table 5.3: Characteristics of wastewater after fermentation at various temperature and initial pH.....	87
Table 5.4: Comparison of H ₂ yield from this study with other studies.....	88
Table 5.5: Thermodynamics quantities of H ₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge inoculum.....	90
Table 5.6: H ₂ production at different organic load and characteristics of wastewater after fermentation	92
Table 5.7: Concentration of volatile fatty acids and alcohol different fermentation conditions	95

Chapter 6

Table 6.1: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ in the effect of fermentation pH from modified Gompertz equation	109
Table 6.2: Comparison of H ₂ yield of the isolates from this study and other reported H ₂ producing bacteria.....	110
Table 6.3: Kinetic parameters of production H ₂ in the effect of fermentation temperature from Modified Gompertz Equation	111
Table 6.4: Thermodynamics quantities of H ₂ production from the H ₂ -producing isolates ...	113
Table 6.5: H ₂ production H ₂ in the effect of substrate concentration	117

Chapter 6a

Table 6a:1: Characteristics of genomes of the three selected isolates.....	128
--	-----

List of Figures

Chapter 1

- Figure 1.1: Concept of The Age of Energy Gases suggests energy transition towards H₂ as an ultimate energy carrier (Hefner, 2007)2
- Figure 1.2: The Mercedes-Benz B-class runs with the H₂ fuel cell developed by Daimler AG. (Image taken from the exhibition in the World Hydrogen Technology Conference (WHTC) 2013, Shanghai)5

Chapter 2

- Figure 2.1: Relationship between pretreatment temperature and duration. (a) Effective heat pretreatment is resulted from the combination of low temperature with long duration (option 1) or high temperature with short duration (option 2); (b) ineffective heat pretreatment is resulted from the combination of low temperature with short duration (option 3) or high temperature with long duration (option 4). 14
- Figure 2.2: The connection of glycolytic pathway for glucose fermentation with organic acid and solvent production from pyruvate by strict anaerobes. Numbers in brackets represents key enzymes: (1) lactate dehydrogenase; (2) pyruvate formate lyase; (3) ADH: alcohol dehydrogenase; (4) acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; (5) thiolase; (6) phosphotransbutylase; (7) butyrate kinase; (9) phosphotransacetylase; (8) acetate kinase.28
- Figure 2.3: Relationship between fermentation products and H₂ production. (a) event of H₂ inhibition due to accumulation of acetate and/or butyrate; (b) event of H₂ production supplemented by lactate and propionate.29

Chapter 3

- Figure 3.1: Landfill leachate collection ponds in Jeram, Selangor.....35
- Figure 3.2: Experimental setup of batch mode dark fermentation. Direction (i): the collection of biogas flow from serum bottle to measuring cylinder; direction (ii): the collection of biogas from measuring cylinder to syringe. Silicon tube and syringe were flushed with argon gas. .36
- Figure 3.3: (a) Hydrogen production and (b) glucose consumption in media with different buffering system. Medium A and B composed of phosphate buffering system; Medium C and D composed of phosphate buffering system with various trace metal content; Medium E and F composed of acetate buffering system; Medium F-control was a positive control of Medium F but excluding sodium acetate as the buffer. (Fermentation condition: 5 g/L glucose, 37 °C, 48 h and pH 6).....44
- Figure 3.4: (a) Hydrogen production performance and (b) glucose consumption in the effects of pretreatment. Final pH for all conditions were measured at around 4.2 to 4.6. (Fermentation condition: 10 g/L glucose, 37 °C, 48 h and pH 6).48
- Figure 3.5: Effect of initial pH on (a) H₂ yield; (b) glucose consumption; (c) cell dry mass; and (d) final pH. (Fermentation conditions: 10g/L glucose, 48h and 37°C).....51
- Figure 3.6: Effect of fermentation temperature on (a) H₂ yield; (b) glucose consumption; (c) cell dry mass; and (d) final pH. (Fermentation conditions: 10g/L glucose, 48h and 37°C)53

Figure 3.7: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature.....	55
Figure 3.8: Effect of NaOH neutralization on substrate concentration 20 g/L glucose at specific time intervals (a) H ₂ production performance and (b) glucose consumption and final pH. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 20 g/L glucose, 48h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).....	59
Figure 3.9: Effect of NaOH neutralization on substrate concentration 10 g/L glucose at specific time intervals (a) H ₂ production performance and (b) glucose consumption and final pH. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 10 g/L glucose, 48h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).....	60
Figure 3.10: H ₂ production performance with and without acetate in the effect of continuous NaOH neutralization at 12 h intervals. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 10 and 20 g/L glucose, 48 h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).	61

Chapter 4

Figure 4.1: Hydrogen production performance on repeated batch fermentation using untreated sludge and pretreated sludge at 65°C.	71
Figure 4.2: Taxonomic distribution up family level of (a) untreated sludge; (b) pretreated sludge; (c) recycled sludge. The figure was prepared using data from the 20 most abundant families. The innermost ring represents the phylum level and the outermost ring represents the family level.	73

Chapter 5

Figure 5.1: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies at different initial pH (a) pH 5, (b) pH 6, (c) pH 7 and (d) pH 8. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature that is 38.4 °C at all initial pH	91
--	----

Chapter 6

Figure 6.1: Microscopy examination: Gram and spore staining of (a) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. Strain Ade.TY, (b) <i>Clostridium perfringens</i> strain JJC and (c) <i>Clostridium bifermentans</i> strain WYM. Observations were made at (1000×).	105
Figure 6.2: Phylogeny of <i>C. perfringens</i> strain JJC, <i>C. bifermentans</i> strain WYM and <i>Clostridium</i> sp. strain Ade.TY with their respective relatives based on 16S rRNA gene sequences	106
Figure 6.3: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies: (a) <i>C. perfringens</i> strain JJC, (b) <i>C. bifermentans</i> strain WYM and (c) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. strain Ade.TY. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature.	114

Chapter 6a

Figure 6a.1: Experimental setup for enrichment of H ₂ producing bacteria.	125
---	-----

Chapter 1
Introduction

1.0. Impending of fossil fuel depletion drives the development of alternative fuels

Fossil fuels is the leading energy source (1). Our current life style relies exclusively on fossil fuels to generate energy for electricity, transportation and industry. Considering the rapid growth of world population, energy experts predicted the end of fossil fuel reserves arrives in the year of 2042 based on modified Donald Klass model (2). Furthermore, extensive use of fossil fuels caused irreversible global environmental damages including global warming and pollution. Therefore, an environmentally friendly and sustainable replacement is required. As refer to Figure 1.1, it is predicted that the world's energy usage will progressively move towards gas fuels such as hydrogen gas (3). Hydrogen is the most promising replacement for fossil fuel as it is a clean and sustainable fuel.

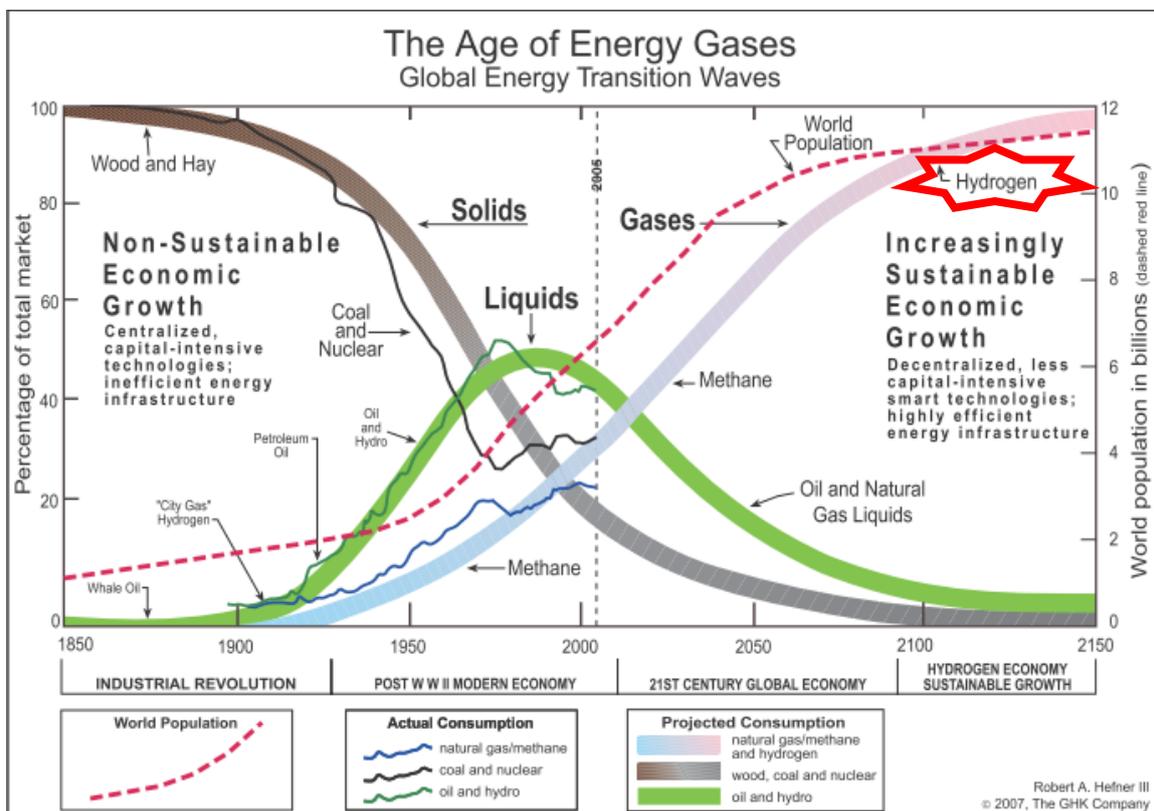


Figure 1.1: Concept of The Age of Energy Gases suggests energy transition towards H_2 as an ultimate energy carrier (Hefner, 2007)

1.1. Hydrogen as alternative fuel

Hydrogen (H_2) is appeared as an odourless, colourless, tasteless and non-toxic gas (4). The value of H_2 is enhances with its non-polluting nature, as the complete combustion of H_2 produces water as the only end product. Hydrogen also has the highest energy yield (141.9 J/kg) as compared to other fuel types (Table 1.1). However, H_2 does not usually exist as gas but primarily found in combination with other elements such as carbon and oxygen, forming a variety of compounds including water and hydrocarbons (5). Therefore, H_2 is an energy carrier that has to be extracted from other compounds. Currently, more than 96% of the global H_2 production requires fossil fuels as raw material or as source of energy (6, 7). Considering environmental problems arise from fossil fuels, H_2 derived from renewable sources is more environmentally friendly.

Table 1.1: Assessment of energy value and specific carbon emission different fuel types (8)

Fuel type	Energy per unit mass (J/kg)	Specific carbon emission (kg C/kg fuel)
Liquid hydrogen	141.90	0.00
Gaseous hydrogen	141.90	0.00
Natural gas	50.00	0.46
Liquefied natural gas (LNG)	50.00	-
Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)	48.80	-
Gasoline	47.40	0.86
Fuel oil	45.50	0.84
Biodiesel	37.00	0.50
Charcoal	30.00	0.50
Ethanol	29.90	0.50
Methanol	22.30	0.50

1.2. Methods of producing bio-hydrogen

There are two main approaches for H_2 production which are categorized under chemical and biological methods. Chemical process is heavily relying on natural gas, heavy oils, coal and naphtha as primary feedstock (9). In addition, processes like steam reforming and partial oxidation require high temperature (up to 1500 °C) and pressure (30 atm). Consequently, chemical processes are usually energy intensive and expensive (10, 11). In contrast, biological hydrogen (bio- H_2) production offers an environmentally friendly alternative for H_2 production. In nature, a variety of H_2 -producing bacteria including photosynthetic, photoheterotrophic and fermentative bacteria were found to be capable of producing H_2 (12). Among the biological processes, dark fermentation has attracted much

attention. Dark fermentation produces H_2 in the absence of light (13). Hence, it does not require solar input and the configuration of the bioreactor is simpler and cheaper (14). Dark fermentation can use a versatile range of substrate, particularly renewable resources that are organically rich such as stillage, sludge, leachate, pomace, stalks and bagasse (15-20). Therefore, H_2 production via dark fermentation is potentially to be integrated into waste management and to achieve the ultimate goal of converting waste into energy.

Currently, bio- H_2 production via fermentation methods are still at the research and development (R&D) stage. As reported by the U.S. Department of Energy (25), bio- H_2 production approach is clean, self-sustaining and tolerant of diverse water conditions. However, several critical challenges are precluding the application of this method in industries. The R&D needs are (1) to develop efficient microorganisms for sustainable bio- H_2 production; (2) to identify and characterise new microorganisms; (3) to develop inexpensive methods to grow and maintain microorganisms; (4) to develop cheap and durable bioreactors' materials; and (5) to design cheap and high-value manufacturing processes.

Table 1.2: Comparison between advantages and disadvantages of different methods producing hydrogen

Methods	Advantages	Disadvantages	Ref.
Steam reforming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Cheaper than biological methods ✓ Most established commercial process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> χ Heavily dependent on non-renewable feedstock χ Requires high temperature χ Expensive & Energy intensive 	(10, 11)
Water electrolysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Capable of producing highly pure H_2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> χ Expensive χ High electricity consumption 	(10, 11)
Biophotolysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Capable of producing H_2 from water 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> χ Low conversion efficiency χ Requires solar energy χ Large operation space χ Expensive and complicated photo-bioreactor 	(12-14)
Photofermentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ High conversion efficiencies ✓ Ability to utilize broad spectrum of light ✓ Utilize organic substrate from waste 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> χ Expensive photo-bioreactor χ Presence of H_2 consumption pathway χ Lack of transparency in fermented broth which limits absorption of light energy 	(12-14)
Dark fermentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less expensive & energy intensive ✓ Does not require solar energy ✓ Technically simple ✓ Utilize organic renewable feedstock ✓ Production organic acids and solvents with commercial interest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> χ Relatively lower achievable H_2 yield as compared to photofermentation χ Metabolic shift to solventogenesis pathway when pH is less than 5.0 	(12-14)

1.3. Applications and economical value of hydrogen

Hydrogen can replace fossil fuel and reduce the over reliance as the primary energy. Generally, H_2 fuel can be used in conventional gasoline engines with modifications in order to generate energy via combustion in the air (21, 22). Alternatively, H_2 can be used in fuel cells to generate electricity. Hydrogen fuel cell is applicable in powering vehicles, electricity infrastructures and electrical utilities (3, 23). According to the U.S. energy Information Administration (24), The United State of America produces 10 – 11 million metric tons of H_2 every year which is sufficient to power 20 – 30 million cars or 5 – 8 million households. On another hand, automobile running with the H_2 fuel cell has better fuel efficiency as compared to diesel engines. Figure 1.2 shows the second generation of Mercedes-Benz B-class running with a H_2 fuel cell. Comparing between the fuel efficiency of Mercedes-Benz B-class running with a H_2 fuel cell and a diesel engine, the model with a H_2 fuel cell has the better fuel efficiency with the fuel consumption of 0.97 kg H_2 / 100 km (3.3 L diesel / 100 km equivalent) as compared to diesel engine with the fuel consumption of 5.4 – 5.6 L diesel / 100 km (25, 26). Moreover, the model with a H_2 fuel cell can achieve zero emission with 0.0 g / km carbon dioxide as compare to the model with a diesel engine which has the emission of 114 – 121 g / km carbon dioxide, according to the model specifications (26). The features of high energy yield and non-polluting nature enhance the value of H_2 as the replacement of fossil fuels.

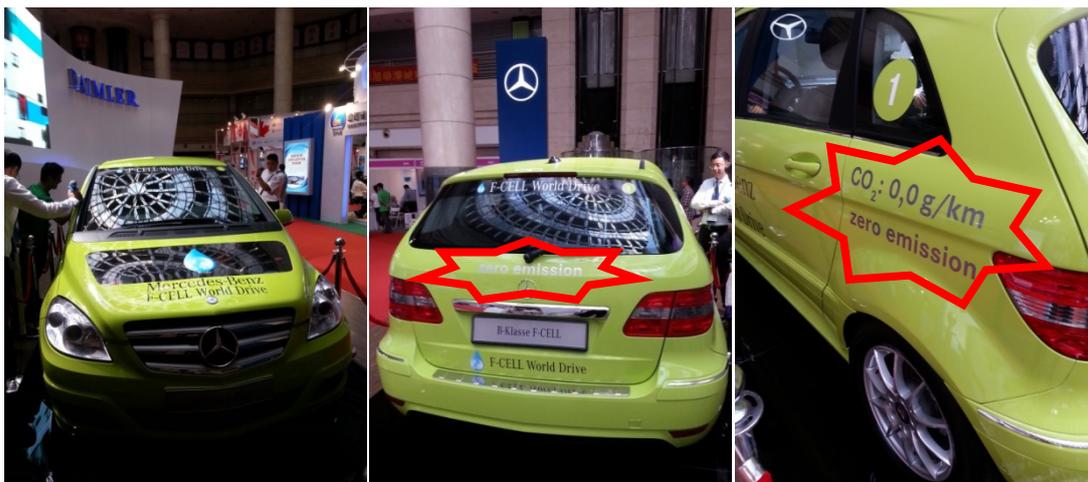
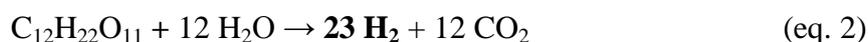


Figure 1.2: The Mercedes-Benz B-class runs with the H_2 fuel cell developed by Daimler AG. (Image taken from the exhibition in the World Hydrogen Technology Conference (WHTC) 2013, Shanghai)

Apart from alternative fuel, H₂ is also raw materials in many industries such as the manufacture of ammonia and methanol. In addition, H₂ is also important for other industrial applications such as fertilizers, vitamins, semi-conductor circuits, toothpaste, glass, food processing, refined metals lubricants and detergents. Other processes used H₂ in desulfurization and denitrogenation of coal; hydrocracking of crude oil into gasoline or liquefied petroleum gas; as a fuel in rocket engines and coolant in electrical generator (13, 27, 28). In general, H₂ is a versatile element that is applicable is a wide range of industries.

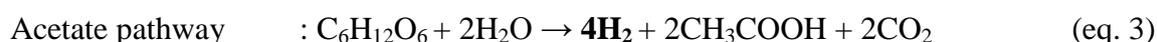
1.4. Problem statement

As discussed, dark fermentation offers an opportunity of producing H₂ from organic rich waste. However, dark fermentation is less efficient in terms of converting substrates to H₂ because most thermal enthalpies are lost in the formation of volatile fatty acids (VFA). In theory, 1 mole of glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆) should produce 12 moles of H₂ (eq. 1), while 1 mole of lactose (C₁₂H₂₂O₁₁) will produce 23 moles of H₂ (eq. 2).

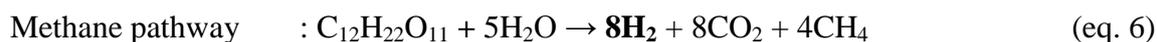
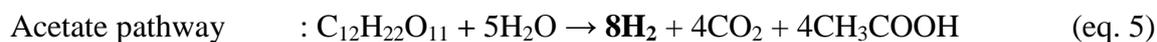


Typically, the maximum energy conversion from glucose to H₂ is only 33% via the acetate pathway (eq. 3) and 17% via the butyrate pathway (eq. 4). Meanwhile the efficiency of lactose conversion to H₂ is only 31% via the acetate and methane pathways (eq. 5 and 6) (18, 29, 30).

Glucose fermentation



Lactose fermentation



Currently, the highest reported H₂ yield is only 2.3 mol H₂/mol glucose which is only about 50% of the theoretical maximum H₂ yield (31). This phenomenon is caused by (1) the rapid conversion of substrate into cell biomass instead of H₂ (32-35) and (2) an inappropriate combination of fermentation conditions. It is postulated that mixed microflora in sludge could

overcome this problem via the synergetic interaction among the different bacteria because they can adapt to a wider range of conditions.

Accessibility of H₂-producing bacteria to substrates directly influences the performance of H₂ production. Simple substrates such as glucose and lactose are easily accessible for H₂ production. In contrast, complex substrates such as lignocellulose and cellulose have to be broken down into simpler substrate like glucose to improve accessibility. Therefore it is logic that combinations of microorganisms which could utilize different substrates for hydrogen production are essential for a better H₂ production performance. The community of H₂-producing bacteria is naturally found in soil, sediment and sludge. There were many reports on H₂ production using various sludge as inoculum such as sludge from brewery industry, oil palm mill, sewage, paper mill and cattle farm (29, 36-43). However, most of the reports encountered inefficiency in H₂ yield from different types of sludge. As mentioned, the highest reported H₂ yield is less satisfactory because it only represents 23% of H₂ production from a complete conversion of glucose. Therefore, there is a need in developing a better sludge inoculum to produce H₂ more efficiently.

1.5. Objectives

Landfill leachate sludge is expected to contain diverse microflora which might possess good H₂-producing property that has not been discovered. Hence, it is hypothesized that landfill leachate sludge is a new inoculum that contains H₂-producing microflora that produce H₂ efficiently. To answer the research question, the research approach are:

- (1) To investigate H₂ production performance of landfill leachate sludge in batch fermentation using glucose and dairy wastewater;
- (2) To analyze microbial community in the landfill leachate sludge with 16S rDNA-metagenomic using Illumina MiSeq;
- (3) To isolate and identify H₂-producing bacteria from landfill leachate sludge; and
- (4) To investigate H₂ production performance of the isolated bacteria in batch fermentation using glucose and wastewater.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The review presented in this chapter has been partly submitted for peer review:

Wong YM, Wu TY, Juan JC. A review of sustainable hydrogen production using seed sludge via dark fermentation. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 2014; 34(0):471-82.

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 2

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 2, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Drafting and writing the publication	95

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

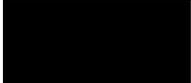
Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Wu Ta Yeong	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

2.0. Introduction

Hydrogen gas (H_2) is an alternative fuel to reduce the over reliance on fossil fuels as the primary energy used in vehicles and machines. Generally, H_2 fuel can be used in conventional gasoline engines with modifications in order to generate energy via combustion in the air (21, 22). The combustion of H_2 is sustainable and environmentally friendly because it does not generate greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide and methane (1, 44). Hydrogen also possesses high energy yield (141.9 J/kg) among the known fuel types such as methane (55.7 J/kg), natural gas (50 J/kg), biodiesel (37 J/kg) and ethanol (29.9 J/kg) (8). However, more than 96% of global H_2 is generated from fossil fuels (6, 7). Therefore, there is an urgency to develop a more cost-effective and environmentally friendly technology to for H_2 production.

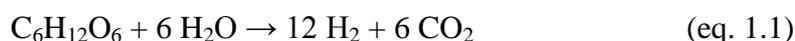
Dark fermentation is a biological approach commonly used to produce H_2 in the absence of light (13). This process does not require solar input and hence the configuration of the bioreactor is simpler and cheaper (14). Most importantly, this technology has attracted attention because it can use a versatile range of substrate, particularly renewable resources that are organically rich such as stillage, sludge, leachate, pomace, stalks and bagasse (45-47). Due to cost and environmental concerns, organic waste material is a better choice of substrates than pure compounds such as sugar or starch. This technology allows dark fermentation to be integrated into wastewater treatment systems to produce H_2 and to treat wastewater.

Seed sludge contains diverse microflora that can produce H_2 via dark fermentation (48-51). Microorganisms found in the seed sludge are more beneficial than pure cultures because they are more adaptive to environmental stresses including limited substrates, and changes in pH and temperature. Moreover, the diverse microflora present in the seed sludge might provide synergistic interactions that improve substrate degradation and thus enhance H_2 production. Unfortunately, microflora in the seed sludge usually consists of both H_2 -consuming and H_2 -producing bacteria (Table 2.1). Therefore, it is essential to eliminate the activity of H_2 -consuming bacteria (HCB) in order to increase H_2 production from H_2 -producing bacteria (HPB). To achieve this, seed sludge can be pretreated using various physical and chemical pretreatment methods to enrich HPB. However, the search for the most effective pretreatment method for this purpose is still under intensive research.

Table 2. 1: Example of H₂ producing and consuming bacteria with their characteristics

Organisms	Functions	Characteristics	Ref.
<i>Clostridium</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Obligate and mesophilic anaerobes The most popular H ₂ producer Ferment a wide range of carbohydrates and produce H ₂ . E.g. <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> , <i>C. acetobutylicum</i> , <i>C. tyrobutyricum</i> , <i>C. saccharolyticum</i>	(31, 52-54)
<i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Obligate and thermophilic anaerobes E.g. <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i>	(55)
<i>Ethanoligenens</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Obligate anaerobes Produce solvent during H ₂ production E.g. <i>Ethanoligenens harbinens</i>	(56)
<i>Bacillus</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Facultative anaerobes May possess important features such as salt tolerance E.g. <i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	(57)
<i>Enterobacter</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Facultative anaerobes Have better tolerance against oxidative stress E.g. <i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	(56)
<i>Klebsiella</i> spp.	H ₂ production	Facultative anaerobes Have better tolerance against oxidative stress E.g. <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i>	(58)
Methanogens	H ₂ consumption	Obligate anaerobes Utilize H ₂ for methane production E.g. <i>Methanobacterium</i> spp., <i>Methanococcus</i> spp. etc.	(59)
Other H ₂ consuming bacteria	H ₂ consumption	Obligate/ facultative anaerobes Utilize H ₂ as electron donor and precursors for metabolic compounds E.g. <i>Lactobacillus</i> spp. and <i>Bifidobacterium</i> spp.	(60, 61)

Apart from the variety of HPB involved in dark fermentation, high H₂ yield is also associated with fermentation conditions including pH, temperature and types of substrate. These factors influence H₂ production by altering the physiological properties such as the enzymatic activities of HPB. In addition, H₂ production can be further enhanced by supplements or constrained by inhibitors. Theoretically, a maximum of 12 moles of H₂ is produced from 1 mole of glucose.



However, currently the highest reported H₂ yield is only about 20% of this maximum yield. Therefore, in order to improve H₂ yield, it is important to recognize the major contributing factors in H₂ production.

This paper critically reviews the challenges of H₂ production using seed sludge as inoculum, focusing mainly on (1) the strengths and weaknesses of different pretreatment methods on the seed sludge; and (2) the effects of different factors including types of potential substrate, operation conditions, nutrients and inhibitors, and the diverse microflora in seed sludge.

2.1. Factors affecting hydrogen production by seed sludge

2.1.1. Effects of sludge pretreatment

In order to enhance H₂ production, pretreatment is commonly used to enrich HPB. Pretreatment must be able to selectively preserve HPB while eliminating HCB. Untreated seed sludge generally produces low H₂ yield (< 1.0 mol H₂/mol glucose) and pretreated seed sludge successfully improves H₂ yield (Appendix 1-1). This is verified by the hydrogenase (primary H₂-producing enzyme) activity in the pretreated seed sludge that has been reported to be three fold higher when compared to the untreated seed sludge (62). These indicate that the pretreatment successfully enriches HPB and increased H₂ yield.

Pretreatment methods are divided into physical and chemical pretreatments. Physical pretreatments are further separated into heat, ultrasonication, ultraviolet irradiation, aeration, and freeze and thaw methods, while chemical pretreatments include pH pretreatment, and chemical activation and inhibition. The selection of pretreatment methods is important because bacteria react differently to the stress applied. For example, it has been shown that acid pretreated seed sludge that was dominated by HCB, such as *Propionibacterium granulosum*, produced 10.4 fold less H₂ compared to heat treated seed sludge (56). This suggests that heat pretreatment is the more effective method to eliminate *P. granulosum*. It demonstrates that the type of pretreatment serves an important role in controlling H₂ yield as it directly affects the variety of bacteria that is present in the seed sludge.

Table 2. 2: Comparison of H₂ yield between heat pretreated and untreated sludge

	H ₂ yield		Pretreatment condition	Sludge source	Ref.
	Heat pretreatment	Untreated			
1.	2.38 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	N.A.	100°C, 15 min	Sewage treatment plant	(63)
2.	2.30 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	0.43 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	65°C, 30 min	Sewage treatment plant	(31)
3.	1.95 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	0.43 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	95°C, 30 min	Sewage treatment plant	(31)
4.	1.04 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	0.70 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	70°C, 30 min	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
5.	0.90 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	0.38 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	95°C, 30 min	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
6.	^b 0.40 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	^b 0.20 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	100°C, 30 min	Intertidal zone	(61)
7.	1.61 mol H ₂ / mol hex.	0.3 mol H ₂ / mol hex.	100°C, 60 min	POME treatment plant	(55)
8.	^a 0.0106 mol H ₂ / g carb.	^a 0.0191 mol H ₂ / g carb.	70°C, 30 min	Sewage treatment plant	(49)
9.	0.0000122 mol H ₂ /g COD	0.0018 mmol H ₂ /g COD	100°C, 60 min	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
10.	0.00041 mol H ₂ /g COD	0.00012 mol H ₂ /g COD	100 °C, 60 min	POME treatment plant	(66)
11.	^a 0.00233 mol H ₂ /g VS	^a 0.0265 mol H ₂ /g VS	90°C, 60 min	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
12.	^a 0.0498 mol H ₂	^a 0.0341 mol H ₂	100°C, 90 min	Intertidal zone	(68)
13.	^a 0.0488 mol H ₂	^a 0.0366 mmol H ₂	80°C, 20 min	Intertidal zone	(57)
14.	^a 0.0325 mol H ₂	^a 0.0366 mmol H ₂	100°C, 20 min	Intertidal zone	(57)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

2.1.2. Physical pretreatments

A. Heat pretreatment

In physical pretreatment, heat pretreatment is the most commonly used method (Appendix 1-2). This is a simple method that eliminates HCB effectively and has a high potential for commercialization. A review of studies shows that the highest H₂ yield was produced by seed sludge pretreated at 65°C which yielded 2.30 mol H₂/mol, that is 8.85 fold higher than the untreated sludge (Table 2.2, no. 2). Seed sludge pretreated at this temperature preserved the most types of HPB, and no HCB were detected (31). This indicates that heat pretreatment successfully eliminated HCB and improved H₂ production. On the other hand, heat pretreated seed sludge also significantly enhances the reduction of chemical oxygen demand (COD) in wastewater. It has been shown that COD of POME was reduced up to 89% and H₂ yield was increased 3.4 fold compared to that of untreated seed sludge (66). The reduction of COD in wastewater during H₂ production signifies the potential of applying heat pretreated sludge for wastewater treatment via dark fermentation.

It is challenging to identify the best combination of pretreatment temperature and heating duration in order to further improve H₂ yields (Figure 1). Among the reported combinations, seed sludge pretreated at 65°C for 30 minutes and 100 °C for 15 minutes are the most promising combinations (Table 2.2, no. 1 & 2). This suggests that a lower pretreatment temperature may require a longer pretreatment time and vice versa in order to achieve similar H₂ yields. In contrast, preheating seed sludge at higher temperatures for longer durations has shown lethal effects on HPB which reduces H₂ yield (31, 57, 69). For example, in one study seed sludge pretreated at 70°C for 30 min produced even lower H₂ than the untreated seed sludge (Table 2.2, no. 8). Similarly, H₂ produced by seed sludge pretreated at 95°C was 4.53 fold lower than seed sludge pretreated at 65°C (Table 2.2, no. 2 & 5). This variation between H₂ productions and pretreatment combinations could be due to the density of cells and the type of microorganisms present in the seed sludge (70, 71). It is reasonable to assume that seed sludge that contains higher cell density requires longer pretreatment durations to ensure all HCB are eliminated. However, the appropriate pretreatment combination is complicated due to the variety of bacteria present in the seed sludge. Depending on the source of the seed sludge, HCB such as Homoacetogens can survive under intensive heat, while HPB such as *Enterobacter* spp. is easily destroyed during heat pretreatment (64, 72). Therefore, the optimum heat pretreatment temperature and time are dependent on the types of HPB and HCB present in the seed sludge.

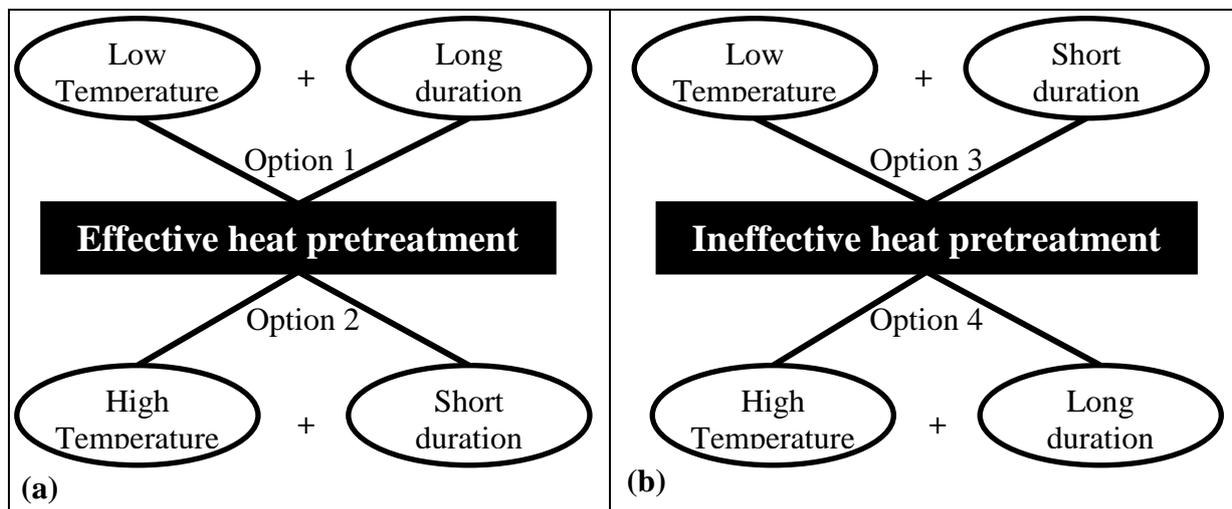


Figure 2.1: Relationship between pretreatment temperature and duration. (a) Effective heat pretreatment is resulted from the combination of low temperature with long duration (option 1) or high temperature with short duration (option 2); (b) ineffective heat pretreatment is resulted from the combination of low temperature with short duration (option 3) or high temperature with long duration (option 4).

B. Ultrasonication

Ultrasonication uses sound waves to eliminate HCB. A summary of the H₂ yield using this pretreatment is listed in Table 2.3. This method eliminates HCB by destroying their cell walls. Although the same damage may also occur to HPB, this can be prevented by controlling the pretreatment duration and intensity (73, 74). Ultrasonic pretreatment improves H₂ production because ultrasonic waves break the sludge particles into smaller sizes, disintegrate coenobium and increase the interaction between the HPB and the substrate (75, 76). Studies have shown the maximum yield obtained from this method was only 1.03 mol H₂/mol glucose. This yield was only about 8% of the maximum H₂ yield that can be produced from 1 mole of glucose (eq. 2.1). This shows that this method is less satisfactory than heat pretreatments. Therefore, optimization studies are required, including studies on the power of the ultrasonic waves, time of exposure, and heat control, before this pretreatment method can produce satisfactory results.

C. Ultraviolet irradiation

Ultraviolet irradiation has bactericidal action that can eliminate HCB and enrich HPB. The recommended pretreatment condition is 15 minutes of UV irradiation. This condition has successfully eliminated methanogens and increased H₂ yield 0.39 fold compared to untreated sludge (Table 2.3, no. 7). However, the radiation can only be transmitted through the smaller sludge particles that are lighter in color. Hence, HCB inside the larger and darker colored sludge particles are protected from UV irradiation and only HCB present on the surface are eliminated (77). This method is not as efficient as other physical treatments.

D. Aeration

Aeration pretreatment applies oxidative stress to deactivate anaerobic HCB. This pretreatment method is aimed at eliminating methanogens that are sensitive to oxidative stress. However, oxidative stress also damages obligate anaerobic HPB and is less effective against facultative HCB. The inefficiency of aeration pretreatment has been shown to result in low H₂ yield (0.7 mol H₂/mol glucose) that is far below the maximum H₂ yield (Table 2.3, no. 8). Hence, this may not be an effective method to enrich HPB in most of the seed sludge.

E. Freeze and thaw

This pretreatment method involves freezing and thawing seed sludge simultaneously at an extreme temperature. The freeze and thaw method appears to be the least effective physical pretreatment because seed sludge pretreated using this method has been shown to produce very low H₂ yield (0.15 mol H₂/mol glucose) compared to other pretreatment methods (Table 2.3, no. 11 & 12). Freezing and thawing seed sludge instantaneously lysed the bacteria, including both HCB and HPB, which in turn reduced H₂ yield. Therefore, the freeze and thaw method is not a favored method to enrich HPB due to its detrimental effects on HPB cells.

Table 2.3: H₂ production from sludge pretreated with ultrasonication, ultraviolet irradiation, aeration and freeze and thaw method

Pretreatment condition	H ₂ Yield	Sludge source	Ref.
<i>Ultrasonication</i>			
1. Ultrasonic, 20 min	1.03 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
2. Ultrasonic, 30 min	^a 0.00016 mol H ₂ /g VS	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
3. Ultrasonic, 30 min	^a 0.00423 mol H ₂ /g TS	Sewage treatment plant	(74)
4. Ultrasonic, 30 min	^a 0.00126 mol H ₂ /g COD	Sewage treatment plant	(79)
5. Ultrasonic, 30 min	^a 0.0058 mol H ₂ /g cornstalk	Sewage treatment plant	(47)
<i>Ultraviolet irradiation</i>			
6. UV, 15 min	^a 0.00565 mol H ₂ /g TS	Sewage treatment plant	(74)
7. UV, 15 min	^a 0.00434 mol H ₂ /g TS	Sewage treatment plant	(74)
<i>Aeration</i>			
8. Aeration, 24 hr	0.70 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
9. Aeration, 24 hr	^a 0.00406 mol H ₂ / g glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
10. Aeration, 12 hr	^a 0.00912 mol H ₂	Sewage treatment plant	(56)
<i>Freeze and thaw</i>			
11. Freeze (-25 °C, 24 hr) and thaw (R.T., 5 hr)	^b ~0.15 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Intertidal zone	(61)
12. Freeze (-10 °C, 24 hr) and thaw (30°C)	0.00019 mol H ₂ /g COD	POME treatment plant	(66)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

2.1.3. Chemical pretreatments

A. pH pretreatment

The most popular chemical pretreatment method used to enrich HPB is pH pretreatment (Appendix 1-3). This method involves adjusting the pH of seed sludge to an extreme pH such as pH 3 or 12 (Table 4) and attempting to lyse HCB. In principle, extreme pH induces HPB to form spores. Bacterial spores have rigid cell walls that are difficult to break and hence HPB should survive this pretreatment. However, in reality, most HCB do not form spores and their cell walls are easily disrupted at extreme pH levels (37, 61, 64, 81). Evidently, an acidic pretreatment is more effective compared to an alkali pretreatment. This is evidenced by the H₂ yield produced by acidic pretreated seed sludge which was found to be 1.67 fold higher than alkaline pretreated seed sludge (Table 2.4 no. 2 and 19). This suggests that HPB is more susceptible to alkaline pretreatment but the reason is unknown as there are no reports on the effects of alkalinity on HPB survival. Nonetheless, pH pretreatment is still not as effective as heat pretreatment because the H₂ yield is not as high.

B. Chemical activation and inhibition

Chemical activation pretreatment enriches HPB by spiking or shocking the seed sludge with a selected substrate or medium such as sucrose or rice (Table 2.5, no. 1–6). This method is useful in terms of enriching selective HPB. For example, seed sludge activated with clostridium enforcement medium can enrich HPB like *Clostridium* spp (52). It has also been claimed that spiking the seed sludge with sucrose is highly effective in enriching thermophilic HPB such as *Thermoanaerobacterium* sp. (55). However, this method is practical only if the specific medium or substrate for the targeted HPB is identified which is often challenging.

The chemical inhibition pretreatment can employ toxic chemicals such as chloroform and 2-bromoethanesulfonate (BES) into the seed sludge to inhibit HCB (Table 2.5, no. 7–13). However, these inhibitors are often lethal to the HPB (55, 64, 66, 67) and highly toxic and harmful to humans and the environment. Consequently, it is extremely challenging to search for a suitable and yet environmentally benign inhibitor. Therefore, chemical inhibition pretreatment is the least favorable method for enriching HPB.

Table 2.4: Comparison of H₂ yield between pH pretreatment and untreated sludge

pH pretreatment	H ₂ yield		Pretreatment condition	Sludge source	Ref.
		Untreated			
Acid pretreatment					
1. 2.25 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		N.A.	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(81)
2. 1.51 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		0.38 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
3. 1.11 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		0.70 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
4. ^b 0.85 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		^b 0.20 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	Intertidal zone	(61)
5. 0.65 mol H ₂ / mol hex.		0.3 mol H ₂ / mol hex.	Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	POME treatment plant	(55)
6. 0.0018 mol H ₂ /g COD		0.0018 mmol H ₂ /g COD	Acid (pH 5), 24 hr	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
7. 0.00032 mol H ₂ /g COD		0.00012 mol H ₂ /g COD	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	POME treatment plant	(66)
8. ^a 0.00189 mol H ₂ /g VS		^a 0.0265 mol H ₂ /g VS	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
9. ^a 0.026.8 mol H ₂		^a 0.0341 mol H ₂	Acid (pH 3), 30 min	Intertidal zone	(68)
10. ^a 0.00074 mol H ₂		^a 0.0071 mol H ₂	Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(56)
Base pretreatment					
11. 1.34 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		0.38 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Base (pH 10), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
12. 0.68 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		0.70 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Base (pH 10), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
13. ^b 0.10 mol H ₂ /mol glu.		^b 0.20 mol H ₂ /mol glu.	Base (pH 12), 30 min	Intertidal zone	(61)
14. ^a 0.00569 mol H ₂ / g glu.		^a 0.72 mmol H ₂ / g glu.	Base (pH 10), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
15. 0.51 mol H ₂ / mol hex.		0.3 mol H ₂ / mol hex.	Base (pH 12), 24 hr	POME treatment plant	(55)
16. 0.00037 mol H ₂ /g COD		0.00012 mol H ₂ /g COD	Base (pH 12), 24 hr	POME treatment plant	(66)
17. ^a 0.00240 mol H ₂ /g VS		^a 0.0265 mol H ₂ /g VS	Base (pH 12), 24 hr	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
18. ^a 0.00006 mol H ₂ /g VS		^a 0.00005 mol H ₂ /g VS	Base (pH 12), 5 min	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
19. ^a 0.0154 mol H ₂		^a 0.0341 mol H ₂	Base (pH 10), 30 min	Intertidal zone	(68)
20. ^a 0.00211 mol H ₂		^a 0.0071 mol H ₂	Base (pH 11), 24 hr	Sewage treatment plant	(56)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

Table 2.5: H₂ production from sludge pretreated with chemical activation and inhibition methods

<i>Pretreatment condition</i>	H₂ Yield	Sludge source	Ref.
<i>Chemical activation</i>			
1. Reactivated in clostridium enforcement medium, 15 days	2.19 mol H ₂ /mol hexose	Cattle farm	(52)
2. Loading shock (50 g sucrose/L), 2 days	1.96 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	POME treatment plant	(55)
3. Loading shock (50 g sucrose/L), 2 days	0.199 mol H ₂ / L POME	POME treatment plant	(55)
4. Reactivated in rice medium, 1 month	^a 0.00212 mol H ₂ /g TS	Composting plant	(35)
5. Reactivated in rice medium, 1 month	^a 0.00517 mol H ₂ /g TS	Composting plant	(35)
6. KNO ₃ (10 mmol/L)	^a 0.0345 mol H ₂	Intertidal zone	(68)
<i>Chemical inhibition</i>			
7. BES (10 mmol/L), 24 hr	0.33 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
8. BES (10 mmol), 30 min	1.01 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	POME treatment plant	(55)
9. BES (0.2 g/L), 24 hr	0.0000317 mol H ₂ /g COD	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
10. Chloroform (1%), 24 hr	0.61 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(64)
11. Chloroform (2%), 24 hr	^a 0.00353 mol H ₂ / g glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
12. Chloroform (0.1%), 24 hr	0.00023 mol H ₂ /g COD	POME treatment plant	(66)
13. Chloroform (0.2%)	^a 0.00134 mol H ₂ /g VS	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

2.1.4. Combination pretreatments

Combination pretreatment methods combine the strengths of physical and chemical pretreatment methods to improve the selection of HPB. Combination methods employ dual pretreatments such as repeated heating (Table 2.6, no. 2 & 6) or a combination of several pretreatments (Table 2.6). Studies have shown that heat coupled with acid, acid coupled with BES, and heat coupled with ultrasonic treated seed sludge produced at least two fold more H₂ compared to that of individual pretreatments. In addition, the sequence of combination pretreatments plays an important role (82). For example, it is crucial that heat pretreatment be applied before pretreatment with chloroform (82). Research has shown that the yield obtained by using heat pretreatment followed by chloroform generated 22% more H₂ compared to using chloroform followed by heat (Table 2.6, no. 4 & 5). This is because HPB sporulates from heat pretreatment. Since spores are more stress-resistant, the subsequent chemical pretreatment further eliminates HCB and enriches HPB. Currently, the best combination pretreatment, which is heat pretreatment followed by aeration pretreatment, has only

produced 1.83 mol H₂/mol glucose (Table 2.6, no. 1). It is interesting to note that the result of this combination pretreatment is still lower than that of heat pretreatment. This method is established as an alternative to physical or chemical methods when individual pretreatments cannot effectively enrich HPB.

Table 2.6: Hydrogen production from sludge pretreated with combination pretreatment

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Sludge source	Ref.
1. Heat (boiling) + aeration (4 min)	1.83 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	River sludge	(83)
2. Repeated boiling (2× for 5 hr)	1.00 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Beer Industry	(82)
3. Heat (77 °C) + Ultrasonic (20 min)	1.55 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
4. Heat (repeated boiling) + chloroform (0.05%)	0.51 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Beer Industry	(82)
5. Chloroform (0.05%) + heat (repeated boiling)	0.44 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Beer Industry	(82)
6. Repeated boiling (2× for 5 hr)	0.33 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	Bakers yeast industry	(82)
7. Heat 90°C + Ultrasonic	^a 1.32–1.50 mol H ₂ /g COD	Sewage treatment plant	(73)
8. Acid (pH 5) + BES (0.2 g/L)	2.90 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
9. Heat (100 °C) + acid (pH 5)	2.07 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
10. Acid (pH 5) + heat (100 °C) + BES (0.2 g/L)	1.08 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
11. Heat (100 °C) + BES (0.2 g/L)	8.40 × 10 ⁻⁶ mol H ₂ /gCOD	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
12. Heat (boiling) + freeze -20°C + thaw (4°C)	0.41 mol H ₂ /mol glycerol	Sewage treatment plant	(84)
13. Heat (95 °C) + acid (pH 3–5), 48 hr	^a 0.0545 mol H ₂	Cattle farm	(70)
14. Water soak (3 hr) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.011 mol H ₂ /g substrate	Cattle farm	(85)
15. Aeration (4 days) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.010 mol H ₂ /g substrate	Cattle farm	(85)
16. UV (3 hr) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.010 mol H ₂ /g substrate	Cattle farm	(85)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using PV = nRT at standard condition where P = 1 atm; R = 8.21 × 10⁻⁵ m³.atm/mol.K and T = 300 K

^b Estimated value

2.2. Microbial diversity

Sludge containing diverse microorganisms and functional seed sludge that produces H₂ is usually enriched by pretreatment methods (Appendix 1-5). Different pretreatment methods have shown different preservation effects on a variety of bacteria (55, 63) and this directly influences the H₂ yield. For example, HPB such as *Clostridium acetobutylicum* is predominant in heat pretreated sludge (Appendix 1-5: Table A5, no. 1, 2, 25); *Clostridium* spp. is also found in pH pretreated sludge (Appendix 1-5: Table A5, no. 12, 13 & 23);

Thermoanaerobacterium sp. is found in load shock pretreated sludge (Appendix 1-5: Table A5, no. 9); and *Bacillus* sp. is found in BES pretreated sludge (Appendix 1-5: Table A5, no. 11). There are also some HCB such as *Lactobacillus* spp. and *Bifidobacterium* spp. which persist even after pretreatment (Appendix 1-5: Table A5, no. 2, 5, 6, 12). Typically, pretreated seed sludge that contains more varieties of HPB and less of HCB produces a higher amount of H₂ (Table 2.7, no. 1–9). For example, seed sludge containing only HPB (Table 2.7, no. 1–5) was found to produce a higher amount of H₂ than seed sludge containing both HPB and HCB (Table 2.7, no. 6–9). On top of that, seed sludge containing several strains of *Clostridium* spp. also produced a higher amount of H₂ compared to a single strain or pure culture (49, 53, 60, 86). This is because different bacteria may utilize different substrates or cooperate in breaking down complex substrates in order to produce H₂. This synergistic interaction among a variety of bacteria in seed sludge is more beneficial than a pure culture in terms of H₂ production from complex substrates such as wastewater.

The variety of HPB which belongs to the family of strict anaerobes Clostridiaceae has the greatest potential in H₂ production via dark fermentation (31, 52, 53). Besides high H₂ production, *Clostridium* spp. can also produce H₂ from a wide range of substrates such as maltose, cellobiose, starch, glucose, sucrose, xylose, dextrin, paper cellulose, powder cellulose, casein and ground nut oil (54). This allows *Clostridium* spp. to produce H₂ from waste streams that contain diverse substrates. *Ethanoligenens harbinensis* is a newly identified HPB enriched from aerated seed sludge (56). It is a strict anaerobe that produces ethanol and H₂ simultaneously. This HPB is highly resistant against the bactericidal effect of ethanol during H₂ production. This suggests that *Ethanoligenens harbinensis* can be used in ethanol-rich waste for H₂ production. *Bacillus megaterium* is another newly identified HPB (57) isolated from intertidal sludge and it tolerates high salinity levels of up to 15% (87). This is useful in H₂ production from high salinity wastewater or even polluted sea water.

In contrast to strict anaerobe, some researchers have suggested that facultative-HPB could be the better H₂ producers. Most of the identified facultative-HPB such as *Enterobacter* spp. and *Klebsiella* spp. (56, 58) belong to the family of Enterobacteriaceae. Their higher tolerance to oxygen stress, allows facultative-HPB to act as a shelter for hydrogenase. Hydrogenase can be irreversibly inhibited by oxygen regardless of whether it is present in a strict or facultative-HPB (88, 89). Facultative-HPB is able to recover the activity of hydrogenase by rapidly depleting oxygen which accidentally enters the fermentation medium (89-91). However, the trade-off to this is that facultative-HPB generates lower amounts of H₂ compared to strict anaerobes such as *Clostridium* spp. Therefore, facultative-HPB in sludge

can function as a defense against oxidative stress while maintaining an oxygen free condition for strict anaerobes to produce H₂. This shows that the symbiotic interaction between strict and facultative-HPB in seed sludge is important to sustain H₂ production.

Table 2.7: Type of pretreated sludge that contains only H₂ producing bacteria and both H₂ producing and consuming bacteria

Source of Sludge	Microbial community	Pretreatment	H ₂ yield	Ref.
Sludge contains only H₂ producing bacteria				
1. Sewage treatment plant B	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (AE0011437.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. HPB-21 (AY862509.1) Uncultured <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (EF700377.1)	Heat	2.30 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(31)
2. POME treatment plant	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> sp. (AY999015) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> (AY999014) <i>Clostridium thermopalmarium</i> (AF286862)	Loading shock	1.96 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(55)
3. Sucrose-based synthetic wastewater sludge	<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> CGS5	Heat	2.78 mol H ₂ / mol sucrose	(53)
4. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Klebsiella</i> sp. HE1 (AY540111)	N.A.	0.92 mol H ₂ / mol sucrose	(58)
5. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (FM994940.1) <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> (GQ214541.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) Uncultured bacterium (DQ464539.1 and DQ414811.1)	Heat	0.0106 mol H ₂ / g carbohydrate	(49)
Sludge contains both H₂ producing and consuming bacteria				
6. POME treatment plant	<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp. (AY363384) <i>Bacillus</i> sp. (AB193859) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (AB234007)	Acid	0.65 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(55)
7. Sewage treatment plant C	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. (DQ168845.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) <i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (DQ235219.1 and FM994940.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (DQ168846.1) <i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> (FJ915706.1) Uncultured bacterium (DQ235219.1) Uncultured <i>Bacillus</i> sp. (DQ168845.1) Uncultured <i>Clostridium</i> (DQ168846.1)	Heat	2.18 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(60)
8. Sewage treatment plant D	<i>Bifidobacterium boum</i> (AY166529.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (FJ876436.1)	Heat	1.32 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(60)

	<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1)			
	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (FM994940.1)			
	<i>Lactobacillus fermentum</i> (GQ131282.1)			
	<i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> (FJ915705.1 and FJ915706.1)			
	Uncultured bacterium (AB441617.1)			
9. Intertidal sludge	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. (GQ180912)	Freeze and thaw	0.15 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(61)
	<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> (GQ180905 and GQ180906)			
	<i>Clostridium</i> sp. (GQ180907, GQ180908, GQ180910 and GQ180911)			
	<i>Enterococcus faecium</i> (GQ180909)			

2.3. Effects of operation conditions on hydrogen production by sludge inocula

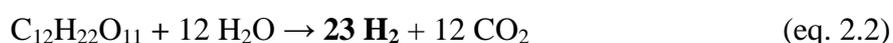
2.3.1. Effects of substrate

H₂ research aims to integrate dark fermentation with waste management. Therefore, many researchers are focusing on H₂ production from organic waste in various streams of waste (Appendix 1-1 to 1-4). Organic substrates found in wastewaters are cheap and easily available. Hence, they can be used in dark fermentation for H₂ production. However, wastewaters are not usually sufficiently nutritious to support H₂ production and it is not practical to continuously supply the fermentation process with costly nutrients such as glucose, peptone and yeast extract. One of the solutions is to improve the nutrient content using a combination of different types of wastewaters (92). The production of H₂ significantly increases by combining two different types of waste. For example, food wastewater or cassava stillage is rich in carbohydrate and sewage sludge is rich in nitrogen and other micro nutrients. When these combined substrates were applied in dark fermentation, H₂ yield increased by 0.63 fold (92). This shows that mixing carbohydrate and nitrogen-rich substrates improves the nutrient content in fermentations and increases H₂ yield. In addition, waste from different resources contains varieties of bacteria. The synergetic interaction between microflora from different waste resources also contributes to improved H₂ yield from the combined wastes (48). A combination of wastes from different sources provides an opportunity to enhance H₂ production by improving the nutrient content and microbiological profile in the fermentation system.

A balanced concentration of substrate also plays an important role in H₂ production. It is logical to assume that H₂ production increases with substrate concentration. For example, it was found that when the cellobiose concentration increased 2 fold, the H₂ yield increased

from 1.57 to 2.19 mol H₂/mol hexose (52). A relatively low substrate concentration is only sufficient to support biomass growth and hence H₂ production is restricted (32-35). However, an excessive amount of substrate does not always ensure high H₂ production. This is because an excessive amount of substrate increases osmotic pressure and hence inhibits HPB growth. Furthermore, excess substrate inhibits H₂ production by shifting fermentation pathways to produce alcohol and/or lactic acid. This will be further discussed in the next section (46). On the other hand, in the case of ineffective sludge pretreatment, a high substrate concentration provokes methane production from methanogens. When the substrate is in excess, it is rapidly converted into H₂ and this leads to the accumulation of H₂. The increase in H₂ partial pressure triggers methane production from methanogens that are still in the sludge because H₂ is the intermediate precursor for methane production (93). This can be prevented by reducing the substrate input for H₂ production as suggested by Chen *et al.* (93). Thus, a reasonable amount of substrate in the fermentation is important because limited or excessive substrates inhibit H₂ production.

Accessibility of HPB to substrates directly influences the sustainability of H₂ production. Simple substrates such as glucose and lactose are easily accessible for H₂ production. Theoretically, 1 mole of glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆) should produce 12 moles of H₂ (eq. 2.1), while 1 mole of lactose (C₁₂H₂₂O₁₁) will produce 23 moles of H₂ (eq. 2.2).

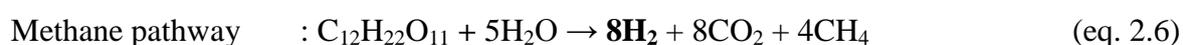
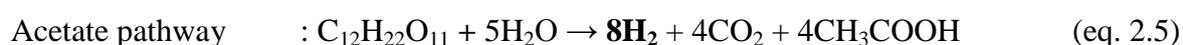


Nevertheless, dark fermentation is less efficient in terms of converting substrates to H₂ because most thermal enthalpies are lost in the formation of volatile fatty acids (VFA). Typically, the maximum energy conversion from glucose to H₂ is only 33% via the acetate pathway (eq. 2.3) and 17% via the butyrate pathway (eq. 2.4). Meanwhile the efficiency of lactose conversion to H₂ is only 31% via the acetate and methane pathways (eq. 2.5 and 2.6) (18, 29, 30).

Glucose fermentation



Lactose fermentation



However, achieving the theoretical maximum H₂ yield is not feasible. Currently, the highest reported H₂ yield is only 2.3 mol H₂/mol glucose which is only about 50% of the theoretical maximum H₂ yield (31). This phenomenon is caused by (1) the rapid conversion of substrate into cell biomass instead of H₂ (32-35) and (2) an inappropriate combination of fermentation conditions as discussed in this paper. It is postulated that mixed microflora in the seed sludge could overcome this problem via the synergetic interaction among the different bacteria because they can adapt to a wider range of conditions.

2.3.2. Effects of pH

The reported optimum pH for H₂ production is in the range of pH 6 – 8 (Appendix 1-1 to 1-4). This represents the pH range that supports the growth of many HPB including *C. butyricum*, *C. beijerinckii*, *C. tyrobutyricum* and *C. saccharoperbutylacetonicum* (35, 42, 46, 53, 61, 94-96). An optimum pH helps to maintain the surface charge on the cell membrane which facilitates nutrient uptake and hence sustains growth of HPB (46, 94). In addition, HPB contains the essential enzyme, hydrogenase, which plays the most important role in H₂ production. Hydrogenase is reported to function optimally at a pH range of 6 – 6.5 (97, 98). Evidence of this was seen in a study when H₂ production at a pH level lower than 6 was reduced by half (50) or completely ceased (42). This shows that pH plays a critical role in sustaining the growth of HPB and the activity of hydrogenase in H₂ production.

It is also noteworthy that the buffer capacity of the fermentation medium plays an important role in regulating the pH in order to achieve optimum H₂ production. Unlike synthetic mediums, natural buffering capacity does not occur in most of the waste resources, hence utilizing waste resources to produce H₂ is hampered (67). Some researchers have suggested that batch fermentation should be initiated at a higher pH level (pH 8–10) (78, 99, 100) because high initial pH will buffer acid production accordingly and prevent a sharp pH reduction (94). Zhao *et al.* (100) and Lee *et al.* (101) stressed that the medium will become more acidic over time due to the production and accumulation of organic acids during the fermentation process. Hence, a stable pH in the medium is essential to sustain optimum H₂ production.

2.3.3. Effect of temperature

Temperature determines the physiological activities of HPB. The fermentation temperature for most of the H₂ productions was reported in the mesophilic range (20–45°C) (Appendix 1-1 to 1-4). This is because most of the HPB present in the seed sludge are mesophiles such as *Clostridium* spp., *Enterobacter* spp., and *Bacillus* spp. that grow in this temperature range (53, 102, 103). However, H₂ production is only vigorous in a narrow range of temperatures even though HPB may grow in a wide temperature range. For example, Mu *et al.* (104) detected HPB growth at 33–41°C but the highest H₂ yield was obtained at 39°C. From the literature, the most promising temperature range for H₂ production is 35–37°C (31, 63, 81). This suggests that HPB are only physiologically active in a narrow temperature range for H₂ production despite their ability to grow in a wide temperature range.

Furthermore, it is argued that H₂ production at higher temperatures (>45 °C) is favorable. This is because H₂ gas is less soluble at high temperatures (46, 105, 106). It is also interesting to note that hydrogenase is reported to function optimally in the range of 50–70°C despite many HPB being identified as mesophiles (46, 105, 106). This leads to the identification of several thermophiles that belong to the *Thermoanaerobacterium* genus which produce H₂ at thermophilic temperatures (>45 °C) (55, 70, 107). These bacteria can produce up to 1.96 mol H₂/mol hexose at 60°C after 48 hours (55). Thus, thermophiles are suitable to be used in warm or even hot wastewater, such as beverage producing, food processing or pulp and paper industries, because they are able to tolerate a high operation temperature. Temperature is a crucial parameter in dark fermentation because temperatures outside the suitable range will restrain H₂ production.

2.3.4. Effects of nutrients and inhibitors

A. Effects of organic acids

Fermentative H₂ production is accompanied by the formation of volatile fatty acids (VFA) such as acetate, butyrate, propionate, lactate, formate and ethanol. Productions of VFA via different fermentation pathways are influenced by the variety of HPB present in the seed sludge which in turn is determined by the pretreatment method. These pathways are indicated by the ratio of acetate to butyrate which is clearly listed in (Appendix 1-1 to 1-4). When the ratio of acetate to butyrate is larger than one, it represents an acetate pathway (eq. 2.3). Meanwhile, a ratio that is smaller than one indicates the butyrate pathway (eq. 2.4). This further emphasizes that H₂ yield is strongly related to the selection of the pretreatment method because this determines the variety of HPB that produces H₂.

In strict anaerobes, the fermentative pathways are divided into two main routes: acidogenesis (acid production) and solventogenesis (solvent production) (Figure 2.2). These pathways are usually efficiency indicators of H₂ production (35, 108). Generally, glucose undergoes glycolysis to produce pyruvate with NADH as the electron donor. The electrons generated from the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate are transferred to protons and then hydrogenase reduces the protons to molecular H₂ gas. In acidogenesis, the production of acetate is normally the preferred pathway in H₂ production (35, 37, 60, 109). The ideal H₂ yield is 4 mol/mol of hexose via the acetate pathway but it is halved via the butyrate pathway (35, 40, 110, 111). It has been reported that a protein-rich substrate favors the acetate pathway but a carbohydrate-rich substrate favors the butyrate pathway (92). On the other hand, other acidogenesis pathways which produce VFA such as lactate or propionate have been reported to inhibit H₂ production (35, 60, 105). In contrast to acidogenesis, H₂ production in solventogenesis is accompanied by the production of solvents such as ethanol and butanol. However, solventogenesis usually does not encourage high H₂ yield because solvents like ethanol has bactericidal effects (35). During batch fermentation, the switch from the acidogenesis to the solventogenesis pathway triggers the buildup of biogas partial pressure, the accumulation of VFA, and the reduction of fermentative pH (13, 35, 84, 112-114). The direction of the fermentative pathway directly influences the quality of H₂ yield in which the acetate and butyrate pathways are the more favorable directions.

Organic acids can act as a supplementary and/or inhibitory factor to H₂ production. Productions of acetate and butyrate are usually associated with high H₂ production but an accumulation of these acids will negatively impact H₂ production (Figure 2.3a). For instance, it has been found that fermentation supplemented with excess butyrate inhibited H₂ production from kitchen waste (109) and acetate inhibited H₂ production from glycerol (84). Studies have also shown that the H₂ yield from apple pomace was reduced by at least 5% with the addition of acetate and butyrate (74). In contrast, other organic acids that have been reported as indicators of low H₂ production such as lactate and propionate can be potential supplements when present at a threshold concentration (74). When added to fermentations, lactate and propionate can trigger a positive reaction to induce higher H₂ production via the pyruvate pathway (Figure 2.3b). For example, it was reported that the addition of lactate at a concentration of 650 mg/L enhanced H₂ production by up to 37%; and propionate increased H₂ yield by 28% (74). The concentration of organic acids in the fermentation medium regulates H₂ production with the control of different feedback mechanisms.

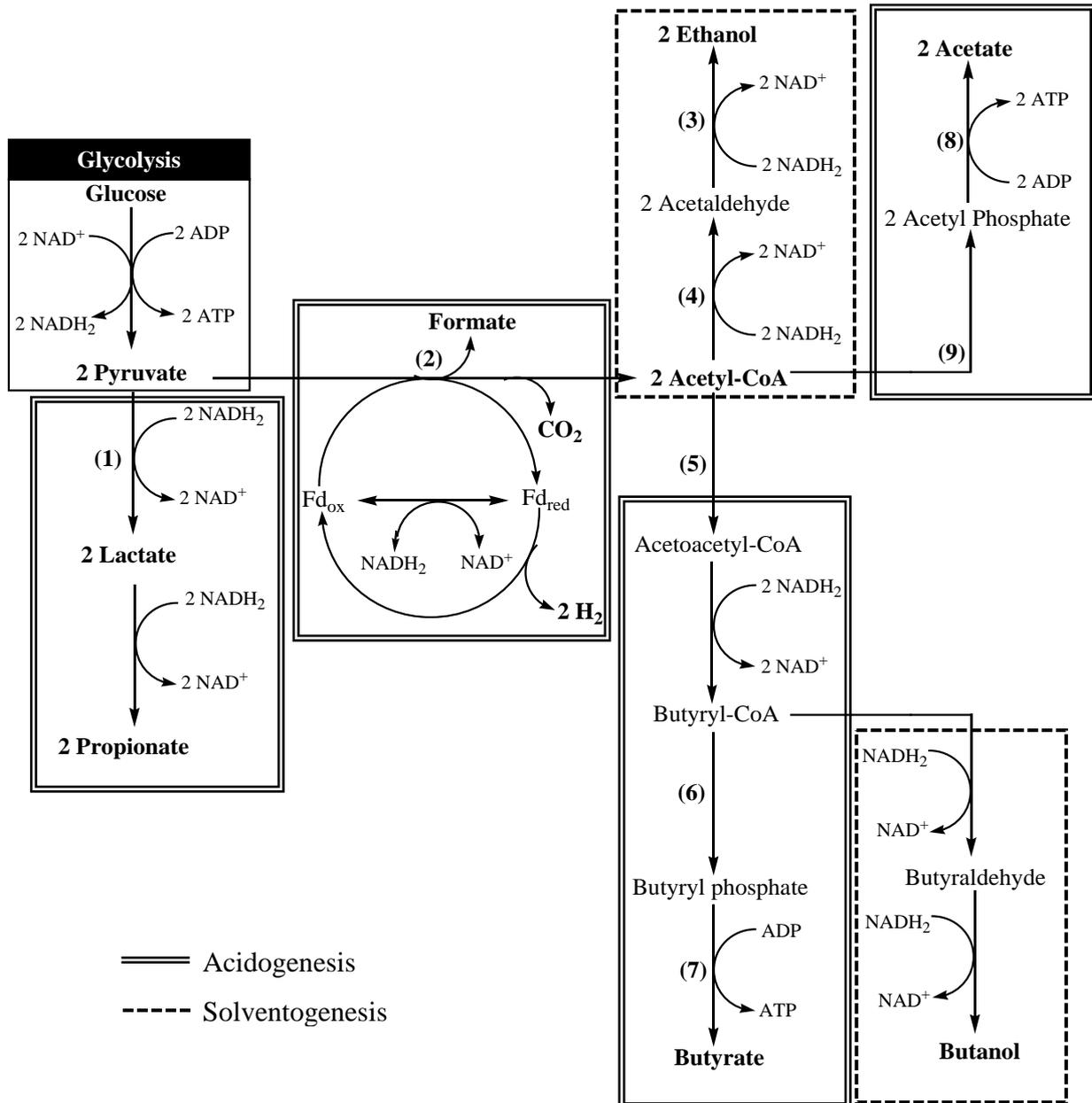


Figure 2.2: The connection of glycolytic pathway for glucose fermentation with organic acid and solvent production from pyruvate by strict anaerobes. Numbers in brackets represents key enzymes: (1) lactate dehydrogenase; (2) pyruvate formate lyase; (3) ADH: alcohol dehydrogenase; (4) acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; (5) thiolase; (6) phosphotransbutylase; (7) butyrate kinase; (9) phosphotransacetylase; (8) acetate kinase.

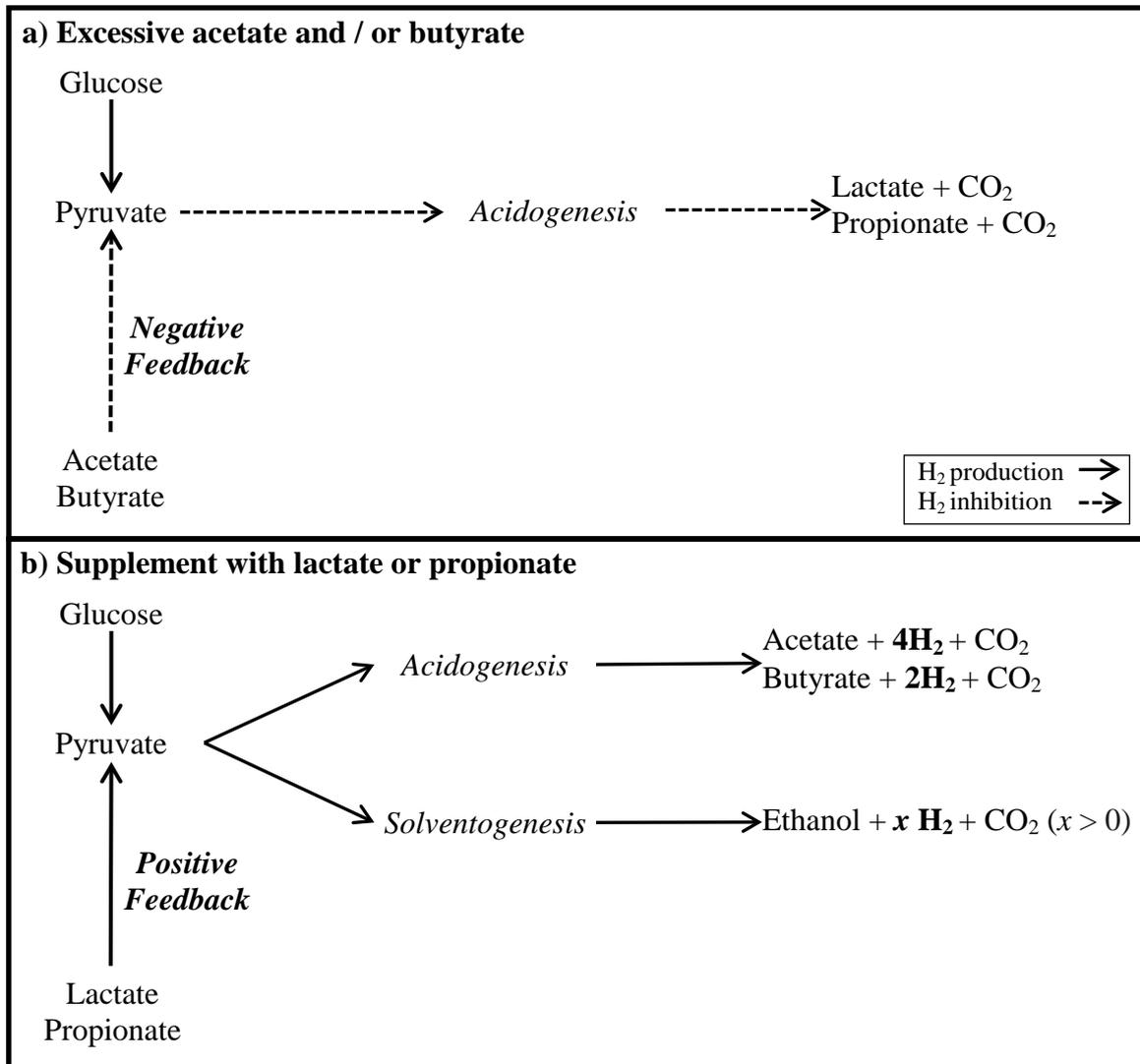


Figure 2.3: Relationship between fermentation products and H₂ production. (a) event of H₂ inhibition due to accumulation of acetate and/or butyrate; (b) event of H₂ production supplemented by lactate and propionate.

B. Effects of macro- and micronutrients

The macronutrients in dark fermentation are carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and phosphorous (P) and these are usually the essential nutrients (45, 51, 106, 115). Carbon content is solely contributed by the substrate from which H₂ is produced as discussed in section 2.3. Nitrogen can be in various forms such as protein, nitrate, nitrite and ammonium. The presence of ammonium in fermentation is essential because it does not only serve as a nutrient for bacterial growth but also provides a slight buffering capacity in the medium against the production of organic acids (116, 117). However, it is argued that nitrogen content

is not essential because it does not influence the production of total biogas but might affect the lag time of gas production (84). Phosphorous is usually present in the form of phosphate. Argun *et al.* (118) showed that the maximum H₂ was produced at C/P ratio of 1000 (equivalent to C/N/P of 100/0.5/0.1). Consequently, a balanced nutrient level is essential for optimum H₂ production.

Metal ions are micronutrients for fermentation. Nickel (Ni) and iron (Fe) serve as the co-factors for hydrogenase (119). Hydrogenase is the main enzyme responsible for H₂ production. It is classified according to the metal component in the active site commonly Ni-Fe and Fe-Fe (120, 121). Therefore, fermentation medium supplemented with Ni and Fe enhances H₂ production (48, 63, 122). It was reported that a fermentation medium supplemented with 0.1 mg/L Ni resulted in a 2.4 fold increase in H₂ yield compared to non-supplemented fermentations (63), whereas a fermentation medium with increased Fe concentration of 18 to 55 mg/L improved H₂ yield by 1.5 fold and shortened the lag phase by 0.33 fold (48). Other metal ions including zinc (Zn), copper (Cu) and chromium (Cr) are also found to be beneficial to other key enzymes including dehydrogenase, dismutase, hydrogenase and methyltransferase (123). The threshold concentrations of Zn, Cu and Cr are reported as 0.24 mg/L, 3.0 mg/L and 15 mg/L respectively. Once the concentration exceeds the threshold limit, these elements become toxic to HPB. For instance, the yield of H₂ was reduced by half when the concentration of Zn, Cu and Cr exceeded the threshold concentration (124). Additional metal ions at appropriate concentrations can enhance H₂ production accordingly by regulating the activity of the enzymes involved in the process.

Metal ions can also stabilize H₂ production and improve the H₂ production processes (50, 119). Calcium (Ca) concentration in the range of 50–150 mg/L stabilizes and improves H₂ production (48, 125, 126). Adding molybdate (Mo) favors the H₂ production process because it inhibits sulphate reduction and methane production (122, 127). Niu *et al.* (50) reported that a low concentration of Mo (0.0042 mg/L) could increase H₂ yield by 29%. Overall, metal ions assist in obtaining high H₂ yield by alleviating fermentation conditions.

2.4. Conclusion

The benchmark of H₂ production from sludge via dark fermentation is summarized in Table 2.8. The selection of pretreatment methods determines the variety of HPB preserved in the seed sludge. The activity of HPB is influenced by various fermentation conditions,

including type of substrate, fermentation pH and temperature, and types of nutrients, supplements and inhibitors. With the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of these conditions, we can further enhance H₂ production via dark fermentation.

Table 2.8: Summary of factors responsible and recommended conditions for high H₂ production from seed sludge via dark fermentation

Parameters	Reported range	Recommended conditions
Pretreatment temperature	65 – 100°C for 15 – 90 min	65°C for 30min or 100°C for 15 min
Fermentation pH	pH 6 – 8	pH 6.0 – 6.5
Fermentation temperature	20 – 45°C	35 – 37°C
Micronutrients concentration	N.A.	Ni 0.1 mg/L; Fe 55 mg/L; Zn ≤ 0.24 mg/L; Cu ≤ 3.0 mg/L; Cr ≤ 15 mg/L; Ca 50–150 mg/L; Mo 0.0042 mg/L

Hydrogen production from seed sludge via dark fermentation can be a sustainable approach for long term fuel supply. We have presented the importance of sludge enrichment using different pretreatment methods and have revealed that heat pretreatment is the most frequently applied and the most effective method to eliminate HCB while preserving HPB. In addition, the enriched sludge requires optimum fermentation conditions in order to produce H₂ optimally through the correct fermentation pathway. However, the current fermentation conditions only enable the enriched sludge to produce up to 2.3 mol H₂/mol glucose via dark fermentation. This is still far from the theoretical value of 4 mol H₂/mol glucose. To further enhance the H₂ yield from seed sludge as inoculum, the challenges ahead are to investigate:

- (1) The type of pretreatment methods with appropriate condition and duration that can effectively enrich HPB in seed sludge in order to achieve maximum H₂ production;
- (2) The combination of fermentation conditions that can direct HPB into the correct fermentation pathway for optimum H₂ production.

Chapter 3

High efficiency bio-hydrogen production from glucose by an inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge

The work presented in this chapter has been partly submitted for peer review:

Wong YM, Juan JC, Ting A, Wu TY. High efficiency bio-hydrogen production from glucose revealed in an inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge. *Energy*. 2014;72(0): 628 – 635

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 3

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 3, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Analysis and interpretation of data	100
Drafting and writing the publication	95

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Adeline Ting	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Wu Ta Yeong	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

3.0. Introduction

Hydrogen (H_2) is a promising alternative to fossil fuels. Unlike fossil fuels, combustion of H_2 , combustion of H_2 does not produce greenhouse gases and hence will not induce global warming (128-130). It possesses high energy yield per unit weight (141.9 J/kg) (8). Moreover, H_2 can be produced biologically from various types of organic-rich waste such as stillage, sludge, leachate, pomace, stalks and bagasse (66, 110, 131-134). Hence, bio- H_2 production assists in waste reduction. In conjunction with rapid depletion of fossil fuels reserves, H_2 has growing importance as the clean and sustainable energy.

It has recently been noted that mixed microbial communities in wastewater sludge is a convenient source of inoculum for fermentative H_2 production (135). Mixed microbial community helps to enhance H_2 production due to the symbiotic interactions between H_2 -producing bacteria (HPB) and other bacteria (136, 137). In order to enrich HPB in seed sludge, many researchers have reported on the application of heat pretreatment on various sources of sludge including sludge of sewage (31, 63), compost (130), river sediments (138) and cow dung (139) as inoculum for H_2 production. It was reported that sewage sludge pretreated at 65 °C successfully improved H_2 yield by 8.85 fold to 2.30 mol H_2 /mol glucose as compared to that of untreated sludge (31). Heat pretreatment is the simplest and relatively most effective technique used to remove H_2 -consuming bacteria (HCB) and preserve HPB (31, 36, 41, 78, 140, 141). The difference between HPB and HCB is that majority of HPB belongs to the family Clostridiaceae which forms spores that are heat resistant (31, 140). This allows HPB to survive from the heat pretreatment while removing HCB in the sludge inoculum.

Landfill is a facility built to dispose daily municipal waste. It is rich in organic waste and hence it is usually active in biodegradation. Hence, both landfill leachate and its sludge, which are originated from the landfill, contain diverse microorganism. Currently, there is only one report on using leachate as inoculum to produce H_2 . Watanabe and Yoshino (134) reported that the H_2 -producing microbial community in the landfill leachate was capable of producing 2.67 mol of H_2 per mol of carbohydrate. However, no heat pretreatment was employed to increase H_2 from the landfill leachate sludge. In this study, we study employed landfill leachate sludge as inoculum to produce H_2 . We comprehensively investigated the optimization of H_2 production from the inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge. We also examined the effect of initial pH, fermentation temperature and substrate concentration which have been reported to play a significant role in H_2 production (32-35, 42,

50, 53, 102, 103). To verify the high efficiency of H_2 production from the inoculum of landfill leachate sludge, the kinetics and thermodynamics were analyzed with modified Gompertz model and Gibbs free energy (31, 142-144).

3.1. Methods and Materials

3.1.1. Sampling Sites and samples collection

Jeram Sanitary Landfill (3.189424, 101.366703) is located in Jeram, Selangor, Malaysia. It is designed to receive up to 2000 metric tonnes of municipal solid waste daily with the leachate generation of about $1000 \text{ m}^3/\text{day}$. The sludge was collected from landfill leachate collection pond (Figure 3.1). Simple on-site measurements suggest that the landfill leachate has a slight alkaline pH and low dissolved oxygen (Table 3.1).



Figure 3.1: Landfill leachate collection ponds in Jeram, Selangor

Table 3.1: Landfill leachate characteristics measured in sampling site

Characteristics	Value
pH	8.28 ± 0.08
Dissolved oxygen	$0.15 \pm 0.03 \text{ ppm}$

Haphazard sampling method was adopted in sample collection. Haphazard sampling is a non-systematic sampling method without classical sampling design (145, 146). Sludge was collected from the deepest point of the collection pond using sediment dredge (77933, Forestry-Suppliers, USA) and fresh landfill leachate was collected using water sampler (77222, Forestry-Suppliers, USA). This is method was selected because the leachate

collection ponds is designed in such a way that the sludge is channel to a specific spot, hence a more complex randomized method was not suitable for sludge collection. The collected landfill leachate and sludge was stored in autoclaved bottles. The sludge was sieved through a 400 μm sieve and stored in at 4°C.

3.1.2. Pretreatment of the landfill sludge

The landfill leachate sludge was heat-pretreated at temperatures of 40, 55, 65, 80 and 95°C for 30 min. Subsequently, the pretreated sludge was enriched in Reinforcement Clostridial Medium at 37°C for 24 h. The enrichment is necessary to ensure the consistency of cell count inoculated into the bottles. The untreated inoculum was used as a control.

3.1.3. Hydrogen production from pretreated landfill sludge

Batch mode H_2 production was carrying out in a 200 mL serum bottle containing 150 mL of fermentation media. For each bottle, 2% v/v of seed sludge was added to 150 mL of reaction medium. Biogas produced was collected and the volume was measured using water displacement method as shown in Figure 3.2. All the fermentation processes were conducted in triplicate.

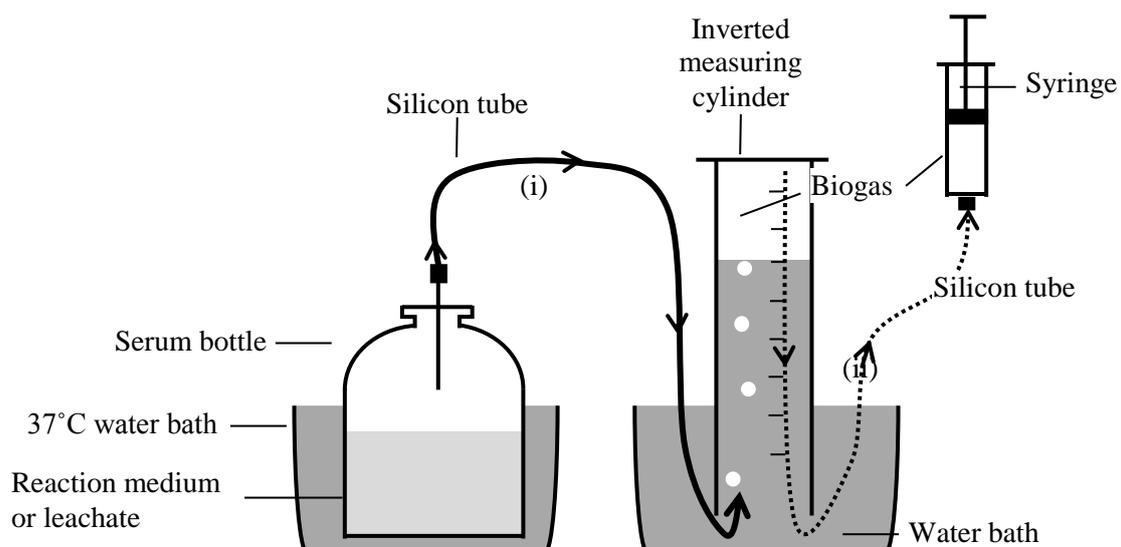


Figure 3.2: Experimental setup of batch mode dark fermentation. Direction (i): the collection of biogas flow from serum bottle to measuring cylinder; direction (ii): the collection of biogas from measuring cylinder to syringe. Silicon tube and syringe were flushed with argon gas.

The effect of initial pH was examined by adjusting the fermentation medium to pH 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 using 5 M NaOH or HCl respectively. The final pH was determined by filtering 5 mL of reaction medium through 0.20 μm millipore filter following by pH measurement using a pH meter (Hanna instruments, HI991001).

In order to investigate the effect of control pH, neutralization with NaOH was adopted from Yang et al. (147) with modifications. The pH control in batch fermentation was conducted in media containing 10 and 20 g/L glucose. The media were spiked with 0.5 mL of 5 M NaOH at specific time intervals as follows and then followed by 48 hours of incubation.

- i. Single neutralization at 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20 and 24 h
- ii. Continuous neutralization at 12 h intervals at 12, 24 and 36h

Batch fermentation with pH control was also conducted in the absence of acetate.

The temperature effects on the hydrogen production were studied by operating batch fermentation at 25, 30, 37, 45, and 50°C. The effects of glucose concentration against the H₂ yield were investigated by using different substrate concentration of 3, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 g/L.

3.1.4. Preparation of fermentation medium

Six media (A, B, C, D, E, & to F) with different composition were used as fermentation medium to test the best medium suitable for hydrogen production. The suitable media were selected based on hydrogen production. The composition of the media was summarized as follows and the detail of the composition was listed in Table 3.2:

1. Medium A contained a double-phosphate buffer system;
2. Medium B contained a single-phosphate buffer system;
3. Medium C and D contained a phosphate buffer system with different varieties of metals;
4. Medium E contained acetate buffer system and it is a commercially produced semisolid medium specialized for Clostridial as well as other anaerobes;
5. Medium F was modified from Medium E with similar composition excluding 'Lab-Lemco' Powder (beef extract), soluble starch and agar.

Since media E is a commercial product and its content was unable to modify, the pH of the other media was adjusted to pH 6 ± 0.05 , in accordance to the measured pH of Media E, using 5M NaOH and 5M HCl. A volume of 150 mL of media was added to 200 mL serum

bottle and purged with argon gas for 2 minute. Fermentative media were subsequently autoclaved at 115 °C for 15 min.

Table 3.2: Compositions of different fermentation media

Media	Composition (g/L)	Ref.
Medium A (Double-phosphate buffer system)	Glucose, (5.0)*; peptone (5.0); K ₂ HPO ₄ (14.0); KH ₂ PO ₄ (6.0); (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ (2.0); trisodium citrate dehydrate (1.0); MgSO ₄ (0.2.0)	(148)
Medium B (Single-phosphate buffer system)	Glucose (5.0)*, peptone (1.0), yeast extract (5.0), NaHPO ₄ (0.1), NaCl (0.5)	(134)
Medium C (Double-phosphate buffer system with metals B)	Glucose (5.0)*; NH ₄ Cl (0.5); KH ₂ PO ₄ (0.5); K ₂ HPO ₄ (0.5); NaHCO ₃ (4.0); FeCl ₂ .4H ₂ O (0.15); MgCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (0.085); ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O (0.01); MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O (0.03); H ₃ BO ₃ (0.03); CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (0.02); CaCl ₂ .2H ₂ O (0.01); NiCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (0.02); Na ₂ MoO ₄ .2H ₂ O (0.03)	(64)
Medium D (single-phosphate buffer system with metals A)	Glucose (5)*, peptone (2); KH ₂ PO ₄ (0.1190); CaCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (0.3232); MgCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (0.2323); KCl (0.1688); MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O (0.0639); CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O (3.87×10 ⁻³); H ₃ BO ₃ (0.74×10 ⁻³); CuCl ₂ .2H ₂ O (0.35×10 ⁻³); Na ₂ MoO ₄ .2H ₂ O (0.33×10 ⁻³); ZnCl ₂ (0.27×10 ⁻³); FeCl ₂ .4H ₂ O (0.0106); sodium thioglycolate (0.02174)	(149)
Medium E (Reinforced Clostridial Medium)	Glucose (5.0)*; yeast extract (3.0); 'Lab-Lemco' powder (10.0); peptone (10.0); soluble starch (1.0); sodium acetate (3.0); NaCl (5.0); cysteine hydrochloride (0.5); ager (0.5)	CM0149, Oxoid
Medium F (Modified Reinforced Clostridial Medium)	Glucose (5.0)*; yeast extract (3.0); peptone (10.0); sodium acetate (3.0); NaCl (5.0); cysteine hydrochloride (0.5)	N.A.

*Glucose concentration was standardized at 5 g/L

3.1.5. Analysis

i. Cell dry mass

Cell dry mass was determined by centrifuging the reaction medium at 5000 ×g for 15 minutes, washing twice with distilled water and drying at 105 °C until three constant weights were gained.

ii. Substrate and product analysis

Glucose and metabolites concentration including acetic acid, butyric acid, lactic acid, formic acid, propionic acid and ethanol were analysed by using a high performance liquid chromatography system (1200 series, Agilent Technologies) equipped with a refraction index detection (RID) and Animex Hi-Plex H column (300×7.7 mm, Agilent). The column temperature and detector temperature were adjusted to 65 and 55°C respectively.

Biogas produced was collected and measured using water displacement method. Subsequently, the yield and composition of biogas was analyzed via a gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) with 2.7 m Hayesep Q column packed with molecular sieve. Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 2 mL/min. Injector, detector and oven temperatures were kept at 100, 150 and 60°C, respectively.

3.1.6. Kinetics study

a) Kinetic of H₂ production by modified Gompertz model

The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative volume of H₂ produced over the time course (31, 143, 144):

$$H = H_{max} \left\{ -e \left[\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}} (\lambda - t) + 1 \right] \right\} \quad (\text{eq. 3.1})$$

where H is the cumulative H₂ production (mol H₂/mol glucose), H_{max} is the maximum H₂ production (mol H₂/mol glucose), R_{max} is the maximum H₂ production rate (mol H₂/mol glucose/h), λ is the lag phase time (h) and t is the incubation time (h), and $\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}}$ represents the rate constant (k). The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative H₂ data, using the OriginPro 8.5.

b) Kinetic of microbial growth by Logistic model

The Logistic model was used to predict microbial growth (144)

$$X = \frac{X_o e^{(Kct)}}{1 - \left(\frac{X_o}{X_{max}} \right) (1 - e^{(Kct)})} \quad (\text{eq. 3.2})$$

where X is the cell mass concentration (g/L); X_o is the initial cell mass concentration; X_{max} is the maximum cell mass concentration; K_c is the specific growth rate; and t is time (h). The data was plotted using the OriginPro 8.5.

3.1.7. Thermodynamic analysis

a) Activation enthalpy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Enthalpy can be determined using Arrhenius approach based on the relationship between the reaction rate constant (k) and temperature (T):

$$k = Ae^{\left(\frac{-\Delta H}{RT}\right)} \quad (\text{eq. 3.3})$$

$$\ln k = \ln A - \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \quad (\text{eq. 3.4})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy, A is the Arrhenius pre-exponential factor and R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol). However, Arrhenius equation is strictly limited to an elementary process and only correlates well to the rate measurements for a single reaction which is free of diffusion and thermal resistance.

Biological H_2 production involves complex enzymatic reactions. Hence, the reaction rate of biological H_2 production increases with temperature up to the threshold temperature (T_{opt}). At temperature higher than T_{opt} biological H_2 production is subjected to thermal deactivation due to denaturation of key enzymes and cell death. According to Fabiano and Perego (142), this situation can be represented by the modified Arrhenius equation as follow:

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(A \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H}{RT}, \quad T < T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 3.5})$$

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(B \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H^*}{RT}, \quad T > T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 3.6})$$

Where H_{max} is the maximum H_2 productivity obtained from modified Gompertz equation, A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, X is the cell mass concentration (g/L), Y is the H_2 yield per unit cell mass (mol H_2 / g cell mass), R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol) and T is temperature in Kelvin (K). In term of enthalpy, ΔH is the fermentation activation enthalpy whereas the thermal deactivation enthalpy (ΔH_d) is determined by

$$\Delta H_d = \Delta H + |\Delta H^*| \quad (\text{eq. 3.7})$$

Thermal deactivation enthalpy represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death.

b) Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation can be determined using the following equation which derived from Eyring and Arrhenius equations (142)

$$\Delta S = R \left(\ln \frac{Ah}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 3.8})$$

$$\Delta S_d = R \left(\ln \frac{Bh}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 3.9})$$

Where A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, h is the Planck's constant (6.63×10^{-34} J.s) and k_b is the Boltzmann's constant (1.38×10^{-23} J/K).

c) Gibbs free energy

Gibbs free energy is determined using the following equation

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (\text{eq. 3.10})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy obtained from equation (eq. 3.5) and ΔS is the activation entropy obtained from equation (eq. 3.8).

3.2. Results and discussion

3.2.1. Screening of fermentation media for hydrogen production

Five media composed of different buffering system were compared with respect to H_2 yield. The recorded H_2 yield and glucose consumption in each medium was presented in Figure 3.3. It was clearly showed that Media E and F were similar with the yield of 3.37 and 3.30 mol H_2 /mol glucose, respectively. H_2 production from Media A and B were found to be less satisfaction with lower yield of 1.31 ± 0.14 and 1.12 ± 0.05 mol H_2 /mol glucose respectively as compared to Media E and F. In contrast, H_2 was not detected from the established Media C and D employed in Chang et al. (64) and Lin et al. (149) studies. Furthermore, the recorded glucose consumption in Media C and D was 0%, indicates that substrate was not consumed for growth and H_2 production. Likewise, glucose consumption in Media A, B, E and F was recorded at 97, 94, 98 and 99% respectively which indicate substrates were utilized for H_2 production. In comparison with Media A, B, E and F, Media C and D consisted of additional metal salts such as iron (Fe), nickel (Ni), calcium (Ca) and molybdate (Mo) which were micronutrients and enzyme co-factors (48, 50, 63, 119, 122). Nonetheless, the addition of trace metals did not improve bacteria performance in producing

H₂. Hence, it is postulated that different buffering agents could cause the variation in H₂ production.

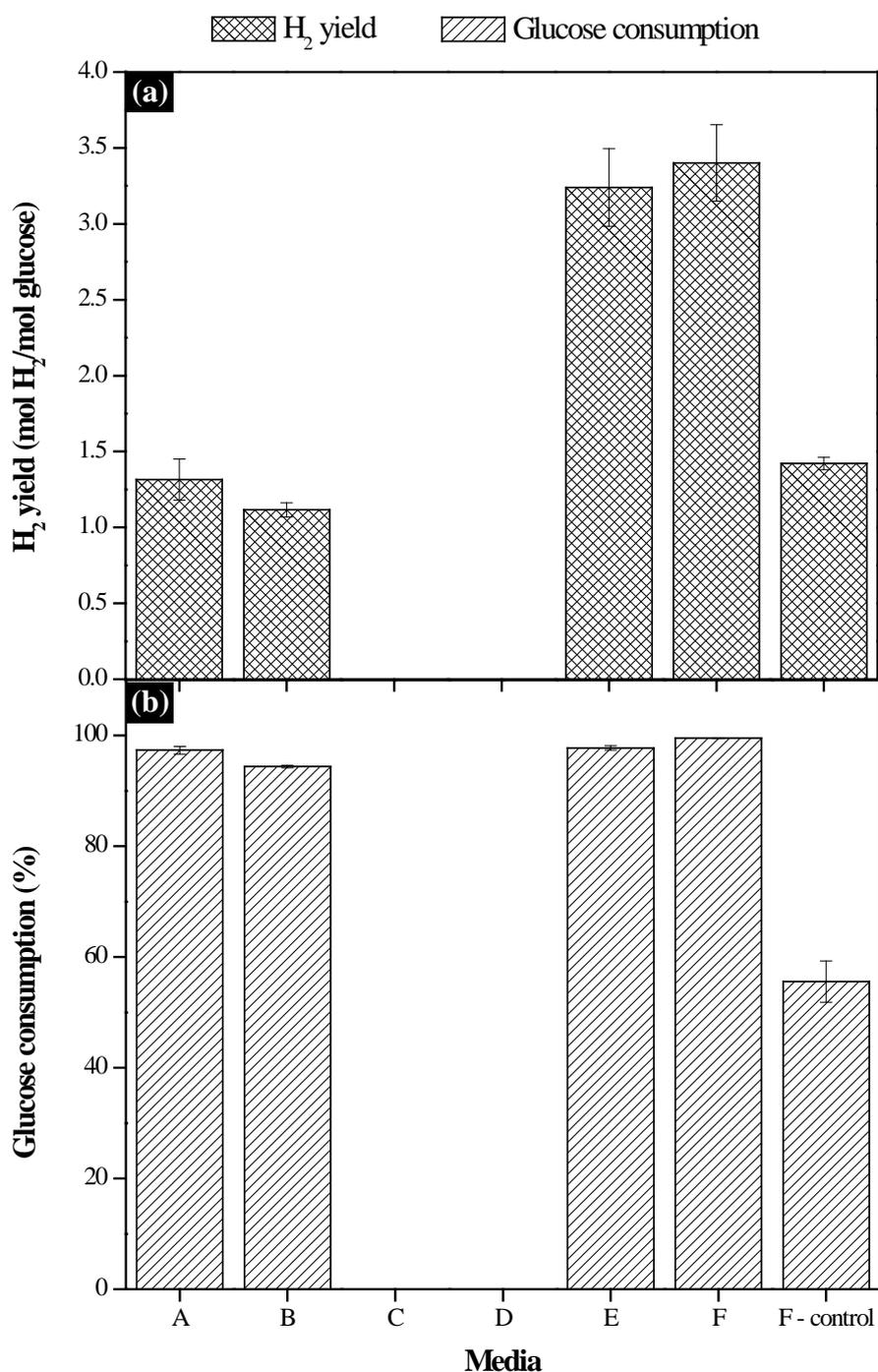


Figure 3.3: (a) Hydrogen production and (b) glucose consumption in media with different buffering system. Medium A and B composed of phosphate buffering system; Medium C and D composed of phosphate buffering system with various trace metal content; Medium E and F composed of acetate buffering system; Medium F-control was a positive control of Medium F but excluding sodium acetate as the buffer. (Fermentation condition: 5 g/L glucose, 37 °C, 48 h and pH 6)

To understand the effect of buffering agents, the characteristics of buffering agent used in the media is summarized in Table 3.3. The calculated buffering capacities in the media fall in the typical buffer range of 0.01 – 0.0001 (150) except for Media D which has the value of 8.78×10^{-5} that was slightly outside this range. This indicates that the buffering system in Media D may not be functioning well. Phosphate buffer system used in Media A – D has a pK_a value of 7.2 (150). According to Henderson-Hasselbach equation, the acceptable buffer range lies around $pK_a \pm 1$. Hence, the phosphate buffering system in Media A – D were estimated to function appropriately in the pH between 6.2 and 8.2. In contrast, acetate buffer adopted in Media E and F has a pK_a value of 4.7, with an effective buffering range of 3.7 to 5.7. As the initial fermentation pH was adjusted to 6.0 ± 0.05 which is closer to the working pH range of sodium acetate buffer and hence it is more effective for pH maintenance. Likewise, phosphate buffer covers buffer region at a higher pH might be the plausible reason of low H_2 yield in Media A – D because it could not withstand the pH drop during fermentation. To further confirm the role of sodium acetate, Medium F without sodium acetate was included as a positive control and the recorded H_2 yield was reduced by 58% as compared to Medium F. This proves that acetate buffer plays a significant role in buffering the pH change during fermentation.

Table 3.3: Characteristics of buffering agents in different fermentation media

Media	Buffer type	pK_a	Buffering pH range ^a	Buffering capacity ^b
A	Phosphate	7.2	6.2 – 8.2	1.60×10^{-2}
B	Phosphate	7.2	6.2 – 8.2	1.07×10^{-4}
C	Phosphate	7.2	6.2 – 8.2	8.41×10^{-3}
D	Phosphate	7.2	6.2 – 8.2	8.78×10^{-5}
E	Acetate	4.7	3.7 – 5.7	3.83×10^{-3}
F	Acetate	4.7	3.7 – 5.7	3.83×10^{-3}

^a Buffering range was determined by the formula: $pH = pK_a \pm 1$

^b Buffering capacity was calculated using the Van Slyke equation (151)

Other than using sodium acetate as effective buffering agent, Media E and F were composed of yeast extract, peptone, glucose, sodium chloride and L-cysteine hydrochloride hydrate. This nutrient formulation is rather simple as compared to Media A – D which included various trace metals. Organic nitrogen was supplied by yeast extract and peptone which contain various free amino acids could be used as building blocks for cell

metabolism and other biochemical reactions (152). Glucose was the sole carbon source and it is well known as the preferred carbon sources by majority of bacteria. Cysteine hydrochloride acted as a reducing agent which reduced oxidation-reduction potential of the fermentation medium and fostered growth of anaerobic bacteria (153). Sodium chloride was the only trace metal in the medium. It is an enzyme cofactor (154) and act as the conjugate base to the acetate buffering system. In comparison with Medium E, Medium F lacked of 'Lab-Lemco' powder, soluble starch and agar. As observed, the amount of H₂ produced from these media was comparable hence excluding these three components did not affect the overall H₂ performance. Thus, Medium F was desired to be used as the fermentation medium for subsequent optimization.

3.2.2. Effects of sludge pretreatment

The effect of sludge pretreatment on H₂ production performance is presented in Figure 1. The results are well fitted using the Modified Gompertz Equation with R² value of more than 0.98 (Table 3.4). According to Gompertz model, the maximum H₂ yield of untreated sludge was only 3.02 mol H₂/mol glucose but drastically increased two fold to 6.43 mol H₂/mol glucose after it was pre-treated at 65°C. It was clearly shown that there was an increased in H₂ yield with increasing pretreatment temperature up to 65°C but reduced at higher temperature up to 95°C. The results suggest that sludge pretreated at 65°C is the best temperature to enrich H₂-producing bacteria, producing twice as much H₂ yield as untreated sludge. This indicates that heat pretreatment has successfully eliminated H₂-producing bacteria and enriched H₂-producing bacteria. Landfill leachate sludge is originated from landfill that is very active in biological decomposition. Thus, it contains diverse microbial community which can be categorized as H₂-consuming and H₂-producing bacteria. The difference between H₂-consuming and H₂-producing bacteria is that majority of H₂-producing bacteria sporulate at high temperature. Sporulation protects H₂-producing bacteria, such as genus *Clostridium*, from heat damage. Likewise, H₂-consuming bacteria which do not form spores are prone to cell lysis at high temperature. This observation is with agreement the study conducted by Baghchehsaraee et al. (31), which they reported that H₂ produced from sludge pretreated at 65°C was increased by 81% as compared to untreated sludge. It is also noteworthy that, the biogas produced from all heat-pretreated sludge only contained H₂ and carbon dioxide. There was no sign of methane in all samples throughout the batch fermentations which indicates that the system is free from methanogenic activities. Since

sludge pretreated at 65°C produced the highest amount of H₂, the same condition is applied in the following optimization studies.

It is surprising that a heat-pretreated sludge was found to give high H₂ yield. One might argue that the outstandingly high activity of the heat-pretreated sludge could be due to co-digestion effect between the sludge and the fermentation medium. Therefore, the co-digestion effect was investigated by measuring the weight difference of the sludge before and after fermentation. To measure the dried weight of sludge, sludge and cell biomass must be separated by centrifugation at 800 rpm for 5 min. It was reported that bacteria cell biomass pelleting at the speed of at least 4000 rpm for 15 min (Peterson et al., 2012, Tazehkand et al., 2008). Since sludge was heavier, centrifugation of the sludge-cell mixture at the minimal speed is sufficient to pelletize sludge while bacteria cell remained in the supernatant. This cycle was repeated for three times by rinsing the pelletized sludge with distilled water to maximize the cell removal. The measured sludge dried weight from 2 % v/v sludge inoculum for before and after fermentation was 0.5771 ± 0.0107 and 0.5751 ± 0.0130 g, respectively. This result demonstrated that there is no significant difference between the weight of sludge before and after fermentation, and thus co-digestion did not occur during fermentation. Furthermore, the productivity of H₂ at different inoculum volume of 1, 2, 5 and 10 % v/v was 3.25 ± 0.18 , 3.40 ± 0.25 , 3.30 ± 0.26 and 3.46 ± 0.23 mol H₂/mol glucose, respectively. This result shows that the inoculum volume does not affect the H₂ productivity under the same fermentation condition (pH 6, 48 h, 37 °C and 5 g/L glucose), which indicate that the compounds naturally present in the sludge inoculum did not co-digested for H₂ production. This is because if co-digestion took place during the fermentation, the H₂ yield will increase with inoculum volume. Therefore, it is concluded that the high H₂ productivity is contributed from the fermentation medium.

Table 3.4: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ in the effect of sludge pre-treatment from Modified Gompertz Equation

Initial pH	H _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu.)	R _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu./h)	k	λ (h)	R ²
untreated	3.02 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.02	9.82 ± 0.49	0.9960
40	3.27 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.01	8.47 ± 0.41	0.9971
50	4.45 ± 0.09	0.29 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.02	8.44 ± 0.60	0.9943
65	6.43 ± 0.16	0.37 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	6.85 ± 0.73	0.9920

80	6.35 ± 0.22	0.34 ± 0.00	0.15 ± 0.02	6.97 ± 0.99	0.9862
95	4.28 ± 0.09	0.27 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.02	6.03 ± 0.68	0.9926

H_{\max} , maximum H_2 production; R_{\max} , maximum H_2 production rate; k , rate constant; λ , lag time

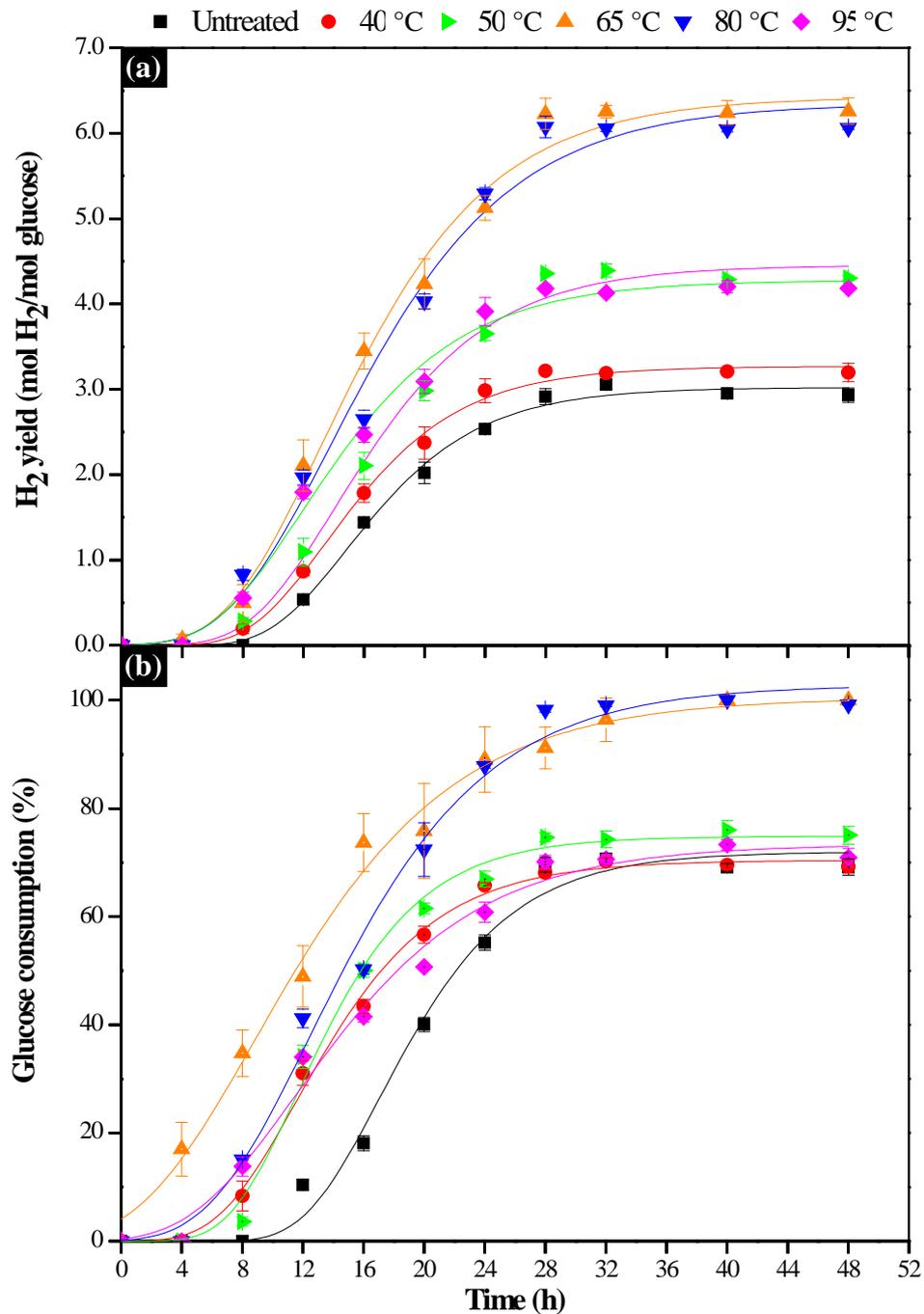


Figure 3.4: (a) Hydrogen production performance and (b) glucose consumption in the effects of pretreatment. Final pH for all conditions were measured at around 4.2 to 4.6. (Fermentation condition: 10 g/L glucose, 37 °C, 48 h and pH 6).

3.2.3. Effects of initial pH

The effect of initial pH on H₂ production performance is displayed in Figure 3.5. The results are well fitted using the Modified Gompertz Equation with R² value of more than 0.99 (Table 3.5). The maximum yield of 6.43 mol H₂/mol glucose was recorded at initial pH 6 with the maximum production rate of 0.37 ± 0.00 mol H₂/mol glucose/h at a lag time of 6.85 ± 0.73 h. In comparison, varied H₂ yield but comparable glucose consumption (100%) was observed at initial pH 8. At pH 8, H₂ production was reduced by 18% to 5.31 mol H₂/mol glucose but the measure cell dry mass was higher (2.512 ± 0.308 g/L) with the shorter lag time of 2.50 ± 0.60 h. This suggests that substrate was rapidly converted into cell mass at higher initial pH. This could be related to original growth pH for the bacteria as the measured pH of landfill leachate was around pH 8 (Section 3.1.1). Therefore, the recorded optimum initial pH for H₂ production and bacterial growth was varied. In contrast, at initial pH 4 H₂ production was completely inhibited with no measured cell mass whereas at initial pH 5 H₂ production was delayed for 16.78 ± 0.35 h with a reduced H₂ yield of 5.48 ± 0.15 mol H₂/mol glucose. This shows that H₂ production and bacterial growth were severely affected by acidic pH and the favourable pH for H₂ production occurred at the slightly acidic condition, pH 6. It has been reported that the functional pH for hydrogenase falls in the range of pH 6 – 6.5 (97, 98). Besides, this pH could suppress the growth of hydrogen consuming bacteria such as methanogens and acetobacteria (42, 61, 130, 155). In addition, pH of medium is the determinant factor of bacterial growth because it affects cell membrane surface charge which eventually influences nutrients absorptions and activities of enzymes (46, 94). Therefore, the optimum initial pH for H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum is pH 6.

Table 3.5: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ in the effect of initial pH from Modified Gompertz Equation

Initial pH	H _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu.)	R _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu./h)	k	λ (h)	R ²
4	0.00	0.0000	0.00	0.00	0.0000
5	5.48 ± 0.15	0.20 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	16.78 ± 0.35	0.9986
6	6.43 ± 0.16	0.37 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	6.85 ± 0.73	0.9920

7	6.22 ± 0.15	0.33 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01	4.58 ± 0.74	0.9920
8	5.31 ± 0.09	0.34 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.01	2.50 ± 0.60	0.9928

H_{\max} , maximum H_2 production; R_{\max} , maximum H_2 production rate; k , rate constant; λ , lag time

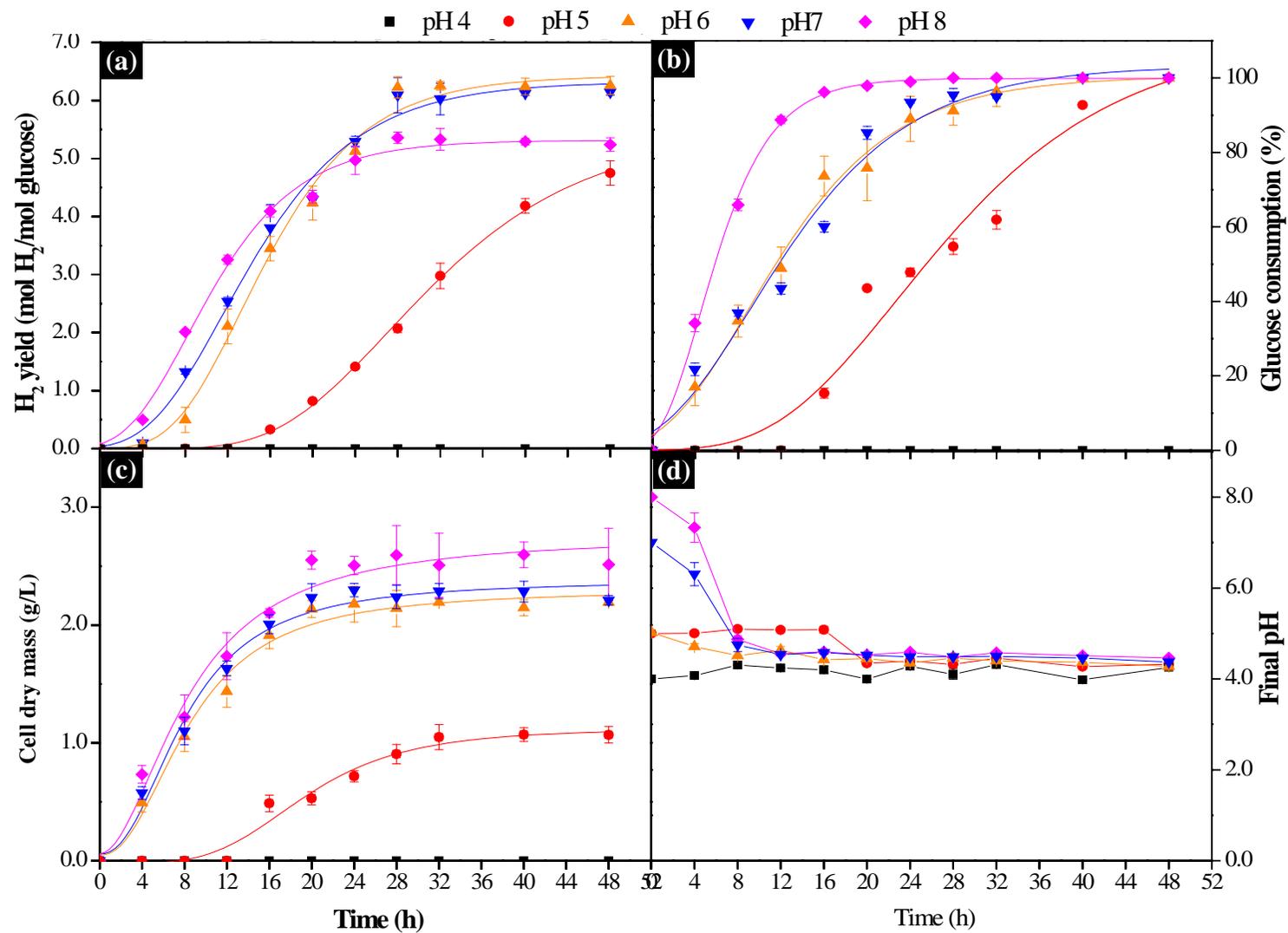


Figure 3.5: Effect of initial pH on (a) H_2 yield; (b) glucose consumption; (c) cell dry mass; and (d) final pH. (Fermentation conditions: 10g/L glucose, 48h and 37°C)

3.2.4. Effects of fermentation temperature

The effect of fermentation temperature on H₂ production performance is displayed in Figure 3.6. The results are well fitted using the Modified Gompertz Equation with R² value of more than 0.97 (Table 3.6). The optimum temperature is recorded at 37°C. At lower temperature, H₂ yield was reduced up to 66% with prolonged lag time up to 27.35 ± 2.82 h. In contrast at high temperature, H₂ yield was reduced by 31% at 45°C and completely inhibited at 50°C. It is observed that H₂ production is associated with microbial growth. The highest cell mass concentration was measured at 37°C when H₂ production was at the maximum. Similarly, when cell growth was not detected at 50°C, H₂ production was inhibited. This is a logic observation as biological H₂ is produce from enzymatic reaction within bacterial cells. The optimum temperature, 37°C, falls in the mesophilic range (15 – 45°C). This is because most of the H₂-producing bacteria are mesophiles such as *Clostridium* spp., *Enterobacter* spp., and *Bacillus* spp. which grow in this temperature range (53, 102, 103). This is in agreement with the literature which reported that 35 – 39°C is the ideal range of temperature for H₂ production (31, 63, 81, 104). This suggests that HPB are only physiologically active in a narrow temperature range for H₂ production despite their ability to grow in a wide temperature range.

Table 3.6: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ in the effect of fermentation temperature from Modified Gompertz Equation

Temp.	H _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu.)	R _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu./h)	k	λ (h)	R ²
25°C	2.19 ± 0.14	0.05 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.03	27.35 ± 2.82	0.9717
30°C	3.40 ± 0.14	0.15 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01	11.92 ± 0.95	0.9909
37°C	6.43 ± 0.16	0.37 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	6.85 ± 0.73	0.9920
45°C	4.46 ± 0.08	0.33 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.02	8.21 ± 0.55	0.9953
50°C	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.0000

H_{max}, maximum H₂ production; R_{max}, maximum H₂ production rate; k, rate constant; λ, lag time

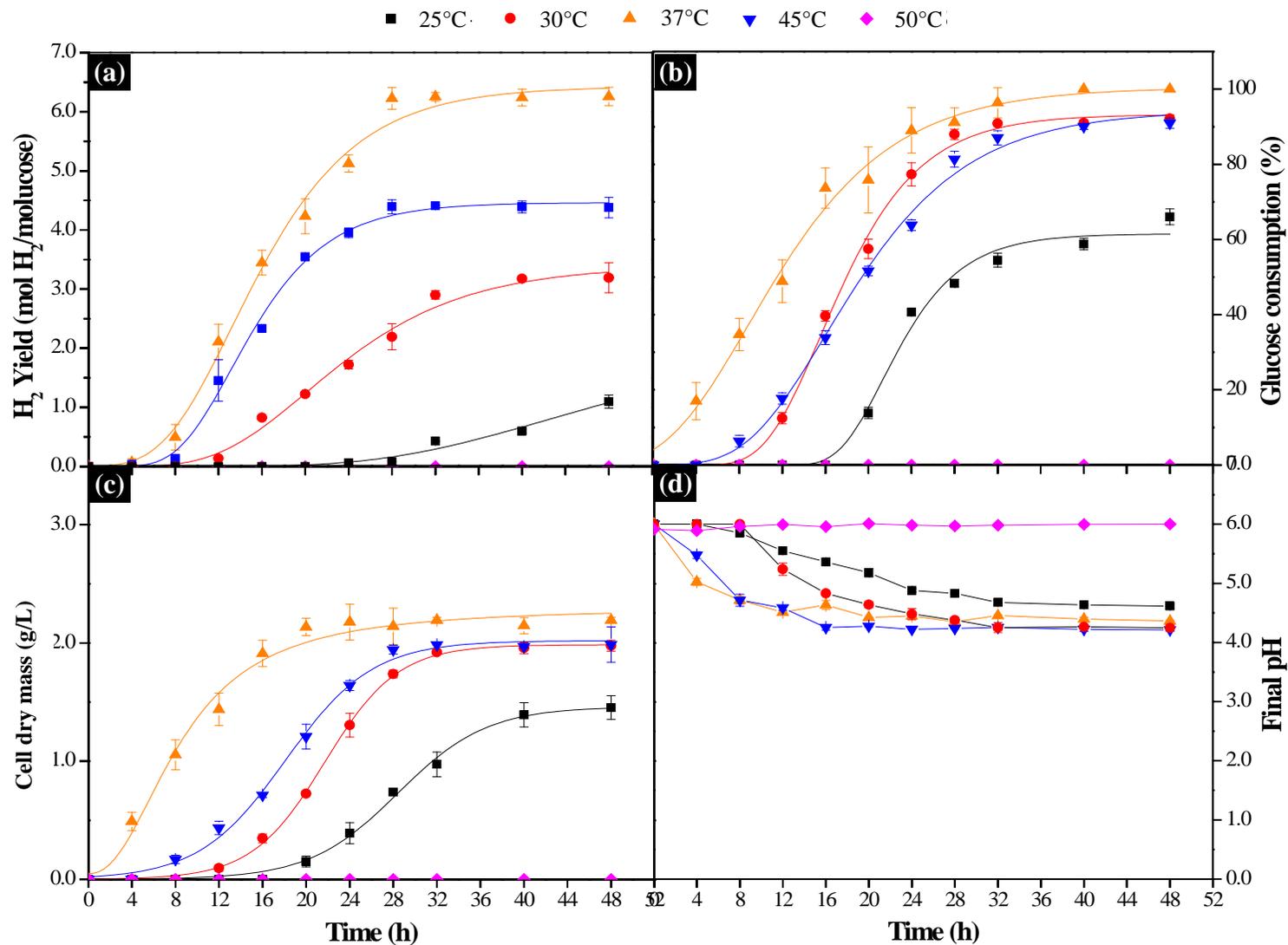


Figure 3.6: Effect of fermentation temperature on (a) H_2 yield; (b) glucose consumption; (c) cell dry mass; and (d) final pH. (Fermentation conditions: 10g/L glucose, 48h and 37°C)

3.2.5. Thermodynamic study

Figure 4 represents the modified Arrhenius plot described by eq. 3.7 and 3.8 with a good regression of 0.9993 and 0.9099, respectively. Table 4 summarizes the thermodynamic parameters calculated from the modified Arrhenius model. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature which is 37.6°C. The calculated Gibbs free energy is -34 kJ/mol. The negative sign represents that H₂ production is an exergonic reaction. This suggests that the high efficiency of H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum is thermodynamically favorable.

The calculated activation enthalpy of fermentation (ΔH) is 68 kJ/mol suggests that H₂ production is an endothermic reaction. This was expected because many enzymatic reactions involve in microbial growth required energy from the hydrolysis of ATP (60, 156). Nonetheless, this value is still within the range for microbial growth (54 – 71 kJ/mol) (142) and for enzymatic reaction (18 – 83 kJ/mol) (72, 142). In contrast, activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (ΔH_d) represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death. The calculated ΔH_d is 113 kJ/mol which is lower than the reported value 290–380 kJ/mol for microbial death (157). This indicates that H₂ production is sensitive to thermal deactivation in term of enzymatic reaction. Nonetheless, this value is similar to the ΔH_d for H₂ production reported by Fabiano and Perego (142) that is 118.1 kJ/mol.

In this study, the activation entropy of fermentation (ΔS) is 0.331 kJ/mol/K. This indicates that the H₂ production is a random reaction. In contrast, activation entropy of thermal deactivation (ΔS_d) is -0.586 kJ/mol/K. The negative sign represents a reduced randomness. This result is similar to those reported by Fabiano and Perego (142) and other enzymes such as cytochrome (158). Interestingly, this is contradicted with the other literatures which reported that deactivation of enzymes increases the randomness of a system ($+\Delta S_d$). However, the significance of negativity was not explained in the literatures (158, 159).

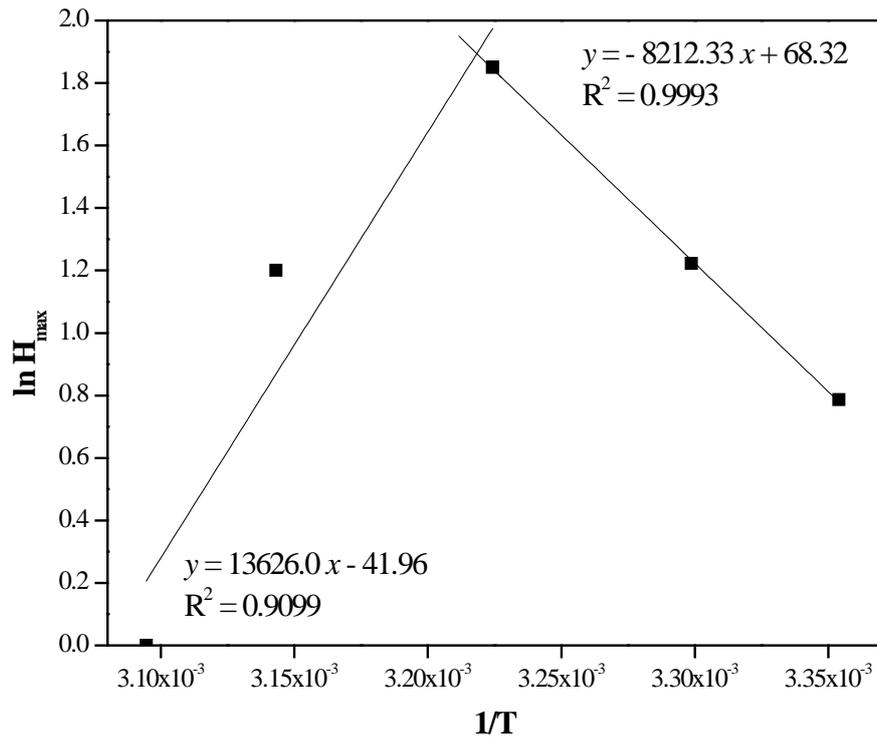


Figure 3.7: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature

Table 3.7: Thermodynamics quantities of H_2 production using landfill leachate sludge inoculum at optimum condition

Thermodynamic parameter	Values
Gibbs free energy (kJ/mol)	- 34
Activation enthalpy of fermentation (kJ/mol)	68
Activation entropy of fermentation (kJ/mol/K)	0.331
Activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol)	113
Activation entropy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol/K)	- 0.586

Reference temperature: 310.15 K. (37°C)

3.2.6. Effects of substrate concentration

The effect of varying substrate concentration on H₂ fermentation performance is shown in Table 3.8. The maximum H₂ yield was exhibited by glucose concentration of 10 g/L. Apparently, same amount of H₂ (0.19 ± 0.03 mmol) was still being detected even no glucose was supplied to the fermentation (0 g/L glucose). This is because the bacteria might be utilizing nitrogen source to generate trace amount of H₂. However, this amount is negligible because it is only represents 0.35% yield. In contrast, there was an increased in H₂ yield with substrate concentrations from 0 to 10 g/L glucose. Increasing glucose concentration improves substrate availability. Substrate, in this case glucose, is the precursor for subsequent metabolites formation and H₂ production via decarboxylation and proton reduction (35, 108). Therefore, increasing glucose concentration improves H₂ production significantly. However, at subsequent high glucose concentration up to 25 g/L, a reduction in H₂ production with a higher measured cell dry mass was observed. This suggests that substrate was rapidly converted into cell mass instead of H₂. Evidently, glucose was also less effectively utilized with the glucose consumption of 52–67%. Therefore, at higher substrate concentration, H₂ production is subjected to substrate inhibition.

Table 3.8: Effects of substrate concentration on H₂ yield, final pH, glucose concentration and cell dry mass

Glucose conc. (g)	C:N	Hydrogen yield			Final pH	Glucose Consumption (%)	Cell dry mass (g/L)
		mol H ₂ / mol glu.	mmol H ₂				
1. 0	0.0	N.A.	0.19 ± 0.03	5.49 ± 0.01	0.00 ± 0.00	N.D. ^a	
2. 5	1.0	3.40 ± 0.25	14.66 ± 1.08	4.44 ± 0.06	99.53 ± 0.09	1.22 ± 0.12	
3. 10	2.5	6.43 ± 0.16	53.98 ± 1.51	4.20 ± 0.01	100.00 ± 0.00	2.19 ± 0.02	
4. 10 ^b	0.0	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	
5. 15	4.0	3.60 ± 0.12	46.22 ± 1.58	4.39 ± 0.10	67.49 ± 2.02	2.36 ± 0.05	
6. 20	5.0	3.08 ± 0.13	46.23 ± 1.61	4.17 ± 0.05	51.73 ± 3.76	2.54 ± 0.10	
7. 25	6.0	2.06 ± 0.10	42.94 ± 1.99	4.28 ± 0.02	52.61 ± 2.53	2.57 ± 0.04	

N.A., Not available; N.D., Not detected

^a Upon the end of fermentation, the media turned slightly cloudy but cell dry mass was too small to be measured.

^b No nitrogen source was added to the optimum condition.

According to law of mass action, rate of fermentation increases with the substrates concentration (160). This phenomenon occurred when glucose concentration was increased from 5 to 10 g/L, the H₂ yield was doubled. At higher glucose concentration, the availability of glucose prompted the reaction towards product formation (in this case H₂ and organic acids production) in order to reach equilibrium. However, like other enzymatic reactions, maximum H₂ production rate increases only up to the optimum substrate concentration (160). It is observed that H₂ production was reduced by 68% when glucose concentration was elevated to 25 g/L. On the basis of law of mass action, it is reasonably assumed more organic acids will be produced along with H₂ production due to higher rate of glucose uptake. Nevertheless, higher substrate concentrations could induce a “shock load” during fermentation and eventually lead to product or feedback inhibition (161). As a consequence, feedback inhibition might be triggered in which glucose consumption is reduced. This causes chain effects that reduce the availability of subsequent metabolites, such as reduced-ferredoxin which is responsible for proton reduction, and hence inhibit H₂ production.

It is also important to note that nitrogen source plays an important role in H₂ production. When no nitrogen source was supplied to the fermentation, no sign of growth and production of H₂ were detected (Table 5, no. 4). The proportion of substrate and nitrogen in fermentation medium is measured by the ratio of carbon to nitrogen (C:N). The highest amount of H₂ was produced from the C:N of 2.5 (Table 5, no. 3). Ratio that deviates from 2.5 represents a disproportion of substrate and nitrogen which leads to reduction of H₂ yield. Despite H₂ yield was reduced, the measured cell dry mass was higher at ratio 4.0 – 6.0. This suggests that substrate was rapidly converted into cell mass instead of H₂ production and this was also observed by Bao et al. (136). The reduced H₂ yield could be related to the electron flow interference caused by the carbon-concentrated but nitrogen-limited growth. When electron flow was interrupted, metabolic pathways shifted to form more reduced compounds like butyrate and lactate. This observation is with agreement the studies conducted by Lin and Lay (115). Therefore, appropriate ratio, in this case C:N 2.5, diverts metabolic pathways to one which promotes H₂ production.

3.2.7. Effects of neutralization with NaOH on H₂ production and glucose consumption

H₂ production from media containing higher substrate concentration can be improved by NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals. As shown in Figure 3.8(b), H₂ produced from 20 g/L glucose improved when the media was neutralized with NaOH. The highest yield was exhibited by neutralization at exponential phase (10 and 12 h) with the yield of 4.55 ± 0.12 and 4.56 ± 0.15 mol H₂/mol glucose respectively. It is interesting to note that the H₂ yield did not improve even after neutralization from 14 h onwards. Without NaOH neutralization in 20 g/L glucose, substrate consumption was recorded at 46% whereas with neutralization, the percentage of substrate consumption was increased accordingly. In contrast, H₂ produced from 10 g/L glucose was not influenced by NaOH neutralization and substrate consumption was recorded at 53% by 12h and completely consumed by 48h (Figure 3.9). The final pH in all fermentations were recorded in the range of 4.2 – 4.4. The variation in H₂ production can be explained by acid crash. Acid crash occurs when the medium pH is too low which in turn leads to deactivation of key enzymes, inhibition of H₂ production and cell growth. In this study, acid crash was not observed at 10 g/L glucose but at 20 g/L glucose. It is observed that acid crash can be prevented by NaOH neutralization between 10 – 12 h but not after 12 h. This result is agreed well with the previous report (147) that acid crash can be prevented by neutralization at exponential phase. Failing to control pH at the specific time frame induces permanent inhibition effect on cell growth. In addition, adequate substrate concentration prevents acid crash (162). This is also consistent with the results in this study in which H₂ yield produced from optimum substrate concentration (10 g/L glucose) was not influenced by neutralization. Therefore, NaOH neutralization in media containing higher substrate concentration is essential to prevent acid crash that inhibits H₂ production.

To further improve substrate consumption and H₂ production, continuous neutralization was conducted in a 12 h interval. As shown in Figure 3.10, continuous neutralization improved glucose consumption 100% which in turn enhanced H₂ production. It is observed that final pH from continuous neutralization was in the range of 5.11 to 5.41 which is higher than controls. This observation is logical because neutralization at 12 h resets the starting point of fermentation which means 24 h marks the second exponential phase. However, the higher final pH suggested that the third exponential phase (36 h) was not essential because the remaining substrate could be little and hence organic acids and H₂ production were slowing down or stopped. This shows that continuous neutralization is important to improve substrate consumption and H₂ production but the frequency can be varied depending on the remaining substrate in the medium.

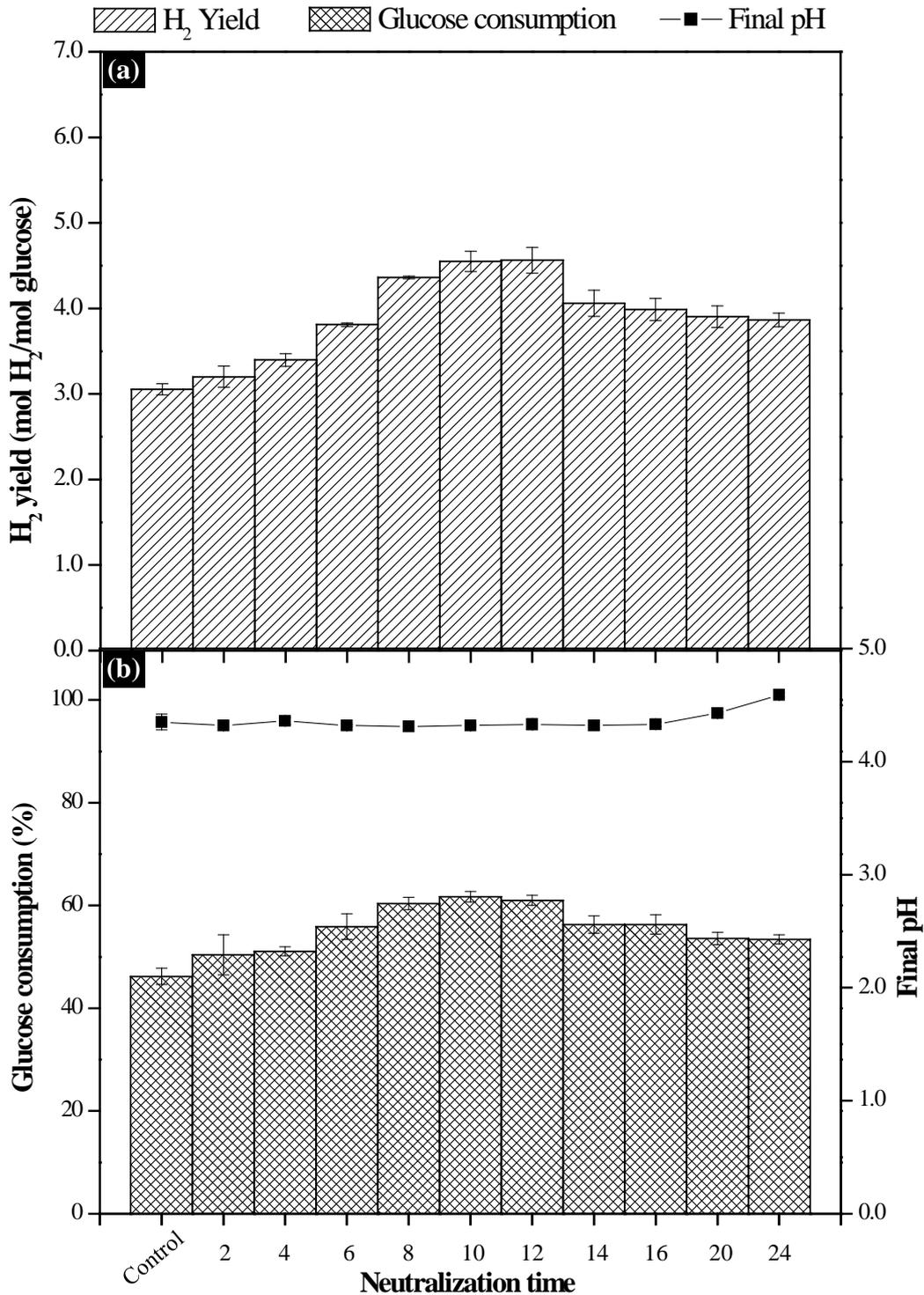


Figure 3.8: Effect of NaOH neutralization on substrate concentration 20 g/L glucose at specific time intervals (a) H₂ production performance and (b) glucose consumption and final pH. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 20 g/L glucose, 48h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).

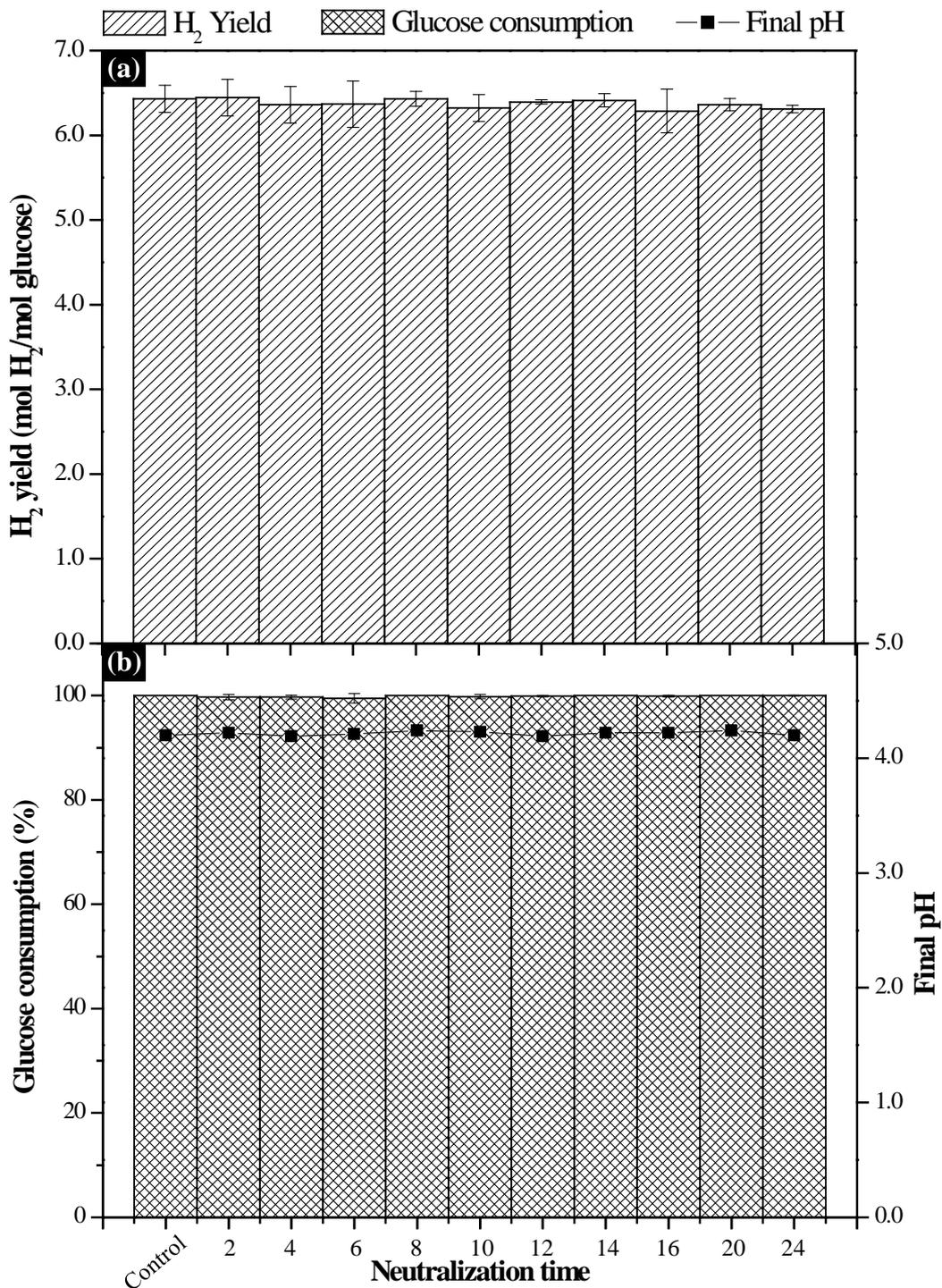


Figure 3.9: Effect of NaOH neutralization on substrate concentration 10 g/L glucose at specific time intervals (a) H₂ production performance and (b) glucose consumption and final pH. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 10 g/L glucose, 48h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).

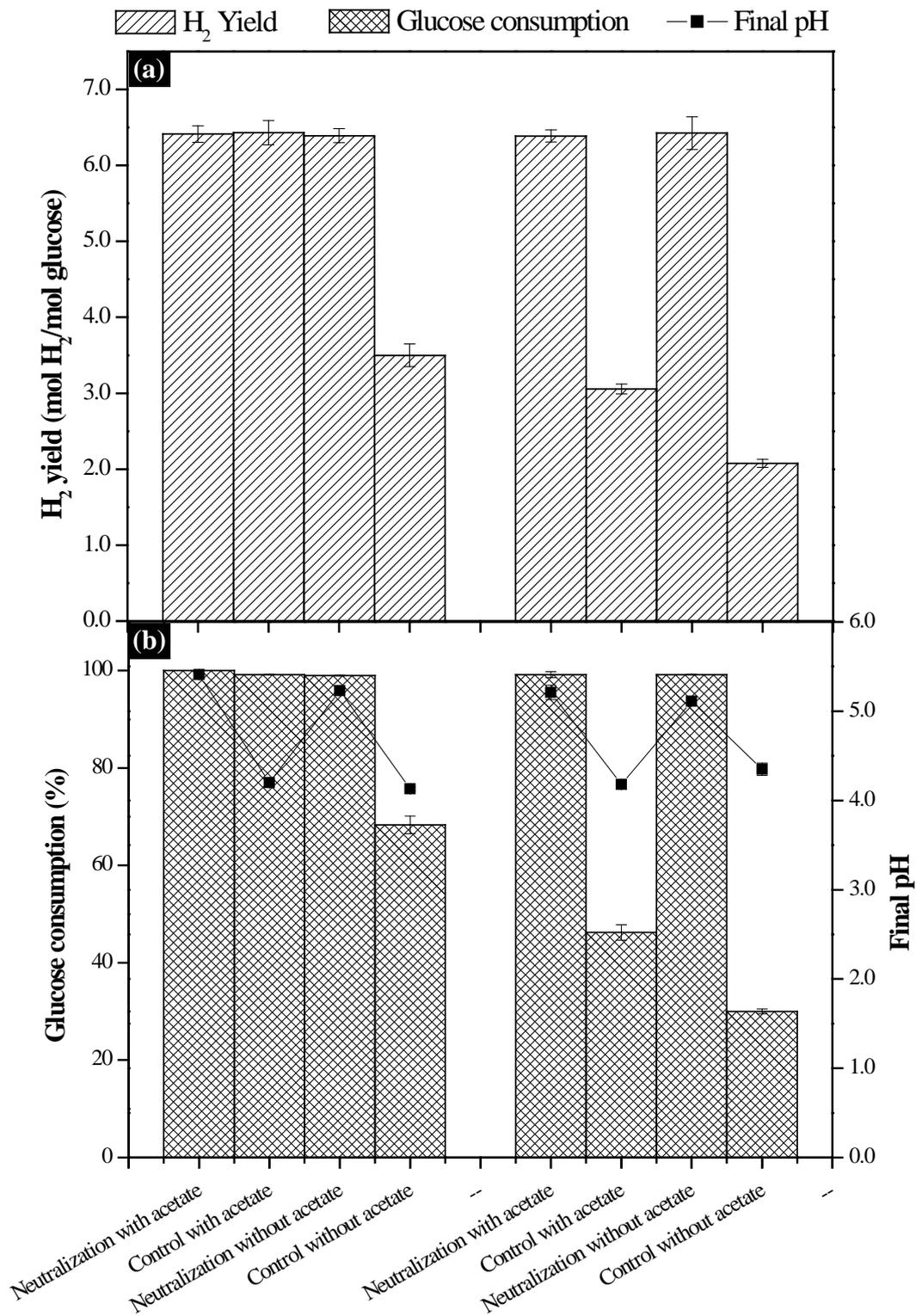
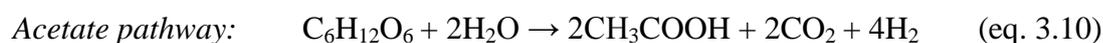


Figure 3.10: H₂ production performance with and without acetate in the effect of continuous NaOH neutralization at 12 h intervals. Control represents no neutralization took place. (Fermentation condition: 10 and 20 g/L glucose, 48 h and NaOH neutralization at specific time intervals).

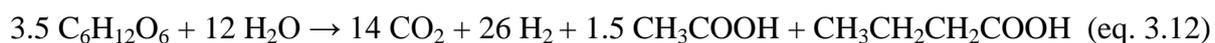
3.2.8. Formation of volatile fatty acids and solvents

Profile of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) and solvents at different fermentation conditions are shown in Table 3.9. The predominant VFAs produced from all fermentation conditions were acetate and butyrate, accompanied with a small amount of lactate (less than 20 mmol/L). Other VFAs and solvent including formate, propionate and ethanol were not detected. The measured ratio of acetate to butyrate (Ace:But) for all fermentation conditions are summarized in Table 3.9. At optimum condition, the highest Ace:But ratio was 1.53. The efficiency of H₂ production was commonly monitored by the Ace:But ratio (31, 40, 56, 60, 78, 81). Hydrogen production is conveniently represents by the acetate and butyrate pathways (eq. 3.10 and eq. 3.11)



Since acetate pathway produces higher amount of H₂ than butyrate pathway, a higher ratio from a mixed fermentation is normally representing the more efficient H₂ production.

It is remarkable that the maximum H₂ yield produced from this process is 6.43 mol H₂/mol glucose. Thus, the proposed theoretical stoichiometric equation of H₂ production from glucose based on the experimental Ace:But ratio is as follows:



According to the proposed equation (eq. 3.12), the stoichiometry theoretical yield of H₂ is 7.43 mol H₂/mol glucose. Therefore, the maximum yield from this study represents about 87% of H₂ conversion efficiency. The remaining 13% of glucose might be converted into microbial biomass. Nonetheless, this is only a preliminary equation based on the ratio of butyrate to acetate ratio, glucose consumption and H₂ yield. We are undergoing further research into this newly discovered phenomenon.

Table 3.9: Profile of VFA and solvent with respective ratio of acetate to butyrate at different fermentation conditions

Conditions	Concentration (mmol/L)			Ace:But
	Lac	Ace	But	
Optimum	11.6 ± 2.1	117.1 ± 5.2	78.5 ± 4.3	1.53
pH 4	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
pH 5	21.4 ± 2.8	86.9 ± 11.2	80.5 ± 6.2	1.08
pH 7	14.6 ± 0.3	74.8 ± 8.3	85.5 ± 2.8	0.88
pH 8	16.2 ± 1.5	69.3 ± 4.9	71.8 ± 4.8	0.96
25°C	4.3 ± 0.2	33.0 ± 2.1	25.7 ± 0.8	1.28
30°C	4.1 ± 0.7	43.2 ± 1.7	37.0 ± 1.3	1.17
45 °C	8.8 ± 0.2	87.9 ± 2.7	67.2 ± 1.6	1.31
50 °C	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
0 g/L (C:N 0.0)	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
5 g/L (C:N 1.0)	4.0 ± 0.4	25.9 ± 4.8	29.2 ± 4.2	0.89
15 g/L (C:N 4.0)	11.6 ± 2.1	117.1 ± 5.2	78.5 ± 4.3	1.49
20 g/L (C:N 5.0)	8.2 ± 0.6	53.3 ± 1.0	35.4 ± 1.5	1.50
25 g/L (C:N 5.0)	7.3 ± 2.3	65.9 ± 6.0	44.0 ± 1.3	1.50

Abbreviation: N.A., Not available; Lac, lactate; Ace, acetate; But, butyrate; Ace:But, ratio of acetate to butyrate

No formate, propionate and ethanol were detected in all batch fermentations.

3.3. Conclusion

This batch mode optimization showed that H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum achieved the maximum H₂ yield of 6.43 mol H₂/mol glucose with 100% of substrate consumption, under the conditions of 37°C, pH 6.0 and 10 g/L glucose. This high H₂ yield is thermodynamically favourable with the Gibbs free energy, fermentation activation enthalpy and entropy of -34 kJ/mol, 68 kJ/mol and 0.3311 kJ/mol/K, respectively.

Investigation on the effect of pretreatment temperature revealed that 65°C was the most effective temperature to enrich H₂ producing bacteria. H₂ production using pretreated landfill leachate sludge was found to occur in a wide range of pH which covers from slightly acidic to alkaline condition (pH 5 to 8) with the optimum pH of 6.0. In addition, H₂ production was observed in the mesophilic range, from 25 to 45°C suggests that H₂ producing bacteria presented in the sludge are mesophiles. Increasing temperature was found to increase the overall performance with maximum H₂ yield obtained at 37°C but further temperature increment up to 50°C inhibited H₂ production. Study on the effect of glucose concentration showed that H₂ yield was significantly improved with increasing substrate concentration with optimum level reached at 10 g/L glucose. The results present in this paper require further studies to reveal the mechanism in which high efficient H₂ production was achieved. Nonetheless, these results provide a new insight in biological H₂ production.

Chapter 4

Comparison of microbial communities at different fermentation phases of hydrogen production using new generation sequencer

The work presented in this chapter has been partly submitted for peer review:

WONG, Y. M., GAN H.M., ADELIN TING, C.M. AUSTIN, JUAN, J. C. Comparison of microbial communities at different fermentation phase of hydrogen production using Illumina MiSeq. Applied and Environmental Microbiology. (Submitted).

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 4

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 4, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Analysis and interpretation of data	100
Drafting and writing the publication	90

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Adeline Ting	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Gan Han Ming	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Prof. Chris M Austin	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

4.0. Introduction

Biological H₂ is a renewable energy which can be produced from dark fermentation. Dark fermentation produces H₂ in the absence of light (13). Hence, it does not require solar input and the configuration of the bioreactor is simpler and cheaper (14). Dark fermentation can use a versatile range of substrate, particularly renewable resources that are organically rich such as stillage, sludge, leachate, pomace, stalks and bagasse (15-20, 163). Therefore, H₂ production via dark fermentation can potentially to be integrated into waste management and to achieve the ultimate goal of waste into energy.

The key player in dark fermentation is H₂-producing bacteria. Particularly, H₂-producing microbial community which naturally subsists in wastewater sludge is a convenient source of inoculum for fermentative H₂ production. This leads to the emphasis of our study on landfill leachate sludge. Landfill is commonly understood as a facility built to dispose municipal waste. Bacteria which survived in such environment usually have a better adaption to harsh living conditions such as poor nutrients, extreme temperature and pH. To survive in such conditions, the microbial community usually has special synergistic interactions to improve food and nutrients availability through decomposing organic matters. With these features, the microbial community could possess unique H₂ production performance which is not yet to be discovered. Therefore, it is crucial to analyse the relationship between microbial community and H₂ production.

Many studies analysed the microbial community with the conventional method coupling PCR of 16S rRNA, denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) and Sanger sequencing (31, 36, 49, 53, 57, 60, 61, 131, 139, 164-168). However, this approach has a low coverage in microbial community, time consuming process and non-reproducible method (169). These drawbacks can be overcome with the advancement in the next generation sequencing (NGS). Furthermore, NGS provides new opportunities (1) to investigate the diversity and composition of microbial communities in depth with a high sample throughput (170) and (2) to elucidate low abundance microbial community in rare biosphere with a better sensitivity (171-173). Currently, the most common NGS methods used to study the microbial community in biogas productions are 454 pyrosequencing and SOLiD™ (sequencing by oligo ligation and detection) (174-178). Biological H₂-producing microbial communities have not been analysed by Illumina Mi-Seq yet. It was reported that the sequencing cost of Illumina for every megabase is 50- and 12,000-fold cheaper than 454 pyrosequencing and

Sanger sequencing, respectively (169). Moreover, this approach adopted paired-end sequencing which is rapid, comprehensive, and reproducible.

In this study, we have analysed the role of microbial diversity in biological H₂ production from glucose using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum with Illumina Mi-Seq. This study provides a better understanding on the relationship between the effect of microbial diversity and bio-H₂ production. This will enable better understanding on the effect of pre-treatment and selection of inoculum in industrial application.

4.1. Materials and methods

4.1.1. Inoculum and treatment conditions

The H₂-producing sludge inoculum was collected from a leachate collection pond located at the Jeram Sanitary Landfill in Selangor, Malaysia. Prior to its use, the sludge inoculum was sieved through a 400 µm screen and stored at 4°C. In order to enrich the H₂ producing bacteria, the landfill leachate sludge was heat-pretreated at temperatures of 65°C for 30 min. Subsequently, the pretreated sludge was enriched in Reinforced Clostridial Medium at 37°C for 24 h. The enrichment is necessary to ensure the consistency of cell count inoculated into the bottles. The untreated inoculum was used as a control.

4.1.2. Experimental setup

Batch fermentations were conducted in triplicate, in 200 mL serum bottles containing 150 mL of fermentative media as report in our previous publication (179). The seed sludge was added to the serum bottles as inoculum with the concentration of 2% v/v with medium solution. The fermentation was conducted at the initial pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L of glucose.

Repeated batch fermentation was conducted to examine the sustainability of H₂ yield. Inoculated sludge from the first batch fermentation was reused as the inoculum for the next fermentation and hence forth. To reuse the sludge, the media were centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min upon the end of fermentation. The pellet was rinsed three times with saline to ensure no residue was carried forward to the subsequent fermentation. The pellet was re-suspended in saline in order to readjust the sludge concentration to 2% v/v. This recycled sludge was re-inoculated into the fresh medium to resume fermentation.

4.1.3. Analysis

Biogas produced was collected and measured using water displacement method. Subsequently, the yield and composition of biogas was analyzed via a gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) with 2.7 m Hayesep Q column packed with molecular sieve. Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 2 mL/min. Injector, detector and oven temperatures were kept at 100, 150 and 60°C, respectively.

4.1.4. Genomic DNA extraction

Microbial communities in three different types of landfill leachate sludge sample were studied.

1. Untreated sludge – raw sludge collected from landfill leachate pond was used without treatment.
2. Pretreated sludge – landfill leachate sludge pretreated at 65°C
3. Recycled sludge – reused sludge from the third cycle of fermentation

Bacterial genomic DNA in sludge was extracted using UltraClean Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Inc.) with an extra centrifugation step following each centrifugation step as per protocol.

4.1.5. 16S rRNA-metagenomics sequencing with next generation sequencing

The concentration of gDNA was quantified using Qubit[®] 2.0 Fluorometer. The V3 region on 16S rRNA was amplified using KAPA HiFi PCR kit with barcoded primer as follow:

Forward primer: 5'-AATGATACGGCGACCGACATCTACA-3'

Reverse primer: 5'-CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATGA-5'

The amplification cycle was 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles of 98°C for 20 s, 63°C for 15 s, 72°C for 5 s and 72°C for 1 min. Upon the completion of PCR amplification, the amplified sequence with the size of approximately 300 bp was selected using 2% gel electrophoresis. The sequence was then recovered using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen). The extracted DNA sequence was dilute 10,000× with 0.05% Tween 20. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed to quantify the concentration of amplified sequence at 95°C for 5 min; 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s, 72°C for 10 s. The sample preparation and sequencing

kit used for sequencing were Nextera XT DNA Sample Preparation Kit and MiSeq Reagent Kits v2, respectively. Whole genome sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq Benchtop Sequencer (2×150 bp paired-end sequencing).

4.1.6. Bioinformatics analysis

Sequence analysis and similarity search was conducted using USEARCH (180). Metagenome analysis was conducted using MEGAN5 (181). The taxonomy distributions were represented using Krona interactive visualization program (182).

4.2. Results and discussion

4.2.1. H₂ production from repeated batch fermentation

The H₂ produced using the pretreated sludge as inoculum in the first cycle was measured at 6.43 ± 0.16 mol H₂/ mol glucose, as compared to that of untreated sludge which was reduced to 3.02 ± 0.05 mol H₂/ mol glucose (179). Furthermore, the H₂ production using the pretreated sludge as inoculum in the second and third cycle was reduced to 2.99 ± 0.10 and 2.9 ± 0.33 mol H₂/ mol glucose, respectively (Figure 4.1). This shows that the H₂ production performance was reduced up to 55% and remained consistent in the subsequent cycle. According to Baghchehsaraee and colleagues (31, 60), the efficiency of H₂ production can be strongly related to the microbial diversity of the inoculum. It was claimed that the H₂ yield increased with diversity of microbial community.

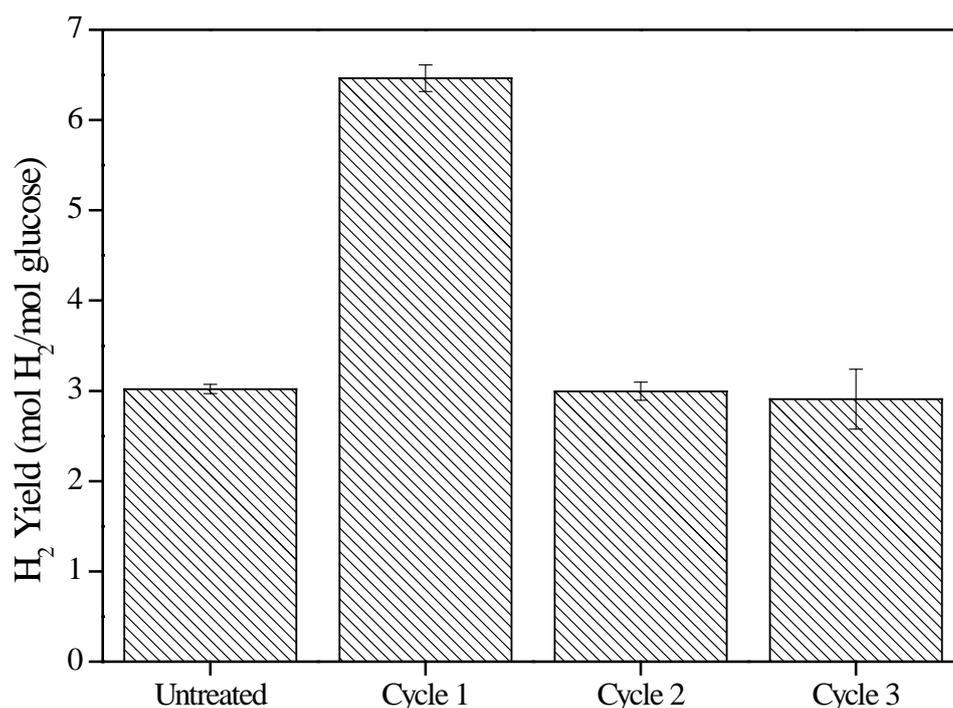


Figure 4.1: Hydrogen production performance on repeated batch fermentation using untreated sludge and pretreated sludge at 65°C.

4.2.2. Relationship between microbial community and H₂ production from different sludge samples

Taxonomic distributions of the three sludge samples are display in Figure 4.2 and the distribution at genus level are listed in Table 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3. It is obvious that there is a vast difference in the three types of sludge samples.

In the untreated sludge (Figure 4.2 (a), Table 4.1), microbial community was very diverse. It harbored over 100 different families of bacteria but the most abundant were belonged to the family of H₂-consuming bacteria including Flavobacteriaceae (22%), Pseudomonadaceae (17%) and Helicobacteraceae (14%). The families of H₂-producing bacteria such as Clostridiaceae and Peptostreptococcaceae were only accounted for 6%. This suggests that huge amount of H₂-consuming bacteria have restricted the performance of H₂ production from the untreated sludge. Consequently, this revealed that H₂ yield is significantly clearly affected by the presence of H₂-consuming bacteria.

The H₂ production was significantly increased after heat pretreatment, which also accordance with previous reports (31, 60, 179). In this study, we found out that the microbial community in pretreated sludge was greatly reduced to less than 60 families but was

dominated by family Clostridiaceae (66%) and Peptostreptococcaceae (32%) (Figure 4.2 (b), Table 4.2). These families represent the source of H₂-producing bacteria (54, 183-185). For this result, we can conclude that the pretreatment method has successfully eliminated H₂-consuming bacteria and also enriched H₂-producing bacteria. The Illumina Mi-Seq revealed heat pretreatment is as an effective and simple method to enrich H₂-producing bacteria. The principle of this method is that H₂-producing bacteria such as the genus *Clostridia* survive from the heat pretreatment due to the sporulation characteristics (186). Likewise, H₂-consuming bacteria such as the genus *Pseudomonas* did not sporulate and easily deactivated under heat treatment. Therefore, H₂ yield improved by 53% due to enrichment of H₂-producing microbial community in the pretreated sludge.

In the recycled sludge, it is surprising that the H₂ production reduced from 6.43 ± 0.16 to 2.90 ± 0.33 mol H₂ / mol glucose. As shown in Figure 4.2 (c) and Table 4.3, the recycled sludge only contain limited diversity of H₂-producing bacteria community which mainly consist of 99% family Clostridiaceae. The other families detected in the first cycle were no longer surviving in subsequent cycles. It is obvious that the diversity of microbial community has drastically reduced after several cycles of repeated fermentation. Microbial diversity can be reduced by the variation of doubling time of different H₂-producing bacteria. The fast growing bacteria has short doubling time. Hence, they will displace the slow growing bacteria and eventually dominate the microbial community in the recycled sludge. This evidenced that the diversity of H₂-producing microbial community might be the contributing factor for H₂ production. It has been reported that the diversity of H₂-producing microbial community assists high H₂ production performance due to the synergistic interaction between H₂-producing bacteria (31, 136, 164, 187-189). Furthermore, efficient H₂-producing bacteria in the recycled sludge might be outcompeted by the less efficient H₂-producing bacteria. This could also be another contributing factor for the reduced H₂ yield.



Figure 4.2: Taxonomic distribution up family level of (a) untreated sludge; (b) pretreated sludge; (c) recycled sludge. The figure was prepared using data from the 20 most abundant families. The innermost ring represents the phylum level and the outermost ring represents the family level.

Table 4.1: The 20 most abundant genera in untreated landfill leachate sludge

Family	Genus	Number of reads
Pseudomonadaceae	<i>Pseudomonas</i>	12848
Helicobacteraceae	<i>Sulfurimonas</i>	11325
Spirochaetaceae	<i>Treponema</i>	4101
Spirochaetaceae	<i>Sphaerochaeta</i>	3393
Flavobacteriaceae	<i>Capnocytophaga</i>	2656
Acholeplasmataceae	<i>Acholeplasma</i>	2611
Sphingobacteriaceae	<i>Parapedobacter</i>	2085
Thermoanaerobacteraceae	<i>Thermanaeromonas</i>	2060
Thermotogaceae	<i>Petrotoga</i>	1747
Syntrophomonadaceae	<i>Syntrophomonas</i>	1321
Porphyromonadaceae	<i>Proteiniphilum</i>	1259
Bacteroidaceae	<i>Bacteroides</i>	1215
Clostridiaceae	<i>Clostridium</i>	1201
Peptococcaceae	<i>Desulfotomaculum</i>	1157
Thermodesulfobacteriaceae	<i>Thermodesulfobacterium</i>	1110
Desulfobulbaceae	<i>Desulfuromonas</i>	1070
Thermodesulfobacteriaceae	<i>Caldimicrobium</i>	1061
Clostridiaceae	<i>Thermohalobacter</i>	880
Oceanospirillaceae	<i>Marinospirillum</i>	686
Cloacimonetes	<i>Candidatus Cloacimonas</i>	676

Table 4.2: The 20 most abundant genera in pretreated landfill leachate sludge

Family	Genus	Number of reads
Clostridiaceae	<i>Clostridium</i>	76400
Peptostreptococcaceae	Unclassified Peptostreptococcaceae	11400
Eubacteriaceae	<i>Eubacterium</i>	1603
Bacillaceae	<i>Bacillus</i>	364
Flavobacteriaceae	<i>Capnocytophaga</i>	124
Pseudomonadaceae	<i>Pseudomonas</i>	102
Syntrophomonadaceae	<i>Syntrophomonas</i>	61
Peptococcaceae	<i>Desulfotomaculum</i>	53
Acholeplasmataceae	<i>Acholeplasma</i>	49
Clostridiales Family XI. Incertae Sedis	<i>Soehngenia</i>	49
Thermoanaerobacteraceae	<i>Thermanaeromonas</i>	47
Spirochaetaceae	<i>Treponema</i>	46
Porphyromonadaceae	<i>Proteiniphilum</i>	43
Clostridiaceae	<i>Natronincola</i>	41
Prevotellaceae	<i>Prevotella</i>	40
Peptostreptococcaceae	<i>Sporacetigenium</i>	35
Clostridiaceae	<i>Caloramator</i>	32
Clostridiaceae	<i>Thermohalobacter</i>	29
Brevibacteriaceae	<i>Brevibacterium</i>	24
Helicobacteraceae	<i>Sulfurimonas</i>	21

Table 4.3: The 20 most abundant genera in recycled landfill leachate sludge

Family	Genus	Number of reads
Clostridiaceae	<i>Clostridium</i>	137368
Rhodobacteraceae	<i>Roseivivax</i>	112
Rhodobacteraceae	<i>Yangia</i>	82
Eubacteriaceae	<i>Eubacterium</i>	59
Pseudomonadaceae	<i>Pseudomonas</i>	52
Hyphomicrobiaceae	<i>Rhodoplanes</i>	51
Prevotellaceae	<i>Prevotella</i>	41
Clostridiales Family XI. Incertae Sedis	<i>Peptoniphilus</i>	36
Flavobacteriaceae	<i>Flavobacterium</i>	28
Bacteroidaceae	<i>Bacteroides</i>	20
Porphyromonadaceae	<i>Proteiniphilum</i>	18
Xanthobacteraceae	<i>Ancylobacter</i>	17
Acetobacteraceae	<i>Acidocella</i>	15
Sphingobacteriaceae	<i>Nubsella</i>	13
Xanthobacteraceae	<i>Xanthobacter</i>	11
Brevibacteriaceae	<i>Brevibacterium</i>	10
Ruminococcaceae	<i>Ruminococcaceae</i>	9
Clostridiaceae	<i>Caloramator</i>	8
Helicobacteraceae	<i>Sulfurimonas</i>	0
Spirochaetaceae	<i>Treponema</i>	0

4.2.3. Microbial community in landfill leachate sludge

A. Hydrogen producing microbial community

H₂-producing bacteria in landfill leachate sludge belong to four main genera, namely which are *Clostridium*, *Bacillus*, *Eubacterium* and *Sporacetigenium*, respectively (Table 4.2). Pretreated sludge was found to contain abundant genus *Clostridium*. This genus is reported as the most popular H₂ producers which is spore-forming obligate anaerobe (113). Generally, they are found in the environment rich in decaying plant materials. Therefore, they are capable of hydrolyzing a wide range of carbohydrates including monosaccharide, disaccharides, xylan, cellulose, starch, chitin, pectin and others (190). The main enzyme that is responsible for H₂ production is hydrogenase, which trigger H₂ production by proton reduction. Commonly, *Clostridia* spp. contain multi-subunits hydrogenase including the [FeFe] hydrogenases and [NiFe] hydrogenases. Three species of H₂-producing bacteria have been successfully isolated from the pretreated sludge, namely *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* strain Ade.TY, which possess unique genomic characteristics and good H₂ production performance (191-193). Therefore, the abundance of *Clostridia* in landfill leachate sludge could be the key factor for the high H₂ production.

H₂ producers from other genus especially facultative species are less popular e.g genus *Bacillus* is a facultative H₂ producer. It is agreed that the presence of facultative bacteria in H₂-producing sludge act as the defence mechanism for strict anaerobic H₂-producer. Facultative H₂-producer is able to consume oxygen rapidly which accidentally enters the fermentation medium and recover the activity of anaerobic H₂-producer before the inhibition effect become permanent (89, 91, 92). In contrast, genus *Eubacterium* was found in H₂-producing sewage sludge (163) but the capacity of H₂ production from individual isolates was not reported. The plausible reason is that the identity of genus *Eubacterium* is often confused with other genus, typically saccharolytic species of *Eubacterium* share similar phenotypic features as *Clostridium*. Moreover, the genera *Eubacterium* and *Clostridium* are phylogenetically related (194). Another less common H₂ producer found in landfill leachate sludge belong to the genus *Sporacetigenium*, family Peptostreptococcaceae. They produce volatile fatty acids such as acetic and propionic acids (195, 196). Based on literatures, *S. mesophilum* strain ZLJ115T is the only studied H₂-producing strain (197). Although these two genera are less studied, their role in H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge appears to be important. As observed from Figure 2 and 3, the absence of these genera from families

Eubacteriaceae and Peptostreptococcaceae in the recycled sludge may be the contributing factor to the reduced H₂ yield.

B. Hydrogen consuming microbial community

In untreated sludge, the top three most abundant genera were H₂-consuming bacteria, belonging to genera *Pseudomonas*, *Sulfurimonas* and *Treponema*. Most of the bacteria from these genera utilize H₂ as the electron donor as their energy metabolism. Genus *Pseudomonas* and *Sulfurimonas* are facultative anaerobes that oxidize H₂ and donate electrons to either oxygen to form water or to produce ATP (114, 198, 199). In contrast, genus *Treponema* is obligate anaerobe which oxidizes H₂ with oxygen and nitrate forming hydrogen peroxide and nitrogen gas. They can also utilize H₂ and carbon dioxide as their sole substrate (200, 201). The H₂ consuming characteristics of these genera is undesirable in fermentative H₂ productions. Hence, the reduced H₂ yield from untreated sludge could be due to the high abundance of H₂-consuming bacteria.

4.3. Conclusion

Metagenomics by 16S rRNA using Illumina Mi-Seq has favourably shown the relationship of the microbial community in landfill leachate and the performance of H₂ production. In summary, sludge inoculum containing H₂-consuming bacteria such as genera *Pseudomonas*, *Sulfurimonas* and *Treponema* did not favour H₂ production. Efficient H₂ production was only observed in sludge inoculum contained diverse H₂-producing bacteria including genera *Clostridium*, *Bacillus*, *Eubacterium* and *Sporacetigenium*. However, the high efficient H₂ production was unsustainable due to reduced diversity in H₂-producing bacteria and/or the high efficient H₂ producers were eliminated. Nonetheless, this study revealed the importance of microbial diversity that may improve H₂ production and hence contribute to industrial application.

Chapter 5

Production of bio-hydrogen from dairy wastewater using pretreated landfill leachate sludge as an inoculum

The work presented in this chapter has been partly submitted for peer review:

Wong YM, Wu TY, Juan JC. Production of bio-hydrogen from dairy wastewater using pretreated landfill leachate sludge as an inoculum. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. (Submitted)

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 5

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 5, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Analysis and interpretation of data	100
Drafting and writing the publication	95

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Wu Ta Yeong	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

5.0. Introduction

Hydrogen (H_2) is a potential alternative energy. The value of H_2 is increases with its non-polluting nature, as the complete combustion of H_2 produces water as the only end product. Hydrogen does not naturally exist as gas but more commonly found in combination with other elements and form a variety of compounds such as water and hydrocarbons (5). Hence, H_2 is an energy carrier that has to be extracted from other compounds. Currently, more than 96% of the global H_2 production requires fossil fuels as raw material or as source of energy (6, 7). Considering environmental problems arise from fossil fuels, H_2 derived from renewable sources is more environmentally friendly.

Bio- H_2 converts from wastewater using mixed microbial inoculum found in sludge materials is a sustainable approach for energy production. The current wastewater treatment incorporates biological process to breakdown organic compounds in wastewater (202). This approach is less feasible because energy is lost in the conversion of organic compounds to greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (203). To improve the sustainability of biological wastewater treatment, bio- H_2 production, typically using mixed microbial community found in various sludge can be integrated into wastewater management. Sludge is a byproduct from wastewater treatment (204), which contain abundant of bacteria that survive in the sludge. These bacteria may have unique features in production of bio- H_2 , decomposition of organic materials and adaptation to harsh living conditions (135-137). Furthermore, these features represent the natural symbiotic interaction within the mixed microbial community in sludge, which might potentially enhance H_2 production (31, 63, 130, 138, 139). Therefore, bio- H_2 production is an alternative approach of converting waste into energy.

In this study, bio- H_2 was produced from dairy wastewater as organic feedstock using landfill leachate sludge as an inoculum. Dairy products are the important source of proteins, vitamins and minerals but they have a short shelf life. The expired products are often returned and then followed by biological treatment. Since the expired products are unsafe for human consumption, they provide good resources for bio- H_2 production. According to Venkata Mohan (65), sludge of a H_2 producing bioreactor produces 1.8 mmol H_2 /g COD from dairy wastewater at optimum condition. Hence, dairy wastewater treatment has the potential to be integrated with bio- H_2 production. On the contrary, landfill leachate sludge is originated from a sanitary landfill and deposited in leachate treatment plant. From our previous literature (179), landfill leachate sludge has a great potential as the inoculum for bio- H_2 production with a high efficient H_2 yield of 6.43 mol H_2 /mol glucose (179). In this study, we have

attempted to use the same sludge inoculum to investigate the effect of initial pH and temperature on bio-H₂ production from dairy wastewater on the basis of batch-dark fermentation. Thermodynamic analysis performed using the rate constant calculated from the modified Gompertz model and the activation and thermal deactivation of enthalpy and entropy as well as the Gibbs free energy were determined from the modified Arrhenius plot. The importance of this study represents the practical application of H₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum, as well as the theoretical investigation of process thermodynamics.

5.1. Materials and methods

5.1.1. Inoculum and treatment conditions

The H₂-producing sludge inoculum was collected from a leachate collection pond located at the Jeram Sanitary Landfill in Selangor, Malaysia. Prior to its use, the sludge inoculum was sieved through a 400 µm screen and stored at 4°C. In order to enrich the H₂ producing bacteria, the landfill leachate sludge was heat-pretreated at temperatures of 65°C for 30 min (179). Subsequently, the pretreated sludge was enriched in Reinforcement Clostridial Medium at 37°C for 24 h. The enrichment is necessary to ensure the consistency of cell count inoculated into the bottles. The untreated inoculum was used as a control.

5.1.2. Wastewater collection

Fresh landfill leachate was collected from the same sanitary landfill as described in Section 3.1.1. Dairy wastewater was collected from a manufacturer of dairy products in Selangor which the company chooses to remain as anonymous. It was collected freshly from wastewater discharge point where hot wastewater is channelled to the treatment plant. The wastewater was not collected from wastewater treatment plant because it was constantly mixed treated wastewater and hence, it had diluted soluble carbohydrates and may contaminate with microfloral existing in the treatment plant. The characteristics of landfill leachate and dairy wastewater are summarized in Table 5.1. The main substrate from dairy wastewater were composed of a mixture of glucose, sucrose, lactose and fructose which the total concentration was represented in total carbohydrate.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of landfill leachate and dairy wastewater

Parameters	Landfill leachate	Dairy wastewater
pH	8.27 ± 0.25	5.90 ± 0.26
Total COD (mg/L)	17617 ± 530	14150 ± 600
Soluble COD (mg/L)	10650 ± 450	9567 ± 293
Kjeldahl N (mg/L)	427.3 ± 7.4	305.7 ± 13.1
Soluble carbohydrate (g/L)	N.D.	84.63 ± 4.75
Soluble protein (g/L)	3.94 ± 0.12	3.16 ± 77

5.1.3. Experimental setup

Batch fermentations were conducted in triplicate, in 200 mL serum bottles containing 150 mL of dairy wastewater. The seed sludge was added to the serum bottles as inoculum with the concentration of 2% v/v with medium solution. H₂ production from dairy wastewater was tested in the effect of organic load (Dilution factor: 0, 20, 40, 60 and 80%), initial pH (4, 5, 6, 7, 8) and temperature (25, 30, 37, 45, 50°C).

5.1.4. Analysis

Chemical oxygen demand (COD) in wastewaters was measured using Hach method 8000 with COD digestion reagent vials, high range (20 – 1500 mg/L) (Hach Co., 2014). Soluble carbohydrates in wastewater were measured using phenol/sulphuric acid method (205). Kjeldahl nitrogen was tested using Hach Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen Method 8075.

Soluble metabolites concentration including acetic acid, butyric acid, lactic acid, formic acid, propionic acid and ethanol were analysed by using a high performance liquid chromatography system (1200 series, Agilent Technologies) equipped with a refraction index detection (RID) and Animex Hi-Pex H column (300 × 7.7 mm, Agilent). The column temperature and detector temperature were adjusted to 65 and 55°C respectively.

Biogas produced was collected and measured using water displacement method. Subsequently, the yield and composition of biogas was analyzed via a gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) with 2.7 m Hayesep Q column

packed with molecular sieve. Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 2 mL/min. Injector, detector and oven temperatures were kept at 100, 150 and 60°C, respectively.

5.1.5. Kinetics and thermodynamic analysis

A. Kinetic of H₂ production by modified Gompertz model

The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative volume of H₂ produced over the time course (31, 143, 144):

$$H = H_{max} \left\{ -e \left[\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}} (\lambda - t) + 1 \right] \right\} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

where H is the cumulative H₂ production, H_{max} is the maximum H₂ production, R_{max} is the maximum H₂ production rate, λ is the lag phase time (h) and t is the incubation time (h), and $\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}}$ represents the rate constant (k). The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative H₂ data, using the OriginPro 8.5.

B. Activation enthalpy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Enthalpy can be determined using Arrhenius approach based on the relationship between the reaction rate constant (k) and temperature (T) (142):

$$k = A e^{\left(\frac{-\Delta H}{R.T}\right)} \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

$$\ln k = \ln A - \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy, A is the Arrhenius pre-exponential factor and R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol). However, Arrhenius equation is strictly limited to an elementary process and only correlates well to the rate measurements for a single reaction which is free of diffusion and thermal resistance.

Bio-H₂ production involves complex enzymatic reactions. Hence, the reaction rate of bio-H₂ production increases with temperature up to the threshold temperature (T_{opt}). At temperature higher than T_{opt} bio-H₂ production is subjected to thermal deactivation due to denaturation of key enzymes and cell death. According to Fabiano and Perego (142), this situation can be represented by the modified Arrhenius equation as follows:

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(A \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H}{RT}, \quad T < T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(B \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H^*}{RT}, \quad T > T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

Where H_{\max} is the maximum H_2 productivity obtained from modified Gompertz equation, A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, X is the cell mass concentration, Y is the H_2 yield per unit cell mass, R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol) and T is temperature in Kelvin. In term of enthalpy, ΔH is the fermentation activation enthalpy whereas the thermal deactivation enthalpy (ΔH_d) is determined by

$$\Delta H_d = \Delta H + |\Delta H^*| \quad (\text{eq. 6})$$

Thermal deactivation enthalpy represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death.

C. Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation can be determined using the following equation which derived from Eyring and Arrhenius equations (142)

$$\Delta S = R \left(\ln \frac{Ah}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 7})$$

$$\Delta S_d = R \left(\ln \frac{Bh}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 8})$$

Where A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, h is the Planck's constant (6.63×10^{-34} J.s) and k_b is the Boltzmann's constant (1.38×10^{-23} J/K).

D. Gibbs free energy

Gibbs free energy is determined using the following equation

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (\text{eq. 9})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy obtained from eq. 4 and ΔS is the activation entropy obtained from eq.8.

5.2. Results and discussion

5.2.1. H_2 production from landfill leachate and dairy wastewater

In the comparison of H_2 production capacity between landfill leachate and dairy wastewater, no gas production was detected from landfill leachate where as 15.78 ± 0.22 mmol H_2 / g COD (1.78 ± 0.02 mmol H_2 / g carbohydrate) was measured from dairy

wastewater Table 5.1 shows landfill leachate has high COD but does not contain soluble carbohydrate whereas dairy wastewater has a lower COD with 84.63 ± 4.75 g/L soluble carbohydrate. High COD is commonly encountered from landfill leachate because it contains complex organic materials such as humic and fulvic acids that are difficult to degrade (206). This suggests that H_2 cannot be produced from complex organic materials in landfill leachate. In contrast, dairy wastewater contains soluble carbohydrates in which HPLC analysis revealed that they are mixture of glucose, fructose, sucrose and lactose. These compounds are easily access by H_2 -producing bacteria to produce H_2 .

5.2.2. Effects of initial pH and fermentation temperature on H_2 production from dairy wastewater

Initial pH and temperature are the most important factors in bioprocesses as they influence the bacterial metabolism. The best H_2 production performance was observed at the optimum conditions of pH 6 and 37°C . This falls within the reported range of pH (6 – 8) and temperature ($35 - 39^\circ\text{C}$) for H_2 production (31, 35, 42, 46, 53, 61, 63, 81, 94-96, 104). The results were well fitted using the Modified Gompertz Equation with R^2 value of more than 0.99 (Table 5.2). The recorded maximum yield at the optimum condition was 113.2 ± 2.9 mmol H_2 /g COD (12.8 ± 0.3 mmol H_2 /g carb.) at the maximum production rate of 3.73 ± 0.01 mmol H_2 /g COD/h (0.42 ± 0.00 mmol H_2 /g carb./h) with a lag time of 25.9 ± 0.8 h. The H_2 production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum was more efficient as compared to other inoculums (Table 5.4). The efficient H_2 production is commonly related to the type and diversity of H_2 -producing bacteria present in the inoculum. The performance could be efficient if the inoculum contains little or no H_2 -consuming bacteria. In addition, H_2 -producing bacteria belonging to the family of strict anaerobes Clostridiaceae has the greatest potential in H_2 production via dark fermentation (31, 52, 53), as compared to facultative H_2 -producing bacteria such as the family of Enterobacteriaceae. Hence, the performance of H_2 production could be improved with a high diversity of strict anaerobic H_2 -producing bacteria. As reported in our previous publication (179), the sludge originated from landfill shows great potential in H_2 production from glucose could be due to the diverse microflora in the inoculum.

Overall, the optimum initial pH for H_2 production is pH 6. At initial pH 8, H_2 production was reduced by approximately 22 % but the measured cell mass was 6.6 % higher with the shorter lag time of 24.2 ± 1.2 h. This shows that at higher initial pH, carbohydrate

was rapidly converted into cell mass. This observation is also well agreed with our previous study [16]. In comparison, no cell mass was measured at initial pH 4 and hence H₂ productions were completely inhibited. This shows that the favourable initial pH is 6 because H₂ production favourable under slightly acidic condition. This represents the functional pH for hydrogenase which is reported in the range of pH 6 – 6.5 (97, 98). It is also reported that this pH range suppresses the growth of hydrogen consuming bacteria such as methanogens and acetobacteria (42, 61, 130, 155). This suggests that H₂ production could enhance due to suppression of H₂ consumption process. On the contrary, medium pH could alter the membrane potential and intracellular pH of bacteria cell (46, 94). This directly influences the activity of proteins for nutrients uptake and synthesis of ATP which in turn affect bacteria growth. For example, porin is an integral protein found in membrane, responsible for the transporting nutrients such as glucose and amino acids into the cells. It was reported that the porin's channel is closed by half at pH 5.4, thus the reduced pore size limits uptake of nutrients (207). Therefore, different initial pH alters bacteria activities which in turn influence H₂ production.

The performance of H₂ production and measured cell mass were the highest at temperature 37°C regardless of the different initial pH (Table 5.2 and 5.3). At temperature beyond 37°C, the measured cell mass was reduced along with H₂ production. It is obvious at 50°C in which H₂ production was completely inhibited when no cell mass was detected. Temperature could manipulate growth of H₂-producing bacteria by changing the permeability of cell membrane. The membrane solidify at low temperature whereas liquefy at high temperature and this may inactivate integral proteins for transport of nutrients and ions (208). Moreover, H₂ is the product of deprotonation from a series of enzymatic reactions. Since enzymatic activities are susceptible for thermal deactivation, hence it is logic that H₂ production temperature sensitive. Furthermore, most of the H₂-producing bacteria are reported to be mesophiles such as *Clostridium* spp., *Enterobacter* spp., and *Bacillus* spp. (53, 102, 103). They survive in a wide range of temperature from 15 – 45°C but most commonly fermentative H₂ production was reported at a narrow range of 35 – 39°C (186).

Table 5.2: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ from dairy wastewater using Modified Gompertz Equation

Initial pH	Temp (°C)	H _{max}		R _{max}		k	λ (h)	R ²
		mmol H ₂ / g COD	mmol H ₂ / g carb	mmol H ₂ /g COD/h	mmol H ₂ /g carb/h			
5	25	10.9 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.0	0.48 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.120 ± 0.007	49.4 ± 0.3	0.999
	30	39.5 ± 1.1	4.5 ± 0.1	1.10 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.00	0.076 ± 0.004	35.6 ± 0.4	0.999
	37	54.1 ± 4.1	6.1 ± 0.5	1.40 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.00	0.071 ± 0.008	38.4 ± 0.7	0.996
	45	30.3 ± 2.1	3.4 ± 0.2	0.73 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.00	0.066 ± 0.006	38.3 ± 0.6	0.997
6	25	39.8 ± 0.7	4.5 ± 0.1	1.40 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.00	0.096 ± 0.004	40.1 ± 0.3	0.999
	30	78.9 ± 2.1	8.9 ± 0.2	2.99 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.00	0.103 ± 0.007	37.9 ± 0.5	0.998
	37	113.2 ± 2.9	12.8 ± 0.3	3.73 ± 0.01	0.42 ± 0.00	0.090 ± 0.007	25.9 ± 0.8	0.997
	45	43.0 ± 2.6	4.9 ± 0.3	1.01 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.00	0.064 ± 0.008	24.3 ± 1.3	0.992
7	25	20.2 ± 0.6	2.3 ± 0.1	0.74 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.00	0.100 ± 0.005	45.4 ± 0.3	0.999
	30	42.4 ± 1.1	4.8 ± 0.1	1.73 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.00	0.111 ± 0.008	37.3 ± 0.6	0.998
	37	88.5 ± 3.2	10.0 ± 0.4	2.66 ± 0.01	0.30 ± 0.00	0.082 ± 0.009	21.1 ± 1.2	0.993
	45	32.8 ± 0.5	3.7 ± 0.1	1.41 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.00	0.117 ± 0.007	29.4 ± 0.5	0.998
8	25	37.7 ± 3.5	4.2 ± 0.4	0.90 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.00	0.065 ± 0.009	36.9 ± 0.9	0.994
	30	38.2 ± 1.6	4.3 ± 0.2	3.00 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.00	0.098 ± 0.012	31.1 ± 1.1	0.993
	37	89.2 ± 3.7	10.1 ± 0.4	2.57 ± 0.01	0.29 ± 0.00	0.078 ± 0.008	24.2 ± 1.2	0.993
	45	39.0 ± 1.4	4.4 ± 0.2	1.43 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.00	0.100 ± 0.011	30.3 ± 1.0	0.994

No data from initial pH 4 and temperature 50 °C were not displayed as there were no H₂ productions detected.

Table 5.3: Characteristics of wastewater after fermentation at various temperature and initial pH

Initial pH	Temp. (°C)	Final pH	Cell mass (g/L)	COD reduction		Soluble carbohydrate consumption (%)
				tCOD (%)	sCOD (%)	
5	25	3.37 ± 0.07	0.86 ± 0.05	81.4 ± 0.9	80.8 ± 1.1	38.0 ± 2.4
	30	3.43 ± 0.01	1.11 ± 0.20	81.7 ± 1.0	82.2 ± 2.8	47.4 ± 1.5
	37	3.31 ± 0.03	1.56 ± 0.18	81.9 ± 0.5	80.0 ± 1.6	59.8 ± 1.6
	45	3.31 ± 0.08	0.97 ± 0.08	82.1 ± 0.7	80.8 ± 0.8	47.9 ± 1.3
6	25	3.42 ± 0.08	1.73 ± 0.20	80.7 ± 0.8	82.9 ± 4.4	57.0 ± 2.6
	30	3.50 ± 0.09	2.80 ± 0.08	82.0 ± 1.4	82.6 ± 0.8	64.7 ± 1.7
	37	3.54 ± 0.01	3.54 ± 0.16	81.7 ± 1.2	83.3 ± 1.6	85.6 ± 0.9
	45	3.45 ± 0.05	2.78 ± 0.14	81.4 ± 1.7	81.4 ± 2.0	66.2 ± 1.1
7	25	3.52 ± 0.09	1.31 ± 0.21	81.4 ± 0.7	79.8 ± 1.6	54.4 ± 2.4
	30	3.54 ± 0.02	2.36 ± 0.22	82.6 ± 2.5	80.8 ± 3.5	66.1 ± 0.9
	37	3.44 ± 0.01	3.63 ± 0.16	80.8 ± 0.9	82.4 ± 1.3	87.4 ± 0.6
	45	3.46 ± 0.05	2.85 ± 0.17	81.6 ± 0.4	82.1 ± 1.3	63.3 ± 2.5
8	25	3.48 ± 0.07	1.62 ± 0.11	82.0 ± 1.5	81.0 ± 2.4	47.7 ± 1.7
	30	3.52 ± 0.06	2.36 ± 0.14	81.7 ± 0.5	80.8 ± 1.3	66.5 ± 0.9
	37	3.47 ± 0.02	3.79 ± 0.09	80.0 ± 0.5	82.2 ± 1.4	85.6 ± 0.5
	45	3.85 ± 0.58	2.60 ± 0.15	81.3 ± 0.9	81.9 ± 1.8	51.1 ± 2.3

No data from initial pH 4 and temperature 50 °C were not displayed as there were no H₂ productions detected.

Table 5.4: Comparison of H₂ yield from this study with other studies

Sludge inoculum	H ₂ Yield	Sludge pretreatment	Substrate source	Initial pH and temp. (°C)	Substrate consumption	Ref.
Landfill leachate sludge	113.2 ± 2.9 mmol H ₂ /g COD 12.8 ± 0.3 mmol H ₂ / g carb.	Heat	Dairy wastewater	pH 6; 37.0 °C	81.7 ± 1.2% COD 85.6 ± 0.9% carb.	This study
H ₂ producing reactor	0.0018 mmol H ₂ /g COD 1.8 mmol H ₂ /gCOD 0.0122 mmol H ₂ /g COD 0.0317 mmol H ₂ /g COD	Untreated Acid Heat BES	Dairy wastewater	29.0 °C	79% COD 63% COD 69% COD 87% COD	(65)
Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	0.41 mmol H ₂ /g COD 0.32 mmol H ₂ /g COD 0.23 mmol H ₂ /g COD 0.12 mmol H ₂ /g COD	Heat Acid Chloroform Untreated	POME	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	86 % COD 51 % COD 51 % COD 66 % COD	(66)
Sewage treatment plant	^a 0.42 mmol H ₂ / g COD	Base	Glucose & peptone	pH 10.5; 37.0 °C	N.A.	(209)
Sewage treatment plant	^a 10.6 mmol H ₂ / g carb.	Heat	Stillage of ethanol plant	pH 5.05; 37.0 °C	90% carb.	(49)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

5.2.3. Thermodynamics of H₂ production from dairy wastewater

Table 5.5 summarizes the thermodynamic parameters calculated from the modified Arrhenius model. The calculated Gibbs free energy at initial pH 5, 6, 7, and 8 was -17, -40, -20 and -16 kJ/mol, respectively. It is observed that highest Gibbs free energy was belonged to the highest H₂ yield under initial pH 6. This suggests that H₂ production at initial pH 6 is more favourable as compared to that of other pH value. Figure 1 represents the modified Arrhenius plot described by eq. 3 and 4 with a good regression. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the actual optimum fermentation temperature. It is interesting that the linear lines intersect at the same point at all initial pH and hence the optimum fermentation temperature was 38.4 °C. The thermodynamic analysis suggests that H₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum is thermodynamically favourable.

Activation enthalpy of fermentation represents the thermodynamic potential of a reaction, it measures the amount of heat released or absorbed in a reaction. The calculated activation enthalpy of fermentation (ΔH) was 99, 65, 62 and 57 kJ/mol at initial pH 5, 6, 7 and 8, respectively. As expected, these values represent that energy was absorbed during H₂ production because ATP is hydrolyzed to drive enzymatic conversions of substrate into molecular H₂ (60, 156, 179). The ΔH obtained in this study falls within the range for microbial growth (54 – 71 kJ/mol) (142) and for enzymatic reaction (18 – 83 kJ/mol) (179). However, it is surprising that the ΔH at initial pH 5 was out of the range for microbial growth and enzymatic reaction. This phenomenon occurred because more energy was required to drive H₂ production as compared to optimum pH 6. This would mean that the bacteria need more ATP to drive H₂ production at pH 5 and hence it is thermodynamically less favourable. In contrast, activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (ΔH_d) represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death. The calculated ΔH_d was 236, 282, 268 and 267 kJ/mol at initial pH 5, 6, 7 and 8, respectively. These values fall within the reported value 290–380 kJ/mol for microbial death (157) and therefore it is less sensitive to thermal deactivation. In comparison with the ΔH_d reported by Fabiano and Perego (142) and Wong *et al.* (179) for H₂ production was 118 and 113 kJ/mol, respectively. This study suggested that H₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum was less sensitive to thermal deactivation.

Entropy measures the randomness of a reaction and the activation entropy of fermentation (ΔS) in this study was 0.054, 0.128, 0.265 and 0.052 kJ/mol/K at initial pH 5, 6, 7 and 8, respectively. This indicates that H₂ production from dairy wastewater was a random

reaction. In contrast, the calculated activation entropy of thermal deactivation (ΔS_d) was 0.424, - 1.17, 0.521 and 0.516 kJ/mol/K at initial pH 5, 6, 7 and 8, respectively. It is interesting to note that the value of ΔS_d at initial pH 5, 7 and 8 was higher than the value of ΔS . This is reasonable because thermal deactivation of enzymes increases with randomness of a system (158, 159). However, the negative value of ΔS_d at initial pH 6 represents a reduced randomness. This result is similar to those reported earlier by others (142, 158, 179). However, the significance of negativity was not explained in the literatures (158, 159).

Table 5.5: Thermodynamics quantities of H₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge inoculum

Thermodynamic parameter	pH 5	pH 6	pH 7	pH 8
Gibbs free energy (kJ/mol)	- 17	- 40	-20	-16
Activation enthalpy of fermentation (kJ/mol)	99	65	62	57
Activation entropy of fermentation (kJ/mol/K)	0.054	0.128	0.265	0.052
Activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol)	236	282	268	267
Activation entropy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol/K)	0.424	- 1.17	0.521	0.516

No data from initial pH 4 was not displayed, as there were no H₂ productions detected.

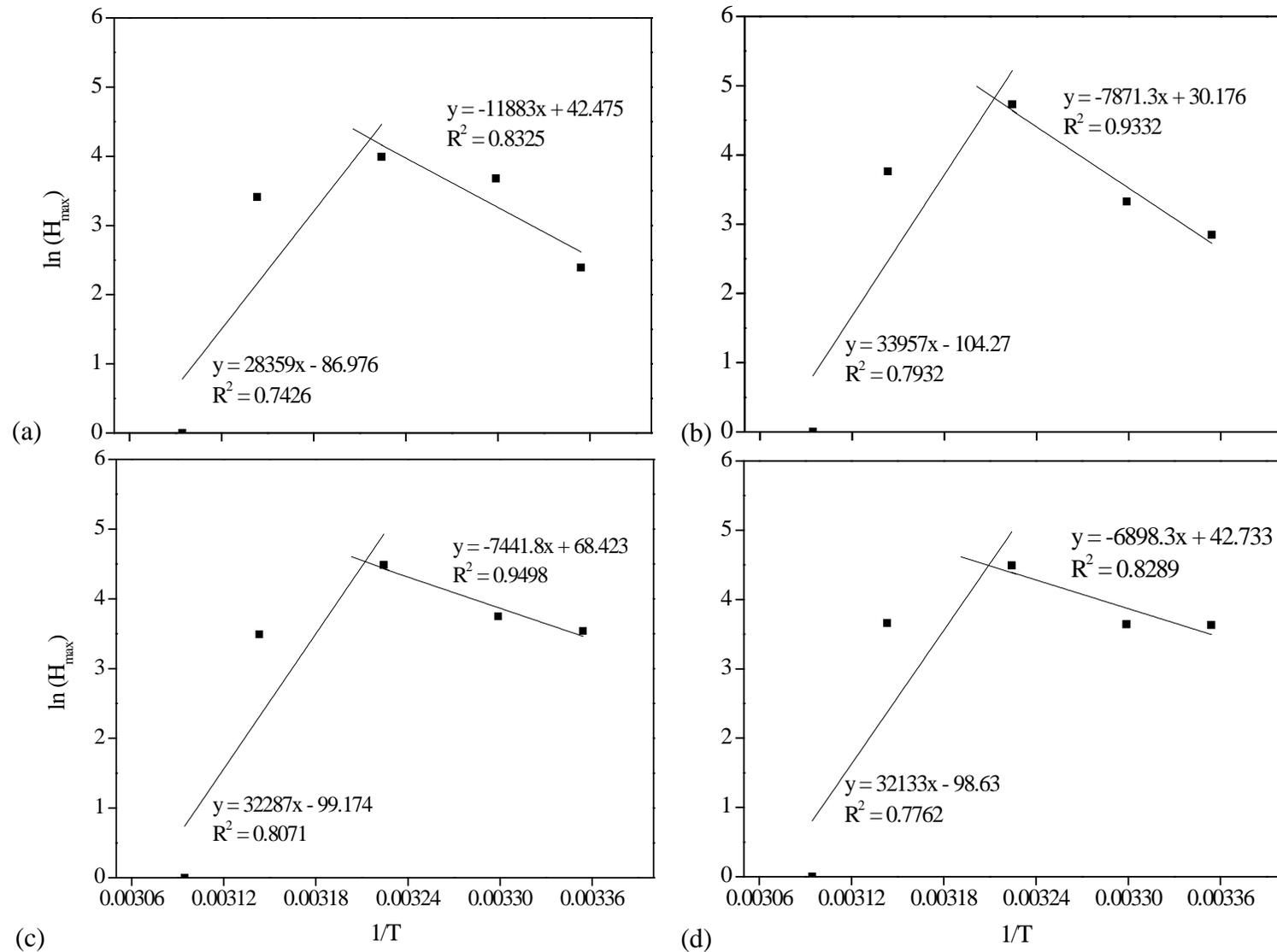


Figure 5.1: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies at different initial pH (a) pH 5, (b) pH 6, (c) pH 7 and (d) pH 8. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature that is 38.4 °C at all initial pH

5.2.4. Effect of organic load on H₂ production from dairy wastewater

The starting organic load plays an essential role on the production of H₂. It is observed that H₂ performance was enhanced at an increasing dilution factor with the highest yield at 80% dilution (Table 5.6). The yield of H₂ from 80% dilution was 63% higher than that of undiluted wastewater. According to the law of mass action which stated that the rate of fermentation increases with substrates concentration (160). However it is interesting to observe that the fermentative H₂ production that driven by enzymatic reaction is prone to inhibition by high organic load. This results were accordance with an early study conducted by Roychowdhury et al. (1988) which found that high carbohydrate concentrations counteract fermentation performance (161). In this study, high amount of carbohydrates in undiluted wastewater leads to a product or feedback inhibition that triggered the reduction of carbohydrate consumption. This induces chain effects that reduce the availability of subsequent metabolites, such as reduced-ferredoxin which is responsible for proton reduction(179) and hence inhibits H₂ production.

Table 5.6: H₂ production at different organic load and characteristics of wastewater after fermentation

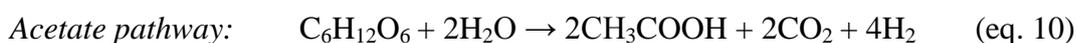
Dilution factor	0 %	20 %	40 %	60 %	80 %
H ₂ yield					
mmol H ₂ / g COD	41.7 ± 0.4	55.4 ± 1.6	60.6 ± 0.9	84.0 ± 2.3	113.2 ± 2.9
mmol H ₂ / g carb.	4.71 ± 0.05	6.26 ± 0.18	6.85 ± 0.10	9.49 ± 0.26	12.8 ± 0.3
Final pH	3.85 ± 0.06	3.81 ± 0.02	3.71 ± 0.03	3.62 ± 0.04	3.54 ± 0.01
COD reduction					
tCOD (%)	83.7 ± 0.6	85.0 ± 0.3	86.1 ± 0.6	84.5 ± 0.6	81.7 ± 1.2
sCOD (%)	75.9 ± 0.9	77.8 ± 0.4	87.2 ± 0.8	88.4 ± 1.2	83.3 ± 1.6
Soluble carbohydrate consumption (%)	11.1 ± 1.7	19.3 ± 1.4	31.3 ± 1.9	43.3 ± 1.5	85.6 ± 0.9

Fermentation conditions: pH 6, 37°C and 3 days

5.2.5. Productions of volatile fatty acids and alcohol

Bio-H₂ production is accompanied by the production of volatile fatty acids (VFA) and alcohol. The concentration of VFA and alcohol different fermentation conditions is displayed in Table 5.7. It is notable that the profile of VFA and alcohols was different at various fermentation conditions, in which the predominated VFA were acetate and butyrate with trace amounts of lactate, formate and ethanol. At optimum condition (initial pH 6 at 37°C), the ratio of acetate to butyrate was estimated to be 0.4 and this ratio increased depending on the fermentation conditions. The concentration of lactate increases with temperature and initial pH. Ethanol was only detected at fermentative temperature below 30°C. This indicates that there is a change in fermentation pathway at different fermentation conditions.

The ratio of acetate to butyrate (Ace:But) indicates the direction of fermentation pathway. If the Ace: But ratio is smaller than one, it represents the reaction was prone towards butyrate production whereas when the Ace: But ratio is larger than one, it favour towards acetate formation (149, 210, 211). It is commonly known that the production of acetate usually represents a higher H₂ yield. In theory, each mole of glucose will be converted to two mole of acetate with four mole of H₂ or one mole of butyrate with two mole of H₂, which can be represented by eq. 10 and 11.



However, it is surprising that the highest H₂ yield was obtained at pH 6 and the Ace:But ratio is 0.4, which is less than 1. This suggested that the production of hydrogen under optimum condition follow butyrate pathway. This could be due to the key enzymes involved in the production of H₂ and butyrate are butyrate kinase and hydrogenase, respectively. It is reported that these genes are parallel regulated in some H₂-producing bacteria such as *C. perfringens* (212). Since H₂ production increased with higher expression of hydrogenase gene, the production of butyrate will also increase due to the parallel expression of both key enzymes. In contrast, when H₂ production was less efficient, the expression of both enzymes are suppressed, which has led to the lower yield of H₂ and butyrate.

Apart from Ace:But ratio, the efficiency of bio-H₂ production also monitored by the overall profile of VFA and alcohol. Typically, high concentrations of lactate and ethanol

represent a less efficient H_2 production. As shown in Table 5.7, at optimum condition, the amount of lactate only represents about 1.5 % of the overall VFA and alcohol production as compared to 7% from fermentation occurred at initial pH 5 and 25°C. Furthermore, ethanol was only observed at 25 and 30°C. It was reported that pH and temperature alters bioactivity of enzymes [52]. Therefore, formation of VFA and alcohol are highly related to fermentation conditions because the pH and temperature will alters bioactivity of the enzymes. For example, phosphotransbutyrylase (butyrate formation) (213) , NAD-independent lactate dehydrogenase (pyruvate formation) (214), and phosphotransacetylase (acetate formation) (214) was only physiologically active at pH 6, 7.5, and 5, respectively. Besides that pH also influences the electron flow in the fermentation (115). When there are excess protons and substrates, fermentation pathways are shifted to produce more reduced metabolites including ethanol and lactate which eventually reduces H_2 yield. Therefore the fermentation condition is an important factor to control the pathway for VFA and alcohol formation in order to achieve efficient bio- H_2 production.

Table 5.7: Concentration of volatile fatty acids and alcohol different fermentation conditions

Initial pH	Temp. (°C)	Concentration (mmol/L)					Ace:But
		Lac	For	Ace	EtOH	But	
5	25	13.1 ± 0.2	2.61 ± 0.41	111.8 ± 6.5	14.7 ± 0.9	44.2 ± 1.2	2.5
	30	6.2 ± 0.2	2.50 ± 0.24	154.2 ± 4.2	11.1 ± 1.3	71.3 ± 2.6	2.2
	37	5.2 ± 0.4	2.36 ± 0.28	88.1 ± 3.5	N.D.	61.6 ± 5.3	1.4
	45	3.1 ± 2.7	2.39 ± 0.32	137.9 ± 4.8	N.D.	58.1 ± 2.4	2.4
6	25	6.6 ± 0.5	2.72 ± 0.45	145.9 ± 6.4	9.5 ± 0.9	71.6 ± 4.5	2.0
	30	4.1 ± 0.3	2.30 ± 0.20	87.0 ± 5.3	6.5 ± 0.6	92.0 ± 3.4	0.9
	37	2.9 ± 0.1	2.22 ± 0.17	54.6 ± 0.8	N.D.	125.3 ± 1.0	0.4
	45	7.2 ± 0.2	2.42 ± 0.22	140.4 ± 6.0	N.D.	78.4 ± 3.0	1.8
7	25	9.8 ± 0.8	2.39 ± 0.21	122.0 ± 7.6	10.2 ± 1.3	50.6 ± 2.3	2.4
	30	7.0 ± 0.2	2.62 ± 0.20	138.6 ± 3.0	6.3 ± 0.7	76.9 ± 4.0	1.8
	37	3.3 ± 0.2	2.34 ± 0.13	99.7 ± 9.7	N.D.	98.0 ± 3.4	1.0
	45	7.6 ± 0.3	2.57 ± 0.10	145.4 ± 4.2	N.D.	62.8 ± 3.2	2.3
8	25	6.4 ± 0.3	2.46 ± 0.14	158.8 ± 2.1	10.6 ± 0.9	69.8 ± 0.7	2.3
	30	6.1 ± 0.4	2.54 ± 0.17	149.2 ± 6.8	7.9 ± 0.7	71.7 ± 2.5	2.1
	37	3.3 ± 0.2	2.53 ± 0.34	99.3 ± 7.8	N.D.	98.8 ± 7.2	1.0
	45	6.4 ± 0.4	2.52 ± 0.14	146.8 ± 4.4	N.D.	75.3 ± 6.1	1.9

Abbreviation: N.D. (Not detected); Lac (lactate); For (formate); Ace (acetate); EtOH (ethanol); But (butyrate); Ace:But (ratio of acetate to butyrate)

5.3. Conclusion

In summary, dairy wastewater is a potential feedstock for bio-H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum. The optimum conditions were identified at initial pH 6 and 37°C with the maximum H₂ yield of 113.2 ± 2.9 mmol H₂/g COD (12.8 ± 0.3 mmol H₂/g carb.). The wastewater was diluted by 80% to prevent product inhibition. The fermentation is accompanied with the production of various volatile fatty acids and alcohol. The predominated acids were acetate and butyrate with trace amount of lactate, formate and ethanol. At optimum condition, the ratio of acetate:butyrate was 0.4. This ratio increased with a change in fermentation conditions beyond the optimum. The kinetic and thermodynamic analysis revealed that the experimental results are consistent with the complex activated theory and in good agreement with the deactivation mechanism of enzymes. This study provide a framework for further research on bio-H₂ production from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum and contribute to the knowledge of scale-up operations.

Chapter 6

Discovery of three new Clostridia strains provided new insight to biohydrogen production

The work presented in this chapter has been partly submitted for peer review:

Wong YM, Juan JC, Ting A, Wu TY. Discovery of three new Clostridium strains provided new insight to biohydrogen production. Nature Biotechnology (Submitted)

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 6

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 6, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Analysis and interpretation of data	100
Drafting and writing the publication	95

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

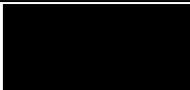
Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Adeline Ting	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Wu Ta Yeong	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

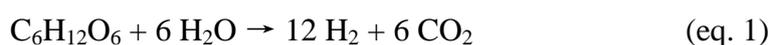
	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

6.0. Introduction

Hydrogen (H₂) is a clean and environmental friendly fuel because combustion of H₂ produces water as the only end product (1). Biological H₂ production is a sustainable process because it can be produced from inexpensive waste biomass such as agricultural and organic-rich industrial waste via dark fermentation (45-47). Dark fermentation is an anaerobic process that converts biomass into biological H₂ in the absence of light (13). The advantages of this method are (1) it is a light-independent process and hence the configuration of the bioreactor is simpler and cheaper (14); and (2) it can utilize a wide range of carbohydrates as substrates to produce bio-H₂ (45-47). Therefore, dark fermentation can be easily integrated into waste management to achieve waste reduction and bio-energy production concurrently.

In dark fermentation, several H₂ producing bacteria (HPB) such as *Clostridium sp.*, *Bacillus sp.*, *Klebsiella sp.* and *Enterobacter sp.* and *Ethanoligenens sp.* have been isolated from natural environment (53, 57, 95, 96, 142, 215-219). Among the reported the HPB, *Clostridium spp.* are the most popular H₂ producers due to its high efficiency in H₂ production (53, 95, 96, 215-218). They are obligate anaerobes that produce H₂ as well as volatile fatty acids and alcohols such acetate, butyrate, lactate, formate, ethanol and butanol that have industrial applications. However, the current highest H₂ yield was reported at 3.35 mol H₂/mol glucose by *Clostridium sp.* DMHC-10 (54). In theory, a maximum of 12 moles of H₂ can be produced from each mole of glucose.



However, the highest reported H₂ yield is only about 28% of this maximum yield. Therefore, the search for the more efficient H₂ producer is desirable.

A sanitary landfill is a facility built to dispose municipal waste. Landfill leachate, as the name implies, is the garbage juice produced during the decomposition of organic waste within the landfill. Since an active landfill contains diverse microflora, sludge that deposited in leachate collection pond carry similar microflora. However, H₂-producing bacteria isolated from this source has not yet been reported. We have isolated three new H₂-producing bacteria and identified them as *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC, *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium sp.* strain Ade.TY using whole genome sequencing (191-193). Based on the gene annotation, strain Ade.TY contains an unique hydrogenase, namely energy-converting hydrogenase, which is commonly found in archaea that is uncommon in *Clostridium sp.* (220). Other than that, this strain also contains additional dimeric-periplasmic

[Fe] hydrogenase and two [Ni-Fe] hydrogenases. For strain JJC, it contains two different types of hydrogenases which are [Fe] hydrogenase *HydA* and a dimeric cytoplasmic [Fe] hydrogenase, whereas strain WYM contains a dimeric [Ni-Fe] hydrogenase. These features have prompted us to investigate their performance in H₂ production via batch mode optimization using dark fermentation.

6.1. Materials and methods

6.1.1. Isolation of bacteria strains and growth conditions

Sludge of landfill leachate was collected from Jeram Sanitary Landfill in Selangor, Malaysia. The sludge was pretreated at 65°C for duration of 30 min. Culturable H₂-producing bacteria was isolated using enrichment method as described by Tolvanen *et. al.* (221) with slight modifications. Eight 30 mL serum bottles were arranged in series. Each serum bottle was filled with 15 mL of the reaction medium and they are connected using tubing (Cole-Parmer tygon tubing) with needles (0.8×38 and 0.6×25 mm) fixed at either ends. To initiate the enrichment process, 0.15% w/v of sludge was inoculated to the first bottle. The enriched medium was serial diluted and inoculated onto Columbia horse blood agar (CM0331, Oxoid) and reinforced clostridia agar (CM0151, Oxoid). The agars were prepared as the modified Hungate roll tube in 30 mL serum bottles (222). The inoculated agar was incubated anaerobically for 48 hrs. The colonies formed were re-streaked at least three times to obtain pure cultures.

6.1.2. Morphological test

The cell morphology was performed using the standard gram staining and spore staining method (merck). The morphological morphology was observed with a light microscope (Olympus BX51).

6.1.3. Genome project accession numbers

The H₂-producing isolates were identified using whole genome sequencing with Illumina Mi-seq. The draft genome sequences are deposited in the NCBI genome project under the accession number as follows: *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC

(AWRZ00000000.1), *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM (AVSU00000000.1) and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY (AVSV00000000.1) (191-193).

6.1.4. H₂ production in batch fermentation

Batch fermentations were conducted in triplicate, in 200 mL serum bottles containing 150 mL of media. To each serum bottle, 2% v/v inoculum corresponding to 10⁹ c.f.u was added in to the fermentation medium. In all samples, the medium solution contained glucose (0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25 g/L) as the model substrate with the following nutrients: peptone (10 g/L), yeast (3 g/L), NaCl, (5 g/L); CH₃OONa (3 g/L), and cysteine (0.5 g/L). Prior to operation, each vial was purged with argon gas for 2 min and sterilized at 115°C for 15 min. In order to optimize the H₂ production, the effects of initial pH (4, 5, 6, 7 and 8) at various temperatures (25, 30, 37, 45 and 50 °C) were investigated. The volume and composition of the biogas produced were measured and the concentrations of volatile fatty acids (VFA) were also analysed.

6.1.5. Analysis

Glucose and metabolites concentration including acetic acid, butyric acid, lactic acid, formic acid, propionic acid and ethanol were analysed by using a high performance liquid chromatography system (1200 series, Agilent Technologies) equipped with a refraction index detection (RID) and Animex Hi-Pex H column (300 × 7.7 mm, Agilent). The column temperature and detector temperature were adjusted to 65 and 55°C respectively.

Biogas produced was collected and measured using water displacement method. Subsequently, the yield and composition of biogas was analyzed via a gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) with 2.7 m Hayesep Q column packed with molecular sieve. Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 2 mL/min. Injector, detector and oven temperatures were kept at 100, 150 and 60°C, respectively.

6.1.6. Kinetics and thermodynamic analysis

A. Kinetic of H₂ production by modified Gompertz model

The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative volume of H₂ produced over the time course (31, 143, 144):

$$H = H_{max} \left\{ -e \left[\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}} (\lambda - t) + 1 \right] \right\} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

where H is the cumulative H₂ production (mol H₂/mol glucose), H_{max} is the maximum H₂ production (mol H₂/mol glucose), R_{max} is the maximum H₂ production rate (mol H₂/mol glucose/h), λ is the lag phase time (h) and t is the incubation time (h), and $\frac{R_{max} \cdot e}{H_{max}}$ represents the rate constant (k). The modified Gompertz equation was used to fit the cumulative H₂ data, using the OriginPro 8.5.

B. Activation enthalpy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Enthalpy can be determined using Arrhenius approach based on the relationship between the reaction rate constant (k) and temperature (T) (142):

$$k = A e^{\left(\frac{-\Delta H}{R.T}\right)} \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

$$\ln k = \ln A - \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy, A is the Arrhenius pre-exponential factor and R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol). However, Arrhenius equation is strictly limited to an elementary process and only correlates well to the rate measurements for a single reaction which is free of diffusion and thermal resistance.

Biological H₂ production involves complex enzymatic reactions. Hence, the reaction rate of biological H₂ production increases with temperature up to the threshold temperature (T_{opt}). At temperature higher than T_{opt} biological H₂ production is subjected to thermal deactivation due to denaturation of key enzymes and cell death. According to Fabiano and Perego (142), this situation can be represented by the modified Arrhenius equation as follow:

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(A \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H}{RT}, \quad T < T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

$$\ln H_{max} = \ln(B \cdot X \cdot Y) - \frac{\Delta H^*}{RT}, \quad T > T_{opt} \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

Where H_{\max} is the maximum H_2 productivity obtained from modified Gompertz equation, A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, X is the cell mass concentration (g/L), Y is the H_2 yield per unit cell mass (mol H_2 / g cell mass), R is the ideal gas constant (8.3144621 J/K/mol) and T is temperature in Kelvin (K). In term of enthalpy, ΔH is the fermentation activation enthalpy whereas the thermal deactivation enthalpy (ΔH_d) is determined by

$$\Delta H_d = \Delta H + |\Delta H^*| \quad (\text{eq. 6})$$

Thermal deactivation enthalpy represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death.

C. Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation

Activation entropy of fermentation and thermal deactivation can be determined using the following equation which derived from Eyring and Arrhenius equations (142)

$$\Delta S = R \left(\ln \frac{Ah}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 7})$$

$$\Delta S_d = R \left(\ln \frac{Bh}{k_b T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 8})$$

Where A and B are the Arrhenius pre-exponential factors, h is the Planck's constant (6.63×10^{-34} J.s) and k_b is the Boltzmann's constant (1.38×10^{-23} J/K).

D. Gibbs free energy

Gibbs free energy is determined using the following equation

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (\text{eq. 9})$$

Where ΔH is the activation enthalpy obtained from eq. 4 and ΔS is the activation entropy obtained from eq.8.

6.2. Results and discussion

6.2.1. Characterisation of H_2 -producing isolates

The three isolates were identified as Gram positive and rod shape bacteria. Endospore staining revealed that strain JJC and WYM are endospore-forming bacteria but not strain Ade.TY (Figure 6.1). Based on whole genome sequencing, heat plot from multiple genome alignment (Appendix 5-2) revealed that strain JJC is a *Clostridium perfringens* and strain

WYM is a *Clostridium bifermentans*. However, multiple genome alignment shows that strain Ade.TY is a *Clostridium* species but it does not align with any existing genome sequences and hence suggests that strain Ade.TY could be a new species. The relationship of the isolates with their closely related species is represented in a phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA sequences (Figure 6.2). The phylogeny confirmed that strain JJC and WYM are *C. perfringens* and *C. bifermentans*, respectively. As for strain Ade.TY, it branched away from the closely related species and hence further indicates that it may be a new H₂-producing species.

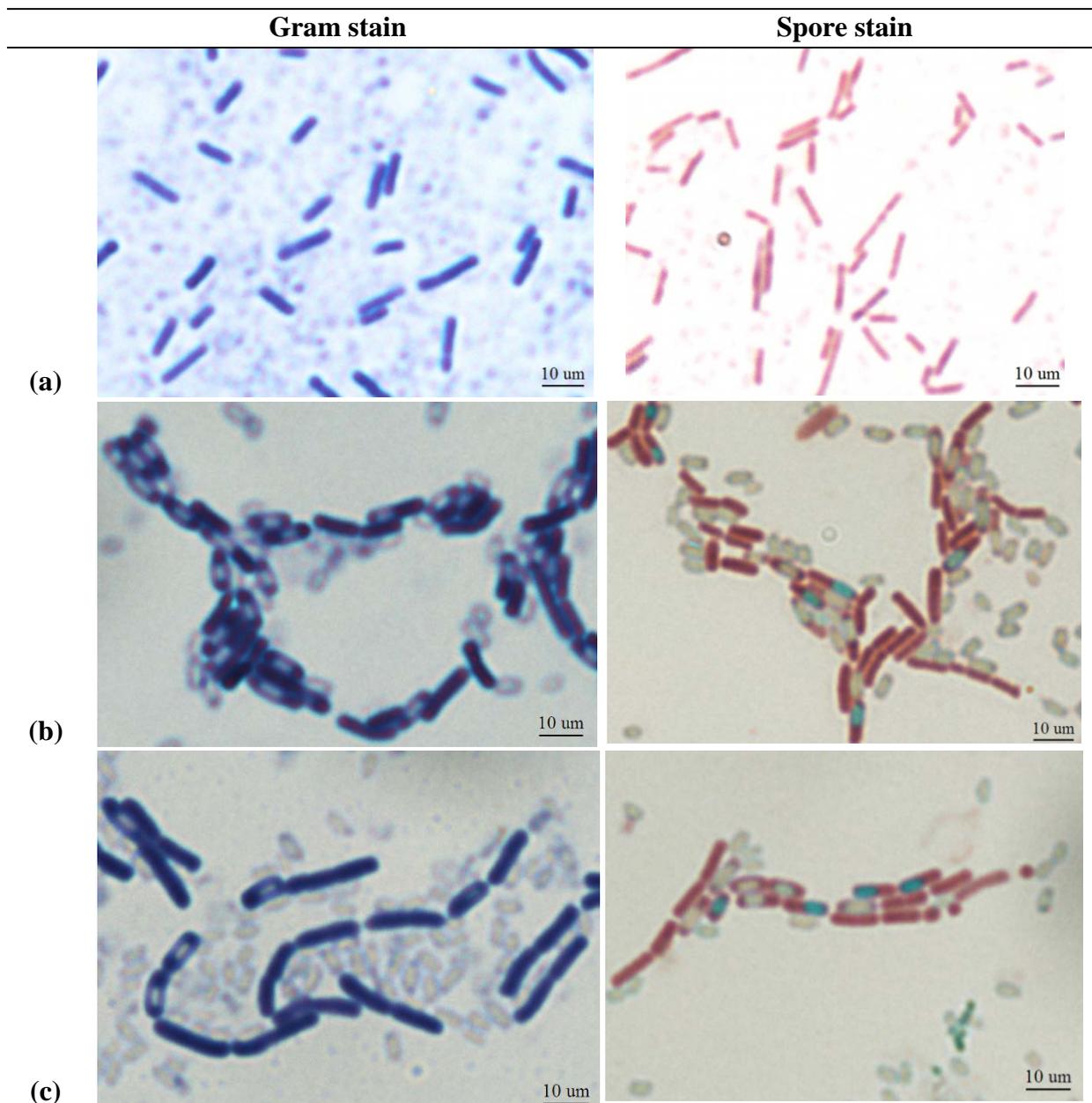


Figure 6.1: Microscopy examination: Gram and spore staining of (a) *Clostridium* sp. Strain Ade.TY, (b) *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC and (c) *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM. Observations were made at (1000×).

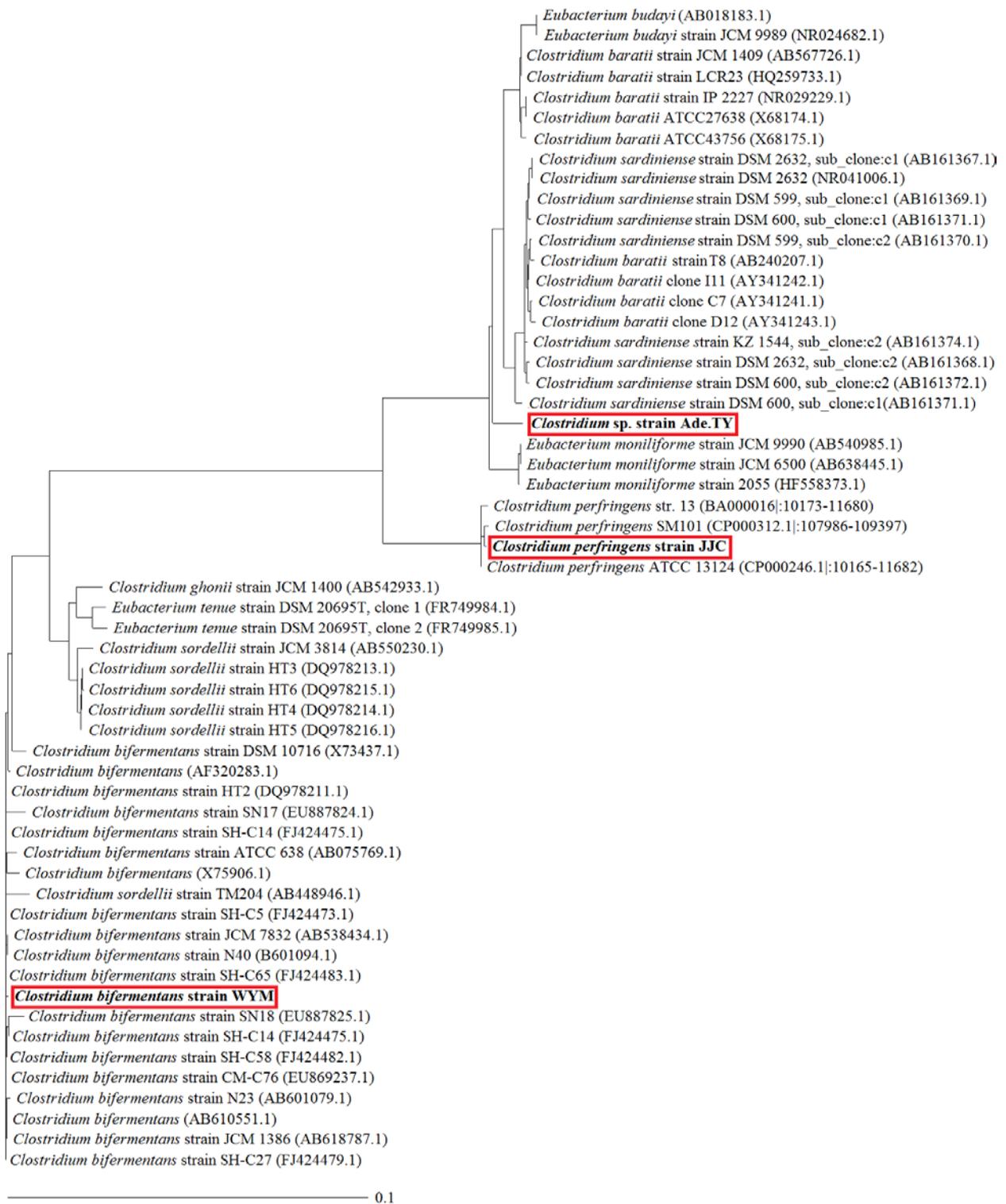


Figure 6.2: Phylogeny of *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium sp.* strain Ade.TY with their respective relatives based on 16S rRNA gene sequences

6.2.2. Effect of initial pH on H₂ production

Hydrogen production from the isolates varies with initial pH. The results are well fitted by the modified Gompertz model with the correlation of more than 0.98 (Table 6.1). For all isolates, the maximum H₂ production was attained at initial pH 6, in the descending order of strain *C. perfringens* strain JJC > *C. bifermentans* strain WYM > *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY with yield of 4.68 ± 0.12 , 3.29 ± 0.11 , 2.87 ± 0.10 mol H₂/ mol glucose, respectively. This was expected because hydrogenase was reported to be active at pH 6 – 6.5 (97, 98). Furthermore, initial pH 6 also has been reported as the optimum initial pH for other *Clostridium* spp. including *C. butyricum* (53, 95), *C. beijerinckii*, *C. tyrobutyricum* (95), *C. saccharoperbutylacetonicum* (96), and *Clostridium* sp. R1 (215). Conversely, the range of initial pH for H₂ production differs between isolates (Table 1). There is no H₂ production and cell growth was detected from *C. perfringens* strain JJC at initial pH 4. Although H₂ production was attained from *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY at initial pH 4, the lag phase of strain Ade.TY was prolonged until 40 h as compared to that of strain WYM which had a shorter lag phase of 35 h. This result suggests that strain JJC does not grow at pH 4 whereas strain WYM can survive in an acidic environment better than strain Ade.TY. In contrast, it is also observed that H₂ production from strain JJC was drastically reduced at different initial pH (Table 1). This indicates that the efficient H₂ production from strain JJC is more affected by pH as compared to the other two isolates. Furthermore, the cell mass increased with initial pH which suggests that substrates were rapidly converted into cell mass instead of H₂. The results are consistent with the growth pH range of *C. perfringens* (pH 5 – 9) and *C. bifermentans* (pH 4 – 10) (211, 223-225). Cell growth and H₂ production are interrelated to the pH of medium as pH changes membrane potential and intracellular pH. These changes might directly influence the synthesis of ATP and activity of proteins for nutrients uptake. For example, it was reported that the size of protein channel for the transport of nutrients is closed by half at pH 5.4 and hence limits the uptake of nutrients such as glucose and amino acids (46, 94, 207). Bacteria physiology is closely related to the effect of pH which in turn affect H₂ production performance.

The high efficient H₂ production observed from the H₂-producing bacteria isolated in this study, especially *C. perfringens* strain JJC, was highly replicable. The maximum H₂ production from *C. perfringens* strain JJC is about 28% higher than *Clostridium* sp. DMHC-10 (Table 6.2). One might argue that the outstandingly high activity of *C. perfringens* strain JJC is against the theoretical yield of dark fermentation. This could be related to the origin of H₂-

producing bacteria, the landfill leachate sludge. Landfill is an environment rich in microbial activity but has a harsh living condition with constantly low and imbalance nutrient level. Therefore, bacteria survived in this environment may possess unique substrate utilization mechanism which leads to efficient H₂ production. Our previous study (179) showed that landfill leachate sludge also exhibit extraordinary H₂ production of 6.43 mol H₂/glucose which exceed the theoretical yield. This indicates that the microbial community was indeed possess unique H₂ production property. Furthermore, whole genome sequencing revealed that this isolate contains two hydrogenases and three [FeFe]-hydrogenase maturation proteins (191). Further research is undergoing to analyse the pathway involve in H₂ production. Nonetheless, the high efficient H₂ production from *C. perfringens* strain JJC is a new discovery.

6.2.3. Effect of fermentation temperature on H₂ production

Fermentation temperature is another influencing factor in H₂ production. The results revealed that all three isolates produced H₂ over a wide range of temperature but the highest H₂ production was achieved at 37°C. The modified Gompertz model gave a good correlation coefficient of more than 0.98 (Table 6.3). Interestingly, H₂ production and cell growth were not detected at temperature higher than 50°C for all isolates. This suggests that these isolates are mesophiles whereby they neither produce H₂ nor grow at high temperature. This is consistent with the growth temperature of *C. perfringens* and *C. bifermentans* which are reported to be in the mesophilic range of 15 – 50°C (211, 223-225). This study also revealed that the potentially new *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY is active at the temperature range of 25 – 45 °C. Additionally, the results suggest that substrates were actively converted into H₂ at 37°C but at 30°C substrates were rapidly converted into cell mass. Both H₂ production and cell growth are the outcome of complex enzymatic reactions. As enzymes are thermal sensitive, therefore, it is logical that a change in temperature from 30 to 37°C would shift the cell response from cell growth to H₂ production. Furthermore, most H₂ production was reported to occur optimally at a narrow temperature range of 35 – 39°C (186). Besides, temperature manipulates the permeability of cell membrane and enzyme activity. Membranes liquefy at high whereas solidify at low temperature. The change in permeability may interfere the integration of membrane proteins which in turn deactivate nutrient transport (208). Hence, H₂ production was restricted at lower and higher temperatures (25, 45 and 50°C).

Table 6.1: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ in the effect of fermentation pH from modified Gompertz equation

Strain	pH	H _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu.)	R _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu./h)	k	λ (h)	R ²	Final pH	Glucose Consumption (%)	Cell dry mass (g/L)
JJC	4	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	5	3.21 ± 0.13	0.19 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	12.5 ± 0.9	0.9866	4.34 ± 0.01	84.7 ± 0.3	1.33 ± 0.11
	6	4.68 ± 0.12	0.24 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01	6.8 ± 0.7	0.9933	4.41 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.39 ± 0.08
	7	3.22 ± 0.06	0.20 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.01	9.2 ± 0.6	0.9954	4.63 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.87 ± 0.17
	8	2.22 ± 0.06	0.12 ± 0.00	0.15 ± 0.01	8.4 ± 0.7	0.9935	4.84 ± 0.00	100.0 ± 0.0	2.11 ± 0.10
WYM	4	0.96 ± 0.04	0.04 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.00	35.3 ± 0.1	0.9999	4.02 ± 0.07	54.2 ± 3.3	0.82 ± 0.03
	5	2.76 ± 0.17	0.08 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.01	18.4 ± 0.5	0.9966	4.23 ± 0.01	65.0 ± 3.2	1.40 ± 0.11
	6	3.29 ± 0.11	0.17 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	7.1 ± 0.9	0.9871	4.31 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.81 ± 0.11
	7	2.97 ± 0.13	0.11 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	8.2 ± 0.9	0.9899	4.42 ± 0.03	100.0 ± 0.0	1.92 ± 0.06
	8	3.16 ± 0.07	0.14 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01	8.1 ± 0.5	0.9965	4.36 ± 0.12	100.0 ± 0.0	1.97 ± 0.06
Ade.TY	4	0.27 ± 0.02	^a N.A.	^a N.A.	^a N.A.	^a N.A.	4.04 ± 0.02	18.2 ± 3.5	0.13 ± 0.00
	5	1.70 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.00	0.21 ± 0.01	22.4 ± 0.4	0.9978	4.34 ± 0.02	92.7 ± 0.4	1.54 ± 0.05
	6	2.87 ± 0.10	0.14 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	9.1 ± 0.9	0.9891	4.37 ± 0.04	100.0 ± 0.0	1.88 ± 0.10
	7	2.60 ± 0.15	0.13 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	12.8 ± 1.3	0.9778	4.52 ± 0.00	100.0 ± 0.0	2.12 ± 0.08
	8	2.71 ± 0.13	0.10 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	8.5 ± 1.1	0.9870	4.48 ± 0.06	100.0 ± 0.0	2.13 ± 0.13

Fermentation conditions: 37 °C, 48 h and 5 g/L glucose

N.A., Not available

^a H₂ production was detected after 40 h, thus kinetic parameters were unable to generate using modified Gompertz model.

Table 6.2: Comparison of H₂ yield of the isolates from this study and other reported H₂ producing bacteria

Isolate	H ₂ yield (mol H ₂ /mol glucose)	Source	Reference
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> strain JJC	4.68	Landfill leachate sludge	This study
<i>Clostridium</i> sp. DMHC-10	3.35	Lab scale anaerobic reactor	(54)
<i>Clostridium bifermentans</i> strain WYM	3.31	Landfill leachate sludge	This study
<i>Clostridium</i> sp. strain Ade.TY	2.85	Landfill leachate sludge	This study
<i>Thermoanaerobacter mathranii</i> A3N (HM17901)	2.64	Oil producing well	(183)
<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> EB6	2.20	Palm oil mill effluent sludge	(184)
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> strain W11	1.53	Cattle dung	(185)

Table 6.3: Kinetic parameters of production H₂ in the effect of fermentation temperature from Modified Gompertz Equation

Strain	Temp. (°C)	H _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu.)	R _{max} (mol H ₂ / mol glu./h)	k	λ (h)	R ²	Final pH	Glucose Consumption (%)	Cell dry mass (g/L)
JJC	25	1.45 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.01	26.8 ± 0.3	0.9983	4.66 ± 0.06	39.6 ± 0.7	0.89 ± 0.11
	30	2.56 ± 0.06	0.12 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.01	16.5 ± 0.4	0.9978	4.68 ± 0.02	92.7 ± 1.7	1.65 ± 0.06
	37	4.68 ± 0.12	0.24 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01	6.8 ± 0.7	0.9933	4.41 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.39 ± 0.08
	45	3.12 ± 0.08	0.16 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01	5.1 ± 0.8	0.9914	4.56 ± 0.04	98.4 ± 0.1	1.16 ± 0.08
	50	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
WYM	25	1.20 ± 0.10	0.05 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.02	24.0 ± 0.7	0.9916	4.64 ± 0.03	93.9 ± 2.6	1.36 ± 0.09
	30	2.49 ± 0.07	0.15 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.01	16.5 ± 0.6	0.9955	4.44 ± 0.02	100.0 ± 0.0	2.07 ± 0.11
	37	3.29 ± 0.11	0.17 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	7.1 ± 1.0	0.9871	4.31 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.81 ± 0.11
	45	2.60 ± 0.09	0.13 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	8.4 ± 0.9	0.9899	4.33 ± 0.02	100.0 ± 0.0	1.72 ± 0.02
	50	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Ade.TY	25	1.12 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.02	17.4 ± 0.6	0.9953	4.76 ± 0.04	28.5 ± 4.5	1.46 ± 0.04
	30	2.24 ± 0.10	0.08 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	12.4 ± 0.8	0.9938	4.43 ± 0.02	100.0 ± 0.0	2.14 ± 0.02
	37	2.87 ± 0.10	0.14 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02	9.1 ± 0.9	0.9891	4.37 ± 0.04	100.0 ± 0.0	1.88 ± 0.10
	45	2.10 ± 0.08	0.09 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01	7.3 ± 0.9	0.9893	4.37 ± 0.08	99.5 ± 0.9	1.66 ± 0.03
	50	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

Fermentation conditions: pH 6, 48 h and 5 g/L glucose

N.A., Not available

6.2.4. Thermodynamics of H₂ production from the isolates

Table 6.4 summarises the thermodynamic parameters estimated from the modified Arrhenius model. The Gibbs free energy for H₂ production from the isolates were estimated at -35, -34 and -33 kJ/mol for *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, respectively (Table 6.4). Figure 6.3 also shows a good regression of the modified Arrhenius plots. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the actual optimum fermentation temperature in which the temperature for H₂ production from strain JJC and WYM was estimated at 37.4 °C and strain Ade.TY at 36.4 °C. The thermodynamic analysis suggests that the high efficient H₂ production from these isolates are thermodynamically favourable.

Activation enthalpy of fermentation (ΔH) measured the thermodynamic potential which represents the amount of energy released or absorbed in a reaction. The estimated ΔH was 75, 63 and 58 kJ/mol for H₂ production from *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, respectively (Table 6.4). This represents that energy was absorbed during H₂ production. This outcome is logical because biological H₂ is the product of a series of enzymatic reactions which requires energy from ATP hydrolysis (60, 156, 179). The ΔH obtained in this study is also in agreement with the energy for microbial growth (54 – 71 kJ/mol) (142) and for enzymatic reaction (18 – 83 kJ/mol) (179). Conversely, activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (ΔH_d) represents the threshold energy for enzymatic denaturation and microbial death. The estimated ΔH_d was 93, 71, 64 kJ/mol H₂ production from strain JJC, strain WYM and strain Ade.TY, respectively. This indicates that the three isolates are sensitive to thermal deactivation because these values are lower than the reported value 290–380 kJ/mol for microbial death (157) and slightly lower than the ΔH_d reported for H₂ production (113 – 118 kJ/mol) (142, 179). Thermodynamic analysis in this study suggests that H₂-producing bacteria isolated from landfill leachate sludge are endothermic (require energy for enzymatic reactions) and sensitive to thermal deactivation.

Entropy represents the randomness of a reaction. The calculated activation entropy of fermentation (ΔS) was 0.354, 0.312 and 0.294 kJ/mol/K for strain JJC, strain WYM and strain Ade.TY, respectively. The positive values of ΔS suggest that H₂ productions from the three isolates were random reactions. Conversely, the calculated activation entropy of thermal deactivation (ΔS_d) was 0.053, -0.017 and -0.039 /mol/K for strain JJC, strain WYM and strain Ade.TY, respectively. It is reasonable to obtain a positive value of ΔS_d from strain JJC.

This is because when enzymes are deactivated, the randomness of a system is increased (158, 159). However, it is interesting to note that negative values of ΔS_d were obtained for strain WYM and strain Ade.TY, as these represent that deactivation of enzymes reduced randomness of a system. This result is similar to other those reported earlier by others (142, 158, 179) but the significance of negativity is remained unknown (158, 159).

Table 6.4: Thermodynamics quantities of H₂ production from the H₂-producing isolates

Thermodynamic parameter	Strain JJC	Strain WYM	Strain Ade.TY
Gibbs free energy (kJ/mol)	-35	-34	-33
Activation enthalpy of fermentation (kJ/mol)	75	63	58
Activation entropy of fermentation (kJ/mol/K)	0.354	0.312	0.294
Activation enthalpy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol)	93	71	64
Activation entropy of thermal deactivation (kJ/mol/K)	0.053	-0.017	-0.039

No data from initial pH 4 was not displayed, as there were no H₂ productions detected.

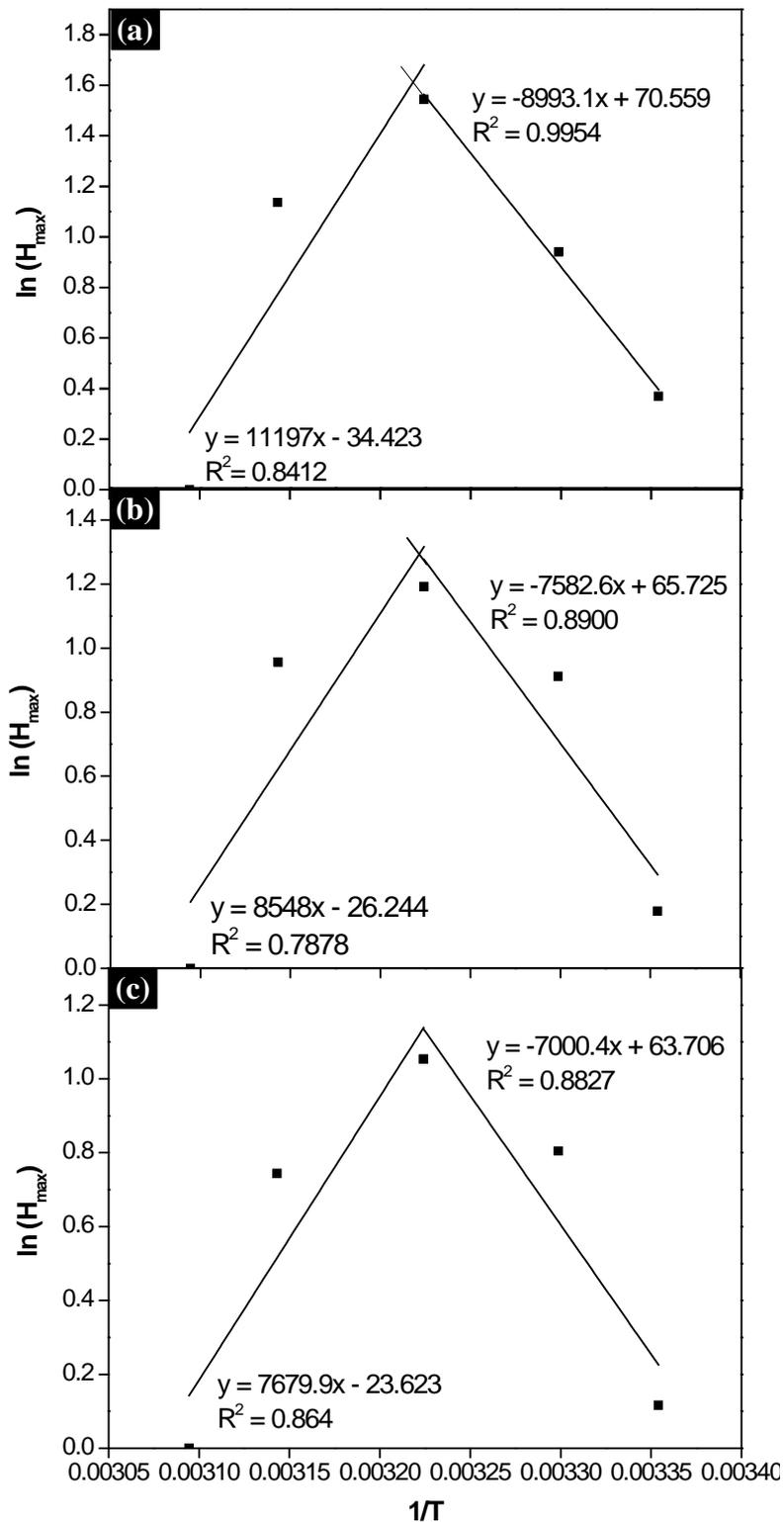


Figure 6.3: Modified Arrhenius plot for the evaluation of enthalpies and entropies: (a) *C. perfringens* strain JJC, (b) *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and (c) *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY. The intersection point of the linear lines represents the optimum fermentation temperature.

6.2.5. Effect of organic load on H₂ production

The initial organic load also plays an important role on the H₂ production. The maximum H₂ yield from all three isolates was unveiled by glucose concentration of 5 g/L which is equivalent to C:N 1.0. Interestingly, small amount of H₂ in all the isolates ranging from 0.046 to 0.095 mmol H₂ was detected even without any input of glucose (Table 6.5). This indicates that the bacteria are using nitrogen and water to produce trace amount of H₂ that was only accounted for 0.23, 0.67 and 0.51% from strain JJC, WYM and Ade.TY, respectively. There was a remarkable increase in H₂ yield with glucose concentrations from 0 to 5 g/L glucose. This observation is reasonable because H₂ is produce from glucose decarboxylation and proton reduction. (35, 108). Hence, increasing glucose concentration enhances substrate accessibility which in turn improves H₂ production. Conversely, there was a reduction in H₂ yield with increased of cell dry mass at substrate concentration of 10 – 20 g/L glucose. This indicates that substrate was rapidly converted into cell mass instead of H₂. Seemingly, glucose was not utilized efficiently by the bacteria with the measured glucose consumption range of 20 to 70 % (Table 5). Hence, this suggests that H₂ production is subjected to substrate inhibition at higher substrate concentration.

The law of mass action states that the rate of formation increases with substrates concentration (160). This is observed when substrate concentration was increased from 2 to 5 g/L with an increase in H₂ yield of 59, 72 and 53% for strain JJC, WYM and Ade.TY, respectively. At 5 g/L glucose, the availability of substrate stimulates the fermentation towards H₂ and organic acids production to reach equilibrium. Nonetheless, enzymes involve in H₂ production are subject to substrate inhibition (160). Generally, it is assumed that more H₂ will be produced from higher availability of substrates. However, the H₂ yield from strain JJC, WYM and Ade.TY displayed a reduction up to 79, 66 and 74%, respectively, when the glucose concentration increased up to 20 g/L. This phenomenon was observed because at higher substrate concentration, the accumulation of organic acids triggered a product or feedback inhibition which eventually hinders glucose uptake. This phenomenon was also encountered by other researchers (161). As a consequence, the availability of subsequent metabolites, such as reduced-ferredoxin responsible for proton reduction, is also reduced and causes a chain effect to inhibit H₂ production.

Nitrogen source also has an important role in H₂ production. The best H₂ production performance was observed at C:N 1.0 whereas no H₂ production and cell growth were detected from three isolates without the presence of yeast extract and peptone. This suggests

that nitrogen source is essential for bacteria cell growth and consequently inhibit H₂ production. Furthermore, reduced H₂ yield with higher cell dry mass was obtained at C:N 2.5 and 5.0. This evident that substrate was rapidly converted into cell mass instead of H₂ which was also observed by Bao et al. (136). The reduced H₂ yield could be associated with the electron flow within the fermentation. Fermentation condition with concentrated carbon but limited nitrogen source interrupts electron flow and shifts metabolic pathways to produce more reduced compounds like butyrate and lactate. Similar phenomena was also observed in the study conducted by Lin and Lay (115). Therefore, appropriate ratio, in this case C:N 1.0, directs metabolic pathways to one which enhances H₂ production.

Table 6.5: H₂ production H₂ in the effect of substrate concentration

Strain	Gluc. conc. (g/L)	C:N	Hydrogen yield		Final pH	Glucose Consumption (%)	Cell dry mass (g/L)
			mol H ₂ / mol glu.	mmol H ₂			
JJC	0	0.0	N.A.	0.046 ± 0.005	5.84 ± 0.04	N.A.	0.02 ± 0.01
	2	0.5	1.91 ± 0.04	3.39 ± 0.07	4.28 ± 0.05	100.0 ± 0.0	0.82 ± 0.04
	5	1.0	4.68 ± 0.12	19.9 ± 0.49	4.41 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.39 ± 0.08
	10	2.5	1.96 ± 0.07	16.9 ± 0.59	4.43 ± 0.03	65.8 ± 0.9	2.04 ± 0.06
	20	5.0	0.96 ± 0.03	16.8 ± 0.55	4.61 ± 0.05	20.3 ± 1.7	2.22 ± 0.07
WYM	0	0.0	N.A.	0.095 ± 0.050	5.65 ± 0.04	N.A.	0.22 ± 0.02
	2	0.5	0.90 ± 0.14	1.46 ± 0.22	4.44 ± 0.00	100.0 ± 0.0	1.43 ± 0.08
	5	1.0	3.29 ± 0.11	14.0 ± 0.48	4.31 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.81 ± 0.11
	10	2.5	2.52 ± 0.05	21.1 ± 0.42	4.41 ± 0.01	69.8 ± 0.7	2.06 ± 0.11
	20	5.0	1.12 ± 0.06	18.7 ± 0.98	4.46 ± 0.00	23.3 ± 3.8	2.14 ± 0.13
Ade.TY	0	0.0	N.A.	0.062 ± 0.009	5.72 ± 0.02	N.A.	0.14 ± 0.02
	2	0.5	1.33 ± 0.06	2.16 ± 0.10	4.53 ± 0.01	100.0 ± 0.0	1.12 ± 0.05
	5	1.0	2.87 ± 0.10	12.8 ± 0.43	4.37 ± 0.04	100.0 ± 0.0	1.88 ± 0.10
	10	2.5	1.78 ± 0.03	15.4 ± 0.27	4.48 ± 0.01	72.6 ± 1.9	2.20 ± 0.05
	20	5.0	0.75 ± 0.03	12.4 ± 0.43	4.39 ± 0.01	47.7 ± 1.5	2.16 ± 0.21

Fermentation conditions: pH 6, 37 °C and 48 h

No H₂ production was detected at 0 g/L nitrogen source and hence results are not shown.

N.A., Not available

6.2.6. Production of volatile fatty acids

The formation of H₂ is always associated with production of volatile fatty acids (VFA) and alcohol. The profile of volatile fatty acids and alcohol from the three isolates at different conditions are display in Figure 4. Acetate and butyrate were identified as the main fermentative products. Commonly, the pathway of fermentative H₂ production is monitored using the ratio of acetate to butyrate (Ace:But) (186). At optimum condition, Ace:But was 0.77, 0.65 and 0.80 for strain JJC, WYM and Ade.TY, respectively. These results are surprising because it disagree with the other literatures which reports that efficient H₂ production is associated with Ace:But ration greater than 1.0 (149, 210, 211). In theory, production of acetate is accompanied with 4 mole of H₂, while production of butyrate is accompanied with 2 mole of H₂. Therefore, it is expected that high Ace:But ratio in mix fermentation will favour H₂ production. In this study, the unexpected results from *C. perfringens* strain JJC could be due to the arrangement and activation of gene for the key enzymes involved. The key enzymes involved in acetate, butyrate and H₂ production are acetate kinase, butyrate kinase and hydrogenase. In *C. perfringens*, the butyrate kinase gene is located at the upstream of hydrogenase gene and they are parallel regulated in the response of glucose availability (Figure 4) (212). This suggests that the Ace:But may not be an accurate indicator to signify high H₂ production. In fact, the H₂ yield might be closely related to the gene activation of key enzymes. In contrast, there are limited or/and no relevant information for strain WYM and Ade.TY, respectively. Further studies are in progress to analyse the gene interactions using the genome sequences, cloning and hybridization tests.

It is interesting to note that the composition of VFA and alcohol varies at different fermentation conditions and different isolates. For *C. perfringens* strain JJC, the proportion of butyrate reduced with an increased composition of lactate, formate and ethanol at conditions beyond optimum. For *C. bifermentans* strain WYM, formate was detected at 0 g/L glucose and propionate was detected at 10 and 20 g/L glucose. For *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, the composition of acetate and lactate increased with a reduced composition of butyrate. Evidently, the fermentation pathways changes at different fermentation conditions. This reflects a shift in bioactivity of key enzymes that are extremely sensitive to pH, temperature and organic load. Activities of key enzymes such as phosphotransbutyrylase (butyrate formation) (213), NAD-independent lactate dehydrogenase (pyruvate formation) (214), and phosphotransacetylase (acetate formation) (214) was only physiologically active at pH 6, 7.5, and 5, respectively. Furthermore, enzymatic activities might also influenced by the

imbalance of electron flow (115). Excess protons and substrates shift fermentation pathways to produce the more reduced metabolites including ethanol and lactate and hence reduced H₂ yield. Therefore, the appropriate combination of fermentation conditions is critical to ensure the key enzymes function properly and efficient H₂ production.

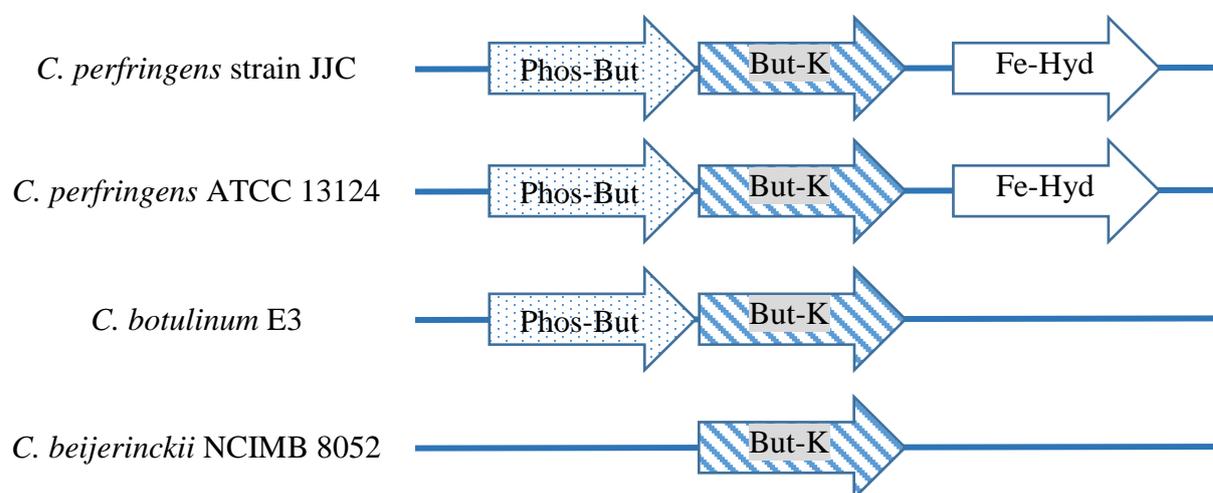


Figure 4: Gene arrangement of Phos-But (phosphate butyryltransferase, EC 2.3.1.19), But-K (Butyrate kinase, EC 2.7.2.7) and Fe-Hyd (Periplasmic [Fe] hydrogenase large EC 1.12.7.2) in different *Clostridium* spp. (RAST 2.0)

Table 7: Acetate : Butyrate at different fermentation conditions

Conditions	Acetate : Butyrate		
	Strain JJC	Strain WYM	Strain Ade.TY
pH 4	N.A.	1.14	0.96
pH 5	1.42	1.17	1.24
pH 6	0.77	0.65	0.80
pH 7	1.48	0.81	0.78
pH 8	1.78	1.22	0.79
25°C	1.10	1.02	0.73
30°C	0.46	0.95	1.19
37°C	0.77	0.65	0.80
45°C	1.32	0.87	1.32
50°C	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
0 g/L	12.1	5.37	4.01
2 g/L	1.61	2.77	1.07
5 g/L	0.77	0.65	0.80
10 g/L	1.44	2.43	0.55
20 g/L	1.16	1.84	0.27

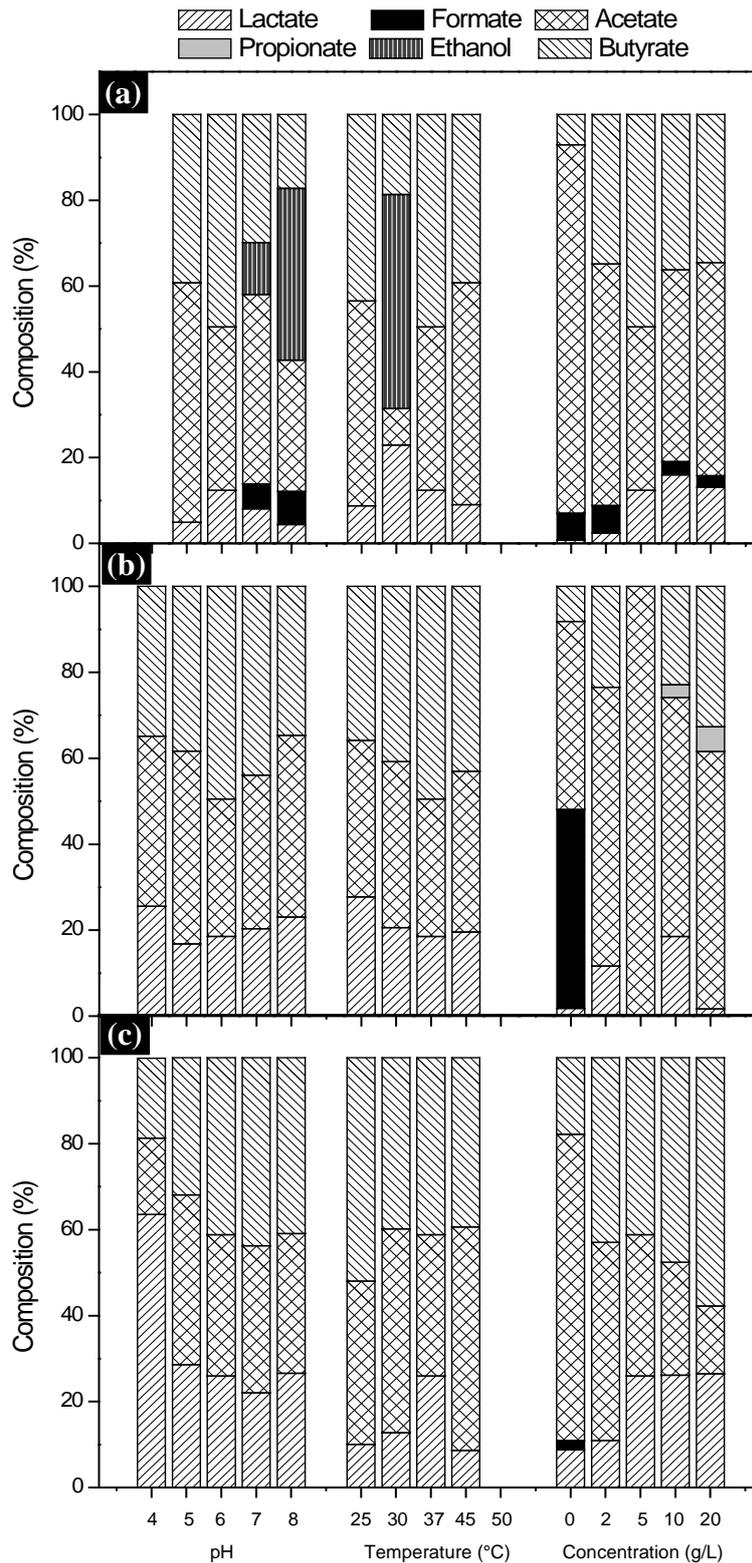


Figure 4: Profile of volatile fatty acids and alcohol from (a) *C. perfringens* strain JJC, (b) *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and (c) *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, at different conditions.

6.3. Conclusion

Three new H₂-producing bacteria, namely *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC, *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, isolated from landfill leachate sludge demonstrate good performance in H₂ production. The maximum H₂ yield attained from these isolates are in the descending order of strain *C. perfringens* strain JJC > *C. bifermentans* strain WYM > *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY with yield of 4.68 ± 0.12 , 3.29 ± 0.11 , 2.87 ± 0.10 mol H₂/ mol glucose, respectively. Interestingly, the high efficient and thermodynamically favourable H₂ production and, especially from *C. perfringens* strain JJC has been discovered. Based on this study, profile of fermentative products suggested that the low ratio of Ace: But is also capable of producing high H₂ yield. Instead, fermentative H₂ production involves complex gene interactions that are not yet known. This study provides a new insight on the potential of unique bacteria in H₂ production and opens a new opportunity for future investigation on H₂ production via the enzymatic and molecular basis.

Chapter 6a

Isolation and identification of H₂-producing bacteria

The work presented in this chapter has been published as Genome Announcement:

Wong YM, Juan JC, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium perfringens* Strain JJC, a Highly Efficient Hydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).

Wong YM, Juan JC, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium bifermentans* Strain WYM, a Promising Biohydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).

Wong YM, Juan JC, Ting A, Wu TY, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium* sp. Strain Ade.TY, a New Biohydrogen- and Biochemical-Producing Bacterium Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).

Monash University

Declaration for Thesis Chapter 6a

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter 7, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Analysis and interpretation of data	100
Drafting and writing the publication	90

The following co-authors contributed to the work. If co-authors are students at Monash University, the extent of their contribution in percentage terms must be stated:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%) for student co-authors only
A/P Dr. Juan Joon Ching	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Gan Han Ming	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Prof. Chris M Austin	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Adeline Ting	Reviewed the publication	N.A.
Dr. Wu Ta Yeong	Reviewed the publication	N.A.

The undersigned hereby certify that the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's and co-authors' contributions to this work*.

Candidate's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

Main Supervisor's Signature

	Date 9 Sept 2014
---	---------------------

*Note: Where the responsible author is not the candidate's main supervisor, the main supervisor should consult with the responsible author to agree on the respective contributions of the authors.

6a.1. Introduction

Hydrogen-producing bacteria are naturally found in the environment including the landfill leachate sludge (48, 51). This sludge provides a harsh living environment that is hazardous and constantly nutrient-scarce. Hence, H₂-producing bacteria that live in this sludge could be less susceptible to external stress which in turn contribute to industrial application including bio-H₂ and biochemical production.

Among the existing H₂-producing bacteria, members of the genus *Clostridium* are obligate anaerobes that produce hydrogen more efficiently than do facultative anaerobes, such as *Bacillus* sp., *Klebsiella* sp., and *Enterobacter* sp. (53, 95, 96, 215-218). In addition, all production of biological hydrogen is accompanied by the production of useful organic acids and solvents, such as acetate, butyrate, lactate, formate, ethanol, and butanol, which have industrial applications. Hence, *Clostridium* spp. have promising potential applications in industrial biotechnology.

Three H₂-producing were isolated from landfill leachate sludge and were successfully identified with the whole genome sequencing (WGS) using Illumina MiSeq. This method identifies unknown species effectively, at the same time, unveils the characteristics of bacteria at the genome level (226-228). Hence, it is a rapid and accurate process that provides depth of information of a bacteria strain. This chapter summarises the genome characteristics of these isolated.

6a.2. Methods and Materials

6a.2.1. Isolation of H₂ producing bacteria

Landfill leachate sludge was pretreated at 65°C for 30 min as described in Chapter 3. Culturable H₂-producing bacteria were isolated using enrichment method as described by Tolvanen *et. al.* (229) with slight modifications. Eight 30 mL serum bottles were arranged in series (Figure 6a.1). Each serum bottle was filled with 15 mL of the reaction medium as described in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4 and they are connected using tygon tubing (Cole-Parmer) with needles (0.8×38 and 0.6×25 mm) fixed at either ends. To ensure unidirectional fluid flow, the tip of the longer needle was adjusted to just above the liquid surface of the first bottle and the shorter needle was adjusted to the head space of the neighboring bottle. To initiate the enrichment process, 0.15% w/v of sludge was inoculated to

the first bottle. As bacteria grew in the first bottle, accumulation of biogas increased air pressure in the head space and the medium carrying H_2 -producing bacteria was transferred into the neighboring bottle through the needles. The principle of this method is that the fast-growing H_2 -producing bacteria will be transferred to the next bottle before other bacteria such as the H_2 -consuming bacteria have a chance to grow. The enrichment process was terminated when growth was visible in the last bottle. The enriched medium was serially diluted (10^{-1} to 10^{-8}) and 100 μL was directly-inoculated on Columbia horse blood agar (CM0331, Oxoid) and reinforced clostridial agar (CM0151, Oxoid). The media were prepared as the modified Hungate roll tube in 30 mL serum bottles (230). The inoculated agar was incubated anaerobically for 48 h. The colonies formed were streak-plated on Columbia horse blood agar at least three times to obtain pure cultures.

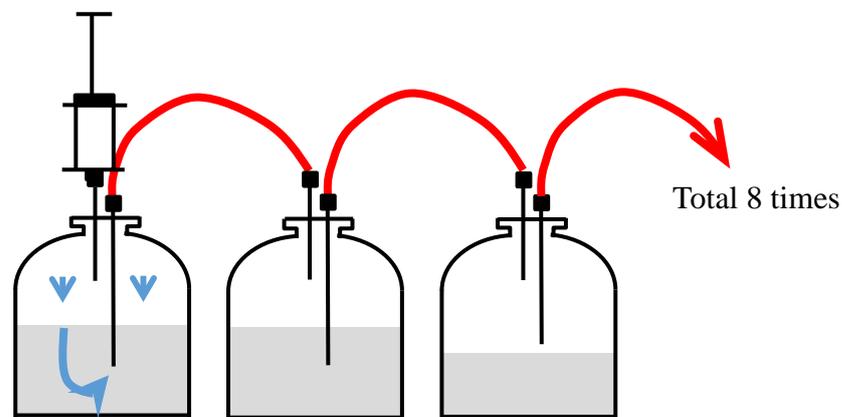


Figure 6a.1: Experimental setup for enrichment of H_2 producing bacteria.

6a.2.2. Sample preparation for whole genome sequencing using Illumina MiSeq

Genomes of the three isolates were sequenced using Illumina MiSeq for genomic analysis and species identification. The bacteria culture was prepared as described in Section 6A.1.1. DNA was extracted using the protocol design for Gram-positive bacteria in the QiagenDNeasy[®] Blood & Tissue Kit and then purified using the Agencourt AMPure XP purification kit. The Qubit[®] 2.0 Fluorometer was used to quantify the concentration and purity of gDNA. The quality control on size, quantity and purity of gDNA extractions was performed using the Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent). Sample preparation and sequencing kit used were Nextera XT DNA Sample Preparation Kit and MiSeq Reagent Kits v2 respectively. Whole genome sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq Benchtop Sequencer (2 \times 150 bp paired-end sequencing).

6a.2.3. Bioinformatics analysis

The reads generated from Illumina MiSeq were trimmed and assembled *de novo* using CLC Genomics Workbench 6.0 (CLC Bio, Denmark). Multiple genome alignment was conducted using Gegenees 2.0.3. The average similarities of the conserved core and size of core was set at 20% (231). The genome sequence was annotated with the Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology (RAST) server (232). Rnammer 1.2 and tRNA-scan-SE 1.21 were used to predict rRNA and tRNA respectively (233, 234).

6a.3. Results and discussion

6a.3.1. Identification of H₂-producing isolates

A. *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC

Based on 16S rRNA analysis, strain JJC has a 100% identity score to *C. perfringens* ATCC 13124 and 99% to *C. perfringens* strains 13 and SM101 (Appendix 6-1). In addition, the heat plot from multiple-genome alignment revealed that strain JJC shares 95% similarities to strains 13 and ATCC 13124 and 88% to strain SM101 (Appendix 6-2). The results proved that strain JJC is a new strain of *C. perfringens*. The draft genome sequence of strain JJC comprises 3,259,329 bases in 69 contigs. It has a G+C content of 28.12% and contains 2,986 genes, 5 rRNAs, and 67 tRNAs. The characteristics of the genome of strain JJC are summarized in Table 6a.1. The draft genome sequence has been deposited in the GeneBank with the accession number AWRZ01000000 and published in Genome Announcement (191).

C. perfringens strain JJC contains two hydrogenases: [Fe] hydrogenase HydA and a dimeric cytoplasmic [Fe] hydrogenase. These proteins are activated and modified by three [FeFe]-hydrogenase maturation proteins, namely, HydE, HydF, and HydG (220, 235). In addition, it contains genes encoding products such as butyrate kinase (212) and acetate kinase (236) that are involved in the production of organic acids and solvents, including butyrate and acetate.

B. *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM

According to 16S rRNA analysis, strain WYM has 99 to 100% identity with many *C. bifermentans* strains, including strains E006 and E019 (Appendix 6-1). In addition, the heat plot from the multiple-genome alignment revealed that strain WYM shares up to 95% similarity with *C. bifermentans* ATCC 19299 AVNB01 and 88% with ATCC 638 AVNC01 (Appendix 6-2). These results suggest that strain WYM is a new strain of *C. bifermentans*. The draft genome sequence of strain WYM comprises 3,475,995 bases in 180 contigs. It has a G+C content of 28.02% and contains 3,380 genes, 5 rRNAs, and 51 tRNAs. The characteristics of genome are summarized in Table 6a.1. It is denoted as strain WYM and the draft genome sequence has been deposited in the GeneBank with the accession number of AVSU00000000. The draft genome is also published in Genome Announcement (192).

C. bifermentans WYM contains a dimeric [NiFe] hydrogenase that is regulated by the genes *hypA* and *hypB*. In addition, it contains genes encoding products such as acetate kinase, butyrate kinase, and ethanol dehydrogenase that are involved in the production of organic acids and solvents, including acetate, butyrate, and ethanol.

C. *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY

The 16S rRNA analysis revealed that strain Ade.TY has a 99% identity score with several uncultured bacteria strains, and the 16S-rRNA phylogenetic tree also revealed that *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY is a branch that is distant from other *Clostridium* species (Appendix 6-1). This finding suggests that *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY may be a new hydrogen-producing species. This is further demonstrated by the heat plot from multiple-genome alignment, which revealed that strain Ade.TY has <50% similarity to the existing complete and draft genome databases of *Clostridium* species (Appendix 6-2). The draft genome sequence comprises 3,113,901 bases in 66 contigs. It has a GC content of 26.75% and contains 3,104 genes and 9 rRNAs and 68 tRNAs. The characteristics of genome of strain ADE.TY are summarized in Table 6a.1. It is denoted as *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY and the draft genome sequence has been deposited in the GeneBank with the accession number of AVSV00000000. The draft genome is published in Genome Announcement (193).

Clostridium sp. strain Ade.TY contains a dimeric-periplasmic [Fe] hydrogenase and two [Ni-Fe] hydrogenases. It has an energy-converting hydrogenase that is regulated by six

gene clusters, *hypA*, *hypB*, *hypC*, *hypD*, *hypE*, and *hypF*, and a dimeric [Ni-Fe] hydrogenase (220).

Table 6a.1: Characteristics of genomes of the three selected isolates

Isolates	<i>C. perfringens</i> Strain JJC	<i>C. bifermentans</i> Strain WYM	<i>Clostridium</i> sp. Strain Ade.TY
Genome size (bases)	3,259,329	3,113,901	3,475,995
No. of contigs	69	66	180
GC content	28.12%	26.75%	28.02%
No. of genes	2986	3104	3380
No. of rRNA	5	9	5
No. of tRNA	67	68	51

6a.4. Conclusion

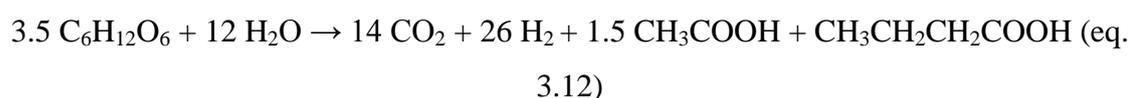
Three culturable H₂-producing bacteria isolated from landfill leachate sludge were successfully identified as *Clostridium* sp. Strain Ade.TY, *C. perfringens* Strain JJC and *C. bifermentans* Strain WYM, respectively. These information aid in the future of cloning and metabolic engineering of the isolates.

Chapter 7
Conclusion and future work

7.0. Major findings and contributions of this study

The primary aims of this project were to investigate the H₂ production performance from landfill leachate sludge via dark fermentation and to analyse the microbial property responsible for H₂ production.

1. In this study, it can be concluded that landfill leachate sludge possesses great potential in H₂ production with the highest H₂ yield achieved was almost three-fold higher than the previously reported yield. The maximum H₂ yield of 6.43 mol H₂/mol glucose was achieved by the sludge pretreated at 65 °C, with 100% of substrate consumption, under the conditions of 37°C, pH 6.0 and 10 g/L glucose. This new record of high H₂ has break the conventional theoretical yield of 4 mol H₂/ mol glucose. The proposed theoretical stoichiometric equation of H₂ production from glucose based on the experimental Ace:But ratio is as follows:



This process is thermodynamically favourable with the Gibbs free energy, fermentation activation enthalpy and entropy of – 34 kJ/mol, 68 kJ/mol and 0.331 kJ/mol/K, respectively (Chapter 3).

2. It is revealed by 16S-rRNA Metagenomics that the pretreated sludge at 65 °C contained 98% of H₂-producing bacteria from the genera *Clostridium*, *Bacillus*, *Eubacterium* and *Sporacetigenium*. In comparison, untreated sludge contained over 100 families of bacteria, mainly H₂-consuming bacteria including genera *Pseudomonas*, *Sulfurimonas* and *Treponema*. This difference explained the high efficient H₂ production from 65 °C pretreated sludge could be due to the synergism between H₂-producing bacteria (Chapter 4).
3. The H₂-producing community in the 65 °C pretreated landfill leachate sludge also showed good performance in H₂ production from dairy wastewater with the maximum H₂ yield of 113.2 ± 2.9 mmol H₂/g COD (12.8 ± 0.3 mmol H₂/g carb.) at the optimum condition of 37°C and pH 6.0. The amount of H₂ produced from dairy wastewater using landfill leachate sludge was higher than the reported yield which suggests that H₂-producing community in this sludge has high competency in H₂ production (Chapter 5).
4. Three high efficient H₂-producing bacteria were successfully isolated from landfill leachate sludge, namely *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM, *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY (Chapter 7). The performance of H₂ production of the

isolates was in the descending order of *C. perfringens* strain JJC > *C. bifermentans* strain WYM > *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, with yield of 4.68 ± 0.12 , 3.29 ± 0.11 , 2.87 ± 0.10 mol H₂/ mol glucose, respectively. The high H₂ yields from the isolates are thermodynamically favourable with the Gibb's free energy of 35, -34 and -33 kJ/mol for *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM and *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY, respectively (Chapter 6). This shows that *C. perfringens* strain JJC could convert substrates to H₂ more efficiently as compared to the others. It is important to note that the H₂ yield from single H₂-producing bacteria was less efficient as compared to the performance of H₂ production using landfill leachate sludge as inoculum. In summary, landfill leachate sludge contains functional microbial community for efficient H₂ production with good potential in industrial application.

7.1. Future directions

This project provides new insight on the H₂ production via dark fermentation. Conventionally, it is assumed the highest H₂ yield could not exceed the theoretical yield of 4 mol H₂/mol glucose due to conversion of substrate into cell biomass, organic acid and alcohol, but this was subvert in this study. Therefore, future research could be focus on understanding the mechanism of the uniqueness in microbial community in landfill leachate sludge.

For H₂ production from glucose using 65 °C pretreated sludge as inoculum:

- (1) Functional metagenomics can be conducted to analyse the uniqueness of the genome and to analyse the potential gene interactions which in turn deduce the key enzymes that involved in H₂ production.
- (2) Biochemical essays or transcriptomics analysis can be carried out to analyse the activities of key enzymes. With the profile of enzymatic analysis, a metabolic pathway can be generated to further validate eq. 3.12.

For H₂ production from dairy wastewater:

- (3) H₂ production can be conducted in an up-scale continuous bioreactor to further investigate the potential of industrial application of using landfill leachate sludge to produce H₂ from wastewater

For the H₂-producing isolates:

- (4) Gene knockout and cloning can be conducted in the isolates to investigate the role of important enzymes such as hydrogenase in H₂ production. These isolates were living in a landfill which is nutrient limited and has a complex combination of organic compound. In order to survive in the harsh environment, these bacteria may possess unique genetic features as compared to other strains which allow them to have good performance in H₂ production. Identifying the key genes could contribute to a better knowledge in metabolic engineering to improve H₂ production.
- (5) Further studies can be conducted to improve H₂ production from the isolates such as genetically modify hydrogenase in the isolates to enhance performance of hydrogen production.
- (6) *Clostridium* sp. strain Ade.TY. is suspected to be a new species of H₂-producing bacteria. Further analysis such as the average-nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis can be conducted to verify the bacteria species delineation.

References

1. Dunn S. Hydrogen futures: toward a sustainable energy system. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2002;27(3):235-64.
2. Shafiee S, Topal E. When will fossil fuel reserves be diminished? *Energy Policy*. 2009;37(1):181-9.
3. Hefner RA. *The Age of Energy Gases: China's Opportunity for Global Energy Leadership*. 2007.
4. Chong M-L, Rahim RA, Shirai Y, Hassan MA. Biohydrogen production by *Clostridium butyricum* EB6 from palm oil mill effluent. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(2):764-71.
5. Momirlan M, Veziroglu TN. The properties of hydrogen as fuel tomorrow in sustainable energy system for a cleaner planet. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2005;30(7):795-802.
6. Conte M, Iacobazzi A, Ronchetti M, Vellone R. Hydrogen economy for a sustainable development: state-of-the-art and technological perspectives. *Journal of Power Sources*. 2001;100(1-2):171-87.
7. Wünschiers R, Lindblad P. Hydrogen in education—a biological approach. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2002;27(11-12):1131-40.
8. Midilli A, Ay M, Dincer I, Rosen MA. On hydrogen and hydrogen energy strategies: I: current status and needs. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 2005;9(3):255-71.
9. Balat M, Kirtay E. Major Technical Barriers to a “Hydrogen Economy”. *Energy Sources, Part A: Recovery, Utilization, and Environmental Effects*. 2010;32(9):863-76.
10. Holladay JD, Hu J, King DL, Wang Y. An overview of hydrogen production technologies. *Catalysis Today*. 2009;139(4):244-60.
11. Stefanakos EK, Goswami DY, Srinivasan SS, Wolan JT. *Hydrogen Energy. Environmentally Conscious Alternative Energy Production*: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; 2008. p. 165-206.
12. Kotay MS, Das D. Biohydrogen as a renewable energy resource—Prospects and potentials. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(1):258-63.
13. Kapdan IK, Kargi F. Bio-hydrogen production from waste materials. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*. 2006;38(5):569-82.
14. Muhamad NS, Johan NA, Isa MH, Kutty SRM, editors. *Biohydrogen production using dark and photo fermentation: A mini review*. National Postgraduate Conference (NPC), 2011; 2011 19-20 Sept. 2011.
15. Van Ginkel SW, Oh S-E, Logan BE. Biohydrogen gas production from food processing and domestic wastewaters. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2005;30(15):1535-42.
16. Watanabe H, Yoshino H. Biohydrogen using leachate from an industrial waste landfill as inoculum. *Journal of Material Cycles and Waste Management*. 2011;13(2):113-7.
17. Lay J-J, Lee Y-J, Noike T. Feasibility of biological hydrogen production from organic fraction of municipal solid waste. *Water Research*. 1999;33(11):2579-86.
18. Collet C, Adler N, Schwitzguébel J-P, Péringer P. Hydrogen production by *Clostridium thermolacticum* during continuous fermentation of lactose. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2004;29(14):1479-85.
19. Atif AAY, Fakhru'l-Razi A, Ngan MA, Morimoto M, Iyuke SE, Veziroglu NT. Fed batch production of hydrogen from palm oil mill effluent using anaerobic microflora. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2005;30(13-14):1393-7.
20. Yokoyama H, Waki M, Ogino A, Ohmori H, Tanaka Y. Hydrogen fermentation properties of undiluted cow dung. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*. 2007;104(1):82-5.

38. Niu DJ, Wang JY, Wang BY, Zhao YC. Effect of Mo-containing additives on biohydrogen fermentation from cassava's stillage. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(9):5289-95.
39. Kim DH, Kim SH, Kim HW, Kim MS, Shin HS. Sewage sludge addition to food waste synergistically enhances hydrogen fermentation performance. *Bioresource Technol*. 2011;102(18):8501-6.
40. Hilgsmann S, Masset J, Hamilton C, Beckers L, Thonart P. Comparative study of biological hydrogen production by pure strains and consortia of facultative and strict anaerobic bacteria. *Bioresource Technol*. 2011;102(4):3810-8.
41. Mu Y, Yu HQ, Wang G. Evaluation of three methods for enriching H₂-producing cultures from anaerobic sludge. *Enzyme Microb Technol*. 2007;40(4):947-53.
42. Abreu AA, Danko AS, Costa JC, Ferreira EC, Alves MM. Inoculum type response to different pHs on biohydrogen production from l-arabinose, a component of hemicellulosic biopolymers. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(4):1744-51.
43. Pan C, Fan Y, Hou H. Fermentative production of hydrogen from wheat Bran by mixed anaerobic cultures. *Ind Eng Chem Res*. 2008;47(16):5812-8.
44. Nejat Veziroğlu T. Hydrogen technology for energy needs of human settlements. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 1987;12(2):99-129.
45. Chairattanamakorn P, Penthamkeerati P, Reungsang A, Lo Y-C, Lu W-B, Chang J-S. Production of biohydrogen from hydrolyzed bagasse with thermally preheated sludge. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(18):7612-7.
46. Feng X, Wang H, Wang Y, Wang X, Huang J. Biohydrogen production from apple pomace by anaerobic fermentation with river sludge. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(7):3058-64.
47. Wang H, Zhi Z, Wang J, Ma S. Comparison of various pretreatment methods for biohydrogen production from cornstalk. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng*. 2012;35(7):1239-45.
48. Kim D-H, Kim S-H, Kim H-W, Kim M-S, Shin H-S. Sewage sludge addition to food waste synergistically enhances hydrogen fermentation performance. *Bioresource Technology*. 2011;102(18):8501-6.
49. Nasr N, Elbeshbishy E, Hafez H, Nakhla G, El Naggar MH. Bio-hydrogen production from thin stillage using conventional and acclimatized anaerobic digester sludge. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(20):12761-9.
50. Niu DJ, Wang JY, Wang BY, Zhao Y-C. Effect of Mo-containing additives on biohydrogen fermentation from cassava's stillage. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(9):5289-95.
51. Yossan S, O-Thong S, Prasertsan P. Effect of initial pH, nutrients and temperature on hydrogen production from palm oil mill effluent using thermotolerant consortia and corresponding microbial communities. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2012;37(18):13806-14.
52. Adav SS, Lee D-J, Wang A, Ren N. Functional consortium for hydrogen production from cellobiose: Concentration-to-extinction approach. *Bioresource Technology*. 2009;100(9):2546-50.
53. Chen W-M, Tseng Z-J, Lee K-S, Chang J-S. Fermentative hydrogen production with *Clostridium butyricum* CGS5 isolated from anaerobic sewage sludge. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2005;30(10):1063-70.
54. Kamalaskar LB, Dhakephalkar PK, Meher KK, Ranade DR. High biohydrogen yielding *Clostridium* sp. DMHC-10 isolated from sludge of distillery waste treatment plant. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(19):10639-44.

55. Prasertsan P, O-Thong S, Birkeland N-K. Optimization and microbial community analysis for production of biohydrogen from palm oil mill effluent by thermophilic fermentative process. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(17):7448-59.
56. Ren N-Q, Guo W-Q, Wang X-J, Xiang W-S, Liu B-F, Wang X-Z, et al. Effects of different pretreatment methods on fermentation types and dominant bacteria for hydrogen production. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(16):4318-24.
57. Liu H, Wang G. Hydrogen production of a salt tolerant strain *Bacillus* sp. B2 from marine intertidal sludge. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2012;28(1):31-7.
58. Wu K-J, Saratale GD, Lo Y-C, Chen W-M, Tseng Z-J, Chang M-C, et al. Simultaneous production of 2,3-butanediol, ethanol and hydrogen with a *Klebsiella* sp. strain isolated from sewage sludge. *Bioresource Technology*. 2008;99(17):7966-70.
59. Whitman W, Bowen T, Boone D. The Methanogenic Bacteria. In: Dworkin M, Falkow S, Rosenberg E, Schleifer K-H, Stackebrandt E, editors. *The Prokaryotes*: Springer New York; 2006. p. 165-207.
60. Baghchehsaraee B, Nakhla G, Karamanev D, Margaritis A. Fermentative hydrogen production by diverse microflora. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(10):5021-7.
61. Liu H, Wang G, Zhu D, Pan G. Enrichment of the hydrogen-producing microbial community from marine intertidal sludge by different pretreatment methods. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(24):9696-701.
62. de Sá LRV, de Oliveira TC, dos Santos TF, Matos A, Cammarota MC, Oliveira EMM, et al. Hydrogenase activity monitoring in the fermentative hydrogen production using heat pretreated sludge: A useful approach to evaluate bacterial communities performance. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(13):7543-9.
63. Wang J, Wan W. Influence of Ni^{2+} concentration on biohydrogen production. *Bioresource Technol*. 2008;99(18):8864-8.
64. Chang S, Li J-Z, Liu F. Evaluation of different pretreatment methods for preparing hydrogen-producing seed inocula from waste activated sludge. *Renewable Energy*. 2011;36(5):1517-22.
65. Venkata Mohan S, Lalit Babu V, Sarma PN. Effect of various pretreatment methods on anaerobic mixed microflora to enhance biohydrogen production utilizing dairy wastewater as substrate. *Bioresource Technol*. 2008;99(1):59-67.
66. Mohammadi P, Ibrahim S, Mohamad Annuar MS, Law S. Effects of different pretreatment methods on anaerobic mixed microflora for hydrogen production and COD reduction from palm oil mill effluent. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2011;19(14):1654-8.
67. Luo G, Xie L, Zou Z, Wang W, Zhou Q. Evaluation of pretreatment methods on mixed inoculum for both batch and continuous thermophilic biohydrogen production from cassava stillage. *Bioresource Technology*. 2010;101(3):959-64.
68. Cai J, Wang G, Li Y, Zhu D, Pan G. Enrichment and hydrogen production by marine anaerobic hydrogen-producing microflora. *Chin Sci Bull*. 2009;54(15):2656-61.
69. Woo J-H, Song Y-C. Influence of temperature and duration of heat treatment used for anaerobic seed sludge on biohydrogen fermentation. *KSCE J Civ Eng*. 2010;14(2):141-7.
70. Cheong D-Y, Hansen CL. Feasibility of hydrogen production in thermophilic mixed fermentation by natural anaerobes. *Bioresource Technology*. 2007;98(11):2229-39.
71. Mohan SV, Mohanakrishna G, Veer Raghavulu S, Sarma PN. Enhancing biohydrogen production from chemical wastewater treatment in anaerobic sequencing batch biofilm reactor (AnSBBR) by bioaugmenting with selectively enriched kanamycin resistant anaerobic mixed consortia. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2007;32(15):3284-92.
72. Mu Y, Yu H-Q, Wang G. Evaluation of three methods for enriching H_2 -producing cultures from anaerobic sludge. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*. 2007;40(4):947-53.

73. Guo Y, Kim S, Sung S, Lee P. Effect of ultrasonic treatment of digestion sludge on bio-hydrogen production from sucrose by anaerobic fermentation. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(8):3450-5.
74. Wang H, Fang M, Fang Z, Bu H. Effects of sludge pretreatments and organic acids on hydrogen production by anaerobic fermentation. *Bioresource Technology*. 2010;101(22):8731-5.
75. Khanal SK, Grewell D, Sung S, van Leeuwen J. Ultrasound Applications in Wastewater Sludge Pretreatment: A Review. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*. 2007;37(4):277-313.
76. Dewil R, Baeyens J, Goutvrind R. Ultrasonic treatment of waste activated sludge. *Environmental Progress*. 2006;25(2):121-8.
77. Loge FJ, Emerick RW, Thompson DE, Nelson DC, Darby JL. Factors Influencing Ultraviolet Disinfection Performance Part I: Light Penetration to Wastewater Particles. *Water Environment Research*. 1999;71(3):377-81.
78. Xiao B, Liu J. Effects of various pretreatments on biohydrogen production from sewage sludge. *Chinese Science Bulletin*. 2009;54(12):2038-44.
79. Tang G-L, Huang J, Sun Z-J, Tang Q-Q, Yan C-H, Liu G-Q. Biohydrogen production from cattle wastewater by enriched anaerobic mixed consortia: Influence of fermentation temperature and pH. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*. 2008;106(1):80-7.
80. Wang J, Wan W. Comparison of different pretreatment methods for enriching hydrogen-producing bacteria from digested sludge. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(12):2934-41.
81. Wu K-J, Chang J-S. Batch and continuous fermentative production of hydrogen with anaerobic sludge entrapped in a composite polymeric matrix. *Process Biochemistry*. 2007;42(2):279-84.
82. Argun H, Kargi F. Effects of sludge pre-treatment method on bio-hydrogen production by dark fermentation of waste ground wheat. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(20):8543-8.
83. Li Z, Wang H, Tang Z, Wang X, Bai J. Effects of pH value and substrate concentration on hydrogen production from the anaerobic fermentation of glucose. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(24):7413-8.
84. Seifert K, Waligorska M, Wojtowski M, Laniecki M. Hydrogen generation from glycerol in batch fermentation process. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(9):3671-8.
85. Wang Y-B, Li R-J, Li W-W, Fan Y-T, Hou H-W. Effects of pretreatment of natural bacterial source and raw material on fermentative biohydrogen production. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2012;37(1):831-6.
86. Pan J, Zhang R, El-Mashad HM, Sun H, Ying Y. Effect of food to microorganism ratio on biohydrogen production from food waste via anaerobic fermentation. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(23):6968-75.
87. Khan JA. Biodegradation of Azo Dye by Moderately Halotolerant *Bacillus megaterium* and Study of Enzyme Azoreductase Involved in Degradation. *Advanced Biotech*. 2011;10(7):21-7.
88. Baffert C, Demuez M, Cournac L, Burlat B, Guigliarelli B, Bertrand P, et al. Hydrogen-Activating Enzymes: Activity Does Not Correlate with Oxygen Sensitivity. *Angewandte Chemie*. 2008;120(11):2082-4.
89. Tanisho S, Ishiwata Y. Continuous hydrogen production from molasses by the bacterium *Enterobacter aerogenes*. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 1994;19(10):807-12.
90. Nath K, Das D. Improvement of fermentative hydrogen production: various approaches. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2004;65(5):520-9.

91. Oh Y-K, Seol E-H, Kim JR, Park S. Fermentative biohydrogen production by a new chemoheterotrophic bacterium *Citrobacter* sp. Y19. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2003;28(12):1353-9.
92. Wang W, Xie L, Chen J, Luo G, Zhou Q. Biohydrogen and methane production by co-digestion of cassava stillage and excess sludge under thermophilic condition. *Bioresource Technol*. 2011;102(4):3833-9.
93. Chen CC, Lin CY, Chang JS. Kinetics of hydrogen production with continuous anaerobic cultures utilizing sucrose as the limiting substrate. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2001;57(1-2):56-64.
94. Ma S, Wang H, Wang Y, Bu H, Bai J. Bio-hydrogen production from cornstalk wastes by orthogonal design method. *Renewable Energy*. 2011;36(2):709-13.
95. Liu IC, Whang L-M, Ren W-J, Lin P-Y. The effect of pH on the production of biohydrogen by clostridia: Thermodynamic and metabolic considerations. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(1):439-49.
96. Ferchichi M, Crabbe E, Gil G-H, Hintz W, Almadidy A. Influence of initial pH on hydrogen production from cheese whey. *Journal of Biotechnology*. 2005;120(4):402-9.
97. Mnatsakanyan N, Bagramyan K, Trchounian A. Hydrogenase 3 but not hydrogenase 4 is major in hydrogen gas production by *Escherichia coli* formate hydrogenlyase at acidic pH and in the presence of external formate. *Cell Biochem Biophys*. 2004;41(3):357-65.
98. Tsygankov AA, Minakov EA, Zorin NA, Gosteva KS, Voronin OG, Karyakin AA. Measuring the pH dependence of hydrogenase activities. *Biochemistry Moscow*. 2007;72(9):968-73.
99. Wei S, Xiao B, Liu J. Impact of alkali and heat pretreatment on the pathway of hydrogen production from sewage sludge. *Chin Sci Bull*. 2010;55(8):777-86.
100. Zhao Y, Chen Y, Zhang D, Zhu X. Waste Activated Sludge Fermentation for Hydrogen Production Enhanced by Anaerobic Process Improvement and Acetobacteria Inhibition: The Role of Fermentation pH. *Environmental Science & Technology*. 2010;44(9):3317-23.
101. Lee K-S, Hsu Y-F, Lo Y-C, Lin P-J, Lin C-Y, Chang J-S. Exploring optimal environmental factors for fermentative hydrogen production from starch using mixed anaerobic microflora. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(5):1565-72.
102. Kumar N, Das D. Enhancement of hydrogen production by *Enterobacter cloacae* IIT-BT 08. *Process Biochemistry*. 2000;35(6):589-93.
103. Kotay SM, Das D. Microbial hydrogen production with *Bacillus coagulans* IIT-BT S1 isolated from anaerobic sewage sludge. *Bioresource Technology*. 2007;98(6):1183-90.
104. Mu Y, Zheng X-J, Yu H-Q, Zhu R-F. Biological hydrogen production by anaerobic sludge at various temperatures. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2006;31(6):780-5.
105. Hallenbeck PC, Benemann JR. Biological hydrogen production; fundamentals and limiting processes. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2002;27(11-12):1185-93.
106. Pakarinen O, Lehtomäki A, Rintala J. Batch dark fermentative hydrogen production from grass silage: The effect of inoculum, pH, temperature and VS ratio. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(2):594-601.
107. Lay CH, Chang FY, Chu CY, Chen CC, Chi YC, Hsieh TT, et al. Enhancement of anaerobic biohydrogen/methane production from cellulose using heat-treated activated sludge. *Water Science & Technolog*. 2011;63(9):1849-54.
108. Akutsu Y, Li Y-Y, Harada H, Yu H-Q. Effects of temperature and substrate concentration on biological hydrogen production from starch. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(6):2558-66.

109. Zhao M, Yan Q, Ruan W, Miao H, Ren H, Xu Y. Effects of butyric acid stress on anaerobic sludge for hydrogen production from kitchen wastes. *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*. 2010;85(6):866-71.
110. Chu Y, Wei Y, Yuan X, Shi X. Bioconversion of wheat stalk to hydrogen by dark fermentation: Effect of different mixed microflora on hydrogen yield and cellulose solubilisation. *Bioresource Technol.* 2011;102(4):3805-9.
111. Kraemer J, Bagley D. Improving the yield from fermentative hydrogen production. *Biotechnol Lett.* 2007;29(5):685-95.
112. Ren NQ, Chua H, Chan SY, Tsang YF, Wang YJ, Sin N. Assessing optimal fermentation type for bio-hydrogen production in continuous-flow acidogenic reactors. *Bioresource Technology*. 2007;98(9):1774-80.
113. Hawkes FR, Dinsdale R, Hawkes DL, Hussy I. Sustainable fermentative hydrogen production: challenges for process optimisation. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2002;27(11-12):1339-47.
114. Takai K, Suzuki M, Nakagawa S, Miyazaki M, Suzuki Y, Inagaki F, et al. *Sulfurimonas paralvinellae* sp. nov., a novel mesophilic, hydrogen- and sulfur-oxidizing chemolithoautotroph within the Epsilonproteobacteria isolated from a deep-sea hydrothermal vent polychaete nest, reclassification of *Thiomicrospira denitrificans* as *Sulfurimonas denitrificans* comb. nov. and emended description of the genus *Sulfurimonas*. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology*. 2006;56(8):1725-33.
115. Lin CY, Lay CH. Carbon/nitrogen-ratio effect on fermentative hydrogen production by mixed microflora. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2004;29(1):41-5.
116. Wang B, Wan W, Wang J. Effect of ammonia concentration on fermentative hydrogen production by mixed cultures. *Bioresource Technology*. 2009;100(3):1211-3.
117. Xiao B, Liu J. Biological hydrogen production from sterilized sewage sludge by anaerobic self-fermentation. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2009;168(1):163-7.
118. Argun H, Kargi F, Kapdan IK, Oztekin R. Biohydrogen production by dark fermentation of wheat powder solution: Effects of C/N and C/P ratio on hydrogen yield and formation rate. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(7):1813-9.
119. Oleszkiewicz JA, Sharma VK. Stimulation and inhibition of anaerobic processes by heavy metals—A review. *Biological Wastes*. 1990;31(1):45-67.
120. Frey M. Hydrogenases: Hydrogen-Activating Enzymes. *ChemBioChem*. 2002;3(2-3):153-60.
121. Shima S, Lyon EJ, Sordel-Klippert M, Kauß M, Kahnt J, Thauer RK, et al. The Cofactor of the Iron-Sulfur Cluster Free Hydrogenase Hmd: Structure of the Light-Inactivation Product. *Angewandte Chemie*. 2004;116(19):2601-5.
122. Noyola A, Tinajero A. Effect of biological additives and micronutrients on the anaerobic digestion of physicochemical sludge. *Water Science & Technol.* 2005;52:275-81.
123. Lin C-Y, Shei S-H. Heavy metal effects on fermentative hydrogen production using natural mixed microflora. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(2):587-93.
124. Li C, Fang HHP. Inhibition of heavy metals on fermentative hydrogen production by granular sludge. *Chemosphere*. 2007;67(4):668-73.
125. Chang FY, Lin CY. Calcium effect on fermentative hydrogen production in an anaerobic up-flow sludge blanket system. *Water Science & Technology*. 2006;54(9):105-12.
126. Yuan Z, Yang H, Zhi X, Shen J. Increased performance of continuous stirred tank reactor with calcium supplementation. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(7):2622-6.

127. Ferchichi M, Crabbe E, Hintz W, Gil G-H, Almadidy A. Influence of Culture Parameters on Biological Hydrogen Production by *Clostridium saccharoperbutylacetonicum* ATCC 27021. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2005;21(6-7):855-62.
128. Li M, Zhao Y, Guo Q, Qian X, Niu D. Bio-hydrogen production from food waste and sewage sludge in the presence of aged refuse excavated from refuse landfill. *Renewable Energy.* 2008;33(12):2573-9.
129. Meher Kotay S, Das D. Biohydrogen as a renewable energy resource—Prospects and potentials. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2008;33(1):258-63.
130. Shi XX, Song HC, Wang CR, Tang RS, Huang ZX, Gao TR, et al. Enhanced bio-hydrogen production from sweet sorghum stalk with alkalization pretreatment by mixed anaerobic cultures. *Int J Energy Res.* 2010;34(8):662-72.
131. Lay CH, Chang FY, Chu CY, Chen CC, Chi YC, Hsieh TT, et al. Enhancement of anaerobic biohydrogen/methane production from cellulose using heat-treated activated sludge. *Water Sci Technol.* 2011;63(9):1849-54.
132. La Licata B, Sagnelli F, Boulanger A, Lanzini A, Leone P, Zitella P, et al. Bio-hydrogen production from organic wastes in a pilot plant reactor and its use in a SOFC. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2011;36(13):7861-5.
133. Wang J, Wan W. Combined effects of temperature and pH on biohydrogen production by anaerobic digested sludge. *Biomass Bioenerg.* 2011;35(9):3896-901.
134. Watanabe H, Yoshino H. Biohydrogen using leachate from an industrial waste landfill as inoculum. *Renewable Energy.* 2010;35(5):921-4.
135. Wong YM, Wu TY, Juan JC. A review of sustainable hydrogen production using seed sludge via dark fermentation. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews.* 2014;34(0):471-82.
136. Bao M, Su H, Tan T. Biohydrogen Production by Dark Fermentation of Starch Using Mixed Bacterial Cultures of *Bacillus* sp and *Brevumdimonas* sp. *Energy & Fuels.* 2012;26(9):5872-8.
137. Bao MD, Su HJ, Tan TW. Dark fermentative bio-hydrogen production: Effects of substrate pre-treatment and addition of metal ions or L-cysteine. *Fuel.* 2013;112(0):38-44.
138. Cai JL, Wang GC, Li YC, Zhu DL, Pan GH. Enrichment and hydrogen production by marine anaerobic hydrogen-producing microflora. *Chinese Science Bulletin.* 2009;54(15):2656-61.
139. Adav SS, Lee DJ, Wang A, Ren N. Functional consortium for hydrogen production from cellobiose: Concentration-to-extinction approach. *Bioresource Technol.* 2009;100(9):2546-50.
140. Lo YC, Chen WM, Hung CH, Chen SD, Chang JS. Dark H₂ fermentation from sucrose and xylose using H₂-producing indigenous bacteria: Feasibility and kinetic studies. *Water Research* 2008;42:827 – 42.
141. Chang S, Li JZ, Liu F. Evaluation of different pretreatment methods for preparing hydrogen-producing seed inocula from waste activated sludge. *Renewable Energy.* 2011;36(5):1517-22.
142. Fabiano B, Perego P. Thermodynamic study and optimization of hydrogen production by *Enterobacter aerogenes*. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2002;27(2):149-56.
143. Lay J, Li Y, Noike T. Mathematical Model for Methane Production from Landfill Bioreactor. *Journal of Environmental Engineering.* 1998;124(8):730-6.
144. Cornish-Bowden A. *Fundamentals of Enzyme Kinetics.* Forth Edition ed: Willey-Blackwell; 2013.
145. Gilbert RO. *Environmental Sampling Design. Statistical Methods for Environmental Pollution Monitoring:* John Wiley and Sons; 1987. p. 19.

146. Bakus GJ. Biological Sampling Design and Related Topics. Quantitative analysis of marine biological communities: field biology and environment: John Wiley and Sons; 2007. p. 19.
147. Yang X, Tu M, Xie R, Adhikari S, Tong Z. A comparison of three pH control methods for revealing effects of undissociated butyric acid on specific butanol production rate in batch fermentation of *Clostridium acetobutylicum*. *AMB Expr.* 2013;3(1):1-8.
148. Jo JH, Lee DS, Park D, Choe W-S, Park JM. Optimization of key process variables for enhanced hydrogen production by *Enterobacter aerogenes* using statistical methods. *Bioresource Technology.* 2008;99(6):2061-6.
149. Lin P-Y, Whang L-M, Wu Y-R, Ren W-J, Hsiao C-J, Li S-L, et al. Biological hydrogen production of the genus *Clostridium*: Metabolic study and mathematical model simulation. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2007;32(12):1728-35.
150. Armstrong J, Hollyman K. General, Organic and Biochemistry: An Applied Approach. USA Cengage Learning; 2011.
151. Siggaard-Andersen O. The Van Slyke Equation. *Scandinavian Journal of Clinical & Laboratory Investigation.* 1977;37(s146):15-20.
152. Large PJ. Degradation of organic nitrogen compounds by yeasts. *Yeast.* 1986;2(1):1-34.
153. Hussy I, Hawkes FR, Dinsdale R, Hawkes DL. Continuous fermentative hydrogen production from sucrose and sugarbeet. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2005;30(5):471-83.
154. Lin CY, Lay CH. A nutrient formulation for fermentative hydrogen production using anaerobic sewage sludge microflora. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 2005;30(3):285-92.
155. Zhao Y, Chen Y, Zhang D, Zhu X. Waste activated sludge fermentation for hydrogen production enhanced by anaerobic process improvement and acetobacteria inhibition: The role of fermentation pH. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2010;44(9):3317-23.
156. Purich DL, Allison RD. The Enzyme Reference: A Comprehensive Guidebook to Enzyme Nomenclature, Reactions, and Methods (Google eBook). USA: Academic Press; 2002.
157. Cooney CL. Growth of microorganisms. In: Rehm HJ, Reed G, editors. *Biotechnology.* 1. Weinheim: Verlag Chemie; 1981. p. 73-114.
158. Renaud J-P, Davydov DR, Heirwegh KPM, Mansuy D, Hui Bon Hoa G. Thermodynamic studies of substrate binding and spin transitions in human cytochrome P-450 3A4 expressed in yeast microsomes. *Biochemical Journal.* 1996;319: 675-81.
159. Gummadi S. What is the role of thermodynamics on protein stability? *Biotechnol Bioprocess Eng.* 2003;8(1):9-18.
160. Keener JP, Sneyd P. *Mathematical Physiology.* Marsden JE, Sirovich L, Wiggins S, editors. New York: Springer; 1998.
161. Roychowdhury S, Cox D, Levandowsky M. Production of hydrogen by microbial fermentation. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.* 1988;13(7):407-10.
162. Maddox IS, Steiner E, Hirsch S, Wessner S, Gutierrez NA, Gapes JR, et al. The cause of "acid-crash" and "acidogenic fermentations" during the batch acetone-butanol-ethanol (ABE-) fermentation process. *Journal of Molecular Microbiology and Biotechnology.* 2000;2(1)::95-100.
163. Cai M, Liu J, Wei Y. Enhanced Biohydrogen Production from Sewage Sludge with Alkaline Pretreatment. *Environmental Science & Technology.* 2004;38(11):3195-202.
164. Fang H, Zhang T, Liu H. Microbial diversity of a mesophilic hydrogen-producing sludge. *Appl Microbiol Biot.* 2002;58(1):112-8.

165. Wu KJ, Saratale GD, Lo YC, Chen WM, Tseng ZJ, Chang MC, et al. Simultaneous production of 2,3-butanediol, ethanol and hydrogen with a *Klebsiella* sp. strain isolated from sewage sludge. *Bioresource Technol.* 2008;99(17):7966-70.
166. Zhu D, Wang G, Qiao H, Cai J. Fermentative hydrogen production by the new marine *Pantoea agglomerans* isolated from the mangrove sludge. *Int J Hydrogen Energy.* 2008;33(21):6116-23.
167. Ren NQ, Guo WQ, Wang XJ, Xiang WS, Liu BF, Wang XZ, et al. Effects of different pretreatment methods on fermentation types and dominant bacteria for hydrogen production. *Int J Hydrogen Energy.* 2008;33(16):4318-24.
168. Yossan S, O-Thong S, Prasertsan P. Effect of initial pH, nutrients and temperature on hydrogen production from palm oil mill effluent using thermotolerant consortia and corresponding microbial communities. *Int J Hydrogen Energy.* 2012;doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2012.03.151.
169. Bartram AK, Lynch MDJ, Stearns JC, Moreno-Hagelsieb G, Neufeld JD. Generation of Multimillion-Sequence 16S rRNA Gene Libraries from Complex Microbial Communities by Assembling Paired-End Illumina Reads. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology.* 2011;77(11):3846-52.
170. Lauber CL, Hamady M, Knight R, Fierer N. Pyrosequencing-Based Assessment of Soil pH as a Predictor of Soil Bacterial Community Structure at the Continental Scale. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology.* 2009;75(15):5111-20.
171. Neufeld JD, Li J, Mohn WW. Scratching the surface of the rare biosphere with ribosomal sequence tag primers. *FEMS Microbiology Letters.* 2008;283(2):146-53.
172. Pedrós-Alió C. Dipping into the Rare Biosphere. *Science.* 2007;315(5809):192-3.
173. Sogin ML, Morrison HG, Huber JA, Welch DM, Huse SM, Neal PR, et al. Microbial diversity in the deep sea and the underexplored “rare biosphere”. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.* 2006;103(32):12115-20.
174. Schlüter A, Bekel T, Diaz NN, Dondrup M, Eichenlaub R, Gartemann K-H, et al. The metagenome of a biogas-producing microbial community of a production-scale biogas plant fermenter analysed by the 454-pyrosequencing technology. *Journal of Biotechnology.* 2008;136(1–2):77-90.
175. Krause L, Diaz NN, Edwards RA, Gartemann K-H, Krömeke H, Neuweiger H, et al. Taxonomic composition and gene content of a methane-producing microbial community isolated from a biogas reactor. *Journal of Biotechnology.* 2008;136(1–2):91-101.
176. Kröber M, Bekel T, Diaz NN, Goesmann A, Jaenicke S, Krause L, et al. Phylogenetic characterization of a biogas plant microbial community integrating clone library 16S-rDNA sequences and metagenome sequence data obtained by 454-pyrosequencing. *Journal of Biotechnology.* 2009;142(1):38-49.
177. Sundberg C, Al-Soud WA, Larsson M, Alm E, Yekta SS, Svensson BH, et al. 454 pyrosequencing analyses of bacterial and archaeal richness in 21 full-scale biogas digesters. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology.* 2013;85(3):612-26.
178. Wirth R, Kovacs E, Maroti G, Bagi Z, Rakhely G, Kovacs K. Characterization of a biogas-producing microbial community by short-read next generation DNA sequencing. *Biotechnology for Biofuels.* 2012;5(1):41.
179. Wong YM, Juan JC, Ting A, Wu TY. High efficiency bio-hydrogen production from glucose revealed in an inoculum of heat-pretreated landfill leachate sludge. *Energy.* 2014;72(628–635).
180. Edgar RC. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST. *Bioinformatics.* 2010;26(19):2460-1.
181. Huson DH, Mitra S, Ruscheweyh H-J, Weber N, Schuster SC. Integrative analysis of environmental sequences using MEGAN 4. *Genome Research.* 2011;21:1552-60.

182. Ondov BD, Bergman NH, Phillippy AM. Interactive metagenomic visualization in a Web browser. *BMC Bioinformatics*. 2011;12(1):385.
183. Jayasinghearachchi HS, Sarma PM, Lal B. Biological hydrogen production by extremely thermophilic novel bacterium *Thermoanaerobacter mathranii* A3N isolated from oil producing well. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2012;37(7):5569-78.
184. Chong M-L, Abdul Rahman NA, Yee PL, Aziz SA, Rahim RA, Shirai Y, et al. Effects of pH, glucose and iron sulfate concentration on the yield of biohydrogen by *Clostridium butyricum* EB6. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(21):8859-65.
185. Wang R, Zong W, Qian C, Wei Y, Yu R, Zhou Z. Isolation of *Clostridium perfringens* strain W11 and optimization of its biohydrogen production by genetic modification. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2011;36(19):12159-67.
186. Wong YM, Wu TY, Juan JC. A review of sustainable hydrogen production using seed sludge via dark fermentation. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 2014;34:471-82.
187. Lu L, Xing D, Ren N. Pyrosequencing reveals highly diverse microbial communities in microbial electrolysis cells involved in enhanced H₂ production from waste activated sludge. *Water Research*. 2012;46(7):2425-34.
188. Fang HHP, Liu H. Effect of pH on hydrogen production from glucose by a mixed culture. *Bioresource Technology*. 2002;82(1):87-93.
189. Ueno Y, Haruta S, Ishii M, Igarashi Y. Microbial community in anaerobic hydrogen-producing microflora enriched from sludge compost. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2001;57(4):555-62.
190. Kengen SWM, Goorissen HP, Verhaart M, Stams AJM, van Niel EWJ, Claassen PAM. Biological Hydrogen Production by Anaerobic Microorganisms. *Biofuels: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd*; 2009. p. 197-221.
191. Wong YM, Juan JC, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium perfringens* Strain JJC, a Highly Efficient Hydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).
192. Wong YM, Juan JC, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium bifermentans* Strain WYM, a Promising Biohydrogen Producer Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).
193. Wong YM, Juan JC, Ting A, Wu TY, Gan HM, Austin CM. Draft Genome Sequence of *Clostridium* sp. Strain Ade.TY, a New Biohydrogen- and Biochemical-Producing Bacterium Isolated from Landfill Leachate Sludge. *Genome Announcements*. 2014;2(2).
194. Wade W. The Genus *Eubacterium* and Related Genera. In: Dworkin M, Falkow S, Rosenberg E, Schleifer K-H, Stackebrandt E, editors. *The Prokaryotes*: Springer US; 2006. p. 823-35.
195. Ren N, Xing D, Rittmann BE, Zhao L, Xie T, Zhao X. Microbial community structure of ethanol type fermentation in bio-hydrogen production. *Environmental Microbiology*. 2007;9(5):1112-25.
196. Kim HB, Borewicz K, White BA, Singer RS, Sreevatsan S, Tu ZJ, et al. Microbial shifts in the swine distal gut in response to the treatment with antimicrobial growth promoter, tylosin. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2012;109(38):15485-90.
197. Chen S, Song L, Dong X. *Sporacetigenium mesophilum* gen. nov., sp. nov., isolated from an anaerobic digester treating municipal solid waste and sewage. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology*. 2006;56(4):721-5.
198. Sievert SM, Scott KM, Klotz MG, Chain PSG, Hauser LJ, Hemp J, et al. Genome of the Epsilonproteobacterial Chemolithoautotroph *Sulfurimonas denitrificans*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2008;74(4):1145-56.

199. Madigan MT. Brock biology of microorganisms. San Francisco: Benjamin Cummings; 2006. 340 p.
200. Campbell BJ, Engel AS, Porter ML, Takai K. The versatile [epsii]-proteobacteria: key players in sulphidic habitats. *Nat Rev Micro*. 2006;4(6):458-68.
201. Graber JR, Breznak JA. Physiology and Nutrition of *Treponema primitia*, an H₂/CO₂-*Acetogenic Spirochete* from Termite Hindguts. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2004;70(3):1307-14.
202. Grady CPL, Jr., Daigger GT, Love NG, Filipe CDM. Biological wastewater treatment. Colchester: IWA Publishing; 2011. 1200 pp. p.
203. Emissions CoMfEGG. Verifying Greenhouse Gas Emissions: Methods to Support International Climate Agreements: The National Academies Press; 2010.
204. Paola Foladori, Gianni Andreottola, Ziglio G. Sludge Reduction Technologies in Wastewater Treatment Plants: International Water Association Publishing; 2010.
205. Nielsen SS. Phenol-Sulfuric Acid Method for Total Carbohydrates. *Food Analysis Laboratory Manual*. Food Science Texts Series: Springer US; 2010. p. 47-53.
206. Renou S, Givaudan JG, Poulain S, Dirassouyan F, Moulin P. Landfill leachate treatment: Review and opportunity. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2008;150(3):468-93.
207. Nikaido H. Molecular Basis of Bacterial Outer Membrane Permeability Revisited. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*. 2003;67(4):593-656.
208. Neil C, Jane R. *Biology*. Seventh Edition: Pearson Benjamin Cummings; 2005. p. 128.
209. Wei SZ, Xiao BY, Liu JX. Impact of alkali and heat pretreatment on the pathway of hydrogen production from sewage sludge. *Chinese Science Bulletin*. 2010;55(8):777-86.
210. Khanal SK, Chen W-H, Li L, Sung S. Biological hydrogen production: effects of pH and intermediate products. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2004;29(11):1123-31.
211. Fang HHP, Li C, Zhang T. Acidophilic biohydrogen production from rice slurry. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2006;31(6):683-92.
212. Kaji M, Taniguchi Y, Matsushita O, Katayama S, Miyata S, Morita S, et al. The *hydA* gene encoding the H₂-evolving hydrogenase of *Clostridium perfringens*: molecular characterization and expression of the gene. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*. 1999;181(2):329-36.
213. Wiesenborn DP, Rudolph FB, Papoutsakis ET. Phosphotransbutyrylase from *Clostridium acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 and its role in acidogenesis. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 1989;55(2):317-22.
214. Diez-Gonzalez F, Russell J, Hunter J. The role of an NAD-independent lactate dehydrogenase and acetate in the utilization of lactate by *Clostridium acetobutylicum* strain P262. *Arch Microbiol*. 1995;164(1):36-42.
215. Ho K-L, Chen Y-Y, Lee D-J. Biohydrogen production from cellobiose in phenol and cresol-containing medium using *Clostridium* sp. R1. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(19):10239-44.
216. Chin H-L, Chen Z-S, Chou CP. Fedbatch Operation Using *Clostridium acetobutylicum* Suspension Culture as Biocatalyst for Enhancing Hydrogen Production. *Biotechnology Progress*. 2003;19(2):383-8.
217. Taguchi F, Chang JD, Mizukami M, Taki TS, Hasegawa K. Isolation of a hydrogen-producing bacterium, *Clostridium beijerinckii* strain AM21B, from termites. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*. 1993;39.
218. Levin DB, Islam R, Cicek N, Sparling R. Hydrogen production by *Clostridium thermocellum* 27405 from cellulosic biomass substrates. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2006;31(11):1496-503.
219. Zhao X, Xing D, Fu N, Liu B, Ren N. Hydrogen production by the newly isolated *Clostridium beijerinckii* RZF-1108. *Bioresource Technology*. 2011;102(18):8432-6.

220. Calusinska M, Happe T, Joris B, Wilmotte A. The surprising diversity of clostridial hydrogenases: a comparative genomic perspective. *Microbiology*. 2010;156(6):1575-88.
221. Tolvanen K, E. S., Mangayil R, K., Karp M, T., Santala V, P. Simple Enrichment System for Hydrogen Producers. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2011;77(12):4246-8.
222. Miller TJ, Wolin MJ. A Serum Bottle Modification of the Hungate Technique for Cultivating Obligate Anaerobes. *Applied Microbiology*. 1974;27(5):985-7.
223. Li J, McClane BA. Comparative Effects of Osmotic, Sodium Nitrite-Induced, and pH-Induced Stress on Growth and Survival of *Clostridium perfringens* Type A Isolates Carrying Chromosomal or Plasmid-Borne Enterotoxin Genes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2006;72(12):7620-5.
224. Leja K, Myszyk K, Czaczyk K. The ability of *Clostridium bifermentans* strains to lactic acid biosynthesis in various environmental conditions. *SpringerPlus*. 2013;2(1):1-8.
225. Albrecht JA. *Clostridium perfringens*: University of Nebraska-Lincoln; 2005. Available from: <http://www.foodsafety.unl.edu/pathogens/perfringens.html>.
226. Franca LTC, Carrilho E, Kist TBL. A review of DNA sequencing techniques. *Quarterly Reviews of Biophysics*. 2002;35(02):169-200.
227. Ledergerber C, Dessimoz C. Base-calling for next-generation sequencing platforms. *Briefings in Bioinformatics*. 2011.
228. Reuter S, Ellington MJ, Cartwright EP, et al. RAPID bacterial whole-genome sequencing to enhance diagnostic and public health microbiology. *JAMA Internal Medicine*. 2013;173(15):1397-404.
229. Tolvanen KES, Mangayil RK, Karp MT, Santala VP. Simple Enrichment System for Hydrogen Producers. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2011;77(12):4246-8.
230. Miller TL, Wolin MJ. A Serum Bottle Modification of the Hungate Technique for Cultivating Obligate Anaerobes. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 1974;27(5):985-7.
231. Ågren J, Sundström A, Håfström T, Segerman B. Gegenees: Fragmented Alignment of Multiple Genomes for Determining Phylogenomic Distances and Genetic Signatures Unique for Specified Target Groups. *PLoS ONE*. 2012;7(6):e39107.
232. Aziz R, Bartels D, Best A, DeJongh M, Disz T, Edwards R, et al. The RAST Server: Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology. *BMC Genomics*. 2008;9(1):75.
233. Lagesen K, Hallin P, Rødland EA, Stærfeldt H-H, Rognes T, Ussery DW. RNAmmer: consistent and rapid annotation of ribosomal RNA genes. *Nucleic Acids Research*. 2007;35(9):3100-8.
234. Lowe TM, Eddy SR. tRNAscan-SE: A Program for Improved Detection of Transfer RNA Genes in Genomic Sequence. *Nucleic Acids Research*. 1997;25(5):0955-964.
235. McGlynn S, Ruebush S, Naumov A, Nagy L, Dubini A, King P, et al. In vitro activation of [FeFe] hydrogenase: new insights into hydrogenase maturation. *J Biol Inorg Chem*. 2007;12(4):443-7.
236. Louis P, Duncan SH, McCrae SI, Millar J, Jackson MS, Flint HJ. Restricted Distribution of the Butyrate Kinase Pathway among Butyrate-Producing Bacteria from the Human Colon. *Journal of Bacteriology*. 2004;186(7):2099-106.
237. Park JI, Lee J, Sim SJ, Lee JH. Production of hydrogen from marine macro-algae biomass using anaerobic sewage sludge microflora. *Biotechnol Bioprocess Eng*. 2009;14(3):307-15.
238. Woo JH, Song YC. Influence of temperature and duration of heat treatment used for anaerobic seed sludge on biohydrogen fermentation. *KSCE J Civ Eng*. 2010;14(2):141-7.
239. Li YC, Chu CY, Wu SY, Tsai CY, Wang CC, Hung CH, et al. Feasible pretreatment of textile wastewater for dark fermentative hydrogen production. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2012;37(20).

240. Lee KS, Hsu YF, Lo YC, Lin PJ, Lin CY, Chang JS. Exploring optimal environmental factors for fermentative hydrogen production from starch using mixed anaerobic microflora. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(5):1565-72.
241. Lin CY, Wu CC, Wu JH, Chang FY. Effect of cultivation temperature on fermentative hydrogen production from xylose by a mixed culture. *Biomass Bioenerg*. 2008;32(12):1109-15.
242. Chairattananokorn P, Penthamkeerati P, Reungsang A, Lo YC, Lu WB, Chang JS. Production of biohydrogen from hydrolyzed bagasse with thermally preheated sludge. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2009;34(18):7612-7.
243. Chairattananokorn P, Tapananont S, Detjaroen S, Sangkhatim J, Anurakpongsatorn P, Sirirote P. Additional paper waste in pulping sludge for biohydrogen production by heat-shocked sludge. *Appl Biochem Biotech*. 2012;166(2):389-401.
244. Wang Y, Wang H, Feng X, Wang X, Huang J. Biohydrogen production from cornstalk wastes by anaerobic fermentation with activated sludge. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2010;35(7):3092-9.
245. Leño EP, Babel S. Effects of pretreatment methods on cassava wastewater for biohydrogen production optimization. *Renewable Energy*. 2012;39(1):339-46.
246. Datar R, Huang J, Maness PC, Mohagheghi A, Czernik S, Chornet E. Hydrogen production from the fermentation of corn stover biomass pretreated with a steam-explosion process. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2007;32(8):932-9.
247. Danko AS, Abreu AA, Alves MM. Effect of arabinose concentration on dark fermentation hydrogen production using different mixed cultures. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2008;33(17):4527-32.
248. Zhao M, Yan Q, Ruan W, Miao H, Ren H, Xu Y. Effects of butyric acid stress on anaerobic sludge for hydrogen production from kitchen wastes. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol*. 2010;85(6):866-71.
249. Kalogo Y, Bagley DM. Fermentative hydrogen gas production using biosolids pellets as the inoculum source. *Bioresource Technol*. 2008;99(3):540-6.
250. Wu KJ, Chang JS. Batch and continuous fermentative production of hydrogen with anaerobic sludge entrapped in a composite polymeric matrix. *Process Biochem*. 2007;42(2):279-84.
251. Cheong DY, Hansen CL. Feasibility of hydrogen production in thermophilic mixed fermentation by natural anaerobes. *Bioresource Technol*. 2007;98(11):2229-39.
252. Wang YB, Li RJ, Li WW, Fan YT, Hou HW. Effects of pretreatment of natural bacterial source and raw material on fermentative biohydrogen production. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2012;37(1):831-6.

Appendix 1-1: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from untreated sludgeTable A1: Summary of H₂ production from untreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
<i>Untreated</i>							
1. N.A.	0.70 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5; 37.0 °C	Glucose	100% glucose	0.8	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
2. N.A.	0.43 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	1.5	Sewage treatment plant B	(31)
3. N.A.	0.38 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	68.5% glucose	3.17	Sewage treatment plant	(141)
4. N.A.	0.26 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	1.5	Sewage treatment plant A	(31)
5. N.A.	^b ~0.20 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(61)
6. N.A.	^a 0.72 mmol H ₂ / g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
7. N.A.	^a 0.0366 mmol H ₂	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(57)
8. N.A.	2.0 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 8.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	28.5% arabinose	^b 0.29	H ₂ producing reactor	(42)
	1.3 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C		22.2% arabinose	^b 0.27		
	0.1 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 4.5; 37.0 °C		8.8% arabinose	^b 1.00		
9. N.A.	0.3 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	92% sucrose	0.26	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
10. N.A.	1.15 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Cassava stillage treatment plant	(38)
	1.22 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.5					
	1.24 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5					
	0.87 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 8.5					
	0.60 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 4.5					
11. N.A.	^a 0.0341 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(138)

Table A1: Summary of H₂ production from untreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
12. N.A.	^a 0.0224 mol H ₂	pH 6.5 – 7.5	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Cassava stillage treatment plant	(38)
13. N.A.	^a 0.0071 mol H ₂	pH 6.8; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	^b 2.5	Sewage treatment plant	(167)
14. N.A.	^a 0.0265 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
15. N.A.	^a 0.0125 mol H ₂ /g total VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	14.3% soluble carb	N.A.	Cassava stillage treatment plant	(92)
16. N.A.	^a 1.29 mmol H ₂ /g total VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage and sewage sludge (ratio 3:1)	60.0% soluble carb	N.A.	Cassava stillage treatment plant	(92)
17. N.A.	0.0018 mmol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	79% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
18. N.A.	1.81 mol H ₂ /mol hexose	pH 6.0; 35.0 °C	Food waste	89% carbohydrate	N.A.	Food waste	(39)
19. N.A.	^a 1.10 mol H ₂ /g VS	50.0 °C	Food waste	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(86)
20. N.A.	2.10 mol H ₂ /mol hexose	pH 6.0; 35.0 °C	Food waste + sewage sludge	91% carbohydrate	0.21	Food waste	(39)
21. N.A.	0.00012 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	POME	66 % COD	N.A.	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(66)
22. N.A.	^a 0.00073 mol H ₂ /g total VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Sewage sludge	15.2% soluble carb	N.A.	Cassava stillage treatment plant	(92)
23. N.A.	^a 0.00031 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 11.5; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	2.1	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
24. N.A.	^a 0.00005 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	2.1	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
25. N.A.	^a 0.0191 mol H ₂ / g carb	pH 5.05; 37.0 °C	Stillage of ethanol plant	90% carb	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(49)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

Appendix 1-2: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge

Table A2: Summary of H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
<i>Heat treatment</i>							
1. 60°C, 40 min	0.00430 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
2. 65°C, 30 min	2.30 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	1.5	Sewage treatment plant B	(31)
3. 65°C, 30 min	2.18 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0°C	Glucose	N.A.	0.69	Sewage treatment plant C	(60)
4. 65°C, 30 min	1.64 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	0.9	Sewage treatment plant A	(31)
5. 65°C, 30 min	1.32 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 55.0°C	Glucose	N.A.	0.69	Sewage treatment plant D	(60)
6. 65°C, 30 min	1.25 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 55.0°C	Glucose	N.A.	0.47	Sewage treatment plant C	(60)
7. 65°C, 30 min	0.56 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0°C	Glucose	N.A.	0.74	Sewage treatment plant D	(60)
8. 65°C, 30 min	^a 0.00114 mol H ₂ /g dry algae	pH 7.5; 35.0 °C	Seaweed	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(237)
9. 70°C, 30 min	1.04 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5; 37.0°C	Glucose	100% glucose	1.4	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
10. 70°C, 30 min	0.00333 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
11. 70°C, 50 min	0.00427 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
12. 70°C, 30 min	^a 0.0106 mol H ₂ / g carbohydrate	pH 5.05; 37.0 °C	Stillage of ethanol plant	70% carb.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(49)
13. 80°C, 30 min	2.12 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	1.8	Sewage treatment plant B	(31)
14. 80°C, 30 min	1.32 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	1.2	Sewage treatment plant A	(31)
15. 80°C, 30 min	1.04 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 8.5; 30.0 °C	Glucose	75% glucose	0.22	Agro-food organic wastes treatment plant	(40)
16. 80°C, 10 min	1.02 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 8.5; 30.0 °C	Glucose	84% glucose	0.03	Beetroot and bioethanol industry	(40)
17. 80°C, 10 min	1.00 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 8.5; 30.0 °C	Glucose	78% glucose	0.26	Agro-food organic wastes treatment plant	(40)
18. 80°C, 30 min	0.96 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 8.5; 30.0 °C	Glucose	78% glucose	0.2	Beetroot and bioethanol industry	(40)

Table A2: Summary of H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
19. 80°C, 20 min	0.00370 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
20. 80°C, 40 min	0.00378 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
21. 80°C, 60 min	0.00366 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
22. 80°C, 20 min	^a ~0.0488 mol H ₂	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(57)
23. 90°C, 120 min	0.17 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 0.8	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
24. 90°C, 60 min	0.07 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 0.3	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
25. 90°C, 180 min	0.05 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 0.3	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
26. 90°C, 30 min	0.05 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 0.2	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
27. 90°C, 30 min	0.00395 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
28. 90°C, 50 min	0.00402 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
29. 90°C, 60 min	^a 0.00233 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
30. 90 – 95 °C, 30 min	^a 0.047 mol H ₂ /LPOME	pH 6.0; 37 – 55 °C	POME	N.A.	N.A.	POME treatment plant	(168)
31. 90 – 100 °C, 60 min	1.37 mol H ₂ /mol reducing sugar	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Textile wastewater	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(239)
32. 95°C, 30 min	1.95 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	2.4	Sewage treatment plant B	(31)
33. 95°C, 30 min	0.90 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	92%	1.25	Sewage treatment plant	(141)
34. 95°C, 30 min	0.19 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.7; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	0.5	Sewage treatment plant A	(31)
35. 97°C, 40 min	0.00032 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	pH 8.0; 55.0°C	Cellulose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(131)
36. 95 – 100 °C, 60 min	0.00948 mol H ₂ / g starch	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Cassava starch	N.A.	0.17	Sewage treatment plant	(240)
37. 100°C, 15 min	2.38 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	98% glucose	0.41	Sewage treatment plant	(63)
38. 100°C, 30 min	0.63 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 1.8	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
39. 100°C, 60 min	0.50 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 1.8	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
40. 100°C, 120 min	0.43 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 1.3	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
41. 100°C, 30 min	^b ~0.40 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(61)

Table A2: Summary of H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
42. 100°C, 15 min	0.07 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	~ 0.3	Sewage treatment plant	(238)
43. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.01214 mol H ₂ /g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	98% glucose	2.31	Sewage treatment plant	(116)
44. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.00039 mol H ₂ /g glucose	pH 7.1; 37.8°C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(133)
45. 100°C, 20 min	^a ~0.0325 mol H ₂	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(57)
46. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.00036 mol H ₂ / g COD	pH 5.5; 37.0 °C	Glucose and peptone	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(209)
47. 100°C, 60 min	1.61 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	96% sucrose	0.88	POME treatment plant	(36)
48. 100°C, 90 min	^a 0.0498 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(138)
49. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.34 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 55.0 °C	Xylose	95% xylose	0.15	Sewage treatment plant	(241)
50. 100°C, 45 min	^a 0.65 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 40.0 °C	Xylose	80% xylose	0.23	Sewage treatment plant	(241)
51. 100°C, 15 min	^a 1.10 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.5; 35.0 °C	Wheat straw	N.A.	0.92	Anaerobic treatment plant	(110)
52. 100°C, 60 min	0.01339 mol H ₂ / g TVS	pH 5.0; 55.0 °C	Bagasse	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(242)
53. 100°C, 60 min	^a 0.0000616 mol H ₂ /g TVS	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Pulping sludge and paper waste	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(243)
54. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.00668 mol H ₂ /g TS	pH 7.0; 50.0 °C	Cornstalk waste	N.A.	N.A.	River sludge	(94)
55. 100°C, 15 min	^a 0.00597 mol H ₂ /g TS	pH 7.0; 36.0 °C	Cornstalk waste	N.A.	N.A.	River sludge	(244)
56. 100°C, 60 min	0.0000122 mol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	69% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
57. 100 °C, 60 min	0.00041 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	POME	86 % COD	N.A.	POME treatment plant	(66)
58. 100°C, 60 min	0.130 mol H ₂ / L POME	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	POME	N.A.	0.62	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
59. 102°C, 30 min	^a 0.00109 mol H ₂ / g VSS	pH 10.0; 37.0 °C	bovine serum albumin and dextran	55% and 87% respectively	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(155)
60. 102°C, 90 min	2.00 mol H ₂ /mol sucrose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	0.3	Soybean-processing wastewater treatment plant	(41)
61. 105°C, 90 min	5.02 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Cassava wastewater	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(245)

Table A2: Summary of H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
62. 105°C, 2 hr	3.00 mol H ₂	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Corn hover	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(246)
63. 121°C, 20 min	^a ~0.0244 mol H ₂	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(57)
64. 121°C, 30–120 min	2.5 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	22% arabinose	^b 0.55	Brewery industry	(42)
65. 121°C, 30–120 min	1.7 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 8.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	40% arabinose	^b 0.37	Brewery industry	(42)
66. 121°C, 30–120 min	1.5 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	72% arabinose	^b 0.32	Sewage treatment plant B	(42)
67. 121°C, 30–120 min	1.5 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 8.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	98% arabinose	^b 0.28	Sewage treatment plant B	(42)
68. 121°C, 30–120 min	1.3 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 4.5; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	20% arabinose	^b 0.29	Brewery industry	(42)
69. 121°C, 30–120 min	1.2 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	51% arabinose	^b 0.20	Sewage treatment plant A	(42)
70. 121°C, 30–120 min	0.9 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 8.0; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	55% arabinose	^b 0.11	Sewage treatment plant A	(42)
71. 121°C, 30–120 min	0.8 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 4.5; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	42% arabinose	^b 0.25	Sewage treatment plant A	(42)
72. 121°C, 30–120 min	0.0 mol H ₂ /mol arabinose	pH 4.5; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	20% arabinose	^b 0.00	Sewage treatment plant B	(42)
73. Autoclave, 20 min	^a 0.0077 mol H ₂	pH 6.8; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	2.41	Sewage treatment plant	(167)
74. Autoclave, N.A.	^a 0.00244 mol H ₂	pH 6.5; 37.0 °C	Arabinose	51% arabinose	4.6	Brewery industry	(247)
75. Autoclave, 30 min	^a 0.00066 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.8; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	3.43	Sewage treatment plant	(117)
76. Autoclave, 15 min	0.00259 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 7.5; 35.0 °C	Synthetic kitchen waste	N.A.	N.A.	Marsh (methane) gas plant	(248)
77. Autoclave, 30 min	^a 0.00035 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.8; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	4.9	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
78. Boiling, 40 min	1.46 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Candy Industry	(29)
79. Boiling, 15 min	^a 0.00894 mol H ₂ / g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
80. Boiling, 30 min	0.0058 mol H ₂ / mg COD	pH 7 – 9; 35.0 °C	Glucose	15% COD	. N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(249)
81. Boiling, 40 min	3.1 mol H ₂ /mol lactose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Lactose	N.A.	N.A.	Candy Industry	(29)
82. Boiling, 40 min	3.6 mol H ₂ /mol lactose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Cheese whey powder	N.A.	N.A.	Candy Industry	(29)
83. Boiling, 5 hr	^a 11.4 mol H ₂ /g starch	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Wheat powder solution	N.A.	^b 2.3	Bakers yeast industry	(118)

84. Boiling, 30 min	^a 0.47 mol H ₂ / g VS	pH 5 – 6; 70.0 °C	Grass silage	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(106)
---------------------	---	-------------------	--------------	------	------	-------------	-------

Table A2: Summary of H₂ production from physically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
85. Boiling, 30 min	^a 0.00756 mol H ₂ /g TVS	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Defatted milk product food waste and lactose	N.A.	N.A.	Marsh (methane) gas plant	(30)
86. Boiling, 15 min	^a 0.00366 mol H ₂ /g TS	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Apple pomace	N.A.	N.A.	River sludge	(46)
87. Boiling, 30 min and drying (110–115 °C)	0.0181 mol H ₂ / mg COD	pH 7.9; 37.0 °C	Glucose	18% COD	0.27	Sewage treatment plant	(249)
88. Repeated boiling (2× for 5 hr)	0.33 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Wheat powder solution	N.A.	N.A.	Beer Industry	(82)
89. Repeated boiling (2× for 5 hr)	1.00 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Wheat powder solution	N.A.	N.A.	Bakers yeast industry	(82)
90. Infrared oven (2 hr)	^a 0.00521 mol H ₂ / g TVS	pH 5.0; 36.0 °C	Wheat barn		0.57	Paper mill	(43)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

Appendix 1-3: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from chemically pretreated sludgeTable A3: Summary of H₂ production from chemically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
<i>pH pretreatment</i>							
1. Acid (pH 2), 5 min	^a 0.00013 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	5.1	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
2. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	2.25 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(250)
3. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	1.51 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	90.90%	0.77	Sewage treatment plant	(141)
4. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	1.11 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5; 37.0 °C	Glucose	100% glucose	1.2	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
5. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	^a 0.00406 mol H ₂ / g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
6. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	0.00032 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	POME	51 % COD	N.A.	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(66)
7. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	^a 0.00189 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
8. Acid (pH 3), 30 min	^a 0.026.8 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(138)
9. Acid (pH 3), 24 hr	^a 0.00074 mol H ₂	H 6.8; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	2.95	Sewage treatment plant	(167)
10. Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	^b ~0.85 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(61)
11. Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	1.30 mol H ₂ /mol sucrose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	1.07	Soybean-processing wastewater treatment plant	(41)
12. Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	0.65 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	95% sucrose	1.48	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
13. Acid (pH 3–4), 24 hr	^a 0.00691 mol H ₂ /g of sugar	pH 6.6; 25.0 °C	mixture of fruit and vegetables waste compost of sucrose, fructose and glucose	^b 96% total sugar	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(132)
14. Acid (pH 3–5), 48 hr	^a 0.00254 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 55.0 °C	glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(251)
15. Acid (pH 5), 24 hr	0.0018 mol H ₂ /gCOD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	63% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
16. Base (pH 10), 24 hr	1.34 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	90.10%	0.84	Sewage treatment plant	(141)

Table A3: Summary of H₂ production from chemically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
17. Base (pH 10), 24 hr	0.68 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5; 37.0 °C	Glucose	100% glucose	0.9	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
18. Base (pH 10), 24 hr	^a 0.00569 mol H ₂ / g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
19. Base (pH 10), 30 min	^a 0.0154 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(138)
20. Base (pH 11), 24 hr	^a 0.00211 mol H ₂	pH 6.8; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	2.95	Sewage treatment plant	(167)
21. Base (pH 12), 30 min	^b ~0.10 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.2; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(61)
22. Base (pH 12), 24 hr	0.51 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	92% sucrose	0.67	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
23. Base (pH 12), 24 hr	0.38 mol H ₂ /mol sucrose	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	0.95	Soybean-processing wastewater treatment plant	(41)
24. Base (pH 12), 24 hr	^a 0.42 mol H ₂ / g COD	pH 10.5; 37.0 °C	Peptone and Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(209)
25. Base (pH 12), 24 hr	0.00037 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	POME	59 % COD	N.A.	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(66)
26. Base (pH 12), 24 hr	^a 0.00240 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)
27. Base (pH 12), 5 min	^a 0.00006 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	2.1	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
28. Base (pH 12), 5 min	^a 0.00047 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 11.5; 37.0 °C	Sewage sludge	N.A.	5.3	Sewage treatment plant	(78)
Chemical activation							
29. Reactivated in clostridium enforcement medium, 15 days	2.19 mol H ₂ /mol hexose	pH 6.0; 35.0 °C	Cellobiose	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(139)
30. Loading shock (50 g sucrose/L), 2 days	1.96 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	97% sucrose	10.59	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
31. Loading shock (50 g sucrose/L), 2 days	0.199 mol H ₂ / L POME	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	POME	N.A.	1.34	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)

Table A3: Summary of H₂ production from chemically pretreated sludge at their reported fermentation conditions (CONTINUE)

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
32. Reactivated in rice medium, 1 month	^a 0.00212 mol H ₂ /g TS	36.0 °C	Untreated sweet sorghum stalk	89.12% sugar; 15% hemi-cellulose; 14% cellulose	N.A.	Composting plant	(130)
33. Reactivated in rice medium, 1 month	^a 0.00517 mol H ₂ /g TS	36.0 °C	Alkali treated sweet sorghum stalk	99 % sugar; 54% hemi-cellulose; 42% cellulose	N.A.	Composting plant	(130)
34. KNO ₃ (10 mmol/L)	^a 0.0345 mol H ₂	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Intertidal zone	(138)
<i>Chemical inhibition</i>							
35. BES (10 mmol/L), 24 hr	0.33 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	70.20%	4.18	Sewage treatment plant	(141)
36. BES (10 mmol), 30 min	1.01 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	pH 5.5; 60.0 °C	Sucrose	95% sucrose	0.84	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(36)
37. BES (0.2 g/L), 24 hr	0.0000317 mol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	87% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
38. Chloroform (1%), 24 hr	0.61 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	70.70%	1.88	Sewage treatment plant	(141)
39. Chloroform (2%), 24 hr	^a 0.00353 mol H ₂ / g glucose	pH 7.0; 35.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(80)
40. Chloroform (0.1%), 24 hr	0.00023 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 5.5; 35.0 °C	POME	51 % COD	N.A.	Palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment plant	(66)
41. Chloroform (0.2%)	^a 0.00134 mol H ₂ /g VS	pH 6.0; 60.0 °C	Cassava stillage	N.A.	N.A.	Anaerobic treatment plant	(67)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

Appendix 1-4: Supplementary table for literature review on H₂ production from sludge pretreated with physical coupled with chemical pretreatment

Table A4: Summary of H₂ production from sludge pretreated with physical coupled with chemical pretreatment at their reported fermentation conditions

Pretreatment	H ₂ Yield	Initial pH and temp.	Substrate	Substrate consumption	Acetate : butyrate	Sludge source	Ref.
1. Heat (boiling) + aeration (4 min)	1.83 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	River sludge	(83)
2. Heat (77 °C) + Ultrasonic (20 min)	1.55 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 6.5; 37.0 °C	Glucose	100% glucose	1.9	Sewage treatment plant	(37)
3. Heat (repeated boiling) + chloroform (0.05%)	0.51 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Wheat powder solution	N.A.	N.A.	Beer Industry	(82)
4. Chloroform (0.05%) + heat (repeated boiling)	0.44 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	pH 7.0; 37.0 °C	Wheat powder solution	N.A.	N.A.	Beer Industry	(82)
5. Heat 90 °C + Ultrasonic	^a 1.32–1.50 mol H ₂ /g COD	pH 6.5; 36.0 °C	Sucrose	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(73)
6. Acid (pH 5) + BES (0.2 g/L)	2.90 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	83% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
7. Heat (100 °C) + acid (pH 5)	2.07 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	86% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
8. Acid (pH 5) + heat (100 °C) + BES (0.2 g/L)	1.08 × 10 ⁻⁵ mol H ₂ /g COD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	83% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
9. Heat (100 °C) + BES (0.2 g/L)	8.40 × 10 ⁻⁶ mol H ₂ /gCOD	29.0 °C	Dairy wastewater	81% COD	N.A.	H ₂ producing reactor	(65)
10. Heat (boiling) + freeze -20 °C + thaw (4 °C)	0.41 mol H ₂ /mol glycerol	pH 6.0; 37.0 °C	Glycerol	N.A.	N.A.	Sewage treatment plant	(84)
11. Heat (95 °C) + acid (pH 3–5), 48 hr	^a 0.0545 mol H ₂	pH 5.0; 55.0 °C	Glucose	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(251)
12. Water soak (3 hr) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.011 mol H ₂ /g substrate	pH 5– 5.5; 36.0 °C	Stale corn	N.A.	^b 2.12	Cattle farm	(252)
13. Aeration (4 days) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.010 mol H ₂ /g substrate	pH 5– 5.5; 36.0 °C	Stale corn	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(252)
14. UV (3 hr) + Reactivated in glucose (3 days)	^a 0.010 mol H ₂ /g substrate	pH 5– 5.5; 36.0 °C	Stale corn	N.A.	N.A.	Cattle farm	(252)

^a H₂ yield was estimated using $PV = nRT$ at standard condition where $P = 1 \text{ atm}$; $R = 8.21 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm}/\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}$ and $T = 300 \text{ K}$

^b Estimated value

Appendix 1-5: Supplementary table for literature review on Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge

Table A5: Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge inocula

Source of Sludge	Microbial community	Pretreatment	H ₂ yield	Ref.
1. Sewage treatment plant B	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (AE0011437.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. HPB-21 (AY862509.1) Uncultured <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (EF700377.1)	Heat	2.30 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(31)
2. Sewage treatment plant C	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. (DQ168845.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) <i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (DQ235219.1 and FM994940.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (DQ168846.1) <i>Lactobacillus delbrueekii</i> (FJ915706.1) Uncultured bacterium (DQ235219.1) Uncultured <i>Bacillus</i> sp. (DQ168845.1) Uncultured <i>Clostridium</i> (DQ168846.1)	Heat	2.18 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(60)
3. Intertidal sludge	<i>Bacillus megaterium</i> (HM104462)	Heat	1.65 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(57)
4. Sewage treatment plant A	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (AE0011437.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. <i>JRI19</i> (EF067828.1) <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> (EF210289.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) Uncultured bacterium (DQ795258.1)	Heat	1.64 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(31)
5. Sewage treatment plant D	<i>Bifidobacterium boum</i> (AY166529.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (FJ876436.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) <i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (FM994940.1) <i>Lactobacillus fermentum</i> (GQ131282.1) <i>Lactobacillus delbrueekii</i> (FJ915705.1 and FJ915706.1) Uncultured bacterium (AB441617.1)	Heat	1.32 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(60)

Table A5: Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge inocula (CONTINUE)

Source of Sludge	Microbial community	Pretreatment	H ₂ yield	Ref.
6. Intertidal sludge	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. (GQ180912) <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> (GQ180905 and GQ180906) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (GQ180907, GQ180908, GQ180910 and GQ180911) <i>Enterococcus faecium</i> (GQ180909)	Freeze and thaw	0.15 mol H ₂ /mol glucose	(61)
7. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Clostridium cellulosi</i> <i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i> <i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> <i>Streptococcus bovis</i> <i>Citrobacter</i> sp.	N.A.	0.261 mol H ₂ /g glucose	(164)
8. Cattle manure composting plant	<i>Clostridium saccharolyticum</i> strain HAW3 (AY604565) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> strain W4 (DQ831126) <i>Clostridium aerotolerans</i> (X76163) <i>Clostridium sphenoides</i> (X73449) <i>Enterococcus gallinarum</i> (EF025908) <i>Enterococcus saccharolyticus</i> (U30931)	Chemical activation	2.19 mol H ₂ /mol hexose	(139)
9. POME treatment plant	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> sp. (AY999015) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> (AY999014) <i>Clostridium thermopalmarium</i> (AF286862)	Loading shock	1.96 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)
10. POME treatment plant	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> (AF247003 and AY999014)	Heat	1.61 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)
11. POME treatment plant	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> sp. (AY350594) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> (AY999014) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (AF252325) <i>Bacillus</i> sp. (AB020196)	BES	1.01 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)
12. POME treatment plant	<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp. (AY363384) <i>Bacillus</i> sp. (AB193859) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. (AB234007)	Acid	0.65 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)

13. POME treatment plant	<i>Clostridium</i> sp. (AB234007 and AF252325) <i>Bacillus</i> sp. GB02-25 (DQ079010)	Base	0.51 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)
--------------------------	--	------	--------------------------------------	------

Table A5: Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge inocula (CONTINUE)

Source of Sludge	Microbial community	Pretreatment	H ₂ yield	Ref.
14. POME treatment plant	<i>Bacillaceae</i> bacterium NS1-3 (AY466703) <i>Clostridiales</i> bacterium NS5-4 (AY466717) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. L1/6 (AY188846) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> (AY999014) <i>B. circulans</i> (AY294321) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> sp. (AB034720)	Untreated	0.3 mol H ₂ / mol hexose	(36)
15. Sucrose-based synthetic wastewater sludge	<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> CGS5	Heat	2.78 mol H ₂ / mol sucrose	(53)
16. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Klebsiella</i> sp. HE1 (AY540111)	N.A.	0.92 mol H ₂ / mol sucrose	(165)
17. Mangrove sludge	<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i>	Chemical activation	0.021 mol H ₂ / L biogas	(166)
18. Intertidal sludge	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. B2 (JF449443)	Heat	0.0325 mol H ₂	(57)
19. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Ethanoligenens harbinens</i> YUAN-3 (AY295777) <i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i> strain Aq16 (EU554442) <i>Ethanoligenens harbinens</i> YUAN-3 (AY295777) <i>Bacteroides vulgatus</i> ATCC8482 (CP000139)	Aeration	0.00912 mol H ₂	(167)
20. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> stain MPP-41 (DQ911273) <i>Clostridium vincentii</i> CGS6 (AY540110)	Heat	0.0077 mol H ₂	(167)
21. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Acidovorax facilis</i> strain LMG 2193 (EU024133) <i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> stain MPP-41 (DQ911273)	Untreated	0.0071 mol H ₂	(167)
22. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Propionibacterium granulosum</i> cryptic plasmid PG01 (AY150274) <i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> stain MPP-41 (DQ911273) <i>Clostridium longisporum</i> strain DSM8431 (X76164)	Acid	0.00211 mol H ₂	(167)

Table A5: Comparison of microbial diversity in various pretreated and untreated sludge inocula (CONTINUE)

Source of Sludge	Microbial community	Pretreatment	H ₂ yield	Ref.
23. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> stain MPP-41 (DQ911273) <i>Clostridium vincentii</i> CGS6 (AY540110) <i>Bacteroides vulgatus</i> ATCC8482 (CP000139) <i>Clostridium longisporum</i> strain DSM8431 (X76164)	Base	0.00211 mol H ₂	(167)
24.				
25. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Thermoanaerobacterium</i> genus	Heat	0.00430 mol H ₂ / g cellulose	(131)
26. Sewage treatment plant	<i>Clostridium acetobutyricum</i> (FM994940.1) <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> (GQ214541.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (DQ831124.1) Uncultured bacterium (DQ464539.1 and DQ414811.1)	Heat	0.0106 mol H ₂ / g carbohydrate	(49)
27. POME treatment plant	<i>Clostridium paraputrificum</i> JCM 5237 (AB627080.1) <i>Clostridium bovipellis</i> B30 (EF512134.1) <i>Weissella soli</i> strain NS26 (EU180607.1) <i>Clostridium tyrobutyricum</i> A1-3 (GU227148.1) <i>Clostridium butyricum</i> TM-9B (FR734080.1) <i>Clostridium thermopalmarium</i> KU-M1 (HM756303.1) <i>Thermoanaerobacterium thermosaccharolyticum</i> D120-70 (AF247003.1) <i>Clostridium hydrogeniformans</i> BL-20 (DQ196623.2) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. BS-1 (FJ805840.2) <i>Clostridium beijerinckii</i> HU-2 (AB626806.1) <i>Clostridium baratii</i> LCR23 (HQ259733.1) <i>Clostridium</i> sp. M-43 (AB504378.1)	Heat	0.047 mol H ₂ /LPOME	(168)

Appendix 2-1: Calculation for hydrogen yield

1. Concentration of hydrogen (ppm_v) in calibration gas

Formula:

In volume fraction (vol./vol.)

In mole fraction (mol/mol)

$$ppm_v = \frac{Vol_{H_2}}{Vol_{total}} \times 10^6$$

$$ppm_v = \frac{mol_{H_2}}{mol_{total}} \times 10^6$$

*Note: 10^6 is a conversion factor for ppm_v. 10^9 should be used for ppb_v

In the calibration gas for GC, 5% represents hydrogen gas

$$5\% \text{ mol} = 5\% \text{ vol.} = 0.05 \text{ v/v}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Concentration of hydrogen} &= 0.05 \times 10^6 \\ &= \underline{5 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}_v} \end{aligned}$$

For example, if the calibration peak area for hydrogen was measured at ~61, then this area represents 5×10^4 ppm_v of hydrogen in the calibration gas.

2. Volume of bio-hydrogen in sample

Example:

Total biogas = 0.270 L ($0.27 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$); Peak area of hydrogen for sample: 1400

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Concentration of hydrogen} &= \frac{1400}{61} \times (5 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}_v) \\ &= \underline{1.148 \times 10^6 \text{ ppm}_v} \end{aligned}$$

$$ppm_v = \frac{Vol_{H_2}}{Vol_{total}} \times 10^6$$

$$\begin{aligned} Vol_{H_2} &= \frac{ppm_v}{1 \times 10^6} \times vol_{total} \\ &= \frac{1.148 \times 10^6}{1 \times 10^6} \times (0.27 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3) \\ &= \underline{0.30996 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3} \end{aligned}$$

3. Mol of bio-hydrogen in sample

$$PV = nRT$$

where,

$$P = 1 \text{ atm,}$$

$$R = 8.205 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K,}$$

$$T = 310.15 \text{ K (37}^\circ\text{C)}$$

When $V = 0.30996 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mol of hydrogen} &= \frac{(1)(0.30996 \times 10^{-3})}{(8.205 \times 10^{-5})(310.15)} \\ &= \underline{\underline{0.01218 \text{ mol}}} \end{aligned}$$

4. Hydrogen yield

Mol of glucose:

$$\text{No. of moles} = \text{concentration (g/L)} \times \text{volume (L)}$$

When 10 g/L glucose was used in 150 mL of fermentation medium

$$\begin{aligned} \text{No. of moles} &= 10 \text{ g/L} \times 0.15 \text{ L} \\ &= \underline{\underline{0.00833 \text{ mol}}} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hydrogen yield} &= \frac{0.01218}{0.00833} \\ &= \underline{\underline{1.46 \text{ mol H}_2 / \text{mol glucose}}} \end{aligned}$$

Appendix 2-2: Chromatogram of biogas profile for H₂ production from glucose using landfill leachate sludge at optimum conditions

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\21 JULY 2011\CAL000020.D
 Sample Name: Cal

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\21 JULY 2011\CAL000020.D
 Sample Name: Cal

```

=====
Acq. Operator   : yee meng
Acq. Instrument : Instrument 1          Location : Vial 1
Injection Date  : 7/21/2011 10:58:04 AM
                                           Inj Volume : Manually

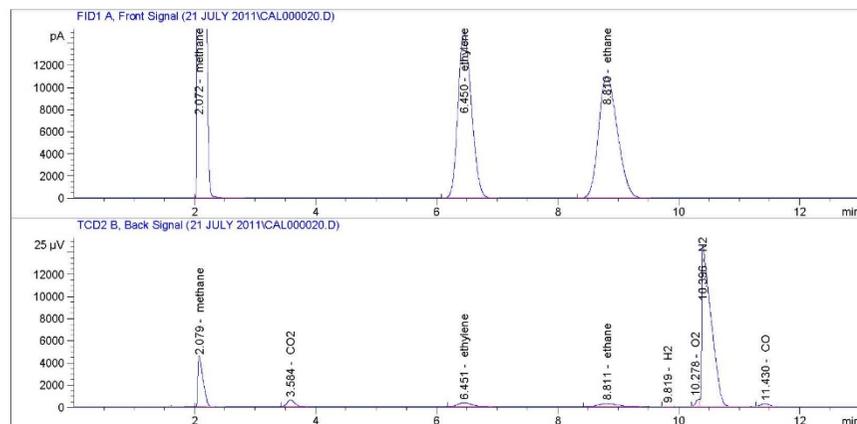
Acq. Method     : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
Last changed    : 7/21/2011 10:52:34 AM by yee meng
Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\SHUTDOWN.M
Last changed    : 7/21/2011 1:11:05 PM by yee meng
                                           (modified after loading)

Method Info     : Training

Sample Info     : Cal
    
```

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.072	BB S	8.87269e5	1.69058e-5	15.00000		methane
6.450	BB	2.31431e5	8.64189e-6	2.00000		ethylene
8.810	BB	2.36452e5	8.45838e-6	2.00000		ethane
Totals :				19.00000		



Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.079	BB	2.64708e4	5.66662e-4	15.00000		methane
3.584	BB	5098.37451	3.92282e-4	2.00000		CO2
6.451	BB	5164.02441	3.87295e-4	2.00000		ethylene
8.811	BB	5436.59961	3.67877e-4	2.00000		ethane
9.819	MM N	61.12198	8.18036e-2	5.00000		H2
10.278	MF	2460.35645	5.09056e-4	1.25000		O2
10.396	FM	1.55574e5	4.61195e-4	71.75000		N2
11.430	MM	2278.77881	4.38832e-4	1.00000		CO
Totals :				100.00000		

External Standard Report

```

=====
Sorted By      : Signal
Calib. Data Modified : 7/21/2011 12:44:13 PM
Multiplier:    : 1.0000
Dilution:      : 1.0000
Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs
    
```

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\2011DEC20\CAL1000024.D
 Sample Name: call

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\2011DEC20\CAL1000024.D
 Sample Name: call

```

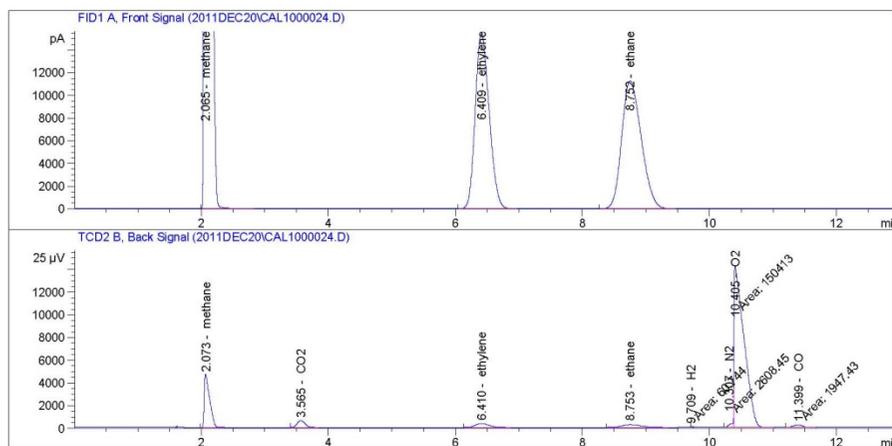
=====
Acq. Operator   : meng
Acq. Instrument : Instrument 1          Location : Vial 1
Injection Date  : 12/21/2011 12:47:21 AM
                                           Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method    : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
Last changed   : 12/21/2011 12:46:09 AM by meng
Analysis Method: C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\SHUTDOWN.M
Last changed   : 12/21/2011 1:31:21 AM by meng
                                           (modified after loading)
Method Info    : Training

Sample Info    : call
    
```

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.065	BB S	9.13246e5	1.64249e-5	15.00000		methane
6.409	BB	2.35503e5	8.49247e-6	2.00000		ethylene
8.752	BB	2.40390e5	8.31981e-6	2.00000		ethane
Totals :				19.00000		



Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 pV*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.073	BB	2.71963e4	5.51545e-4	15.00000		methane
3.565	BB	5192.37354	3.85180e-4	2.00000		CO2
6.410	BB	5294.27197	3.77767e-4	2.00000		ethylene
8.753	BB	5578.08057	3.58546e-4	2.00000		ethane
9.709	MM N	60.74398	8.23127e-2	5.00000		H2
10.307	MF	2608.44971	2.75068e-2	71.75000		N2
10.405	FM	1.50413e5	8.31043e-6	1.25000		O2
11.399	NM	1947.43274	5.13497e-4	1.00000		CO
Totals :				100.00000		

1 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)

*** End of Report ***

External Standard Report

```

Sorted By      : Signal
Calib. Data Modified : Wednesday, December 21, 2011 1:31:20 AM
Multiplier:    : 1.0000
Dilution:      : 1.0000
Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs
    
```

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000213.D

Sample Name: cal

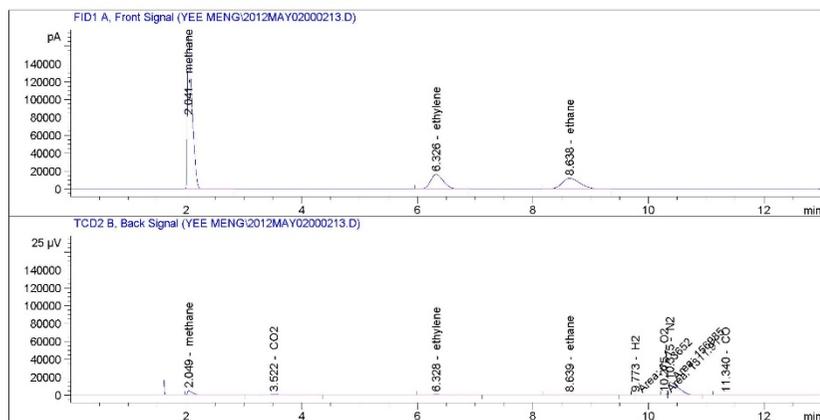
PDF Complete
 Your complimentary use period has ended. Thank you for using PDF Complete.
 Click Here to upgrade to Unlimited Pages and Expanded Features

Location : Vial 1

Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 4/27/2011 12:30:32 PM by J
 Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 4/24/2014 11:18:28 AM by LUTFI (modified after loading)
 Method Info : Training

Sample Info : cal



Normalized Percent Report

Sorted By : Signal
 Calib. Data Modified : 4/24/2014 11:17:40 AM
 Multiplier: : 1.0000
 Dilution: : 1.0000
 Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
 Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.041	BB S	9.58268e5	1.62902e-5	12.706510		methane
6.326	BB	2.47437e5	8.37714e-6	1.687225		ethylene
8.638	BB	2.53351e5	9.12351e-6	1.881472		ethane

Instrument 1 4/24/2014 11:18:30 AM LUTFI

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000213.D

Sample Name: cal

PDF Complete
 Your complimentary use period has ended. Thank you for using PDF Complete.
 Click Here to upgrade to Unlimited Pages and Expanded Features

Norm Grp Name

5.275207

Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.049	BB	2.78754e4	5.34790e-4	12.134399		methane
3.522	BB	5375.77295	3.86680e-4	1.692024		CO2
6.328	BB	5461.09570	3.92365e-4	1.744147		ethylene
8.639	BV	5769.66895	4.13381e-4	1.941398		ethane
9.773	MM N	61.36522	6.03272e-2	3.013346		H2
10.275	MF	1311.91199	4.43881e-4	0.474008		O2
10.375	EM	1.56985e5	4.85206e-4	62.000984		N2
11.340	BBA	1917.40344	4.64198e-4	0.724487		CO
Totals :				83.724793		

1 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)

*** End of Report ***

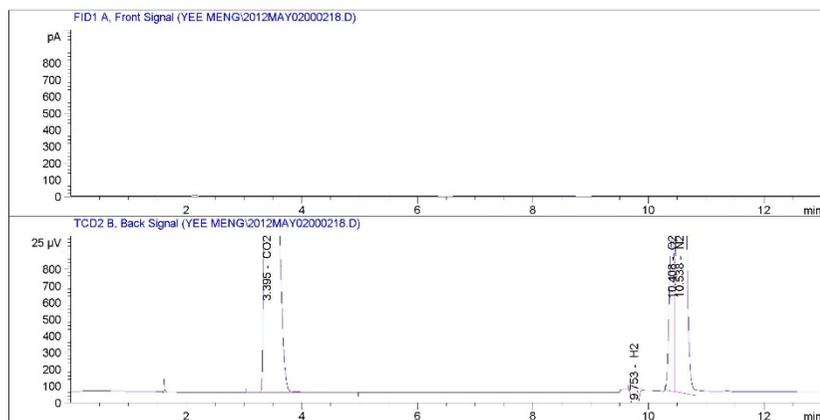
Figure A3: Chromatogram for GC calibration of gas standards on May

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000218.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep2



Location : Vial 1
 Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 5/2/2012 10:26:01 PM by yee meng
 Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 4/24/2014 11:20:39 AM by LUTFI
 (modified after loading)
 Method Info : Training
 Sample Info : 48hr pH6 Rep2



Normalized Percent Report

Sorted By : Signal
 Calib. Data Modified : 4/24/2014 11:20:43 AM
 Multiplier: : 1.0000
 Dilution: : 1.0000
 Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
 Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.041	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.326	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.638	-	-	-	-	-	ethane

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000218.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep2



Norm Grp Name
 %
 0.000000

Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.049	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.395	BB	5.32964e4	3.86680e-4	11.492490	-	CO2
6.328	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.639	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.753	MM N	2418.62061	6.03272e-2	78.002244	-	H2
10.408	MF	5451.44775	4.43881e-4	1.349408	-	O2
10.538	FM	3.38383e4	4.85206e-4	9.155858	-	N2
11.340	-	-	-	-	-	CO
Totals :				100.000000		

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

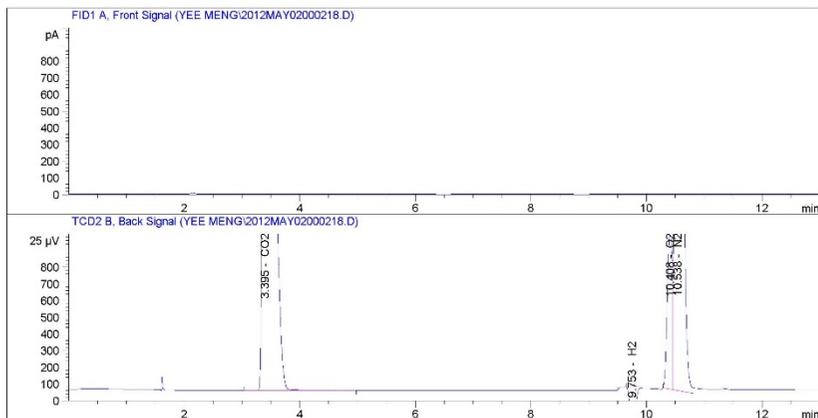
Figure A4: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 04 May 2012 Rep 1

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000218.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep2



Location : Vial 1
 Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 5/2/2012 10:26:01 PM by yee meng
 Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 4/24/2014 11:20:39 AM by LUTFI
 (modified after loading)
 Method Info : Training
 Sample Info : 48hr pH6 Rep2



Normalized Percent Report

Sorted By : Signal
 Calib. Data Modified : 4/24/2014 11:20:43 AM
 Multiplier: : 1.0000
 Dilution: : 1.0000
 Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
 Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.041	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.326	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.638	-	-	-	-	-	ethane

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000218.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep2



Norm Grp Name
 %
 0.000000

Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.049	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.395	BB	5.32964e4	3.86680e-4	11.492490	-	CO2
6.328	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.639	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.753	MM N	2418.62061	6.03272e-2	78.002244	-	H2
10.408	MF	5451.44775	4.43881e-4	1.349408	-	O2
10.538	FM	3.38383e4	4.85206e-4	9.155858	-	N2
11.340	-	-	-	-	-	CO

Totals : 100.000000

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

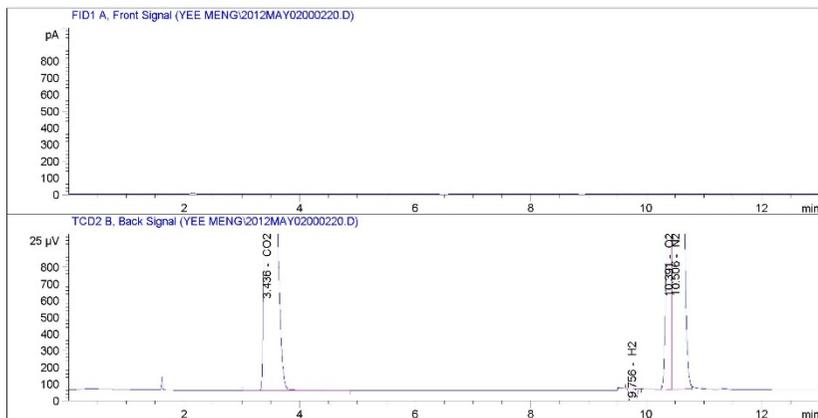
Figure A5: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 04 May 2012 Rep 2

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000220.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep3



Location : Vial 1
 Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 5/2/2012 10:53:14 PM by yee meng
 Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
 Last changed : 4/24/2014 11:20:39 AM by LUTFI
 (modified after loading)
 Method Info : Training
 Sample Info : 48hr pH6 Rep3



Normalized Percent Report

Sorted By : Signal
 Calib. Data Modified : 4/24/2014 11:20:43 AM
 Multiplier: : 1.0000
 Dilution: : 1.0000
 Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
 Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.041	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.326	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.638	-	-	-	-	-	ethane

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\2012MAY02000220.D
 Sample Name: 48hr pH6 Rep3



Norm Grp Name
 0.000000

Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Norm %	Grp	Name
2.049	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.436	BB	4.07435e4	3.86680e-4	9.801881	-	CO2
6.328	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.639	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.756	MM N	2451.99631	6.03272e-2	73.015152	-	H2
10.391	MF	8819.10254	4.43881e-4	2.435514	-	O2
10.506	FM	4.88531e4	4.85206e-4	14.747453	-	N2
11.340	-	-	-	-	-	CO

Totals : 100.000000

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

Figure A6: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 04 May 2012 Rep 3

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000013.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000013.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

```

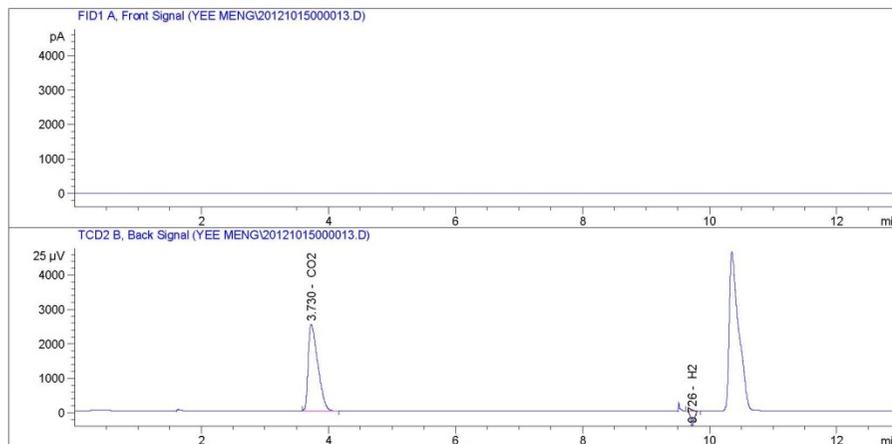
=====
Acq. Operator   : ym
Acq. Instrument : Instrument 1          Location : Vial 1
Injection Date  : 10/15/2012 1:30:14 AM
                                           Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method     : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
Last changed    : 10/15/2012 1:29:31 AM by ym
Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\SHUTDOWN.M
Last changed    : 10/15/2012 1:38:33 AM by ym
                                           (modified after loading)
Method Info     : Training

Sample Info     : Sludge Temp 37 48hr Repl
    
```

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.173	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.558	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.968	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
Totals :				0.00000		



Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.075	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.730	BB	2.58829e4	3.94268e-4	10.20480	-	CO2
6.425	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.778	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.726	MM N	2266.39331	8.16850e-2	160.62482	-	H2
10.529	-	-	-	-	-	O2
10.713	-	-	-	-	-	N2
12.260	-	-	-	-	-	CO
Totals :				170.82962		

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

External Standard Report

```

Sorted By      : Signal
Calib. Data Modified : 10/15/2012 1:45:52 AM
Multiplier:    : 1.0000
Dilution:      : 1.0000
Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs
    
```

Figure A7: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions
 pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 15 Oct 2012 Rep 1

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000014.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000014.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

```

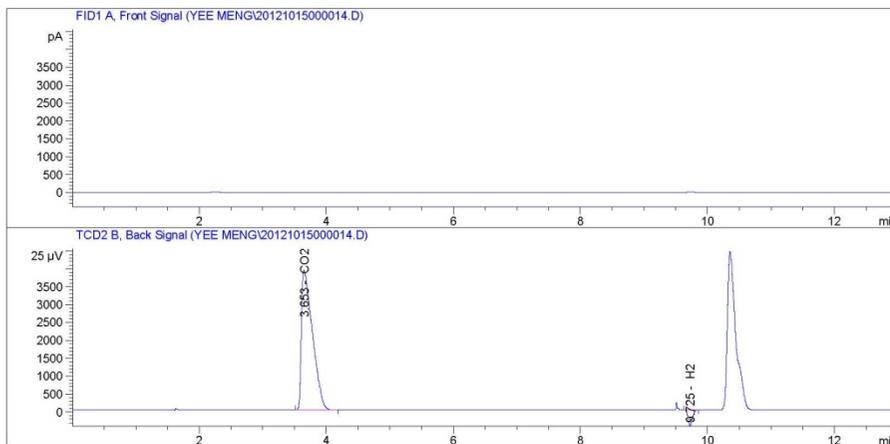
=====
Acq. Operator   : ym
Acq. Instrument : Instrument 1          Location : Vial 1
Injection Date  : 10/15/2012 1:43:59 AM
                                           Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method    : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
Last changed   : 10/15/2012 1:43:21 AM by ym
Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\SHUTDOWN.M
Last changed   : 10/15/2012 1:38:33 AM by ym
                                           (modified after loading)
Method Info    : Training

Sample Info    : Sludge Temp 37 48hr Rep2
    
```

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.173	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.558	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.968	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
Totals :				0.00000		



Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 uV*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.075	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.653	BB	4.67677e4	3.94268e-4	18.43899	-	CO2
6.425	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.778	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.725	MM N	2188.89429	8.16850e-2	162.46281	-	H2
10.529	-	-	-	-	-	O2
10.713	-	-	-	-	-	N2
12.260	-	-	-	-	-	CO
Totals :				180.90180		

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

External Standard Report

```

Sorted By      : Signal
Calib. Data Modified : 10/15/2012 1:45:52 AM
Multiplier:    : 1.0000
Dilution:      : 1.0000
Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs
    
```

Figure A8: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions
 pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 15 Oct 2012 Rep 2

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000015.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

Data File C:\CHEM32\1\DATA\YEE MENG\20121015000015.D
 Sample Name: Sludge Temp 37 48hr

```

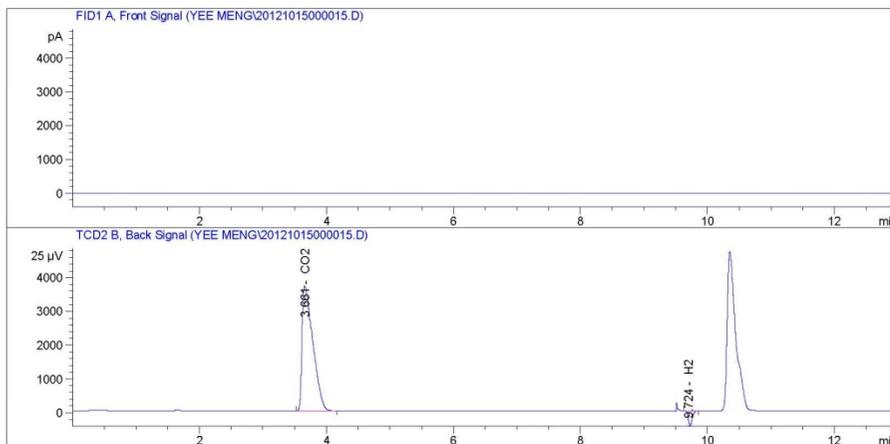
=====
Acq. Operator   : ym
Acq. Instrument : Instrument 1          Location : Vial 1
Injection Date  : 10/15/2012 1:57:51 AM
                                           Inj Volume : Manually

Acq. Method    : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\ANALYSIS.M
Last changed   : 10/15/2012 1:57:09 AM by ym
Analysis Method : C:\CHEM32\1\METHODS\SHUTDOWN.M
Last changed   : 10/15/2012 1:38:33 AM by ym
                                           (modified after loading)
Method Info    : Training

Sample Info    : Sludge Temp 37 48hr Rep3
    
```

Signal 1: FID1 A, Front Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [pA*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.173	-	-	-	-	-	methane
6.558	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.968	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
Totals :				0.00000		



Signal 2: TCD2 B, Back Signal

RetTime [min]	Type	Area [25 µV*s]	Amt/Area	Amount [mole%]	Grp	Name
2.075	-	-	-	-	-	methane
3.661	BB	4.33659e4	3.94268e-4	17.09777	-	CO2
6.425	-	-	-	-	-	ethylene
8.778	-	-	-	-	-	ethane
9.724	MM N	2211.90857	8.16850e-2	164.34274	-	H2
10.529	-	-	-	-	-	O2
10.718	-	-	-	-	-	N2
12.260	-	-	-	-	-	CO
Totals :				181.44050		

2 Warnings or Errors :

Warning : Calibration warnings (see calibration table listing)
 Warning : Calibrated compound(s) not found

*** End of Report ***

External Standard Report

```

Sorted By      : Signal
Calib. Data Modified : 10/15/2012 1:45:52 AM
Multiplier:    : 1.0000
Dilution:      : 1.0000
Sample Amount: : 1.00000 [mole%] (not used in calc.)
Use Multiplier & Dilution Factor with ISTDs
    
```

Figure A9: Chromatogram for batch fermentation at optimum conditions
 pH 6, 37°C and 10 g/L glucose for 48 h. 15 Oct 2012 Rep 3

Appendix 3-1: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from dairy wastewater

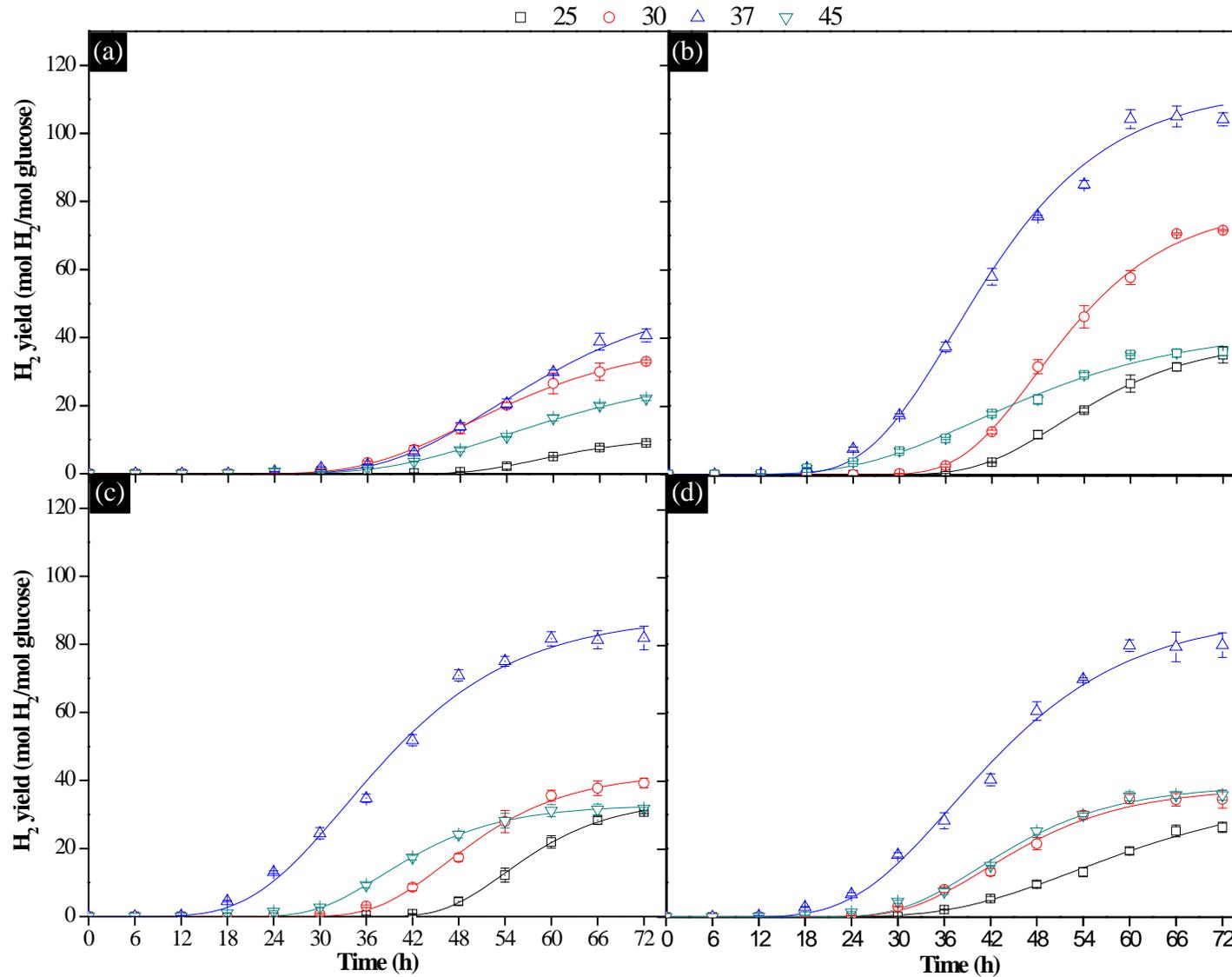


Figure A10:
 Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from dairy wastewater at different pH and fermentation temperature: (a) pH 5, (b) pH 6, (c) pH 7, (d) pH 8. No data from initial pH 4 and temperature 50 °C were not displayed as there were no H₂ productions detected. (Fermentation condition: dilution factor 20 % , 72 h)

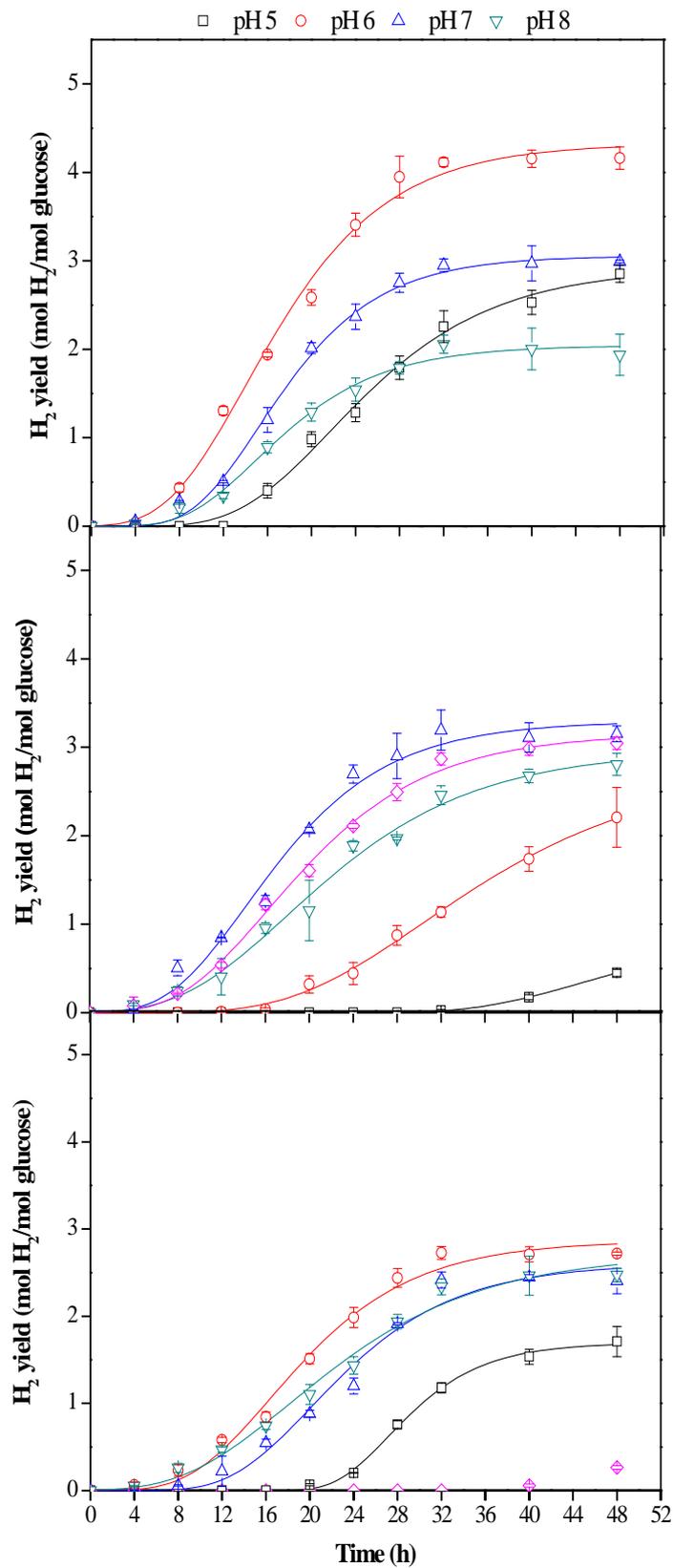
Appendix 4-1: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from isolates

Figure A11: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from isolates in the effect of pH: (a) *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentatns* strain WYM, *Clostridium* strain Ade.TY

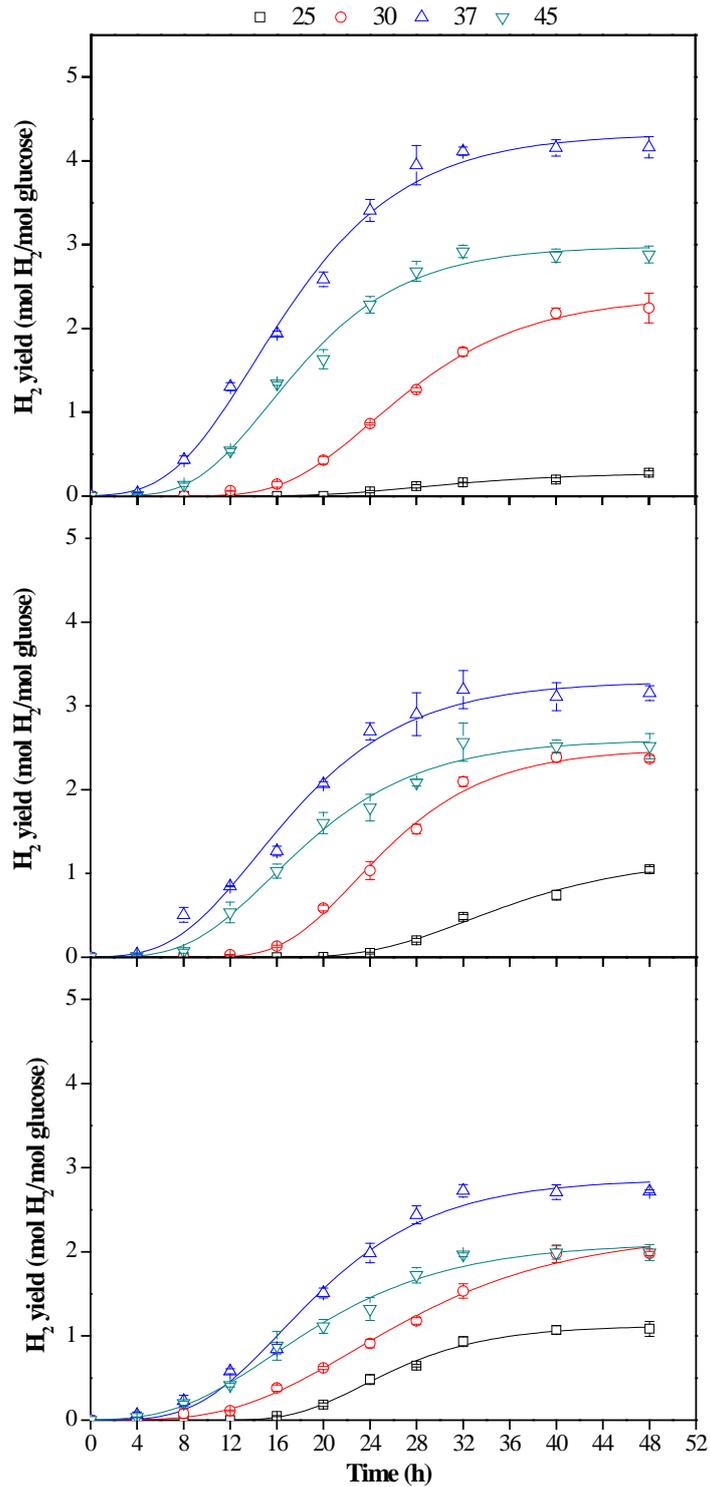


Figure A12: Plot of modified Gompertz model for H₂ production from isolates in the effect of temperature: (a) *C. perfringens* strain JJC, *C. bifermentans* strain WYM, *Clostridium* strain Ade.TY

Appendix 5-1: Taxonomy report for H₂ producing bacteria based on 16S rRNA sequence

Taxonomy report for *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC based on 16S rRNA sequence

Taxonomy Report		
root	128 hits	11 orgs
. Bacteria	104 hits	10 orgs
[cellular organisms]		
. . Clostridiaceae	59 hits	6 orgs
[Firmicutes; Clostridia; Clostridiales]		
. . . Clostridium	58 hits	5 orgs
. . . . Clostridium perfringens	57 hits	4 orgs
. Clostridium perfringens ATCC 13124 .	9 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium perfringens str. 13	11 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium perfringens SM101	10 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium sp. AB&J	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridiaceae bacterium bSSV11	1 hits	1 orgs
[unclassified Clostridiaceae]		
. . unclassified Bacteria (miscellaneous)	2 hits	2 orgs
[unclassified Bacteria]		
. . . swine manure bacterium 37-4	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . swine manure bacterium 37-3	1 hits	1 orgs
. . environmental samples	43 hits	2 orgs
. . . uncultured bacterium	42 hits	1 orgs
. . . uncultured bacterium OI1612	1 hits	1 orgs
. uncultured organism	24 hits	1 orgs
[unclassified sequences; environmental samples]		

Taxonomy report for *Clostridium sp.* strain Ade.TY based on 16S rRNA sequence

Taxonomy Report		
root	102 hits	11 orgs
. Bacteria	84 hits	10 orgs
[cellular organisms]		
. . uncultured bacterium	55 hits	1 orgs
[environmental samples]		
. . Clostridiales	29 hits	9 orgs
[Firmicutes; Clostridia]		
. . . Clostridiaceae	23 hits	6 orgs
. . . . Clostridium	22 hits	5 orgs
. Clostridium sardiniense	9 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium baratii	9 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium sp. E-16	1 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridium paraputrificum	2 hits	1 orgs
. uncultured Clostridium sp.	1 hits	1 orgs
[environmental samples]		
. . . . Clostridiaceae bacterium DJF_VP39k1 .	1 hits	1 orgs
[unclassified Clostridiaceae]		
. . . Eubacterium	6 hits	3 orgs
[Eubacteriaceae]		
. . . . Eubacterium moniliforme	2 hits	1 orgs
. . . . Eubacterium budayi	2 hits	1 orgs
. . . . Eubacterium multiforme	2 hits	1 orgs
. uncultured organism	18 hits	1 orgs
[unclassified sequences; environmental samples]		

Taxonomy report for *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM based on 16S rRNA sequence

Taxonomy Report Bacteria		
80 hits 33 orgs [root; cellular organisms]		
. unclassified Bacteria (miscellaneous)	14 hits	14 orgs
[unclassified Bacteria]		
. . swine manure bacterium RT-1A	1 hits	1 orgs
. . swine manure bacterium RT-4B	1 hits	1 orgs
. . swine manure bacterium RT-5A	1 hits	1 orgs
. . bacterium Te20A	1 hits	1 orgs
. . bacterium Tel9A	1 hits	1 orgs
. . anaerobic bacterium B9	1 hits	1 orgs
. . bacterium Te62A	1 hits	1 orgs
. . rumen bacterium R4-23	1 hits	1 orgs
. . rumen bacterium R2-11	1 hits	1 orgs
. . rumen bacterium R2-10	1 hits	1 orgs
. . rumen bacterium R3_91_26	1 hits	1 orgs
. . bacterium NLAE-z1-P791	1 hits	1 orgs
. . bacterium NLAE-z1-P782	1 hits	1 orgs
. . swine fecal bacterium RF2B-Pecl	1 hits	1 orgs
. Clostridiales	50 hits	18 orgs
[Firmicutes; Clostridia]		
. . Peptostreptococcaceae	28 hits	4 orgs
. . . [Clostridium] bifermentans	19 hits	1 orgs
. . . [Clostridium] sordellii	6 hits	1 orgs
. . . [Eubacterium] tenue	2 hits	1 orgs
. . . [Clostridium] ghonii	1 hits	1 orgs
. . Clostridium	22 hits	14 orgs
[Clostridiaceae]		
. . . Clostridium sp. zx5	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. Cd13	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. EBD	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. BL-21	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. zx7	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. CS2	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. HP1	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . environmental samples	10 hits	2 orgs
. . . . uncultured Clostridium sp.	9 hits	1 orgs
. . . . Clostridium sp. enrichment culture clone HT22 .	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. BS-8	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. T7(2010)	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. R1	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. HT12	1 hits	1 orgs
. . . Clostridium sp. NB53	1 hits	1 orgs
. uncultured bacterium	16 hits	1 orgs
[environmental samples]		

Appendix 5-2: Multiple genome alignment

Multiple genome alignment for *Clostridium perfringens* strain JJC

	1	2	3	4
1: JJC_contig	100	95	95	88
2: Clostridium_perfringens_13	94	100	95	89
3: Clostridium_perfringens_ATCC_13124	94	95	100	88
4: Clostridium_perfringens_SM101	89	89	89	100

Multiple genome alignment for *Clostridium bifermentans* strain WYM

	1	2	3
1: C. bifermentans ATCC 19299 AVNB01	100	88	94
2: C. bifermentans ATCC 638 AVNC01	88	100	88
3: WYM_contig	95	88	100

