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2	Fermentative hydrogen production under moderate halophilic conditions
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9 10 11	Abstract
12	Dark fermentation is an intermediate microbial process occurring along the anaerobic biodegradation
13	of organic matter. Saline effluents are rarely treated anaerobically since they are strongly inhibited by
14	high salt concentrations. This study deals with the characterization of microbial communities
15	producing hydrogen under moderate halophilic conditions. A series of batch experiments was
16	performed under anaerobic conditions, with glucose as substrate (5 g L^{-1}) and under increasing NaCl
17	concentrations ranging from 9 to 75 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. A saline sediment of a lagoon collecting salt factory
18	wastewaters was used as inoculum. Interestingly, a gradual increase of the biohydrogen production
19	yield according to NaCl concentration was observed with the highest value (0.9 \pm 0.02 mol _{H2} mol _{Glucose}
20	¹) obtained for the highest NaCl concentration, ie. 75 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$, suggesting a natural adaptation of the
21	sediment inoculum to salt. This work reports for the first time the ability of mixed culture to produce
22	hydrogen in moderate halophilic environment. In addition, maximum hydrogen consumption rates
23	decreased while NaCl concentration increased. A gradual shift of the bacterial community structure,
24	concomitant to metabolic changes, was observed with increasing NaCl concentrations, with the
25	emergence of bacteria belonging to Vibrionaceae as dominant bacteria for the highest salinities.
26	
27	Key words: Biohydrogen, CE-SSCP, Dark fermentation, Pyrosequencing, Salinity, Vibrionaceae,

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29 **1. Introduction**

The actual increasing interest in hydrogen (H₂) as a promising clean and sustainable energy 30 carrier is mainly due to its high energy density (122 kJ g⁻¹) as well as the high efficiency of fuel cells 31 32 to convert H_2 to electricity for transportation purposes [1–3]. Nowadays, most of the hydrogen produced worldwide is generated by natural gas reforming. However, producing hydrogen from fossil fuel 33 34 produce more than twice carbon oxide equivalent compared to biohydrogen and contribute to resource depletion [4,5]. Developping alternatives technologies to produce hydrogen from renewable energy sources and 35 36 minimizing their environmental impact are therefore of high priority. Producing hydrogen in biological 37 processes is considered more environmentally friendly and sustainable than from conventional techniques. 38 Particularly, dark fermentation is a process that aims at producing biohydrogen and treating organic 39 waste at the same time [1-3,6-9]. During anaerobic digestion of those compounds, several microbial 40 metabolism pathways outcompete for hydrogen which is a key intermediate in the trophic chain, as 41 electron carrier (Fig. 1 – General pathways for hydrogen production. Bold arrows are represented for 42 hydrogen production pathways, dotted arrows for hydrogen consumption pathways and dashed arrows 43 for hydrogen production concurrent routes (adapted from Guo et al [3]). 44). When applying specific operating conditions (low pH, high substrate/inoculum ratio), consumption 45 and concurrent routes for hydrogen production can be avoided [3]. 46 Moreover, saline wastewaters, that can be generated by fish, seafood, petroleum and leather 47 industries, may contain large amounts of organic matter that have to be treated [10,11]. Wastewaters 48 discharged from drinking water treatment plants using ion-exchange membrane and reverse-osmosis 49 processes may also contain high amounts of salts [11]. Overall, saline wastewaters represent more than 50 5% of the worldwide effluent treatment requirements [12]. Discharging those saline wastewaters 51 directly to the environment leads to high risks of soil, surface water and groundwater salinization. In

- 52 most cases, high salinity wastewaters have to be diluted before any biological treatment to reduce their
- salinity. Indeed, a high salinity can disturb the osmotic balance across microbial cell walls and cause
- 54 plasmolysis of microbial cells, making unefficient any biological treatment [13,14]. Dilution of saline

wastewaters implies a high increase in water consumption of the treatment bioprocess and, as a
consequence, its operating costs.

Although Na^+ concentration has a strong inhibitory effect on anaerobic digestion processes [12,14,15], 57 58 natural microbial communities can nevertheless well adapt to high salt concentrations to finally exhibit efficient activity for anaerobic treatment of saline wastewaters [10]. Some anaerobic microbial 59 60 communities were reported as halophilic [16,17], whereas some others were non-halophilic and had to 61 be adapted by increasing salt concentrations prior to using them as inoculum [12,18,19]. While many species from *Clostridium*, *Enterobacter* and *Escherichia* genera have been described in 62 63 the literature as hydrogen-producing bacteria in mixed cultures in non halophilic environment 64 [2,3,8,9,20–23], only few studies have dealt with dark fermentation of saline effluents in mixed 65 cultures [24,25]. Regarding fermentative hydrogen production under moderate halophilic conditions 66 with pure cultures, only Bacillus megaterium [26], Halocella cellulolytica [27] and Clostridium 67 *acetobutylicum*[28] were reported previously to produce H_2 at pH7 and under saline conditions up to 68 2% w/v NaCl [26-28]. Interestingly, Alshiyab et al. [28] showed that hydrogen productivity of 69 Clostridium acetobutylicum decreased by 18% while increasing NaCl concentration from 0 to 5 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. Simankova et al. [27] reported that a halophilic bacteria, *Halocella cellulolytica*, isolated 70 from hypersaline lagoons with high NaCl concentrations (50 to 200 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹), was also capable of 71 hydrogen production of about 4 mmol_{H2} L^{-1} during microcristalyne cellulose breakdown. Liu et al. [26] 72 73 studied the capability of *Bacillus megaterium (Bacillus sp B2)* to produce hydrogen within a range of 4 to 70% $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. They observed a maximum hydrogen production of 1.65 mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹ in marine 74 conditions (30 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$). Kivisto et al. [24] showed that *Halanaerobium saccharolyticum* sspp. 75 saccharolyticum (Hssa) and senegalensis (Hsse) produced respectively 0.6 and 1.6 mol_{H2} mol_{Glycerol}⁻¹, 76 at pH7 and 150 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. Similarly, Brown et al. [29] described *Halanaerobium hydrogeniformans* as a 77 fermentative hydrogen producer in haloalkaline conditions at pH11 and 70 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. Those results 78 79 emphasize that hydrogen producers do exist and can produce hydrogen efficiently in pure cultures under halophilic conditions, mainly in neutral or alkaline conditions unlike classical dark fermentation 80 81 processes that are operated under acid conditions.

The aim of the present study is to evaluate the capability of mixed cultures to produce biohydrogen by dark fermentation under increasing NaCl concentrations. Experiments were performed in mixed culture, inoculated with a microbial ecosystem adapted to saline conditions, to provide new insights about using dark fermentation in moderate halophilic condition for producing hydrogen and treating saline waste streams at the same time, that cannot be feasible with pure cultures. A series of batch experiments was thus carried out with increasing NaCl concentrations from 9 to 75 g.L⁻¹ at pH 8, and using a saline sediment well adapated to halophilic conditions as inoculum.

89 2. Materials and Methods

90 **2.1. Source of inoculum**

91 The seed sediment used for hydrogen production was sampled in a lagoon collecting wastewaters 92 from a salt factory. The sediments were filtrated through a 2 mm sieve and stored at lab temperature 93 before inoculation. The initial pH of the sediments was 8.5 and the salinity 67.4 g L⁻¹.

94 2.2. Hydrogen production in batch tests

95 Hydrogen production experiments were performed in 600 mL glass bottles in batch conditions. About 1.5 g of the seed sediment was added to the culture medium to obtain a final concentration of 96 $300 \text{ mg}_{\text{VS}} \text{ L}^{-1}$ (final working volume of 200 mL). The culture medium was composed of 100mM 97 phosphate buffer, 5 g L⁻¹ glucose and a solution oligoelements with the following final concentrations 98 : 7.50 g L⁻¹ FeCl₂, H₂O, 0.30 g L⁻¹ H₃BO₃, H₂O, 0.59 g L⁻¹ MnSO₄, H₂O, 0.13 g L⁻¹ CoCl₂, 6H₂O, 99 0.35g L⁻¹ ZnCl₂, 0.13 g L⁻¹ NiCl₂,6H₂O, 0.075 g L⁻¹ CuCl₂,2H₂O, 0.13 g L⁻¹ NaMoO₄,2H₂O. The initial 100 101 pH was adjusted to 8 using NaOH (1M). All batch tests were carried out in triplicate. To ensure 102 anaerobic conditions, each bottle headspace was flushed and purged with nitrogen gas after 103 inoculation for 5 minutes. Composition of headspace gas was checked and oxygen content was less 104 than 0.5% in all bottles. Then, the bottles were capped with a rubber stopper and incubated at 35° C for more than 20 days. Two-milliliter aliquots were periodically collected and centrifuged (20,000g, 10 105 min). Supernatants and pellets were stored at -20°C. Supernatants were used for further chemical 106 107 analysis and pellets for DNA extraction.

108 2.3. Chemical analyses

- 109 Volatile fatty acids (VFA) composition, *ie.* acetic (C2), propionic (C3), butyric and iso-butyric (C4
- 110 and iC4), valeric and iso-valeric (C5 and iC5) and caproic (C6) acids was determined with a gas
- 111 chromatograph (GC-3900 Varian) equipped with a flame ionization detector. The concentrations of
- 112 non-VFA metabolic products such as ethanol, lactate and formate were measured by HPLC analysis
- and refractometric detection, as previously described [21].
- 114 Biogas production volume was periodically estimated by measuring the gas pressure in headspace.
- 115 Biogas composition (CH₄, CO₂, H₂ and N₂) was determined using a gas chromatograph (Clarus 580,
- 116 Perkin Elmer) coupled to Thermal Catharometric detection (TCD), as described elsewhere [21].

117 **2.4. Data analysis**

118 To assess accurately H_2 production performances, cumulative H_2 production curves were fitted to a

119 modified Gompertz equation for each batch experiment, as proposed by Quéméneur et al. [20] :

120
$$H_2(t) = H_{2max} \exp(-\exp(V_{max} \cdot \exp(1)/H_{2max}(\lambda - t) + 1))$$

121 where H_{2max} corresponds to the maximum experimental H_2 yield (in mol $_{H2}$ mol_{Glc}⁻¹), V_{max} : the 122 maximum H_2 production rate (in mol_{H2} mol_{Glc}⁻¹ day⁻¹), λ the lag phase (in days), and t the incubation 123 time (in days) (see Fig. 1 – General pathways for hydrogen production. Bold arrows are represented 124 for hydrogen production pathways, dotted arrows for hydrogen consumption pathways and dashed 125 arrows for hydrogen production concurrent routes (adapted from Guo et al [3]).

126 Fig. 2).

127 Specific H₂ consumption rates R_c (in d⁻¹) (Fig. 12) were estimated from the H₂ decrease in cumulative 128 H₂ values at H_{2max} time and at the end of the experiment, that was then normalized according to the

129 corresponding H_{2max} value.

130 2.5. DNA extraction, PCR amplification and CE-SSCP fingerprinting

131 Molecular fingerprinting of the bacterial communities were performed for the samples taken at the

- time of maximal hydrogen production(H_{max}) for each reactor. After centrifugation (20,000g, 10 min.)
- 133 of 2mL sample aliquots, genomic DNA was extracted and purified from the pellets using a
- 134 PROMEGA Wizard® Genomic DNA kit. The DNA amount and purity in extracts were measured by

- 135 spectrophotometry (Infinite NanoQuant M200, Tecan). Then, 16S rRNA genes were amplified using
- 136 universal primers for bacteria, named W49 (5'-ACGGTCCAGACTCCTACGGG-3' Escherichia coli
- 137 position 330) [30] and 5'-fluorescein phosphoramidite labeled W104 (5'-6FAM-

138 TTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCAC-3' Escherichia coli position 533) [30]. Each PCR (Polymerase Chain

139 Reaction) mixture (50µL) contained 5µL of 10x Pfu Turbo DNA buffer, 200 nMf of dNTP, 500 nMf

140 of each primer, 2.5 U μ L⁻¹ of Pfu Turbo DNA polymerase (Stratagene) and 10 ng of genomic DNA.

- 141 Reactions were performed in Mastercycler thermal cycler (Eppendorf). The 16S rRNA genes were
- 142 amplified as follows : initial denaturing at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 25 cycles performed at 94°C
- 143 for 30 s, 61°C for 30 s and 72°C for 30 s, with a final elongation at 72°C for 10 min. Reactions were
- 144 stopped by cooling the mixture to 4° C.

145 PCR products were then separated by capillary electrophoresis single-strand conformation

146 polymorphism (CE-SSCP). This method allows the separation of DNA fragments that have about the

same size but different base compositions [31]. For this, one microliter of the appropriate dilution of

148 PCR products was mixed with 18.925 µL of formamide and 0.075 µL of internal standard GeneScan

149 ROX (Applied Biosystems). Samples were heat-denatured at 95°C for 5 min and immediately re-

150 cooled directly on ice for 5 min. CE-SSCP electrophoresis was performed in an ABI Prism 3130

151 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems) in 50 cm capillary tubes filled with conformation analysis

152 polymer, corresponding buffer and 10% glycerol (Applied Biosystems). Samples were eluted at 12kV

153 and 32°C for 30 min.

154 For bacterial identification, pyrosequencing of the DNA samples using a 454 protocol was performed155 (Research and Testing Laboratory (Lubbock, USA).

156 The sequences of the most abundant bacteria found for each salt concentration was deposited in the

157 NCBI genbank database under the accession number : KC905780 for the 39% abundant bacteria at

- 158 9 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, KC905779 for the 27% abundant bacteria at 9 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, KC905778 for the 36% abundant
- bacteria at 19 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, KC905777 for the 19% abundant bacteria at 29 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$; KC905776 for the 36%
- abundant bacteria at 38 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$; KC905775 for the 26% abundant bacteria at 38 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$; KC905774
- 161 for the 22% abundant bacteria at 48 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$; KC905773 for the 79% abundant bacteria at 58 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$;
- 162 KC905772 for the 92% abundant bacteria at 75 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$.

163 **2.6.** Statistical analyses of CE-SSCP fingerprints

164 CE-SSCP profiles were aligned with an internal standard, ROX, to consider the inter-sample

165 electrophoretic variability. The CE-SSCP profiles were normalized using the Statfingerprints library

166 [32] in R software version 2.9.2 [33], with a standard procedure described by Fromin et al. [34]. The

167 genetic distances between bacterial communities were assessed using Euclidean distances to obtain

- 168 similarity matrices. Genetic distances between samples were analyzed by principal component
- 169 analysis (PCA). Linear correlations between PCA ordination of bacterial communities and
- 170 environmental parameters were established using the *envfit* function of the *vegan* library [35]. Average
- 171 CE-SSCP profiles were calculated for each condition, and corresponded to the average abundance of
- 172 individual peaks from replicates.

173 The Simpson diversity index was evaluated to estimate the complexity of the community by assessing

the number of species (number of peaks) as well as the relative abundance (area under each peak) [36].

175 **3.** Results and Discussion

176 **3.1.** Hydrogen production performances according to NaCl concentrations

177 Throughout the batch experiments, no CH₄ was detected in head space, and only H₂ and CO₂ were 178 found as gaseous products. The Gompertz model showed a good fit with the experimental H₂ production data, with determination coefficients r^2 over 0.994 for all batch tests. Fig. 3 presents the 179 hydrogen production parameters according to NaCl concentrations. The maximum hydrogen 180 production yield (H_{2max}) decreased from 0.65 (±0.01) mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹ to 0.42 (±0.02) mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹ 181 ¹ when NaCl concentrations increased from 9 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ to 19 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. This result was consistent with 182 183 previous studies that showed an inhibition of fermentative hydrogen production at low NaCl concentrations (less than 30 g_{NaCl}/L) with the same substrate (glucose) [25,28]. Alshiyab et al [28] 184 185 showed that *Clostridium butylicum* presented a decrease of hydrogen productivity (18% less) from 0 to 5 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$ at slight lower pH and temperature conditions (pH 7, 30°C). Similarly, Zheng et al [25] 186 showed a continuous decrease of the hydrogen production rate from 0.597 mol_{H2} mol_{Sucrose}⁻¹ d⁻¹ to 187 $0.089 \text{ mol}_{H2} \text{ mol}_{Sucrose}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ with the increase of NaCl concentration from 0 to 30 $\text{g}_{NaCl}\text{L}^{-1}$ in a more 188 189 acidic medium (pH6) with heat-treated anaerobically digested sludge. In the present study, the first

190 loss in hydrogen production (35% for 9 to 19 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$) is consistent with these results, but the use of a

191 not heat-treated inoculum made possible the selection of microbial populations that are halophilic

192 tolerant, fermentative and hydrogen-producing rather than sporulating *Clostridium* strains, known to

193 be inhibited by high NaCl concentrations.

194 By increasing NaCl concentration, maximum hydrogen production (H_{2max}) increased constantly up to

195 a maximum value of 0.90 (\pm 0.02) mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose⁻¹} at 75 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. Interestingly, this NaCl

196 concentration (75 g L^{-1}) was very close to the natural salinity of the sediment used as inoculum (67 g

197 L^{-1}). This suggested that the hydrogen-producing fermentative bacteria present in the inoculum were

already adapted to such high NaCl concentrations.

199 Moreover, a decrease of the specific H₂ consumption rate was observed while increasing salinity,

200 suggesting that hydrogen-consumers were more specifically impacted by high NaCl concentrations.

201 Thus, the highest H_{2max} value was observed for the highest NaCl concentration (see Fig. 3). However,

202 at NaCl concentrations above $9g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, the maximum hydrogen production rates (V_{max}) were

significanly impacted with a sharp decrease from $0.53\pm0.19 \text{ mol}_{H2} \text{ mol}_{Glc}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at $9g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ to

204 $0.08\pm0.02 \text{ mol}_{H2} \text{ mol}_{Glc}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at $19g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). All batch tests were run at the same time. At $9g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$

205 hydrogen was much faster than the ones with NaCl concentration up to 19 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. Since the exponential phase

206 was shorter, the number of points on the curves was reduced when fitting the data to the Gompertz model: This

207 implied a higher error on Vmax estimation by the model. The maximum hydrogen production rate obtained

in this work at $9g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ is in accordance with previous studies [20,23]. Indeed, Quemeneur et al. [20]

209 obtained a maximum hydrogen production rate of $0.57\pm0.15 \text{ mol}_{H2} \text{ mol}_{Glc}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in similar conditions

210 with no salt addition and using a heat-treated anaerobically-digested sludge at pH 5.5. On sucrose,

211 Quemeneur et al. [23] showed an increase of the maximum hydrogen production rate from 0.56

212 $mol_{H2} mol_{Sucrose}^{-1} d^{-1}$ to 1.31 $mol_{H2} mol_{Sucrose}^{-1} d^{-1}$ due to an increase of the pH value from 4 to 6 in a

213 non saline medium and with a heat-treated anaerobically-digested sludge.

Additionnally, by increasing NaCl concentrations, a significant increase of the lag phase was observed from 0.70 to 3.94 days (Fig. 3). A low amount of microorganisms capable of hydrogen production in

the initial inoculum as well as a longer generation time of these micro-organisms could affect the lag

217 phase. Moreover, previous studies reported an increase in lag phase due to the time for osmotic

adaptation of microorganisms to maintain their osmotic pressure through the cytoplasmic membrane
[14]. Indeed, the ionic strength, determined by ions species and concentrations, is an important factor
for bacteria growth [28,37]. A high level of ionic strength can result in cell lysis due to a high
osmolarity environment caused by NaCl or other ions that trigger a cell dehydration through the
cytoplasmic membrane [14,15]. Hydrogen producing cells have to be halotolerant or capable to adapt
to salt to produce hydrogen in saline environment [14].

224 **3.2.** Shift of microbial fermentative metabolism with NaCl concentration

225 Fig. 4 presents the distribution of the soluble metabolites produced concomitantly with H₂. At a physiological NaCl concentration of $9g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, the production of acetate and butyrate as major 226 227 fermentation products suggests that *Clostridium spp* were the dominant bacteria in the mixed culture. 228 Hydrogen production is also presented on Fig. 4. As the theoretical rate of H₂ production through the 229 acetate and butyrate pathways is 2 moles H_2 per mole of acetate or butyrate, the experimental 230 observation of this ratio reflects whether hydrogen is entirely produced by the acetate and butyrate 231 pathways (value close to 2) or if H₂ is concomitantly consumed by homoacetic or other hydrogen-232 consuming bacteria causing an overproduction of acetate (lower than 2). Hydrogen consumption results either from homoacetogenesis producing only acetate from H₂ and CO₂ or from caproate 233 formation from H₂ and equimolar amounts of acetate and butyrate. In Fig. 4, a clear consumption 234 235 pathway is shown with no caproate production, meaning that hydrogen consumption was likely due to 236 the activity of homoacetogenic bacteria already present in the inoculum. 237 Furthermore, increasing NaCl addition led to an increase of formate production, and in higher proportion above 38 gNaCl L^{-1} . The formate metabolic pathway which produces concomitantly 238 239 hydrogen occurs when enteric facultative anaerobes such as *Escherichia coli* are involved [7]. 240 However, accumulation of formate was likely due to an increase of glucose conversion to formate, and 241 the lack in formate dehydrogenase activity or inhibition of microorganisms able to use formate for their own growth such as methanogens. Increasing salt concentration led also to an increase of the 242

lactate concentration. Lactate pathway can be either a concurrent route for hydrogen production [38]

or the result of an alternative metabolic route of hydrogen-producing bacteria under environmental

stress [2]. This means that lactic bacteria were probably still active in such moderate halophilic

246 environment as it was previously shown by Roling et al. [39] with Tetrogenococcus halophila a salttolerant bacteria capable of mixed acif fermentation at 100 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$. Furthermore, ethanol production 247 increased from 0 to 5.04 mmole between 19 and 29 gNaCl L⁻¹, respectively, and remained then stable 248 249 for higher salinities. As a result, the ethanol route, which is a concurrent route of fermentative hydrogen production [2,3], was induced by highly moderate salt concentration, likely by modifying 250 251 the overall metabolism of hydrogen-producing bacteria. Kivisto et al. [24] showed that halophilic 252 bacteria Halanaerobium saccharolyticum (Hssa) produced low amount of ethanol by glycerol 253 fermentation. Liu et Wang [26] showed that ethanol and acetate were the major soluble products of a 254 pure culture of Bacillus megaterium from glucose in a dark fermentation process operated within a range of 4 to 70 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$. In contrast, Zheng et al. [25] showed that the ethanol fraction did not change 255 significantly by increasing NaCl concentrations from 0 to 30 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$ in mixed culture with glucose as 256 257 substrate.

Nevertheless, the propionate pathway seemed to be strongly inhibited by NaCl as a decrease of propionate production from 1.33 to 0.09 mmol occured from 9 to 75 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$, respectively. No inhibition of the hydrogen consumptionrate was observed in previous studies even though Zheng et al. [25] showed that the propionate fractions did not change significantly with NaCl concentration from 0 to 30 $g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$ in mixed culture with glucose as substrate.

3.3. Shift of the bacterial community composition towards the emergence of Vibrio subspecies
 as main hydrogen-producing bacteria in moderate halophilic environment

265 First, the 16S rRNA gene-based CE-SSCP fingerprint profiles of the cultures operated at different 266 NaCl concentrations are presented in Fig. 5 and each profile correspond to the average of three 267 replicates determined at the maximum H_2 production time. Overall, these profiles presented very 268 simple communities structures with an average Simpson diversity index of 0.88±0.05, and the 269 emergence of only one or two main peaks as main dominant bacteria for each salt concentration. A clear shift in bacterial communities was observed from $19g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$ up to the highest NaCl 270 271 concentration, which is consistent with the results obtained on the distribution pattern of microbial 272 metabolites and hydrogen production performances. According to the literature dealing with 273 fermentative hydrogen producing bacterial community [20,21], the inoculum was more diverse than the profiles obtained within the reactors, with a Simpson diversity index of 0.98 for the inoculum

- bacterial community.
- 276

277 Fig. 6 presents the principal component analysis (PCA) comparing the genetic distances between CE-278 SSCP profiles representing the bacterial communities at the maximum H_2 production time, according 279 to the experimental conditions [21]. As shown in Fig. 6, the individual profiles were highly similar 280 under a same condition, suggesting a high reproducibility of the experiments. Moreover, samples 281 could be clustered according to the dominant species in association with a salinity, with one group at 9 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$, one group for samples ranging from 19 to $48g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$, and a last group from 58 to $75g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ 282 ¹. These results suggested that salinity was an important factor to select different specific species in non 283 saline conditions (cluster 1 at 9 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$), in conditions closed to marine ones (cluster 2 from 19 to 284 $48g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$) and in high halophilic conditions (cluster 3 from 58 to $75g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$). Changes in lag-phase 285 (p<0.001) and maximal H₂ production value (H_{2max}) (p<0.001) correlated significantly with the genetic 286 287 distance between samples. These results show that genetic differences between bacterial communities 288 can be directly correlated to their metabolic activity. This tendency can be observed in Fig. 4 where 289 three distinct behaviours are clearly distinguished. In Fig.4, the cluster 1 presents acetate and butyrate 290 production pathways and propionate consumption pathway. Cluster 2 shows additional formate 291 production and ethanol consumption pathways. Cluster 3 presents acetate, butyrate and formate 292 production pathways and ethanol and lactate consumption pathways with an interesting inhibition of 293 propionate consumption pathway due to sodium chloride concentration. 294 One DNA sample of each triplicate was then sequenced by pyrosequencing. Table 1 presents the 295 percentage of species representing 1% or more of the bacterial community and Fig. 7 shows the phylogenetic distribution of bacterial orders found at the maximum hydrogen . This results are in 296

- 297 accordance with PCA results as the addition of NaCl changed substantially global bacterial
- 298 community structures. Fig. 7 shows a clear shift in microbial community composition in favor of
- 299 Vibrionales with increasing NaCl concentration. Indeed, relative abundances of Clostridium,
- 300 Enterobacter and Escherichia species decreased as the salinity increased, and Vibrio spp. supplanted
- 301 gradually these species (Table 1). In non-halophilic conditions, the most abundant species were

affiliated to genera *Clostridium*, *Enterobacter* and *Escherichia* ssp. In moderate halophilic conditions, *i.e.* 38 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$, bacteria belonging to *Bacteroidales* (43%) and *Vibrionales* (43%) orders were the main dominant bacteria (Fig. 7). At higher salinities, *Vibrio* spp. was the main bacteria found. The proportion of *Vibrio* spp. within the microbial community increased gradually with increasing salt concentration to reach up to 92% at 75 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. In Cluster 3, a singular strain was identified which belongs to the family of *Vibrionaceae*. The sequence of this main strain presents a similarity percentage lower than 95% when compared to reference sequences.

309

310 Species belonging to genera *Clostridium*, *Enterobacter* and *Escherichia* are well-known as highly efficient H₂ producers, often isolated from mixed cultures able to produce hydrogen by dark 311 312 fermentation in mesophilic conditions [2,3,8,9,20–23], which corroborates the results obtained for low saline conditions (9 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$). However, the abundance of these bacteria was significantly lower at any 313 concentration above $9g_{NaCl}L^{-1}$. This is consistent with previous reports of Alshiyab et al. [28] who 314 315 studied the effect of salt addition to fermentation medium on hydrogen production. Their study was carried out at low NaCl concentrations from 0 to 5 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. They showed that NaCl negatively 316 impacted glucose degradation by Clostridium acetobutylicum, causing a productivity loss of 18% from 317 0 to 5 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. Zheng et al [25] showed a decrease of 64% of H₂ yield with heat-treated anaerobic 318 mixed cultures when increasing the salt concentration from 0 to 8.4 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$. This decrease in 319 320 hydrogen yield led to similar low values of biohydrogen yield from 1.70 mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹ to 0.61 $mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}^{-1}$ for respective NaCl concentration of 3 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ and 30 $g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ that is consistant with 321 our observations of 0.65 (± 0.01) mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹ at 9 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. In contrast, at such low NaCl 322 323 concentration, Lee et al. [40] showed a decrease of hydrogen production when Na⁺ ion concentration increased. They studied the effect of salt concentration on metabolic pathways in dark fermentation 324 from 0 to 12 $g_{Na+}L^{-1}$ using an acid-treated anaerobic sludge as inoculum. These results are not in 325 326 accordance with our results, maybe because of several differences in experimental conditions. Indeed, acid pretreatment of the inoculum could have led to select spore-forming bacteria, such as members of 327 328 *Clostridialesi* family, which was probably detrimental to hydrogen production at higher salt 329 concentration, as same as our results suggested. Moreover, in our study, no pretreatment was used and

330 the inoculum originating from a saline source was used under similar conditions of salinity (for $70g_{Na+}$

331 L^{-1} conditions) and pH (pH8).

332

333 Poorly referenced in the literature, hydrogen production from marine bacteria was previously observed 334 with Bacillus megaterium belonging to the Bacillales order and isolated from sludge of an intertidal 335 zone of a bathing beach in Tianjin (China) [26]. Liu et al. [26] showed that Bacillus megaterium could 336 be applied to biohydrogen production using both marine and fresh organic water. Best performances of Bacillus megaterium were obtained at pH 7, 37°C and 30g_{NaCl} L⁻¹ within a range of 4 and 70 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹ 337 ¹ with a hydrogen production rate of 1.65 (± 0.04) mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}⁻¹. At salt concentration higher than 338 50 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹, Brown et al. [29] described a new alkaliphilic bacterium, *Halanaerobium* 339 340 hydrogeniformans, isolated from haloalkaline anaerobic sediments of Soap Lake in Washington State. They showed that Halanaerobium hydrogeniformans was capable of hydrogen production in 341 haloalkaline conditions, at pH11 and 70g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. Simankova et al. [27] isolated also Halocella 342 343 cellulolytica, from cyanobacterials mats and anaerobic sediments of the saline lagoons of lake Sivash 344 (Crimea) of variable salinities. Halocella cellulolytica was able to produce hydrogen by dark fermentation from a large variety of substrates, including glucose, and produces acetate, ethanol, 345 lactate, H₂ and CO₂ as fermentation products with cellulose as substrate. The optimal growth 346 parameters for this strain were pH7, 150 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹, 39 °C. Halocella cellulolytica produced more than 347 4 mmol_{H2} L^{-1} during microcristalyne cellulose breakdown. Oh et al. [41] showed recently that five 348 349 *Vibrio spp*, isolated from anaerobic granular sludge, produced efficiently hydrogen with 1.22 and 1.12 $mol_{H2} mol_{Glucose}^{-1}$ with acetate and ethanol as main metabolites (Fig. 4). Those Vibrio spp presented 350 351 high H₂ conversion properties among 34 isolates but they were not studied under moderate halophilic 352 conditions. Finally, the composition of bacterial communities at $9g_{NaCl} L^{-1}$ was similar to that reported in previous 353 dark fermentation studies [21–23,42,43]. Nevertheless, at 38g_{NaCl} L⁻¹ Clostridiales spp. was in co-354 dominance with Vibrio spp. Then, the bacterial community changed with increasing NaCl 355 concentration until Vibrio spp. became largely dominant (92%) at 75 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹. At 58 g_{NaCl} L⁻¹ and 75 356

 $g_{\text{NaCl}} L^{-1}$ (Cluster 3), a singular strain was identified with a percentage of identity to references

sequences lower than 95%. This strain belongs to *Vibrionaceae* and was able to produce hydrogen in
high halophilic environment.

360 **4.** Conclusion

The aim of the present study was to evaluate the impact of moderate halophilic conditions on 361 362 fermentative hydrogen production as well as microbial communities by increasing NaCl concentrations, with simultaneous objectives of producing biohydrogen and treating organic pollutants 363 364 from saline effluents. Salt concentration presented a strong selective pressure on the structure of the bacterial communities, characterized by the emergence of a new species affiliated to the family of 365 Vibrionaceae. Vibrio spp exhibited the highest hydrogen yields at the highest NaCl concentrations 366 $(0.90 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol}_{H2}/\text{mol}_{Glucose} \text{ at } 75 \text{ g}_{NaCl} \text{ L}^{-1})$, compared to $0.65 \pm 0.01 \text{ mol}_{H2} \text{ mol}_{Glucose}^{-1} \text{ at } 9 \text{ g}_{NaCl} \text{ L}^{-1}$, 367 368 likely due to lower hydrogen consumtion rates.

- 500 Intery due to lower hydrogen consumiton rates.
- 369 This work reports for the first time the ability of mixed cultures to produce biohydrogen under
- 370 halophilic conditions that can be found in numerous salty waste streams that have not been used so far.
- 371 Interestingly, a lowering of the hydrogen consumption rates was observed precluding of further
- 372 development of efficient bioprocesses for hydrogen production with low consumption rates, and
- 373 therefore higher stability. Overall, these results give new possibilities of technological development
- 374 for treating saline effluents and producing biohydrogen efficiently

375

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- 492 **Fig. 1** General pathways for hydrogen production. Bold arrows are represented for hydrogen
- 493 production pathways, dotted arrows for hydrogen consumption pathways and dashed arrows for494 hydrogen production concurrent routes (adapted from Guo et al [3]).
- 495 **Fig. 2** Representation of H₂ production dynamics from a mixed culture cultivated with glucose as
- 496 substrate in batch. The estimated values of H_{2max} , V_{max} and Lag time correspond to the H_2 production
- 497 potential $(mol_{H2} mol_{Glc}^{-1})$, the maximum H₂ production rate $(mol_{H2} mol_{Glc}^{-1} day^{-1})$ and the lag phase
- 498 time (day), respectively. The Rc value corresponds to the H_2 consumption rate and was estimated by
- 499 the H_2 decrease measured experimentally between the H_{2max} time and the end of the experiments, and
- 500 then normalized according to H_{2max} value.
- 501 **Fig. 3** Hydrogen production parameters of the modified Gompertz model according to NaCl
- 502 concentrations. (a) maximum hydrogen production rate, (b) hydrogen production yield and (c) lag 503 phase (d) H_2 consumption rate.
- Fig. 4 Metabolic end-product distribution (in mmoles) and maximal H2 production (in mmoles)
 according to NaCl concentrations. The values correspond to the average of three replicates
- 506 **Fig. 5** CE-SSCP profiles based on 16S rRNA gene fragments retrieved from H₂-producing mixed
- 507 cultures supplemented with different NaCl concentration. The profiles correspond to samples taken at
- 508 the maximum H_2 production time. The X and Y axes of each peak represent respectively the relative
- 509 peak electrophoresis migration distance and the relative peak intensity (Arbitrary Units).
- 510 Fig. 6 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) biplot of CE-SSCP profiles. For each salinity, triplicates
- 511 were clustered with ovals. The first two principal components (Axis1 and Axis2) explained 69,6% of
- 512 the genetic variation. Significant linear correlations between changes in genetic profiles and changes
- 513 in environment parameters are indicated by arrows: lag phase (p<0,001), salinity (p<0,001) and
- 514 H2max (p<0,001).
- 515 Fig. 7 Phylogenetic distribution of bacterial orders found at the maximum hydrogen production time516 and for different NaCl concentrations.
- 517 **Table 1** Taxonomic classification of bacterial taxonomic distribution (in %) according to the salt
- 518 concentration, and obtained by pyrosequencing. Bacterial orders are presented in boldcase while
- 519 species or closest known phylogenetical level in italics. Names in italics correspond to the closest
- 520 physiogenetical known sequence depending on the percentage of identity (I) to reference sequence
- 521 (species if I > 97%; genus if $97\% \ge I > 95\%$; family if $95\% \ge I > 90\%$; order if $90\% \ge I > 85\%$).
- 522 Relative abundance was defined as the number of sequences affiliated with that taxon divided by the
- total number of sequences per sample. Phyla, classes, and genera making up less than 1% of total
- 524 composition in all libraries were grouped as "others".

Table 1

% ORDER / species (closest physiogenetical known sequence)	9g _{NaCl} /L	19gNaCl/L	29gNaCl/L	38gNaCl/L	48gNaCl/L	58gNaCl/L	75gNaCl/L
ALTEROMONADALES	1	19	6	2	1	0	0
Pseudoalteromonas sp	1	19	6	2	1	0	0
BACTEROIDALES	0	0	19	5	26	16	2
Bacteroidaceae (unk genus)	0	0	1	0	4	0	0
Bacteroidales (unk family)	0	0	16	4	19	15	2
Porphyromonadaceae (unk genus)	0	0	2	1	3	1	0
CLOSTRIDIALES	44	28	29	43	17	2	2
Clostridiaceae (unk genus)	4	9	14	1	0	2	2
Clostridiaceae unclassified (unk genus)	0	0	1	36	0	0	0
Clostridiales (unk family)	0	0	1	6	0	0	0
Clostridium (unk species)	39	1	0	0	0	0	0
Clostridium cochlearium	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Clostridium sp	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Clostridium thiosulfatireducens	0	5	1	0	0	0	0
Oscillibacter valericigenes	0	12	11	0	17	0	0
ENTEROBACTERIALES	47	2	0	0	0	0	0
Enterobacter hormaechei	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
Enterobacter sp	27	1	0	0	0	0	0
Escherichia (unk species)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Escherichia coli	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
Escherichia sp	7	1	0	0	0	0	0
FUSOBACTERIALES	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Propionigenium maris	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
VIBRIONALES	3	47	38	43	47	79	92
Vibrio nereis	0	0	13	26	22	0	0
Vibrio parahaemolyticus	1	11	4	1	0	0	0
Vibrio proteolyticus	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Vibrio sp	2	36	19	16	17	0	0
Vibrio tubiashii	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Vibrionaceae (unk genus)	0	0	0	0	8	79	92
Others	5	4	7	7	9	3	4















32

Figure







