

การจัดไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์โดยไนเตรตรีดิวซ์ซิงและซัลไฟด์ออกไซด์ซิงแบคทีเรียในถังปฏิกรณ์  
ชีวภาพไร้ออกซิเจน



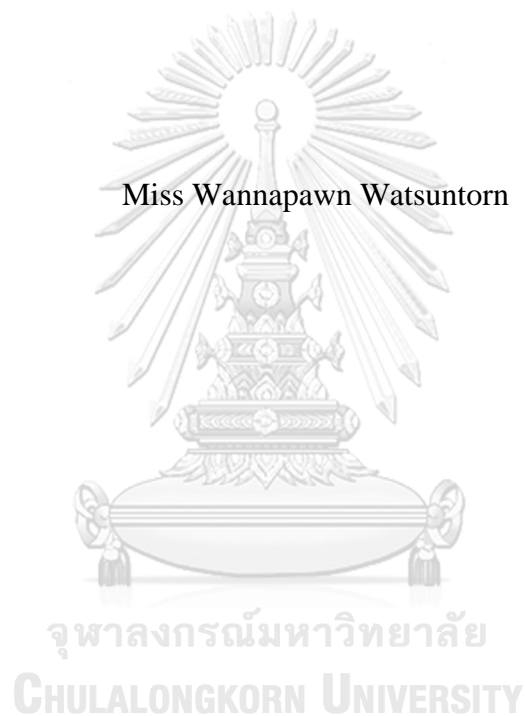
บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุฬาฯ (CUIR)  
เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

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วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต  
สาขาวิชาเทคโนโลยีชีวภาพ  
คณะวิทยาศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย  
ปีการศึกษา 2560  
ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL BY NITRATE REDUCING AND SULFIDE  
OXIDIZING BACTERIA IN ANOXIC BIOREACTORS

Miss Wannapawn Watsuntorn



A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Program in Biotechnology  
Faculty of Science  
Chulalongkorn University  
Academic Year 2017  
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Thesis Title HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL BY NITRATE  
REDUCING AND SULFIDE OXIDIZING  
BACTERIA IN ANOXIC BIOREACTORS

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วรรณพร วัฒนสุนทร : การขจัดไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์โดยไนเตรรีดิวซ์ซิงและซัลไฟด์ออกซิไดซิงแบคทีเรียในถังปฏิกรณ์ชีวภาพไร้ออกซิเจน (HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL BY NITRATE REDUCING AND SULFIDE OXIDIZING BACTERIA IN ANOXIC BIOREACTORS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร. วรวิมล จุฬาลักษณ์านุกูล, อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม: ดร.เอลคอน ริน, 124 หน้า.

ไนเตรรีดิวซ์ซิงและซัลไฟด์ออกซิไดซิงแบคทีเรีย สายพันธุ์ MAL 1HM19 เป็นแบคทีเรียที่ได้รับการคัดแยกจากบ่อน้ำพุร้อน แม่จ๋อมลองหลวง จังหวัดแม่ฮ่องสอน ประเทศไทย ซึ่งสามารถใช้กำจัดไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์เป็นตัวให้อิเล็กตรอน และใช้ในเตรทเป็นตัวรับอิเล็กตรอน พบว่าแบคทีเรียสายพันธุ์ MAL 1HM19 มีประสิทธิภาพในการขจัดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ได้ถึงร้อยละ 100 โดยสามารถขจัดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ที่ความเข้มข้นเริ่มต้น 650 ppm<sub>v</sub> หมดยภายใน 5.5 ชั่วโมง ภายใต้ภาวะไร้ออกซิเจน ซึ่งเป็นระยะเวลาที่สั้นที่สุดเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับไอโซเลตอื่นๆ ผลของการจำแนกชนิดของแบคทีเรียด้วยการเปรียบเทียบลำดับเบสของ 16S rDNA กับฐานข้อมูล NCBI พบว่ามีความใกล้เคียงกับแบคทีเรีย *Paracoccus versutus* ถึงร้อยละ 99.93 โดยแบคทีเรีย *P. versutus* สายพันธุ์ MAL 1HM19 สามารถเจริญเติบโตได้ในโซเดียมคลอไรด์ ความเข้มข้นร้อยละ 0.03 ถึง 7, อุณหภูมิ 20 ถึง 50 องศาเซลเซียส และพีเอช 7.0 ถึง 9.0 และจากการทดลองแบบกะ พบว่าแบคทีเรียสายพันธุ์นี้สามารถขจัดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ได้หมดยภายใต้ภาวะความเข้มข้นที่แตกต่างกันของไนเตรท (60, 120 และ 240 มิลลิกรัมไนเตรท-ไนโตรเจนต่อลิตร) ที่อุณหภูมิ 35 องศาเซลเซียส ภายใน 10 ชั่วโมง โดยมีซัลเฟตหรือซัลเฟอร์เป็นผลิตภัณฑ์ที่ได้จากกระบวนการขจัดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ ซึ่งขึ้นอยู่กับความเข้มข้นของไนเตรทเริ่มต้นที่ใช้ นอกจากนี้เมื่อใช้แบคทีเรียสายพันธุ์ MAL 1HM19 เป็นหัวเชื้อ และครึ่งในวัสดุกรองประเภทโพลียูรีเทนโฟม ในถังปฏิกรณ์ชีวภาพไร้ออกซิเจนชนิดไบโอทรिकคิ่งฟิลเตอร์ เป็นเวลา 188 วัน ในระบบกะป้อนและระบบต่อเนื่อง โดยพบว่าความเข้มข้นเริ่มต้นของก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ที่ให้อยู่ระหว่าง 100 ถึง 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> ในภาวะคงตัว และ 1000, 2000, 3000 และ 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub> ในภาวะ shock loads มีค่าประสิทธิภาพในการลดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์อยู่ระหว่างร้อยละ 17 ถึง 100 ซึ่งขึ้นอยู่กับแหล่งคาร์บอน และระบบที่ใช้ในการทดลอง นอกจากนี้ค่าความสามารถสูงสุดในการบำบัดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ที่พบในระบบนี้คือ  $121.83 \pm 0.1$  กรัม ซัลไฟด์ต่อชั่วโมงต่อลูกบาศก์เมตร ร้อยละ 96.5 ของประสิทธิภาพในการลดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์) ที่ความเข้มข้นเริ่มต้นของก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub> จากงานยังพบอีกว่าไนเตรทรีดิวซ์ซิงและซัลไฟด์ออกซิไดซิงแบคทีเรีย *P. versutus* สายพันธุ์ MAL 1HM19 มีประสิทธิภาพในการลดก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์ทั้งในรูปเชื้ออิสระและเซลล์ตรึงรูป และสามารถนำไปประยุกต์ใช้ในอุตสาหกรรมที่มีการปนเปื้อนของก๊าซไฮโดรเจนซัลไฟด์และไนเตรทได้ในหลากหลายภาวะ

สาขาวิชา เทคโนโลยีชีวภาพ

ปีการศึกษา 2560

ลายมือชื่อนิติกร .....

ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก .....

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## 5672872723 : MAJOR BIOTECHNOLOGY

KEYWORDS: NR-SOB / HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL / PARACOCCLUS VERSUTUS STRAIN MAL 1HM19 / BIOTRICKLING FILTER / ANOXIC BIOREACTORS / HOT SPRINGS

WANNAPAWN WATSUNTORN: HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL BY NITRATE REDUCING AND SULFIDE OXIDIZING BACTERIA IN ANOXIC BIOREACTORS.  
ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. WARAWUT CHULALAKSANANUKUL, Ph.D., CO-ADVISOR: ELDON RENE, Ph.D., 124 pp.

The strain MAL 1HM19, a nitrate reducing and sulfur oxidizing bacteria (NR-SOB) was successfully isolated from Mae Um Long Luang hot spring from Mae Hong Son province (Thailand) using hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) as an electron donor and acceptor, respectively. Among the isolates of NR-SOB from different sources, the strain MAL 1HM19 was the most promising novel strain of NR-SOB because of its ability to yield ~100% H<sub>2</sub>S removal, under anoxic conditions, within 5.5 h at an initial H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of 650 ppm<sub>v</sub>. The identification of strain MAL 1HM19 based on the 16S rDNA nucleotide sequence suggests that this strain is closely related to *Paracoccus versutus* and is the member of *Alphaproteobacteria* with 99.93% sequence similarity. The *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 was also able to grow at various NaCl concentrations (0.03-7%), in a pH range of 7.0-9.0 and at temperatures of 20-50°C. The ability of H<sub>2</sub>S removal by the *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 under the influence of different initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations (60, 120 and 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L), at 35°C, was investigated for 96 h. The results showed that 100% of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation was attained within 10 h, irrespective of the different initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations. The final end product [sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) or elemental sulfur (S<sup>0</sup>)] depended on the concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N. In the long-term experiments, i.e. in a biotrickling filter (BTF), biological H<sub>2</sub>S removal was investigated by inoculating the pure cultures of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 in anoxic BTF for 188 d. The BTF was packed with polyurethane foams (PUFs) cubes and the reactor was operated under anoxic conditions in both fed-batch and continuous modes. The H<sub>2</sub>S inlet concentrations were varied between 100 and 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> during steady-state experiments, while during H<sub>2</sub>S shock load tests, the concentrations were increased to 1000, 2000, 3000 and 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub>, respectively. The removal efficiency (RE) of H<sub>2</sub>S varied between 17 and 100% depending on operational mode of the BTF and the addition of the C source. The maximum elimination capacity (EC<sub>max</sub>) was achieved at 121.83 ± 0.1 g S/m<sup>3</sup> h (RE - 96.5 %) during H<sub>2</sub>S shock load experiments at 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub>. The results from this study demonstrated that both free and immobilized cells of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 can be efficiently used in industrial situations to remove H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> under a wide range of operating conditions.

Field of Study: Biotechnology

Academic Year: 2017

Student's Signature .....

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my gratitude to my advisor, Associate Professor Warawut Chulalaksananukul, Ph.D. for accepting me as his Ph.D. student and providing the great research environment for my Ph.D. work. Moreover, I would like to thank him for his indispensable advices, support and encouragement during my studies and thesis. The next person whom I want to acknowledge is my co-advisor, Eldon R. Rene, Ph.D. who not only helped me throughout the past years but also give his kind friendship to me. I would like to thank you again for your help, your ideas, your comments and best support. My sincere thanks to Professor Piet N. L. Lens, Ph.D. for his useful suggestion as well as his support to facilitate my experimental work at the laboratory of IHE-Delft Institute for Water Education (The Netherlands).

I would like to thank members of my thesis committee including Associate Professor Sehanat Prasongsuk, Ph.D., Assistant Professor Chompunuch Glinwong, Ph.D., Supawin Watcharamul, Ph.D., and Chalermchai Ruangchainikom, Ph.D. for their helpful comments.

I would like to acknowledge the 100th Anniversary Chulalongkorn University fund Doctoral Scholarship for providing financial support as well as helping me with my mobility to IHE-Delft Institute for Water Education (The Netherlands).

My Sincere thanks also to the Department of Botany, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University, for offering the good laboratory facilities required for my research.

I would like to express my acknowledgement and thanks to the entire amazing members of Biofuel by Biocatalyst Research Unit, Chulalongkorn University for their friendship, warm support and assistance, including sharing the moment of happiness together. My thankfulness also goes to Jinaporn Wongwatanapaiboon, Ph.D. my lovely sister, for great discussions and good friendship. Moreover, I would like to thank Ramita Khanongnuch, Suchanya Wongrod, and other friends from Delft for their help and wonderful friendship.

Finally, I whole heartedly thank my mother, father, sister and my dear Marut for their support, cheer and giving me their encouragement during my good and bad times.

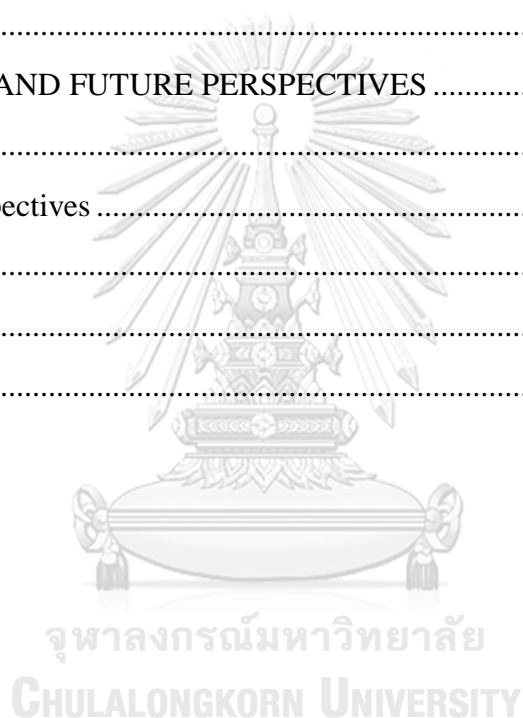
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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AD	Anaerobic digestion
BF	Biofilter
BTF	Biotrickling filter
BS	Bioscrubber
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EBRT	Empty bed residence times
EDS	Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
EC	Elimination capacity
IC	Ion chromatography
ILR	Inlet loading rate
NR-SOB	Nitrate-reducing and sulfide-oxidizing bacteria
ppm <sub>v</sub>	Parts per million by volume
PUF	Polyurethane foam
RE	Removal efficiency
Rpm	Revolution per minute
SEM	Scanning electron microscope
SOB	Sulfur oxidizing bacteria
SQR	Sulfide quinone reductase
SRB	Sulfate-reducing bacteria
TLV	Trickling liquid volume
VFA	Volatile fatty acid

**LIST OF SYMBOLS**

mCSB	Modified Coleville synthetic brine medium
He	Helium
H <sub>2</sub> S	Hydrogen sulfide
N <sub>2</sub>	Nitrogen
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N	Nitrate-nitrogen
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N	Nitrite-nitrogen
°C	Degree Celsius
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	Sulfate
S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	Thiosulfate



## CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Hydrogen sulfide ( $H_2S$ ) is a major problem in sewer systems, wastewaters from the pulp and paper industry and during biogas production from anaerobic digestion (AD) due to its unpleasant odor, corrosive nature, and toxicity. It is produced by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) that can use sulfate as a terminal electron acceptor for the degradation of sulfur-containing and other proteinaceous compounds. Biological process has been widely used for  $H_2S$  removal because this process is cost effective and environmental friendly. The anaerobic removal of  $H_2S$  has proven to be a good strategy to eliminate  $H_2S$  because it helps to avoid explosion risk and does not affect the calorific value of the biogas (Pokorna and Zabranska, 2015). In this regard, nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacteria (NR-SOB) play an important role during the biodegradation process because these microorganisms can remove  $H_2S$  using nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ) as the electron acceptor and oxidizes sulfide to sulfate ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ) or elemental sulfur ( $S^0$ ). Literature reports have shown that the stoichiometry of this microbial mediated reaction depends on the ratio of sulfide ( $S^{2-}$ ) to  $NO_3^-$  present in the wastewater (Li *et al.*, 2011).

This research focused on the screening, isolation and characterization of NR-SOB from several natural hot springs located in Thailand. The kinetics of  $H_2S$  oxidation and its removal from synthetic biogas was tested under batch incubation conditions. Moreover, concerning continuous removal of  $H_2S$ , among the different bioreactor configurations tested and reported so far in the literature, anaerobic biotrickling filters (BTF) have proven to be advantageous because it offers low



pressure drop, it does not alter the composition of biogas and reduce the methane concentrations, simple media regeneration procedure, system durability and reliability during shock loads.

## 1.2 Problem statement

H<sub>2</sub>S is a harmful and smelly gas that causes significant effect on the environment and human health. H<sub>2</sub>S is produced from various sources including volcanoes and geothermal areas as well as due to human activities (Somma *et al.*, 2017). For example, typical H<sub>2</sub>S content in raw biogas ranges from 0.1 to 2%, i.e., 1000 to 20,000 ppm<sub>v</sub>, resulting in corrosive acids that corrodes metallic components, pipes and other accessories involved in biogas technology (Tóth *et al.*, 2015; Staicu *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>S is one of the reduced sulfur compounds (RSC) generated from the Kraft's pulping process during the pulp and paper production (Wani *et al.*, 1999).

Over the last decades, many methods and technologies have been developed and patented for H<sub>2</sub>S removal including physical, chemical and biological processes. The most commonly used methods are the physico-chemical processes. For example, the H<sub>2</sub>S contaminants in biogas production are treated by simple adsorption of H<sub>2</sub>S on the solid particles (Ryckebosch *et al.*, 2011). However, there are many drawbacks including the production of secondary pollutants (Gómez and Cantero, 2007), the high initial investment costs and chemical consumption.

To overcome the problem, biological processes to remove H<sub>2</sub>S have been recommended as an appropriate treatment strategy because it has proven to be cost effective, energy efficient and yield high removal of H<sub>2</sub>S under steady and transient operating conditions (Fernández *et al.*, 2014). Using pure isolates of bacteria for H<sub>2</sub>S

biodegradation can be considered as an alternative method because pure cultures have a short lag-phase and require short culture times to deplete the sulfide species ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{S}^{2-}$ ) present in wastewater (Watsuntorn *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, the use of pure cultures can also improve the removal capacities and efficiencies of bioreactor systems by its incorporation in biofilms (Wang *et al.*, 2005; Aroca *et al.*, 2007). To the best of our knowledge, there are only few works that have reported the application of pure culture of microorganisms isolated from natural sources for the biodegradation of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in batch and continuous systems under anoxic conditions.

### 1.3 Objectives

- 1.3.1 To isolate and characterize new strains of nitrate reducing, sulfide oxidation bacteria (NR-SOB) from natural sources
- 1.3.2 To apply the screened and selected NR-SOB for biological  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal
- 1.3.3 To ascertain  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal in batch experiments under different environmental conditions.
- 1.3.4 To envisage the maximum elimination capacity of a BTF for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal and determine the degradation kinetics in the presence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N

### 1.4 Scope of study

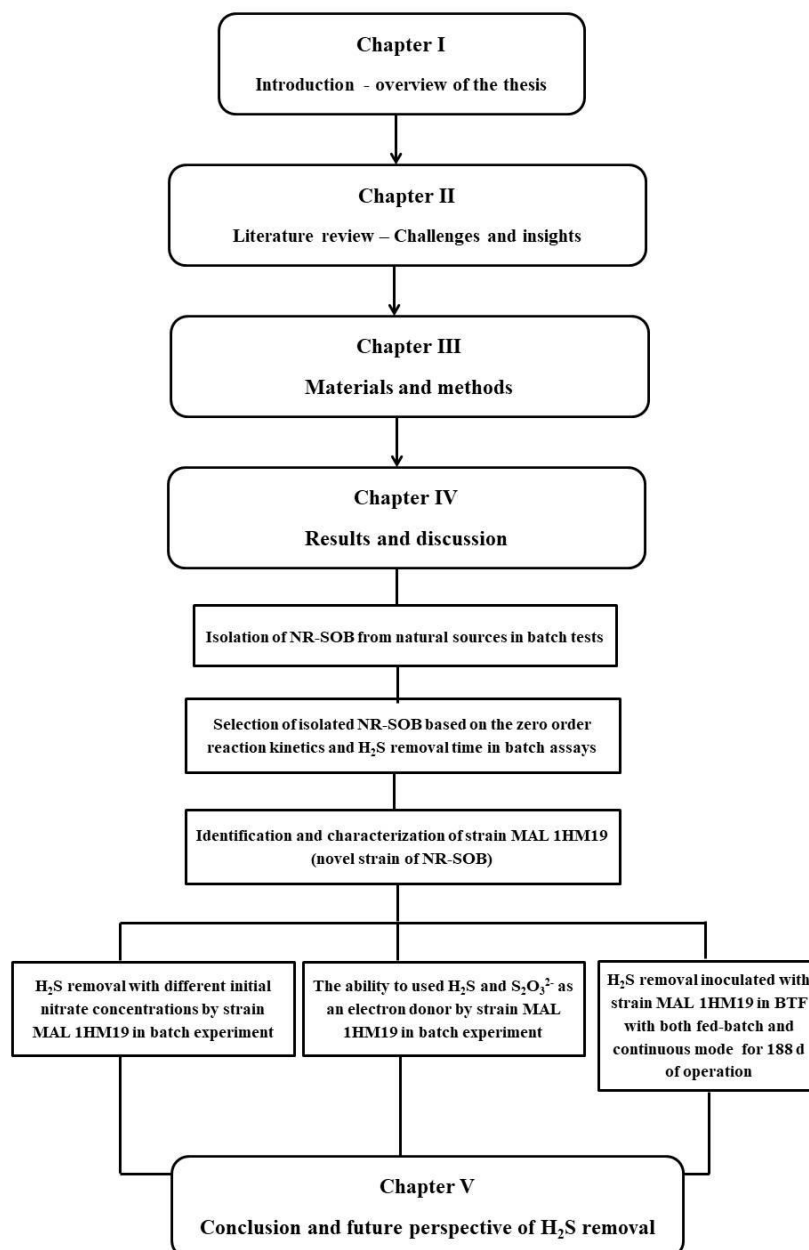
1.4.1 This work was carried out at the laboratory scale and under controlled conditions temperature and pressure.

1.4.2 This research aims to isolate and characterized the novel strain of NR-SOB from the hot springs in Thailand.

1.4.3 The novel isolate that showed the best performance for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal was selected and applied to remove the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in both batch and continuous bioreactor.

## 1.5 Dissertation structure

This thesis is composed of five chapters. An overview of the structure of this thesis is shown in Figure 1.1.



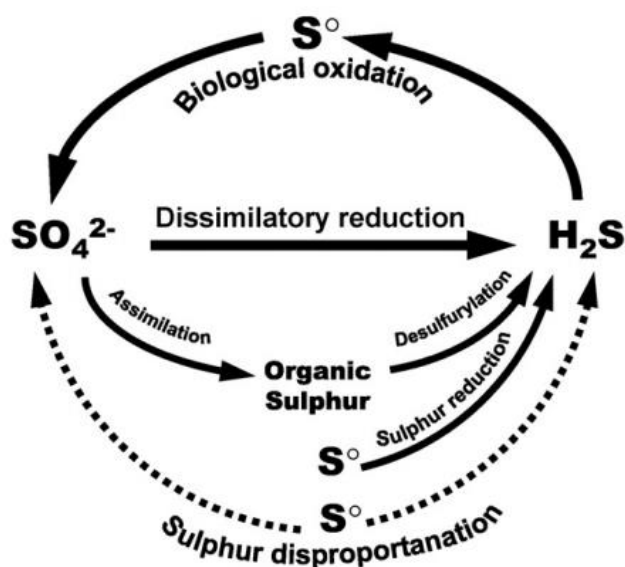
**Figure 1.1** Overview of chapters in this Ph.D. dissertation.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Hydrogen sulfide

Hydrogen sulfide ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ) is one of the sulfur compounds in the sulfur cycle (Figure 2.1). This compound is highly toxic to living organisms, flammable and it has an unpleasant odor (Chou and WHO, 2003).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is a weak acid which can be dissociated into bisulfide ( $\text{HS}^-$ ) and sulfide ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ). The  $pK_a$  values are 6.90 and 12.92 (at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ), respectively (Weast *et al.*, 1989). This gas is produced by sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) *via* the degradation of sulfur-containing compounds and other proteinaceous substances present in water under anaerobic conditions.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is produced naturally from several sources such as hot spring, sulfide spring, crude petroleum, and volcanic gases (Beauchamp *et al.*, 1984). Moreover, various concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  are also generated largely as a by-product from plants. In the pulp and paper industry, this waste gas was generated from the Kraft process.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is also produced from agricultural wastes, anaerobic digestion (AD) and from landfills (Tang *et al.*, 2009).



**Figure 2.1** Sulfur cycle (Tang *et al.*, 2009).

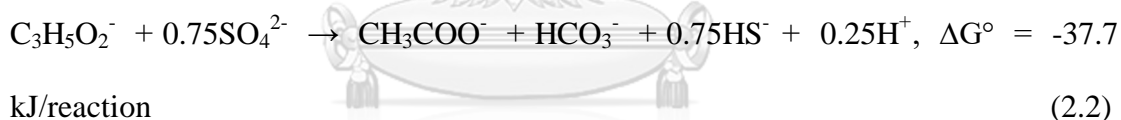
H<sub>2</sub>S is highly toxic to the microorganisms. H<sub>2</sub>S adversely affects the human health (Beauchamp *et al.*, 1984). The toxic effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on human health is summarized in Table 2.1 (Beauchamp *et al.*, 1984). The maximum allowable concentration (MAC) of H<sub>2</sub>S in a workplace is 1.6 ppm<sub>v</sub> in the Netherlands and 10 ppm<sub>v</sub> for time weighted average (TWA) in USA (van den Bosch, 2008). In brief, inhalation of H<sub>2</sub>S can react with the enzymes product in the blood circulation system, that causes pulmonary paralysis and resulting in the death (Syed *et al.*, 2006). Inhalation of low concentrations, as low as 10 mg/L, cause the inhibition of the respiration because of the reactions between H<sub>2</sub>S and the iron from cytochromes in the human body. There is also evidence showing that, concentrations above 0.002 ppm of H<sub>2</sub>S, can have health effects in some insects, suckers, amphipods, minnows and aquatic organisms (Beauchamp *et al.*, 1984). Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>S can be oxidized to sulfur oxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) during combustion process that also causes the acid rain.

**Table 2.1** Effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on human health at various concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S(Beauchamp *et al.*, 1984; Chou and WHO, 2003).

Exposure (mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Exposure (ppm <sub>v</sub> )	Effects and observation
0.011	0.008	Odor threshold
2.8	2	Bronchial constriction in asthmatic individuals
5.0	3.57	Increased eye complaints
7 or 14	5 or 10	Increased blood lactate concentration, decreased skeletal muscle citrate synthase activity, decreased oxygen uptake and sore eye
5-29	3.57-20.71	Eye irritation
28	20	Fatigue, loss of appetite, headache, irritability, poor memory and dizziness
140	100	Loss of smell in 3 to 15 min, may sting eyes and throat
> 140	> 100	Olfactory paralysis
210	150	Olfactory nerve paralysis
350	250	Prolonged exposure may cause pulmonary edema
> 560	> 400	Respiratory distress
700	500	Dizziness, breathing ceases in a few minutes, need prompt artificial respiration
980	700	Unconscious almost instantly and death can occur
1,400	1,000	Rapid collapse, nervous system paralysis, unconscious at once and death within minutes
7,000	5000	Imminent death

## 2.2 H<sub>2</sub>S production by sulfate reducing bacteria

Sulfide species (H<sub>2</sub>S, HS<sup>-</sup> and S<sup>2-</sup>) are produced by the sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) which play an important role in the sulfur cycle. Sulfide is generated *via* dissimilatory sulfate reduction pathway under anaerobic condition. The members of this group use sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) as the electron acceptor as well as use various substrates as electron donor such as hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>), ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>O), fumarate (C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>), lactate (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), organic acids and other alcohols (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Muyzer and Stams, 2008). Despite the utilization of diverse electron donors, H<sub>2</sub> is the most suitable electron donor for SRB as shown by the rank of the affinity of electron donors of SRB in the order of: H<sub>2</sub> > propionate > other organic electron donors (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Pokorna and Zabranska, 2015), as shown in equations (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3):



## 2.3 Methods of H<sub>2</sub>S removal

Due to the toxic effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S is of almost importance. The removal of H<sub>2</sub>S from the gas phase is the first suggestion in order to prevent the emission of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) during the combustion and control corrosion problems. However, the removal of sulfide from the aqueous phase which is also product in many wastewaters is still important. The chemical, thermal, scrubbing and adsorption are the common methods used for H<sub>2</sub>S removal (Shareefdeen *et al.*, 2002; Syed *et al.*, 2006). There are many physico-chemical methods that have been

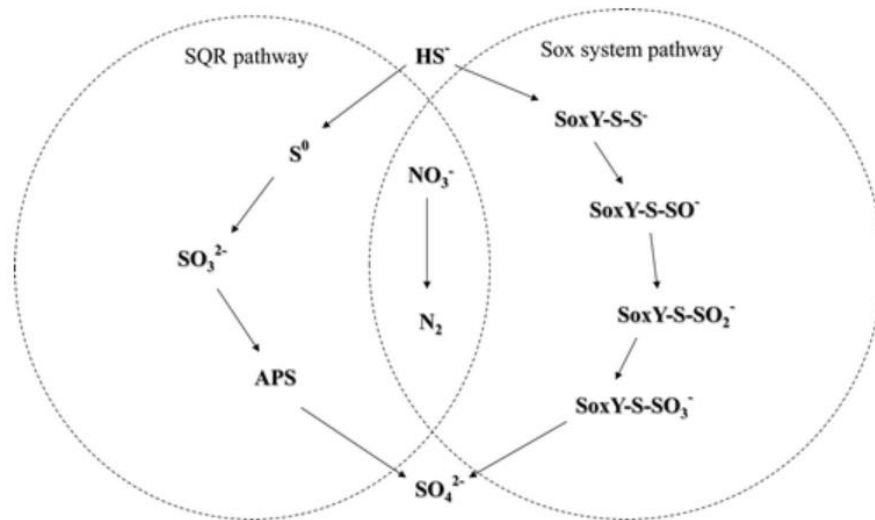
commonly used for H<sub>2</sub>S removal from the natural gas, landfills gas such as the Lo-Cat and the Claus process (Klok *et al.*, 2012).

However, the chemical methods require high energy and require chemical costs as well as leads to generation of secondary waste streams. H<sub>2</sub>S removal by biological processes is desirable because these processes can compensate the drawbacks of chemical and physical methods. For example, biological methods are environmental friendly and it can be performed at low cost compared to the chemical and physical processes (De Gusseme *et al.*, 2009).

#### 2.4 Pathway of H<sub>2</sub>S removal

The H<sub>2</sub>S removal is done via the H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation pathway. There are two enzymatic pathways, the sulfur-oxidizing (Sox) system pathway and the sulfide quinone oxidoreductase (SQR) pathway to oxidize H<sub>2</sub>S to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (Figure 2.2). In the Sox system pathway, H<sub>2</sub>S is converted to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> by binding with the complex of SoxY-cysteine-sulfur (Poser *et al.*, 2014). In addition, The Sox system can oxidize sulfide and other sulfur compounds including thiosulfate (S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) and elemental sulfur (S<sup>0</sup>) to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (Friedrich *et al.*, 2005). While in the SQR system, H<sub>2</sub>S is first converted to sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>). The six electrons from sulfide are transferred to the system of cell electron transport and pass to the terminal electron acceptor. In this case, the terminal electron acceptor is the nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) or nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>). After that, adenosine monophosphate (AMP) is produced by the activity of adenosine phosphosulfate reductase and converted to adenosine diphosphate (ADP), respectively. During the step of ADP production, high energy phosphate bond is formed. Finally, the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> is the final product from the dissimilatory sulfide oxidation pathway (Tang *et al.*, 2009).

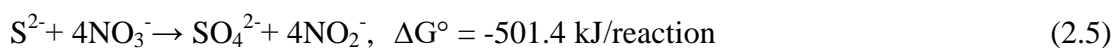
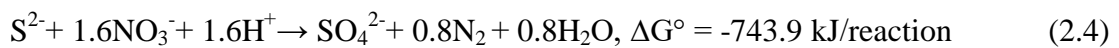




**Figure 2.2** Sulfide oxidation pathway (Poser *et al.*, 2014).

## 2.5 Nitrate reducing and sulfide oxidizing bacteria

Biological H<sub>2</sub>S removal methods using nitrate-reducing and sulfide-oxidizing bacteria (NR-SOB) have been developed during the past two decades (Watsuntorn *et al.*, 2017). NR-SOB are the group of bacteria that can use H<sub>2</sub>S as an electron donor and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) as an electron acceptor. NR-SOB play the major roles for removal both H<sub>2</sub>S and nitrate by linking between sulfur and nitrogen cycles. The H<sub>2</sub>S in both gas and liquid is converted *via* the sulfide oxidation pathway and N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> via the nitrate reduction pathway following equation (2.4) and (2.5):



NR-SOB consume H<sub>2</sub>S, producing sulfur oxidized compounds such as sulfides, elemental sulfur, sulfites, and thiosulfates. These bacteria are chemoautotrophs and belong to Proteobacteria (classes  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -,  $\epsilon$ -), Chlorobia, and Chloroflexi (Friedrich *et al.*, 2005; Ghosh and Dam, 2009). The NR-SOB can be classified into three types by their carbon source: (i) the autotrophic bacteria, this

group of NR-SOB use the inorganic compounds as a carbon source such as carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), bicarbonate ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ), and carbonate ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) for production of new cell materials and their growth. Another group is the heterotrophic bacteria, a large variety of organic compounds such as acetate, glucose can be used as the carbon source (Syed *et al.*, 2006). (iii) Facultative bacteria than can possibly use both type of carbon including organic and inorganic (Pokorna and Zabranska, 2015). There are many genera of NR-SOB such as *Thiobacillus*, *Thiomicrospira* and *Paracoccus* that have been reported for their ability of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal under anaerobic conditions (Table 2.2).

According to the previous work by Tóth *et al.* (2015), the well-known of genus *Thiobacillus* has been widely studied for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  oxidation. *Thiobacillus* sp. is the *betaproteobacteria*. Same as the other NR-SOB, this genus can oxidized the sulfur compounds as electron donor including  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  and  $\text{S}^\circ$  for production of their growth and energy. Several species of the members of this genus are rod shaped and gram negative (Robertson *et al.*, 2006). Some of them are acidophilic that can grow in acidic conditions (Tang *et al.*, 2009). The sources of *Thiobacillus* sp. can be found in the sewage, wastewater under anoxic environment. The optimal pH and temperature are 6.9 and 29.5 °C, respectively (Kelly and Wood, 2000). Not only the ability of *Thiobacillus* sp. for sulfide removal but also this genus has been widely used for the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  removal *via* the denitrification pathway. In the denitrification step, some of the microorganisms can be use inorganic or organic compounds as carbon sources (Alzate, 2015).

*Sulfurimona denitrificans* (previous name: *Thiomicrospira denitrificans*) is also one of NR-SOB which is characterized as obligate chemolithotrophic bacteria and belong to *epsilonproteobacteria*. This microorganism can oxidize  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  as an

electron donor to  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ . In addition, *Sulfurimona* sp. can use  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  and  $\text{S}^\circ$  as an energy source. Moreover, there are many compounds for serving as an electron acceptor including  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , Iron (III) ( $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ) and oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ ). Many researches were reported about the capability of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal by *Sulfurimona denitrificans* (*Thiomicrospira denitrificans*) strain CVO under anoxic conditions (Gevertz *et al.*, 2000; Gadekar *et al.*, 2006; An *et al.*, 2010).

Another genus of NR-SOB is *Paracoccus* sp., which belongs to *betaproteobacteria*. This genus was first isolated by Beijerinck and Minkman (Kelly *et al.*, 2006). This genus is well-known as the denitrifying bacteria. Most of them have potential to remove  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in aquatic environment and wastewater. Watsuntorn *et al.*, 2017). About the sulfide removal, like other NR-SOB the members of this genus capable use the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and other elemental sulfur such as  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ . The sources of isolation of several strains of genus *Paracoccus* are polluted environment. For example, *Paracoccus* sp. strain TRP was isolated from the activated sludge from the pesticide plant in China (Li *et al.*, 2011).

**Table 2.2** H<sub>2</sub>S removal rates reported for different NR-SOB cultures (Watsunorn *et al.*, 2017).

Microbial culture	Source of biomass	[H <sub>2</sub> S/sulfide]	H <sub>2</sub> S/sulfide removal rate	References
<i>Paracoccus</i> sp.	Sediments and water from		139.11 ppm <sub>v</sub> /h	Wannapawn
strain MAL 1HM19	Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, Thailand.	700-800 ppm <sub>v</sub>	126.89 ppm <sub>v</sub> /h	<i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Paracoccus versutus</i>	DSMZ		71.96 ppm <sub>v</sub> /h	
DSM 582			71.32 ppm <sub>v</sub> /h	
<i>Thiobacillus denitrificans</i>	Anaerobic activated sludge	200 mg/L	-	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2005
strain D <sub>4</sub>			0.88-0.95 mM/h	
NR-SOB Consortium dominated by	Produced water of the Coleville oil field,	6-6.5 mM	mM/h	An <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Thiomicrospira</i> sp. stain CVO	Saskatchewan, Canada		< 0.76 mM/h	

## 2.6 Isolation of NR-SOB from hot spring

Isolation is the process in which the individual cells are physically divided from each other or from the matrix substances such as soil sediments, eukaryotic tissues, water and air samples. The isolation techniques are the most important step during the process of acquiring pure cultures. “Culture” and “cultivation” are used to recount the microorganism that can be grown and propagated in the laboratory which not only refers to pure culture but also include the stable mixed cultures in the laboratory (Zengler, 2009). The isolation is a traditional technique which is usually a culture dependent method. The isolation of pure culture microorganisms shows the detailed physiology of microorganisms. Moreover, this method is more important for understanding the properties and characteristics of microorganisms include the testing of Koch’s postulates, identification of organisms that carry specific genetic information (gene or pathway), evaluation of morphology and physiology, as well as determining the role of novel enzymes for industrial and pharmaceutical applications (Hugenholtz *et al.* 1998; Schleifer, 2004).

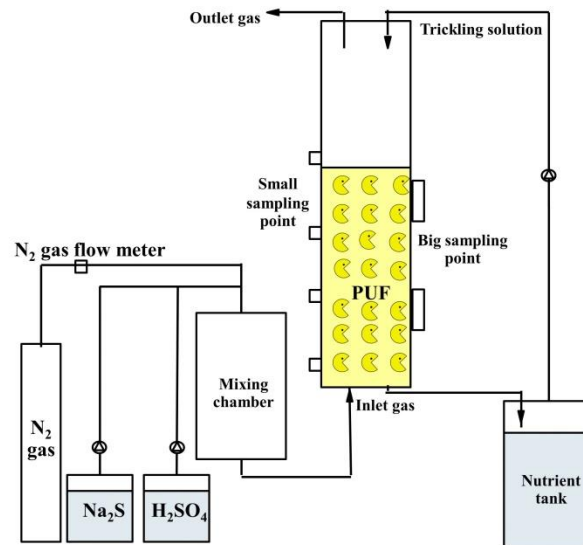
NR-SOB can be found from various natural and man-made environment sources that are rich in sulfur compounds. These sulfur compounds provide sufficient nutrients for maintaining their cell activity and growth (Sorokin *et al.*, 2006; Hidayat *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, many NR-SOB are capable to adapt in various conditions including the normal atmospheric conditions and extreme conditions such as high concentration of salt due to their high energy yield resulting from the complete oxidation of sulfide to  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  (Sorokin *et al.*, 2006).

Hot spring is one of the natural sources because this place is often rich in high reduced and saturated sulfur compounds owing to the presence of mud and sediment.

Hot spring is a potential source of mesophilic or thermophilic SOB (Otaki *et al.*, 2012; Tamazawa *et al.*, 2012) and such environments provide the electron donors required for the growth of SOB (Hidayat *et al.*, 2017). The activity of microorganisms in hot spring relies on the biogeochemical cycle, e.g. the sulfur cycle, and other limited nutrients (Skirnisdottir *et al.*, 2001). Nowadays, there are only few studies that have focused on the isolation of SOB from hot springs.

## **2.7 Biotrickling filter**

Biotrickling filter (BTF) is one type of the biological reactor for waste gas treatment that becomes widely acceptable which has advantages over the conventional techniques because this method is environmental friendly, significantly cost saving. Moreover, using BTF can be completed at ambient temperature resulting in no production of the secondary waste (Cox and Deshusses, 1998). BTF has been investigated increasingly for more than two decades by many applications of industry (Kennes *et al.*, 2009). In this system, the nutrient for the microorganisms presented as a liquid phase is constantly trickled over the inert packing materials in any situations. The waste gas passed through the packing material where the microorganisms can grow and develop as the biofilm and the biodegradation is occurred within the biofilm formation (Khoshnevisan *et al.*, 2017). The microorganisms consumed the pollutants as an energy source for their growth by absorbing atmospheric contaminants to the area of microbial biofilm (Mudliar *et al.*, 2010). BTFs provide the pH control, less pressure drops and volume requirement as well as good process stability (Schiavon *et al.*, 2016). The schematic of the BTF is shown on Figure 2.3.



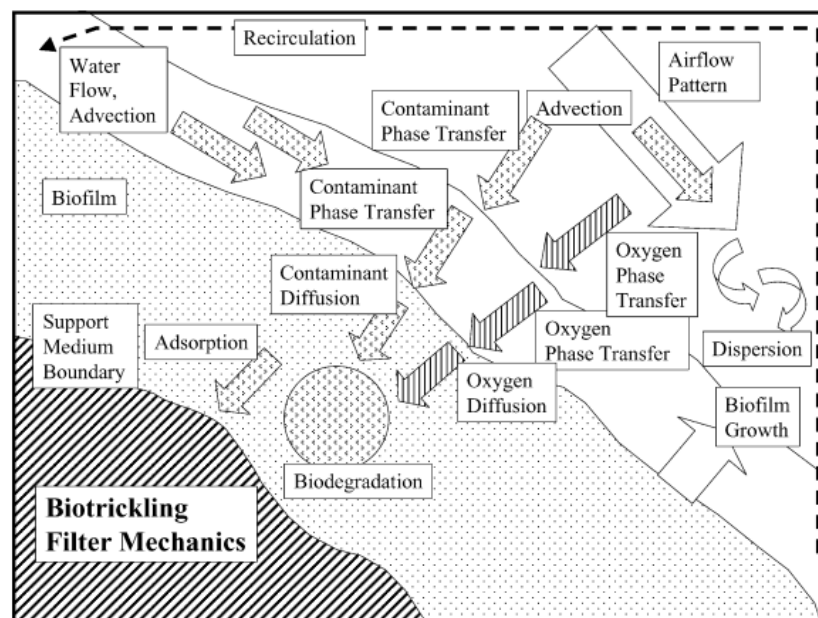
**Figure 2.3** Schematic of the anoxic BTF system.

The advantages of the BTF are less operating cost, small footprint, low pressure drop. Moreover, BTF has the ability for volatile organic acid (VOC) (Yang *et al.*, 2010). The first BTF was established in 1923 for applying the  $H_2S$  from the wastewater. After that BTFs have been used to remove various VOCs, ammonia ( $NH_3$ ), sulfur dioxide ( $SO_2$ ), nitrogen oxides ( $NO_x$ ) (Grove *et al.*, 2009; Philip and Deshusses, 2003, du Plessis *et al.*, 1998). Nowadays, more than 7,500 systems of biological waste gas treatment have been generally used all over Europe. Half of them were installed at the composting sites and treatment plants (Yang *et al.*, 2010). However, there are some of disadvantages of BTF such as the secondary waste formation, the redundant biomass accumulation (Mudliar *et al.*, 2010).

## 2.8 Biofilm formation on the BTF

The biofilms are the aggregation of microorganisms which is called the biological community and implant in polymer matrix. When microorganisms attach on the support media due to the attractive forces and physical movement, grow on the media by consuming the waste gas as their nutrient. After that the microbial

aggregations are developed because of the forces of microorganisms and polymer matrix structure of biofilms is generated because of the hydrodynamic shear forces. The crucial thing of the biofilm formation is the microbial attachment to the surface area of a packing material of BTF for the initial biofilm generation for biodegradation of pollutant gases (Figure 2.4) (Yang *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, extracellular polymeric substances (EPSs) are formed as a part of biofilms also importantly contributed to the biofilm production. Previous research reported about the advantage of secretion of EPSs that assists the combination between cell to cell (Costerton *et al.*, 1995). In BTF operation, the trickling recirculation from the storage tank provides the greater operation resulting in the high water content in biofilm. The pH and the nutrient can be controlled in BTF and might stimulate the exuviae of the biofilms resulting in the decreasing clogging (Devinny and Ramesh, 2005).



**Figure 2.4** Circumstance involved in the BTF operation (Devinny and Ramesh, 2005).



## **2.9 Effect of important parameters on the performance of BTF**

Removal efficiency (RE), Inlet loading rate (ILR) and elimination capacity (EC), and empty bed gas residence time (EBRT) are generally important parameters to specify the performance of the BTF (Iranpour *et al.*, 2005; Schiavon *et al.*, 2016).

### **2.9.1 Removal efficiency (RE)**

The first parameter is RE that shows the waste gas represents the percentage of the pollutant removed from the contaminated stream.

### **2.9.2 Inlet loading rate (ILR)**

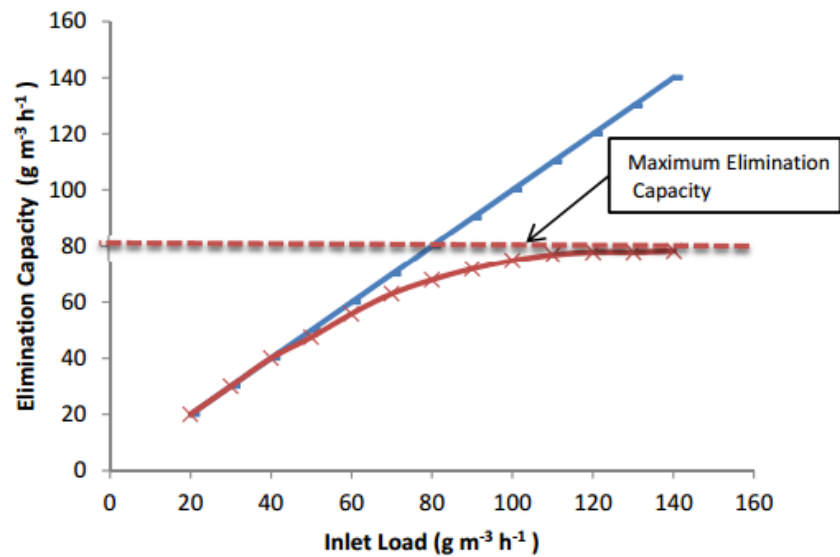
ILR is the rate of the contaminant that is fed to the BTF. ILR has an effect on the performance of BTF. ILR depends on the concentration of the contaminant and the flow rates (Q). The lower pollutant loading rate leads to higher pollutant removal (Matanhike, 2017). Consequently, the rate of contaminant biodegradation is investigated by the mass transfer rate of the contaminants throughout the media.

### **2.9.3 Elimination capacity (EC)**

EC is the amount of pollutant removed per unit volume of the packed filter bed. Normally, the equality between EC and IL (EC = ILR) is normally observed in the well-established BTF with the low inlet loading which demonstrates nearly 100% of RE (Figure 2.5). However, of the pollutant load to the BTF is increased beyond its critical load, the RE will decrease to values lower than 100% (Alzate, 2015).

### **2.9.4 Empty bed gas residence time (EBRT)**

Another important parameter is the empty bed residence time (EBRT) which is the ratio of empty trickling bed volume and the gas flow rate. The higher EBRT leads to higher RE because of the longer contact time between the waste-gas and the microorganisms present in the BTF.



**Figure 2.5** Elimination capacity (Alzate, 2015).

## 2.10 The operation parameter for BTF

The various parameters for the operation of BTF are described as follow:

### 2.10.1 Trickleing liquid volume (TLV)

TLV is the velocity of the recirculated liquid through the media filter which directly affect to the mass transfer between the aqueous and gas phases. For example, the higher removal capacity is caused by a high mass transfer. The optimal TLV of BTF based on the surface area and filter media used (Fernández *et al.*, 2014).

### 2.10.2 Shock loading

The shock loading means the loading of large amount of contaminant gases into the BTF. The pollutant concentrations impact on the ability of contaminant removal by microorganisms. Many researches have focused on evaluating the performance of BTFs under steady-state conditions. However, the objective of investigating shock load or transient-state experiments is to gain better insight of the BTF in terms of its stability and resilience capacity (Jiang *et al.*, 2009). Increasing of gas flow rate or high inlet concentration leads to the suppression of microbial activity.

On the other hand, the scarcity of the contaminant loading rate also affects the microbe activity. Moreover, the microorganisms can adapt to the higher inlet concentration. The increasing of the inlet concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S from low to very high concentration has the effect on the microbial activity (Duan *et al.*, 2005).

Kim *et al.* (2008) carried out H<sub>2</sub>S shock load experiments by varying the inlet load from 0.1-10 g H<sub>2</sub>S/m<sup>3</sup> h and it was reported that the RE decreased from 100% to 78%. Fortuny *et al.* (2008) studied the effect of high inlet concentration (1500 to 6000 ppm<sub>v</sub> of H<sub>2</sub>S) as well as the loading of H<sub>2</sub>S (42 to 167 g H<sub>2</sub>S/m<sup>3</sup>·h) resulting in the reduced RE of H<sub>2</sub>S from 100% to 90% after 5 d of operation at high inlet concentrations.

### 2.10.3 Temperature

Maintaining proper temperature during BTF operation is important for the growth of microbial community (Feizi *et al.*, 2016). For full-scale H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in a biofilter (BF), temperature ranging between 24 and 32 °C has been recommended (Shao *et al.*, 2010). For H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in a BF, the genus *Thiobacillus* such as *Thiobacillus thioparus* and *Thiobacillus denitrificans* are well-known chemolithotrophic sulfide oxidizing bacteria which has been widely used in BF and BTF (Vikrant *et al.*, 2018). Previous works have shown good performance of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in BTF or BF at 30 °C (Massoudinejad *et al.*, 2008; Abdehagh *et al.*, 2011). However, Fernández *et al.* (2014) reported the inhibition of NR-SOB at temperatures below 30 °C.

#### 2.10.4 pH

Many studies were reported wide range of pH with the BTF operation. Few studies focus on the removal H<sub>2</sub>S under acidic condition. The complete simultaneous removal of H<sub>2</sub>S and methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) (100%) was achieved under the acidic condition at pH 2 (Jin *et al.*, 2007). Most of the prior works about BTF were done at the neutral pH. The range of pH between 7.3-7.5 showed the high efficiency for the H<sub>2</sub>S removal (99%). Moreover, the slightly alkaline pH improve the conversion NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to nitrogen gas (N<sub>2</sub>) as well as the avoiding of the intermediate formation such as nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Fernández *et al.*, 2014). The pH control is necessary because H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation generate the S<sup>0</sup> or SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> or sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) as a product. The decreasing pH occurs from the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. In addition, decreasing of pH might be affect the activity of microbes (Jin *et al.*, 2005).

#### 2.10.5 Nutrients

Nutrient is important factor in the biological process for growth of bacteria. In addition, the nutrient is necessary to the biofilm formation. Normally, the trickling nutrient in BTF composed of the inorganic compounds such as potassium, nitrogen and phosphorus (Jin *et al.*, 2007). From our best knowledge, there are poor information reported about the particular nutrient requirement for the denitrifying autotrophic bacteria. For NR-SOB, the nitrogen source of NR-SOB can be NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and should be limited to evade the metabolism of bacteria.

#### 2.11 H<sub>2</sub>S removal using anoxic BTF

H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in the BTF can be performed under aerobic and anoxic conditions depending on the source of the waste gas stream and also the purpose of the treatment step. In the case of biogas upgrading using an anoxic BTF to remove

H<sub>2</sub>S, the level of oxygen needs to be controlled because biogas contains oxygen that might pose an explosive risk (Soreanu *et al.*, 2009). In such cases, aerobic treatment is not preferred because the mixing between air and biogas would result in the dilution of the methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) concentrations (Fortuny *et al.*, 2008). Consequently, the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S under anoxic conditions provides more advantages over the aerobic processes. During anoxic conditions, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can serve as an electron acceptor instead of the oxygen and the presence of sulfide leads to high activities of NR-SOB that plays an important role in the H<sub>2</sub>S removal process. Researches pertaining to H<sub>2</sub>S degradation using anoxic BTF are of much interest to the scientific community in recent years (Soreanu *et al.*, 2008; Soreanu *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2016). In a previous study, the anoxic BTF was operated for 178 d in order to remove H<sub>2</sub>S and the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> containing wastewater was used as the nutrient solution for the microorganisms attached to the porous support matrix within the BTF (Soreanu *et al.*, 2008). The authors reported 100% H<sub>2</sub>S removal without effects on the CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and this system was reported to be highly efficient during long-term operation. The performance of the anoxic BTF depends on the H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations and the biogas flow rate (Soreanu *et al.*, 2010). Li *et al.* (2016) compared the performance of H<sub>2</sub>S removal between an anoxic BTF and biobubble column (BBC) reactor and showed that the H<sub>2</sub>S elimination capacity was more stable in the BTF than the BBC system.

### **2.12 Future perspective in biological H<sub>2</sub>S removal**

The future perspective of H<sub>2</sub>S removal should be shifted towards the biological process owing to its advantages over the conventional physico-chemical processes: environmental friendly, less chemical requirements, less operational and maintenance costs and less energy requirements. Several previous works have

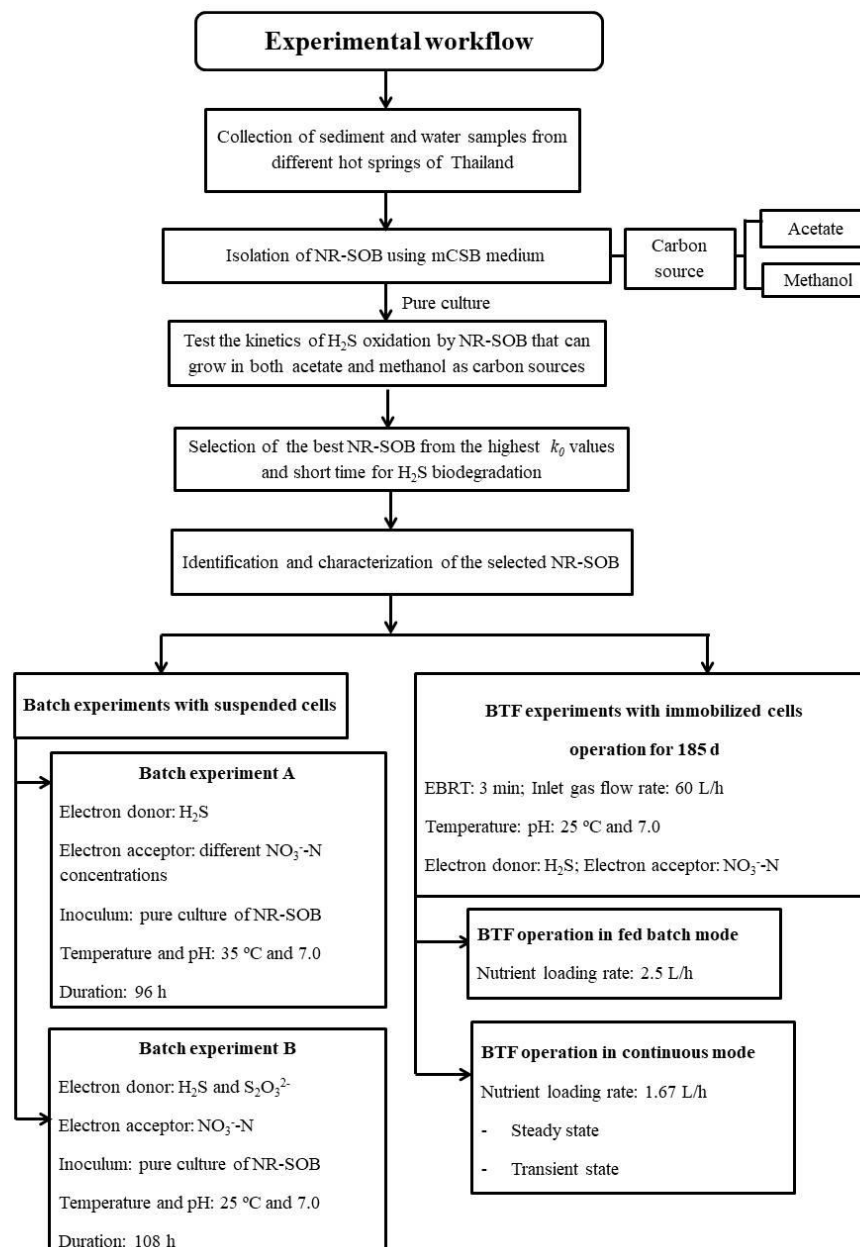
reported high performances in biological H<sub>2</sub>S removal using laboratory and pilot scale systems. It is however important to also mention that, anoxic H<sub>2</sub>S removal using BTF still has some drawbacks. At high concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S (> 1000 ppm<sub>v</sub>), the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S decreases due to the toxicity effects, thereby reducing the activity of the microorganisms (Fortuny *et al.*, 2008; Montebello *et al.*, 2012). Besides, from a process intensification and control view-point, anoxic BTF should be optimally designed and operated in order to make it cost-effective. The application of artificial intelligence tools such as fuzzy logic and artificial neural networks should be tested in order to monitor and control the operation of BTF using online data acquisition systems. Besides, the nutrient requirements are also high in BTF and the source of N should also be carefully selected. Hence, future anoxic bioreactor systems should also test novel biocatalysts and integrated bioreactor configurations that are able to show stable, yet high H<sub>2</sub>S removal performance during normal as well as shock or transient operating conditions.

## CHAPTER III

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### 3.1 Overview of the experiments

The conceptual experimental framework to this research is shown in Figure 3.1



**Figure 3.1** Experimental framework of this Ph.D. research.

## 3.2 Part I: Isolation of NR-SOB from natural sources

### 3.2.1 Sample collection

Mixed water and sediment samples were collected from Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, Mae Hong Son province and Thep Pha Nom hot springs, Chiang Mai province (Figure 3.2) according to the method suggested by Gevertz *et al.* (2000). Samples were collected from 3 different sites of each hot spring with 3 replicates. All samples were collected in 100 mL sterile glasses bottles containing N<sub>2</sub> for providing the required anaerobic conditions and stored in an ice box and transported to the laboratory within 2 d.



**Figure 3.2** Sources of NR-SOB isolation: (A) Thep Pha Nom hot spring, (B) sampling site of Thep Pha Nom hot spring, (C) Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, and (D) sampling site of Mae Um Long Luang hot spring.



### 3.2.2 Sample preparation

The steps involved in sample preparation were done according to the adopting the methodology used by Luo *et al.* (2013). One hundred mL of water samples was suspended in sterile phosphate buffer solution (PBS, pH 8.0) and mixed with sterile glass beads by agitating for 30 min, at 35 °C. The suspension was transferred to conical centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at  $6000 \times g$  for 5 min (Hanil Scientific Inc., Korea). The pellets were re-suspended twice in 100 mL of PBS and were maintained at 4°C.

### 3.2.3 Enrichment medium

The modified Coleville synthetic brine medium (mCSB) was used for the isolation of NR-SOB. The medium composition consisted of (in g/L) NaCl 0.3; KNO<sub>3</sub> 1.0; NH<sub>4</sub>Cl 0.02; KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.027; NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 1.9; MgSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O 0.68; CaCl<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O 0.24; resazurin 0.0001; and trace elements 1.0 mL. Two carbon sources including acetate (CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup>) in form of sodium acetate (NaC<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O) (0.68 g/L) and methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) (2 mM) were added separately in order to test the ability of acetate and methanol utilization by the NR-SOB. Trace elements solution had the following composition (in g/L): 50.0 g/L of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 2.28 g/L of MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.5 g/L of ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.5 g/L H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 0.025 g/L of CuSO<sub>4</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.025 g/L of Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.045 g/L of CoCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and 0.58 g/L of FeCl<sub>3</sub>, respectively (Gevertz *et al.*, 2000). The pH of the mCSB medium was adjusted to  $7.0 \pm 0.2$  and flushed with N<sub>2</sub> gas for 5 min to provide the required anaerobic conditions. Prior to use, all experimental serum bottles were autoclaved for 15 min at 121°C. 0.5 mL of sterile Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>x</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O from 1 M of stock solution was added to each serum bottle in order

to get the desired final concentration of ~5 mM. Thereafter, 0.5 mL of sterile HCl from a 2 M stock solution was added to re-adjust the pH to  $\sim 7.0 \pm 0.2$ .

### **3.2.4 Isolation of pure cultures of NR-SOB**

Five mL of prepared samples were inoculated into serum bottles containing 50 mL of modified CSB medium and the bottles were incubated in a rotary shaker (Daihan scientific, Korea) (100 rpm) at 35°C for 3 d. The growth of each isolated NR-SOB was detected by measuring the increase in turbidity of the modified CSB in terms of the optical density at 600 nm ( $OD_{600}$ ). After that, the culture samples were spread on mCSB agar plates and incubated at 35°C, pH 7.0. One colony was taken from the plate and sub-cultured several times to obtain the pure culture.

## **3.3 Part II: Selection of the isolated NR-SOB**

### **3.3.1 Selecting the appropriate NR-SOB by estimating the kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation**

The appropriate NR-SOB was selected based on the highest rate of H<sub>2</sub>S removal by determining the kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation according to the methodology suggested by Chung *et al.* (1996). The kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation by different strains of NR-SOB were performed at 35 °C and pH 7.0 using mCSB medium with acetate as the carbon source. The batch serum bottles (1000 mL) comprised of 180 mL sterile mCSB medium and 20 mL (10% v/v) of 3 d old of each NR-SOB strain as an inoculum. The pH was adjusted to  $7.0 \pm 0.2$  by the addition of sterile HCl and then purged with nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) gas for 10 min to provide the desired anaerobic conditions. All batch experiments were performed in duplicates. Prior to use, all experimental serum bottles containing mCSB medium were autoclaved for 15 min at 121°C. 0.6 mL of Na<sub>2</sub>S.xH<sub>2</sub>O from 1 M of stock solution was added to each serum bottle to

generate H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations of 650-1000 ppm<sub>v</sub>. After that, 0.6 mL of sterile HCl from 2 M of stock solution was added to re-adjust the pH to  $\sim 7.0 \pm 0.2$ . Control bottles without the addition of NR-SOB were also performed.

Initial and final H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations were diluted and measured by gas detector tubes (RAE, USA). The time series experimental data was used to estimate the kinetic parameters by fitting the data to zero-order reaction kinetics. Zero-order reaction rate was calculated using equation (3.1). (Chung *et al.*, 1996):

$$C_0 - C_e = k_0 t \quad (3.1)$$

Where  $C_0$  is the inlet concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S (ppm<sub>v</sub>),  $C_e$  is the outlet concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S (ppm<sub>v</sub>),  $t$  is the reaction time (h), and  $k_0$  is the zero-order constant

The NR-SOB that showed the highest removal rate of H<sub>2</sub>S and remove H<sub>2</sub>S from the gas phase within 10 h was selected for further study.

### 3.3.2 Analytical procedures

13 mL of gas samples were collected from the headspace from the different batch incubations and diluted ten times with N<sub>2</sub> before the H<sub>2</sub>S measurements using a H<sub>2</sub>S detector tube (range 0 to 2000 ppm<sub>v</sub>) (RAE, USA). Gas samples were collected once every 1 or 2 h and were continued until the H<sub>2</sub>S was totally removed (0 ppm<sub>v</sub>). Sulfide ion (S<sup>2-</sup>), SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration were examined once every 24 h. Sulfide concentrations were analyzed once every 24 h following the method described by Cord Ruwisch (1985), SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were determined by the turbidimetric method described in APHA (2005), while the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and nitrite (N-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) concentrations were determined using the standard 4500-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-B ultraviolet spectrophotometric screening and 4500-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-B colorimetric method, respectively

(APHA, 2005). pH was measured using a pH meter (PL700PCS, Pacific Sensor Technologies, Australia).

### 3.3.3 Statistical analysis

The experimental data are presented in the form of mean  $\pm$  SD values. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done using the SPSS software (SPSS Inc., USA) followed by the Tukey's post-hoc test. The level of statistical significance was set at  $P < 0.05$ .

## 3.4 Part II: Identification and characterization of appropriate NR-SOB

The selected NR-SOB was identified using morphology, 16S rDNA gene sequencing and phylogenetic analysis.

### 3.4.1 Morphological characteristics of the strain MAL 1HM19

Cell morphology was examined using a light microscope (Olympus CH30, Olympus, Japan). The cellular morphology of the selected NR-SOB was examined using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (JSM 7610F microscope, JEOL, Japan) by outsourcing the sample to Scientific and Technological Research Equipment Centre (Chulalongkorn University, Thailand). Gram staining was done according to the Hucker method (Doetsch, 1981).

### 3.4.2 16S rDNA, *soxB* gene sequence and phylogenetic analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from the pure isolates using the bacterial DNA kit (OMEGA Bio-Tek, USA). A PCR product for sequencing 16s rDNA regions was prepared using the following two primers, viz., 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGGATCCTGGCTCAG'-3) and 1492R (5'-CGGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT'-3), respectively (Gillan *et al.*,1998). PCR amplification was programed to carry out an initial denaturation step at 98 °C for 30 s;

30 amplification cycles of denaturation at 98 °C for 10 s, annealing at 55 °C for 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 10 s; followed by a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min with the *Taq* polymerase protocol (Biolabs, UK). While *soxB* primers 704F/1199R and the *soxB* gene fragments protocol were followed, the PCR amplification was programmed to carry out an initial denaturation step at 94 °C for 3 min, followed by two cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at 65 °C for 45 s and extension at 72 °C for 60 s. After that, the annealing temperature was decreased by 1 °C for each cycle until it reached 55 °C, followed by a final extension at 72 °C for 7 min (Luo *et al.*, 2011). The PCR products were purified and sequenced by Pacific Science Co., Ltd (Bangkok, Thailand). All PCR products were evaluated by electrophoresis on a 1% (*w/v*) agarose gel in 1× Tris-acetate EDTA (TAE) buffer with UV emission. PCR amplified 16S rDNA and *soxB* gene fragments were commercially purified and sequenced by Pacific Science Co., Ltd. (Bangkok, Thailand) and Gibthai Co., Ltd. (Bangkok, Thailand), respectively.

Both nucleotide sequences were compared by sequence similarity to those in the GenBank database using the NCBI Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST; BLASTx) database (Altschul *et al.*, 1997). Phylogenetic trees of 16S rDNA and *soxB* were generated by the neighbor-joining (NJ) distance method using the MEGA 5 software (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). The evolutionary distances were computed using the Kimura 2-parameter model, while the bootstrap values were obtained based on 500 replicates. The nucleotide sequence of the 16S rDNA and *soxB* gene from strain MAL 1HM19 have been deposited in the GenBank database under the accession numbers KY427435 and KY434634, respectively.

### 3.4.3 Characterization of appropriate NR-SOB

The characterizations of the NR-SOB strain MAL 1HM19 were conducted by following the modified methodologies of Gevertz *et al.* (2000) and Kantachote *et al.* (2008). The effect of temperature (30, 35, 40, 50, 60 °C) sulfide concentrations (5, 10 and 15mM) and pH (4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, 9.0 and 10.0) on the growth of NR-SOB was investigated. Moreover, the mCSB medium was supplemented with each of the following substrates (2 mM): acetate, glucose, lactate, pyruvate and methanol, at 35°C for testing the effect of substrate on the growth of NR-SOB under anaerobic conditions. For anaerobic sulfur utilization, the ability of strain MAL 1HM19 to use tetrathionate ( $S_4O_6^{2-}$ ) and thiosulfate ( $S_2O_3^{2-}$ ) at 5 mM was tested. Three replicates were conducted for each experimental condition and the MAL 1HM19 growth was determined by measuring the optical density at 600 nm ( $OD_{600}$ ) using a spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA). The  $OD_{600}$  values measured at different time intervals during the experiments were reported as the percent increase in the growth of strain MAL 1HM19 with respect to those measured at the start of the experiment (at time  $t = 0$  h).

### 3.5 Part IV: H<sub>2</sub>S removal in batch experiments

#### 3.5.1 Batch experiment at different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations (60, 120 and 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L) and different sulfur sources including sulfide and thiosulfate ( $S_2O_3^{2-}$ )

For the experiment including different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations, the mCSB medium described in Section 3.2.3 was used in this study. Potassium nitrate (KNO<sub>3</sub>) was added to the different incubations to give the desired initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations of 60, 120 and 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L, respectively. All batch experiments

were performed in triplicates. The zero-order kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation under the influence of different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations were performed at 35°C and pH 7.0. The batch experiments were inoculated with the strain MAL 1HM19 (10% v/v), with three replicates. Control cultures were investigated under the same conditions without the addition of strain MAL 1HM19.

For the experiment with different sulfur sources, the mCSB medium (Section 3.2.3) was used in this study at 25 °C and at pH 7.0. In this study, the sulfur sources including sodium sulfide (Na<sub>2</sub>S.9H<sub>2</sub>O) (96 mg S<sup>2-</sup>-S/L) and sodium thiosulfate (Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) (96 mg S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>-S/L) were added separately for each experiment. All batch experiments were performed in duplicates.

### 3.5.2 Analytical procedures

For batch experiment at different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations (60, 120 and 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L), the measurements of H<sub>2</sub>S in gas phase, sulfide, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and pH were carried out as described in Section 3.3.2. For batch experiment with different sulfur sources, (sulfide and S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), the sulfide concentrations in aqueous phase was measured by the acid volatile sulfide (AVS) method (Kruis, 2014). Briefly, the samples were mixed with 0.5 M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) in order to trap the sulfide. After that, diamine reagent (MDR) reagent was added resulting in the development of a methylene blue color. A UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Lambda 365, PerkinElmer, USA) was used to measure the absorbance at 670 nm after 30 min. S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations in the liquid phase were determined using ion chromatography (IC) (Dionex ICS-100, ThermoFisher Scientific, USA). NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations were determined using the standard 4500-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-B ultraviolet spectrophotometric screening and 4500-NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-B colorimetric method, respectively

(APHA, 2005).  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  concentrations were measured using a gas chromatography (Varian 430-GC, Varian Inc., USA), equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID), a CP WAX-58 CB column and using Helium (He) as the carrier gas. pH was measured using a pH meter (Präzisions E 510, Metrohm, Switzerland).

### 3.5.3 Statistical analysis

The significance of data from batch experiments at different  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations were analyzed by performing one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the SPSS Software (SPSS, USA), Version 19.0, while the averages were compared by the Duncan's test. The differences with *P*-value less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

## 3.6 Part V: Anoxic biotrickling filter

### 3.6.1 Inoculum preparation and nutrient solution

The pure culture of strain MAL 1HM19 was used as the inoculum. The mCSB nutrient solution described in Section 3.2.3 was used.

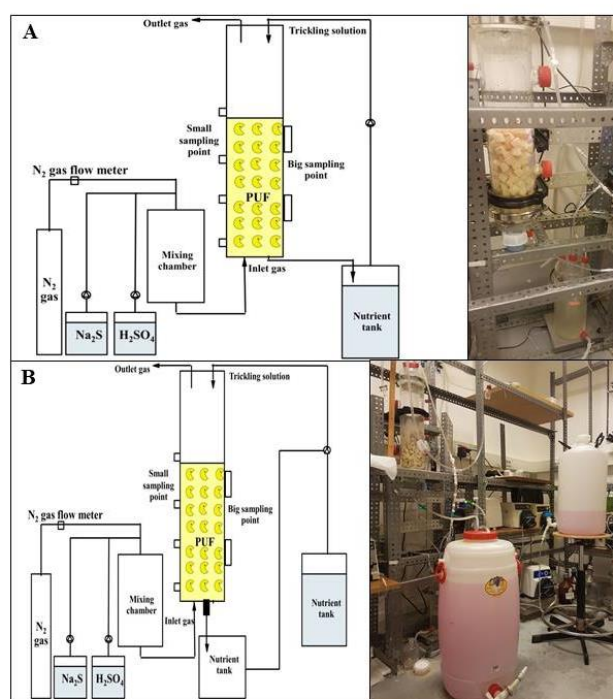
### 3.6.2 Anoxic biotrickling filter (BTF) set up and operation

The laboratory scale BTF column used in this study was made from glass, having the total height of 60 cm. The BTF was packed to a height of 30 cm using inner diameter of 12 cm and a total volume of filter bed 3 L (Figure 3.3). The temperature of the BTF was maintained between 22 and 25 °C, and the pH was 7.0 ±1.0. Different diameters of Tygon tubes were used supply the nutrient and the gas-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  to the BTF. The  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  gas was generated by mixing 1M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and 0.1 and 0.3 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in different preparation to obtain the desired  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations (100-4000 ppm<sub>v</sub>). The mCSB medium was trickled from the top of the BTF using a peristaltic pump (Masterflex, USA). The mCSB medium provided the nutrient



requirement for the microbes and also helped to maintain the moisture content of the filter bed. The inlet gas including  $H_2S$  and  $N_2$  were passed to the BTF in an up flow mode. The BTF installation is shown in the Figure 3.3. Operational parameters and conditions of anoxic BTF are shown in Table 3.1-Table 3.3.

Polyurethane foams (PUFs) cubes of size  $8\text{ cm}^3$  were used as the packing material. The porosity and density of the PUFs were 98% and  $28\text{ kg/m}^3$ , respectively (Eregowda *et al.*, 2018). PUFs were autoclaved for 15 min, at  $121\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in order to provide the sterile conditions. 1.5 L of PUFs were inundated in the mCSB medium containing 10% (v/v) of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19. After 3 d of incubation, 1.5 L of the PUFs containing the microbes were added to the BTF as the packing material and mixed with sterile PUFs, thereby maintaining a final filter bed volume of 3 L.



**Figure 3.3** Schematic of the experimental BTF: (A) fed batch mode, and (B) continuous mode of operation.

**Table 3.1** Operational parameters of the anoxic BTF.

<b>Operation parameters</b>	<b>Conditions/values</b>
Temperature	22-25 °C
pH	7.0-8.0
Electron donor	H <sub>2</sub> S
Electron acceptor	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N
Trickling nutrient solution	mCSB medium
Nutrient trickling rate (L/h)	60
Inlet gas flow rate (L/h)	60
EBRT (min)	3
Volume of the filter bed (L)	3
Packing material	PUFs

Note: EBRT- Empty bed residence time; PUFs-Polyurethane foams;  
 mCSB- modified Coleville synthetic brine medium

**Table 3.2** Conditions during phase I of anoxic BTF operation.

Period	Conditions	Duration (days)	Inlet H <sub>2</sub> S concentration (ppm <sub>v</sub> )	Inlet H <sub>2</sub> S concentration (g/m <sup>3</sup> )
I	Presence of CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	0-27	100	0.14
II	No CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	28-54	100	0.14
III	Presence of CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	55-69	300	0.44
IV	Presence of CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	70-90	300	0.44
V	Presence of CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	91-107	500	0.70

**Table 3.3** Conditions during phase II and phase III of anoxic BTF operation.

Phase	Period	Conditions	Duration (days)	Inlet H <sub>2</sub> S concentration (ppm <sub>v</sub> )	Inlet H <sub>2</sub> S concentration (g/m <sup>3</sup> )
II	I	Presence of	133-162	500	0.7
II	II	CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	162-174	500	0.7
III	I	No CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	175-178	500-4000	0.7-5.7
III	II	No CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO <sup>-</sup>	184-189	500-4000	0.7-5.7

### 3.6.3 Performance parameters of the BTF

The performance parameters of the BTF including removal efficiency (RE), inlet loading (ILR), trickling liquid velocity (TLV), elimination capacity (EC) and global nitrate demand (GN) were estimated using equations (3.2) to (3.6):

$$RE (\%) = \frac{C_{in} - C_{out}}{C_{in}} \cdot 100 \quad (3.2)$$

$$TLV (\text{m/h}) = \frac{Q}{A} \quad (3.3)$$

$$ILR (\text{g S/m}^3 \text{ h}) = C_{in} \frac{Q}{V} \quad (3.4)$$

$$EC (\text{g S/m}^3 \text{ h}) = ILR \cdot \frac{RE(\%)}{100} \quad (3.5)$$

$$GN (\text{mg NO}_3^- \text{-N/mg H}_2\text{S removed-day}) = \frac{M_0 - M_f}{t \times (Q \times (C_{in} - C_{out})) \times 24} \quad (3.6)$$

Where  $C_{in}$  and  $C_{out}$  are the inlet and outlet  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations ( $\text{ppm}_v$  or  $\text{g S/m}^3$ ),  $Q$  is the gas flow rate ( $\text{m}^3/\text{h}$ ),  $A$  is the cross sectional area of the BTF ( $\text{m}^2$ ),  $V$  is the volume of the packing media ( $\text{m}^3$ );  $M_0$  is the initial nitrate present in the nutrient solution ( $\text{mg NO}_3^- \text{-N}$ ),  $M_f$  is the final nitrate present in the nutrient solution ( $\text{mg NO}_3^- \text{-N}$ ), and  $t$  is time of processing the nutrient solution or the time of operating the BTF with that medium before being replaced (d).

### 3.6.4 Analytical techniques

#### 3.6.4.1 $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and sulfide measurements

$\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations (0-500) were measured using two  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  sensors including, (i) Dräger X-am 7000 (Dräger, Lübeck, Germany) ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  measurement range: 0-500  $\text{ppm}_v$ ), and (ii) Biogas 5000 (Geotech, UK) ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  measurement range: 0-5,000  $\text{ppm}_v$ ).  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration was shown as  $\text{ppm}_v$  units in both the sensors. Sulfide ion ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ) was measured by the modified methylene blue color method as described by Kruis (2014).

The samples measured using a UV/Vis spectrophotometer (PerkinElmer, USA) at an absorbance of 670 nm.

#### 3.6.4.2 Sulfide, $S_2O_3^{2-}$ , $SO_4^{2-}$ , $NO_2^-$ , $NO_3^-$ and $CH_3COO^-$ measurements

The protocol used for measuring sulfide,  $S_2O_3^{2-}$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_2^-$ ,  $NO_3^-$  and  $CH_3COO^-$  concentrations has been described in Section 3.5.3.

#### 3.6.4.3 SEM images and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS)

The surfaces of the PUFs were monitored using SEM (JSM-6010LA, JEOL, Japan). In brief, the PUF samples were fixed with 0.5% formaldehyde and 0.5% glutaraldehyde, in phosphate buffer (pH: 7.4) for 24 h and then dried in a graded series of ethanol (30, 50, 70, 80, 90 and 100% v/v). In addition, EDS was used to investigate the elemental composition (%) of the PUF samples.

### 3.6.5 Kinetics of $H_2S$ removal in the BTF

The kinetics of  $H_2S$  removal in the BTF was determined using the modified Michaelis-Menten equation in order to obtain the maximum EC ( $EC_{max}$ ), according to the procedure reported by Kim *et al.* (2008) and Rene *et al.* (2010) shown in equation (3.7). The analysis of kinetic data can be used to compare the performance and characteristics of BTF as well as used for the application in reactor design which has been reported by Tsang *et al.* (2015).

$$\frac{1}{EC} = \frac{K_s + C_{ln}}{EC_{max} C_{ln}} \quad (3.7)$$

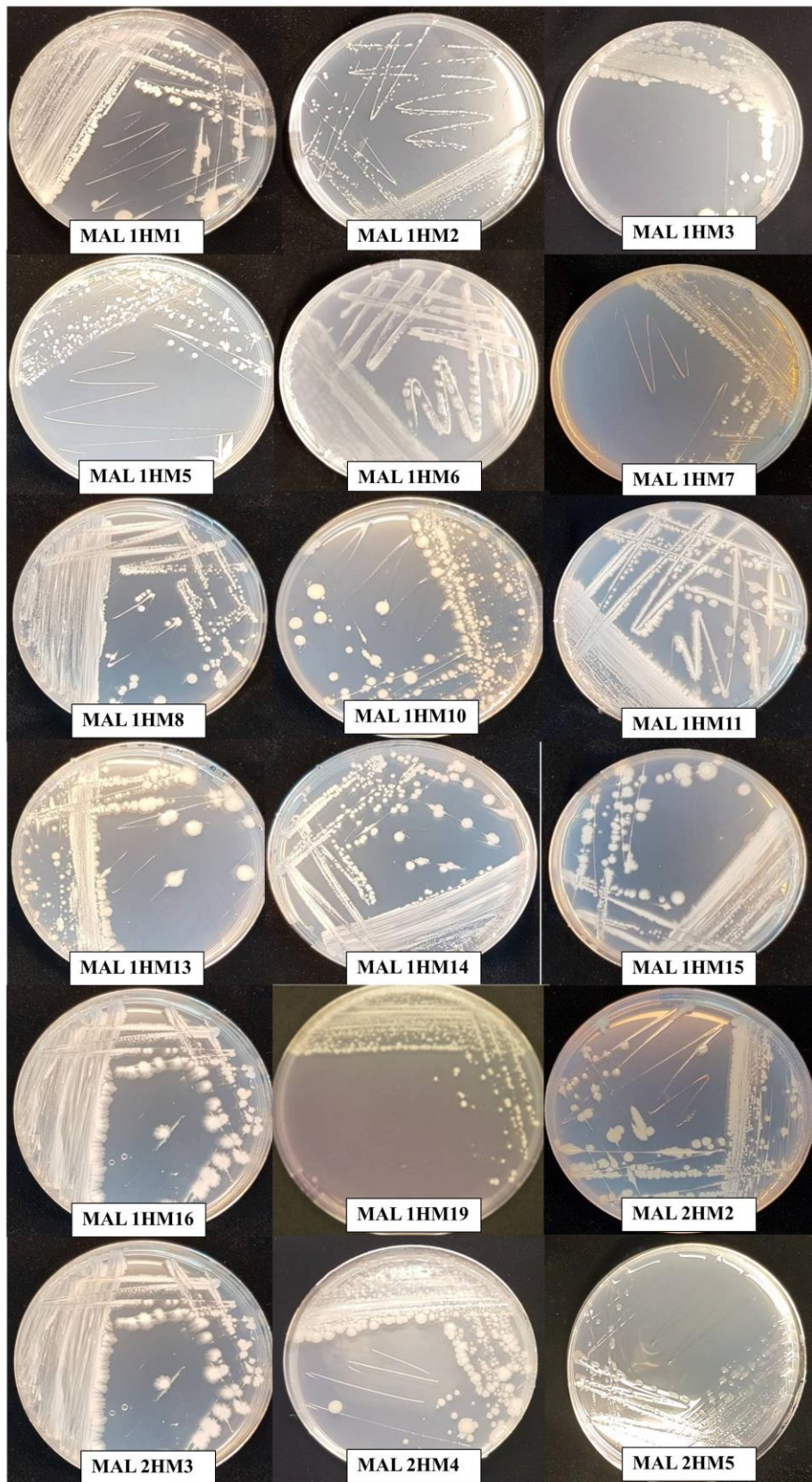
Where  $C_{ln} = \frac{C_{in} - C_{out}}{\ln(\frac{C_{in}}{C_{out}})}$ ,  $C_{in}$  is the inlet  $H_2S$  concentration ( $g/m^3$ ),  $C_{out}$  is the outlet concentrations of  $H_2S$  ( $ppm_v$  or  $g S/m^3$ ),  $K_s$  is the half saturation constant ( $g/m^3$ ),  $EC$  is the elimination capacity ( $g/m^3$ ) and  $EC_{max}$  is the maximum elimination capacity ( $g/m^3$ ).

## CHAPTER IV

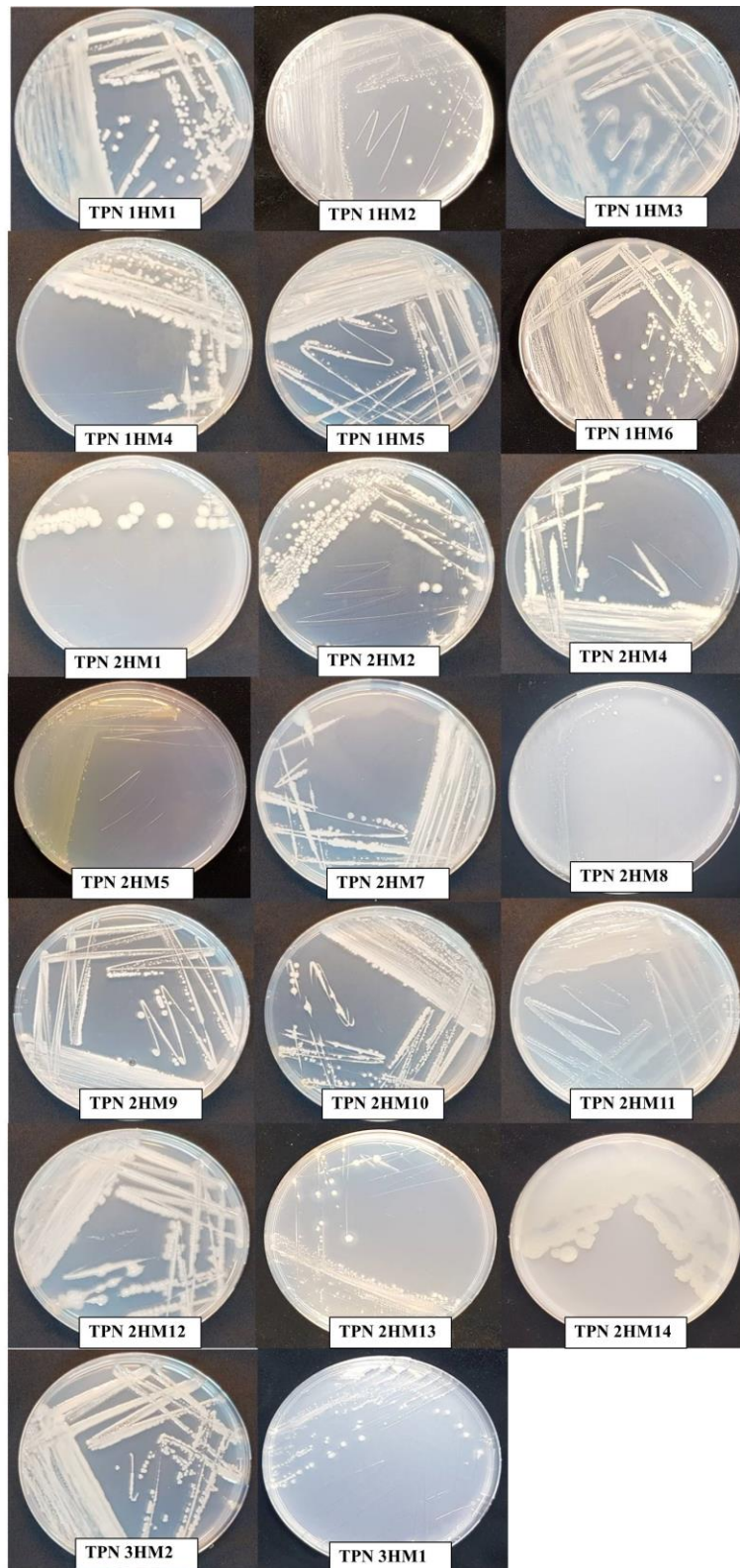
### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Part I: Isolation of NR-SOB from the hot springs

The NR-SOB strains were isolated by the streak plate technique. 18 and 20 isolates comprising of different bacterial colonies were isolated from the Mae Um Long Luang and Thep Pha Nom hot springs, respectively. The growth of NR-SOB was ascertained by visual observation of turbidity development in the mCSB medium (Appendix B, Figures 4.1 and 4.2). From Tables B.1 and B.2, during the screening step, 11 strains of NR-SOB showed the development of turbidity in different types of carbon sources including  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  and  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  in the mCSB medium, confirming the growth of bacteria. However, among the 38 isolates, three isolates of NR-SOB strain namely MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 were able to grow on both  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  and  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ . Moreover, all the three NR-SOB strains were also able to remove  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the gas-phase within 10 h. Their colonies were observed after 3 d of incubation. The morphology of their colonies is described in Table 4.1.



**Figure 4.1** The different NR-SOB isolated from the Mae Um Long Luang hot spring.



**Figure 4.2** The different NR-SOB isolated from the Thep Pha Nom hot spring.



**Table 4.1** Morphological characteristics of the NR-SOB strains MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1.

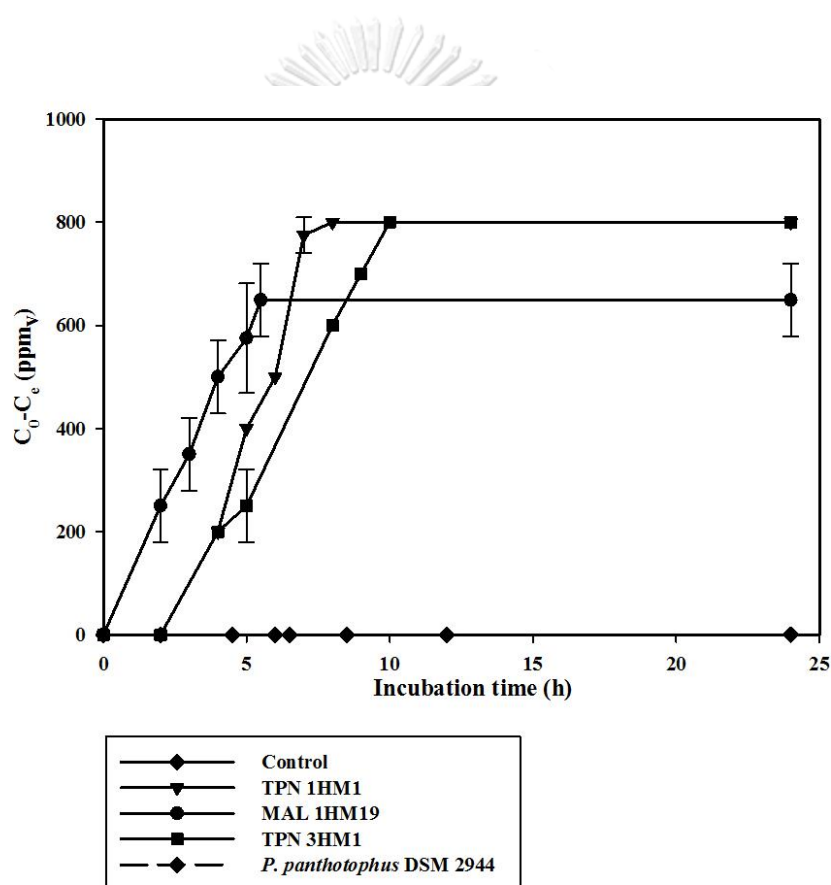
Strains of NR-SOB	Colony morphology
MAL 1HM19	Color: Creamy-white Form: Circular Elevation: Raised Margin: Entire
TPN 1HM1	Color: Creamy Form: Circular Elevation: Convex Margin: Entire
TPN 3HM1	Color: Creamy Form: Circular Elevation: Convex Margin: Entire

## 4.2 Part II: Selecting the appropriate NR-SOB by estimating the kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation

### 4.2.1 Estimation of the zero-order constant for H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation in headspace samples

As mentioned previously, among the 38 isolates, four isolates of NR-SOB strain namely MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 was able to grow on CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup> and CH<sub>3</sub>OH. Moreover, three of them were able to remove H<sub>2</sub>S in gas phase within 10 h. The  $k_0$  values of MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 were 117.0, 113.0, 75.0 ppm<sub>v</sub>/h, respectively. From these results, it is evident that strain

MAL 1HM19 showed the highest  $k_0$  values when compared to other strains of NR-SOB. This good result suggested that strain MAL 1HM19 can degrade the  $H_2S$  faster than the others. Moreover, in this study, the strain *Paracoccus pantotrophus* DSM 2944 which is one of the well-known NR-SOB was also used as one of the inoculum to examine its ability to remove gas phase  $H_2S$ . No  $H_2S$  removal was observed during the 24 h period of incubation in the presence of *P. pantotrophus* DSM 2944 (Figure 4.3).



**Figure 4.3** Zero-order reaction of  $H_2S$  oxidation by strains TPN 1HM1, MAL 1HM19, TPN 3HM1 and *P. pantotrophus* DSM 2944. All data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from duplicate repeats, except for the data of using *P. pantotrophus* DSM 2944 as the inoculum.

Although the optimal temperature for the growth of *P. pantotrophus* DSM 2944 is 28 °C, there are previous studies that have reported good activity at 30 °C (Friedrich *et al.*, 2000). When compared to the temperature used in this study (35 °C), this temperature is still within the range of the optimal temperature for this microorganism. Consequently, there might be other environmental factors/conditions that might have affected the ability of *P. pantotrophus* DSM 2944 to remove H<sub>2</sub>S.

#### 4.2.2 Hydrogen sulphide (H<sub>2</sub>S) removal by pure cultures of NR-SOB

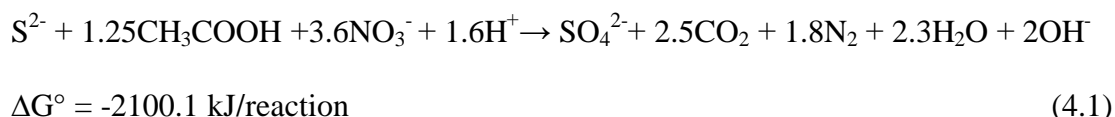
Comparing the time taken by the different NR-SOB strains to remove H<sub>2</sub>S, the strain MAL 1HM19 was able to remove an initial H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of 650 ppm<sub>v</sub> within 5.5 h. The strains TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 consumed an initial concentration of 800 ppm<sub>v</sub> within 8 and 10 h, respectively. No degradation of H<sub>2</sub>S in the control sets was observed which clearly shows that H<sub>2</sub>S removal was solely due to the NR-SOB activity.

#### 4.2.3 Sulfide (S<sup>2-</sup>) and sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) profiles in the liquid phase by pure strains of NR-SOB

The end product of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation by the NR-SOB strains was also reflected in the sulfide (S<sup>2-</sup>) and sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) production profiles. Meanwhile 100% of sulfide removal from the aqueous phase was observed (Figure 4.4A). The sulfide oxidation was almost instantaneous and it was achieved within 8 h. In a recent study, the sulfide degradation by the group of haloalkaliphilic bacteria composing of *Thioalkalimicrobium aerophilum* and *Thioalkalivibrio versutus* were reported to occur at a slower rate (Ang *et al.*, 2017).

SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations were noticed as the product *via* the sulfide oxidation (Figure 4.4B). The percentage of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> formation in this study varied from 7 to 34%

for the different inocula of NR-SOB. The N/S molar ratio of this study is 3.3 and it can be correlated to the ratio of stoichiometry shown in equation (4.1) (Huang *et al.*, 2016):



The final product of sulfide oxidation is usually linked to the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration (Tan *et al.*, 2016). As previously reported, the presence of excess  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration causes excess  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  production (Cardoso *et al.*, 2006; Gadekar *et al.*, 2006).

#### 4.2.4 Nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N) removal profiles by pure cultures of NR-SOB

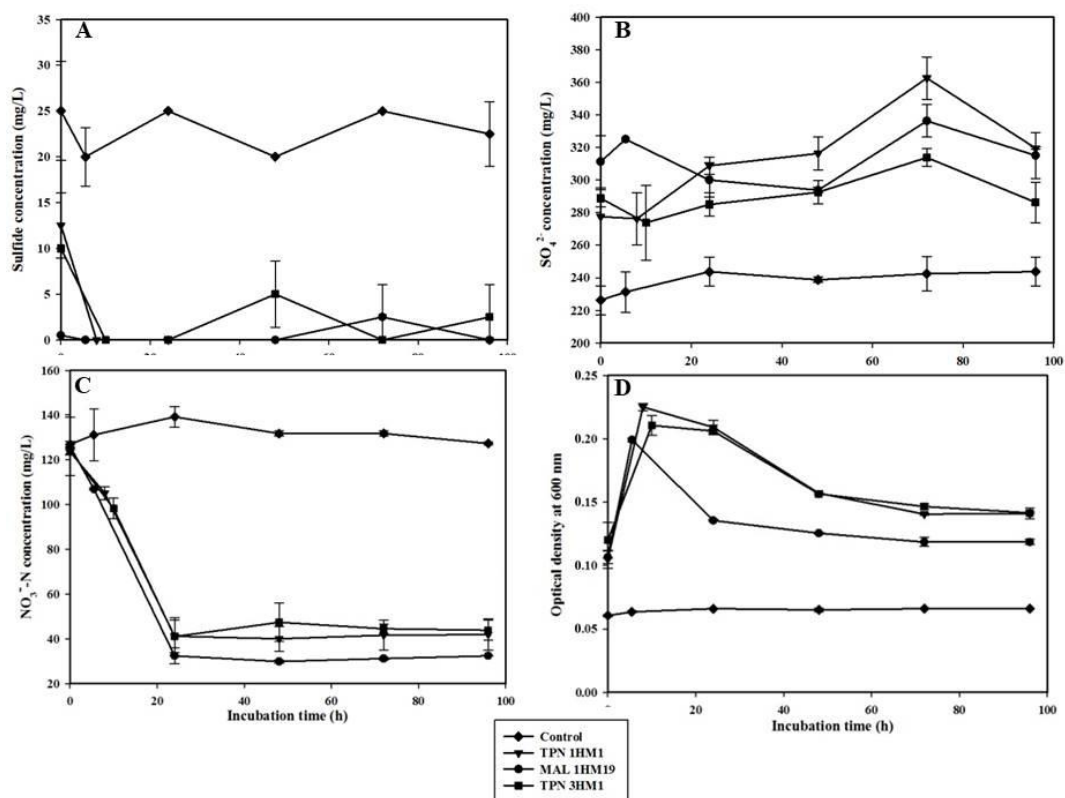
As seen from Figure 4.4C, strain MAL 1HM19 showed the highest percentage of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal (76.2%), while strains TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 demonstrated 67.5 % 67.3%  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal, respectively. Concerning the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate, strains MAL 1HM19 and TPN 1HM1 showed the same highest  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate of 4.0 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L·h and the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate of strain TPN 3HM1 was 3.8 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L·h. Comparing the removal rate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N with previous reports, the rate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N by strain MAL 1HM19 and TPN 1HM1 was higher than the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate by *Rhodococcus* sp. CPZ24 under aerobic denitrification conditions (0.93 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L·h) as well as the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate of 1 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L·h by *Chryseobacterium* sp. R31 isolated from abattoir wastewater (Kundu *et al.*, 2014).

#### 4.2.5 Growth of NR-SOB strains and pH profiles

The growth of pure cultures of strains NR-SOB including MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1, as represented by their  $\text{OD}_{600}$  values, are shown in Figure 4.4D. The growth patterns of strains NR-SOB were similar in all the cultures. The

highest OD<sub>600</sub> values were recorded at the same time that the H<sub>2</sub>S in the gas phase was also completely removed. The OD<sub>600</sub> values for strain MAL 1HM19 were lower than the other strains; however, this strain still showed good H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N removal. For practical use in anoxic biofilters, the use of strain MAL 1HM19 can limit biomass growth and prevent clogging problems during long term operation.

The initial pH of this study was ~ 7.0 and it increased to 7.8 by the end of the 96-h incubation time. One reason to support the stable pH values might be due to the presence of CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO<sup>-</sup> which acts as the carbon source in mCSB medium. According to Qambrani *et al.* (2013), the constant pH profiles can be maintained in the sulfur denitrification process by the addition of acetate. The authors also mentioned that the pH can be easily maintained by the proton balance created using the simultaneous sulfur autotrophic and heterotrophic denitrification process. Furthermore, the culture media pH values are mostly stable within the optimal pH range from 6.0 to 9.0 which also supported the activity of both autotrophic and heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria (Oh *et al.*, 2001).



**Figure 4.4** Concentrations of (A) sulfide, (B)  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , (C)  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N, and (D) optical density values at 600 nm for the pure cultures of MAL 1HM19, TPN 1HM1 and TPN 3HM1 at 35 °C and an initial pH of 7.0 (N/S molar ratio = 3.3). Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from duplicate repeats.

From the above results, it was clearly evident that MAL 1HM19 was the best performing strain in terms of its ability to remove H<sub>2</sub>S at faster rates, and it was able to perform simultaneous removal of gas/liquid phase sulfide and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N. Therefore, the strain MAL 1HM19 was selected for further batch and continuous bioreactor experiments.

#### **4.3 Part III: Identification and characterization of appropriate NR-SOB**

(The results of Sections 4.3 and 4.4 have been published in modified form:

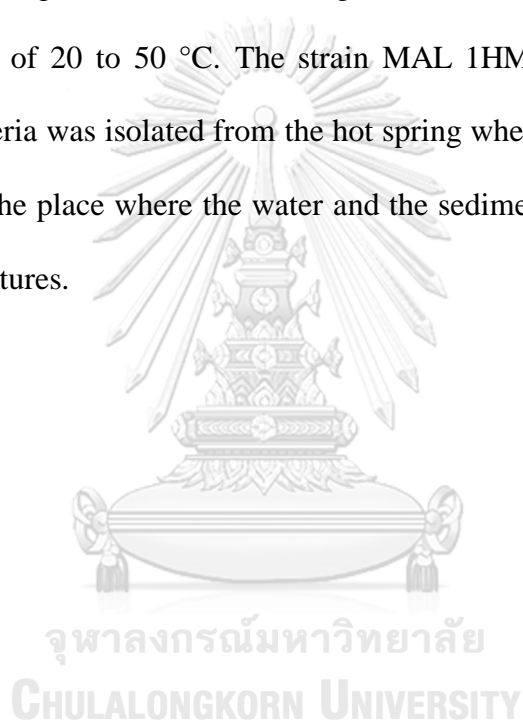
Watsuntorn, W., Ruangchainikom, C., Rene, E. R., Lens, P. N., Chulalaksananukul, W., 2017. Hydrogen sulfide oxidation under anoxic conditions by a nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacterium isolated from the Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, Thailand. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 124: 196-205.)

##### **4.3.1 The effect of carbon and sulfur sources on the growth of strain MAL 1HM19**

About the carbon sources characterization, MAL 1HM19 was able grow on the media containing galactose (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub>), fructose (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub>), acetate (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), glucose (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub>), pyruvate (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and succinate (C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) (Table 4.2). However, the strain MAL 1HM19 did not utilize lactose as the carbon source in these tests. Meanwhile, the growth of strain MAL 1HM19 in the medium containing sulfide and S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> was observed and no growth was noticed in the presence of tetrathionate (S<sub>4</sub>O<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup>).

#### 4.3.2 Morphological characteristics, pH and temperature range of strain MAL 1HM19

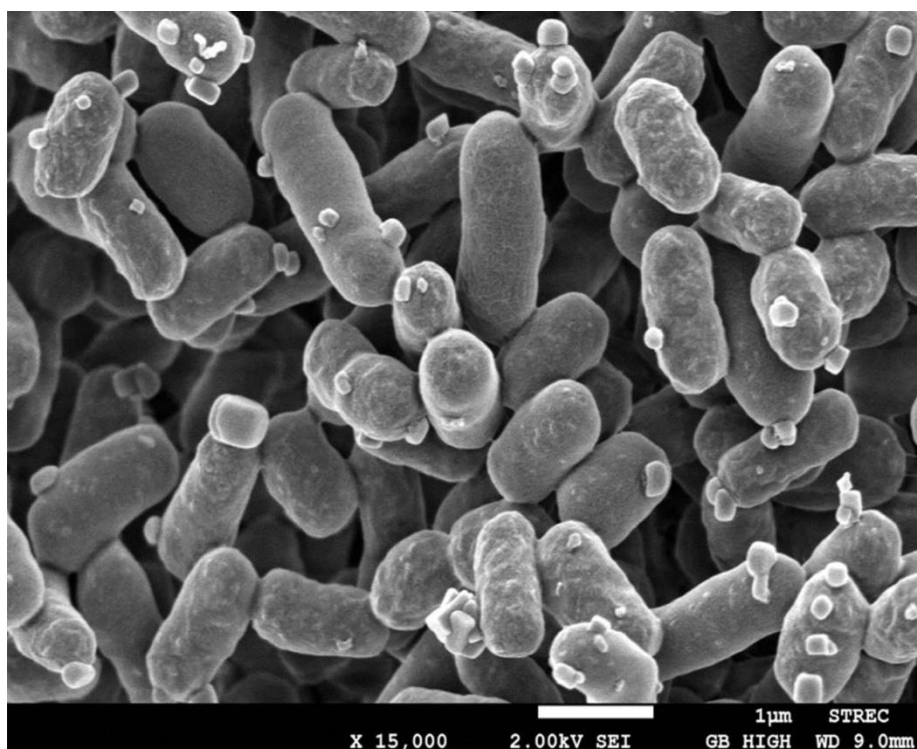
The colonies of strain MAL 1HM19 grown on mCSB medium were entire, opaque, circular, smooth, creamy and raised after 2 d of culturing. Strain MAL 1HM19 is rod-shaped, gram-negative, non-spore former with a length and width of 0.8 to 1.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively (Table 4.2, Figure 4.5). Strain MAL 1HM19 is also able to grown in the pH range of 7.0 to 9.0. The growth of this strain was observed in a temperature range of 20 to 50  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The strain MAL 1HM19 is mesophilic bacteria although this bacteria was isolated from the hot spring where the temperature is  $\sim$  60-70  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . However, the place where the water and the sediment samples were collected had lower temperatures.





**Table 4.2** Major characterization of strain MAL 1HM19 (Watsuntorn *et al.*, 2017).

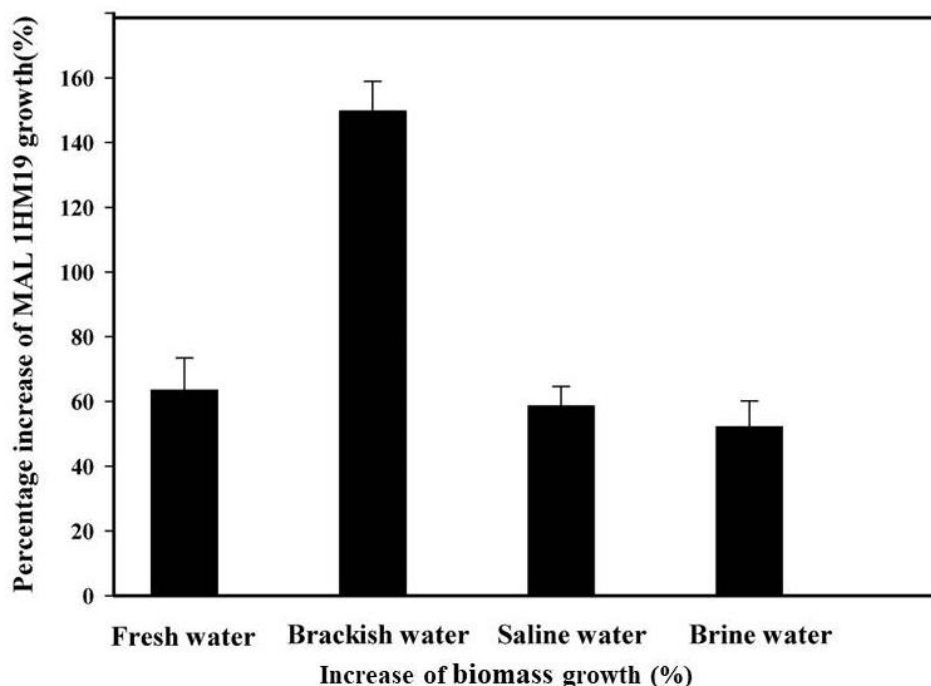
<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Value</b>
<i>Morphology</i>	
Shape	Rod-shaped
Length ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	0.8-1.6
Width ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	0.4-0.8
Length ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	0.8-1.6
Spore formation	-
Gram stain	-
<i>Anaerobic growth</i>	
Sulfide (5-15 mM)	+
Thiosulfate	+
Tetrathionate	-
<i>Carbon source</i>	
Acetate	+
Glucose	+
Galactose	+
Fructose	+
Lactose	-
Pyruvate	+
Succinate	+
<i>NaCl concentration (w/v)</i>	
0.03%	+
0.7%	+
3%	+
7%	+
Growth pH	7.0-9.0
Growth temperature	20-50 °C



**Figure 4.5** SEM micrographs of strains MAL 1HM19 grown on 96 mg/L sulfide and 120 mg/L  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N (bar = 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

#### 4.3.3 Effect of NaCl concentration on the growth tolerance of strain MAL 1HM1

The effect of different NaCl concentrations in the mCSB medium such as 0.03%, 0.7%, 3% and 7% (w/v) that represents the fresh, brackish, saline and brine conditions, respectively, on the growth of NR-SOB were tested. The highest growth of strain MAL can be detected with 0.7% (w/v) NaCl under the brackish conditions. 150% increase in biomass growth ( $\text{OD}_{600}$ ) compared to the control sets (Figure 4.6) was observed. Although the original source of this strain is fresh water from Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, the strain MAL 1HM19 was able to grow under mild saline conditions. At high concentrations of NaCl, the strain MAL 1HM19 might have experienced considerable physiological stress leading to significant decrease in its cell-specific activity and growth.



**Figure 4.6** The increase of biomass growth of strain MAL 1HM19 at different NaCl concentrations.

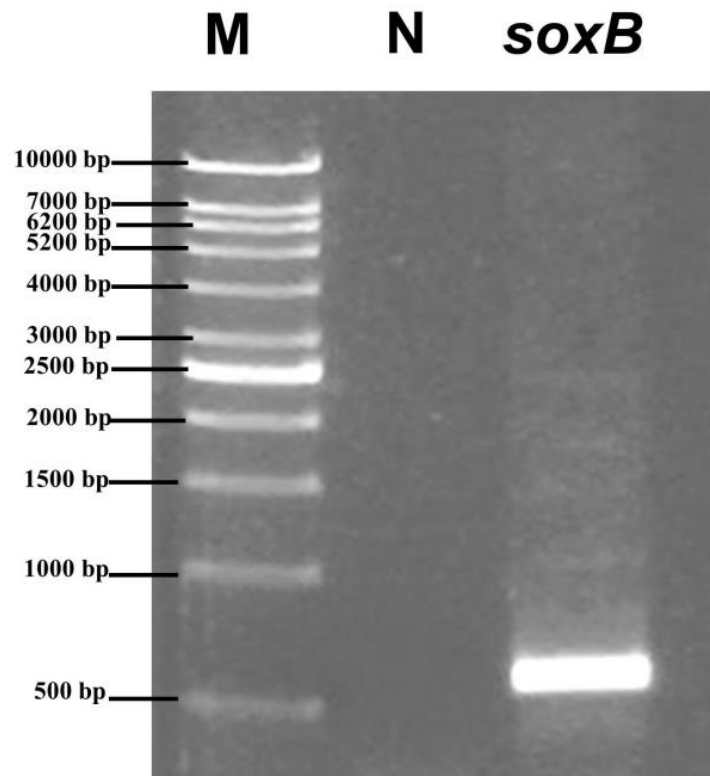
#### 4.3.4 *soxB* gene and 16S rDNA sequence and phylogenetic analysis of strain MAL 1HM19

The PCR product of *soxB* gene (~550 bp) from strain MAL 1HM19 was exposed (Figure 4.7). The *soxB* sequences demonstrated 98% identity to the genus *Paracoccus versutus* (formerly known as *Thiobacillus versutus*). *soxB* is one gene from the sulfur oxidation system which has been widely studied for its role in the sulfide oxidation pathway (Friedrich *et al.*, 2001; Luo *et al.*, 2011; Tourova *et al.*, 2013). From previous literature, it was show that the *sox* gene clusters is the major pathway of chemotrophic *Alphaproteobacteria* such as the *Paracoccus* sp. (Ghosh and Dam, 2009).

The 16S rDNA nucleotide sequences of the strain MAL 1HM19 showed 99.93% sequence similarity to the 16S rDNA sequences of *P. versutus* over the 1600

bp sequence which corresponded to the *soxB* gene results. From the results of 16S rDNA and *soxB* partial sequences, it can be confirmed that the strain MAL 1HM19 is attributed to the genus *P. versutus* belonging to *Alphaproteobacteria* (Figure 4.8). Furthermore, the Neighbor Joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree, using *E. coli* as the out-group, placed strain MAL 1HM19 within the sub-class *Alphaproteobacteria* and the genus *Paracoccus*. The 16S rDNA sequence similarity above 97 to 98% based on molecular operational taxonomic unit (MOTU) for the same MOTU/species (Janda and Abbott, 2002; Mahmood *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, strain MAL 1HM19 can be considered as a *P. versutus*.

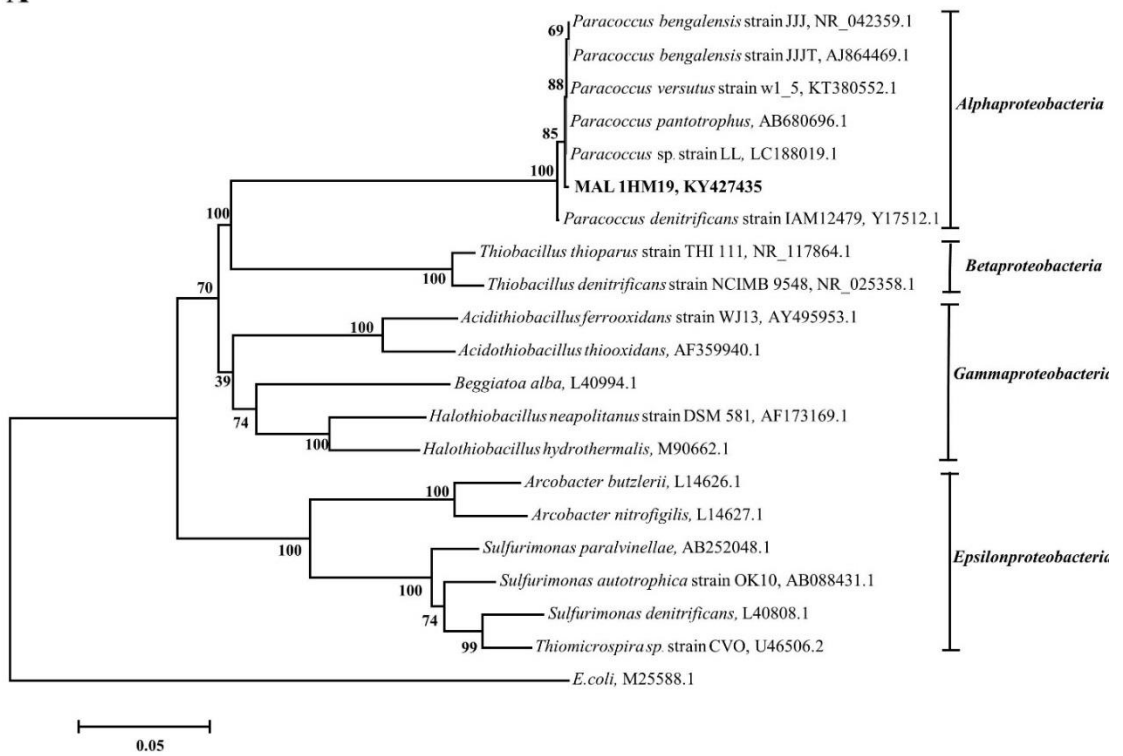


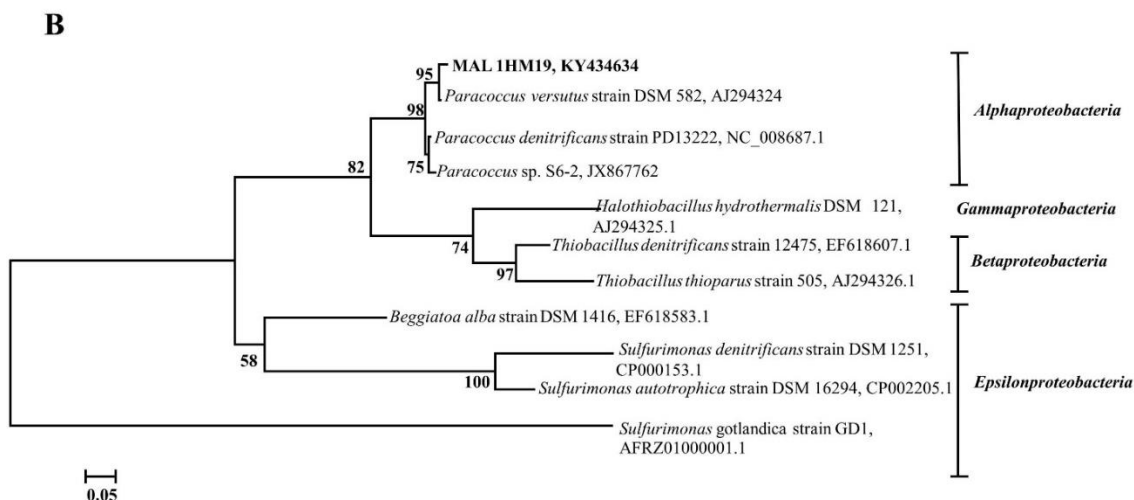


**Figure 4.7** The PCR products of *soxB*. M was the DNA marker and N was the

negative.

A





**Figure 4.8** Phylogenetic trees using the Neighbor-Joining (NJ) distance method and GenBank accession numbers are shown after the species name. A) based on 1,600 bp of the 16S rDNA gene sequence for strain MAL 1HM19, and B) based on 450 bp of the *soxB* gene sequence for strain MAL 1HM19. Scale bar substitutions represents a nucleotide divergence of 5%.

#### 4.4 Part IV: H<sub>2</sub>S removal in batch experiments under anoxic conditions

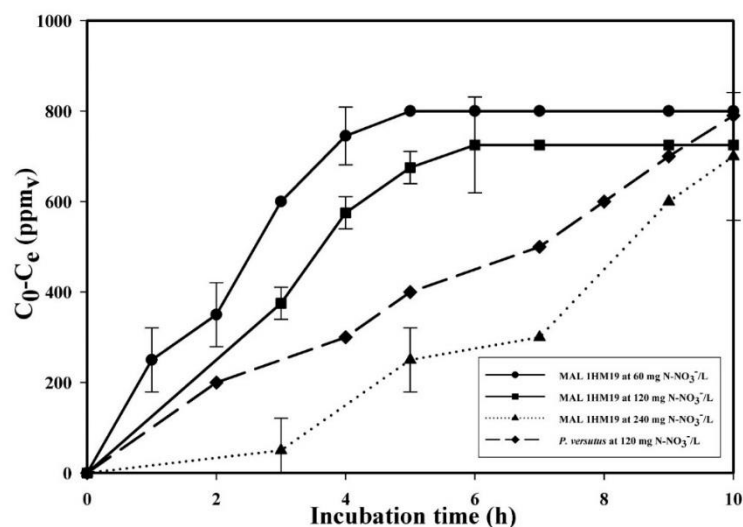
##### 4.4.1 The effect of different NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations on H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation

The zero-order equation, as described in equation (3.1), was used in this study to determine the performance of strain MAL 1HM19. The H<sub>2</sub>S in gas phase was removed completely (100%) in 5, 6 and 10 h at initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations of 60, 120 and 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L, respectively. From the zero-order equation,  $k_0$  values of this study were 60.2, 129.7 and 159.7 ppm<sub>v</sub>/h at initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations of 240, 120 and 60 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L, respectively (Figure 4.9). From these results, it was observed that *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 demonstrated the highest  $k_0$  value at the lowest concentration of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N. Consequently, the MAL 1HM19 growth at 60 mg

$\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L was the most suitable  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  oxidation in the gas-phase which can be seen from the highest  $k_0$  values (159.7  $\text{ppm}_v/\text{h}$ ) for completely removing 700  $\text{ppm}_v$  of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  within 5 h. The high concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N (240 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L) in this study might affect the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal. The decrease of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal at high  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations might be due to the suppression by  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Literature reports have shown that high  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations of 47 mM can inhibit the activity of NR-SOB (Oh *et al.*, 2000; Cardoso *et al.*, 2006).

Furthermore,  $k_0$  from *P. versutus* DSM 582 was 77.0  $\text{ppm}_v/\text{h}$  at 120 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L. The  $k_0$  values by strain MAL 1HM19 was almost 2 folds higher than the  $k_0$  value obtained from *P. versutus* DSM 582 which implies that MAL 1HM19 had the faster  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  oxidized reaction than *P. versutus* DSM 582. From these results, it was affirmed that strain MAL 1HM19 had a potential for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal, at high concentrations and within a short time.





**Figure 4.9** Zero-order reaction of H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation by strain MAL 1HM19 at different initial N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations of (●) 60, (■) 120 and (▲) 240 mg N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/L, and (◆) compared to *P. versutus* DSM 582. All data are shown as the mean ± SD, derived from three independent replicates, except for the data of using *P. versutus* DSM 582 as inoculum which was derived from one independent replicate.

#### 4.4.2 Sulfide (S<sup>2-</sup>) and sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) removal in aqueous phase

The sulfide profiles at different initial concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N are shown in Figure 4.10. Sulfide removal in aqueous phase was 28% and 25% during incubation with an initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration of 120 and 60 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L, respectively. The control sets without any biomass also showed H<sub>2</sub>S removal, which was presumably due to spontaneous chemical sulfide oxidation. The H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in the media at initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration of 240 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N/L was constant in both strain MAL 1HM19 and the cell-free control. Even the novel strain MAL 1HM19 demonstrated its good ability to remove H<sub>2</sub>S in gas phase. In order to understand the dynamics of H<sub>2</sub>S removal, further tests should be performed using living and dead cells (sterilized controls), and the initial concentrations of both H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N should be varied from low to high levels to understand the synergistic or antagonistic effects.

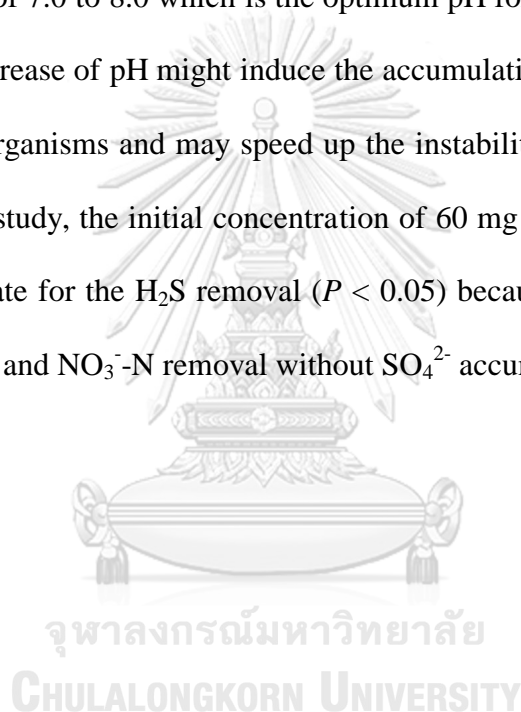
According to Bentzen (1995), the addition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N can increase the microbial competition by altering the degradation pathway of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in sewage. On the other hand, the presence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N is beneficial because it alters the redox potential and supports the growth of autotrophic nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacteria (Garcia-de-Lomas *et al.*, 2006; Widdel, 1989).

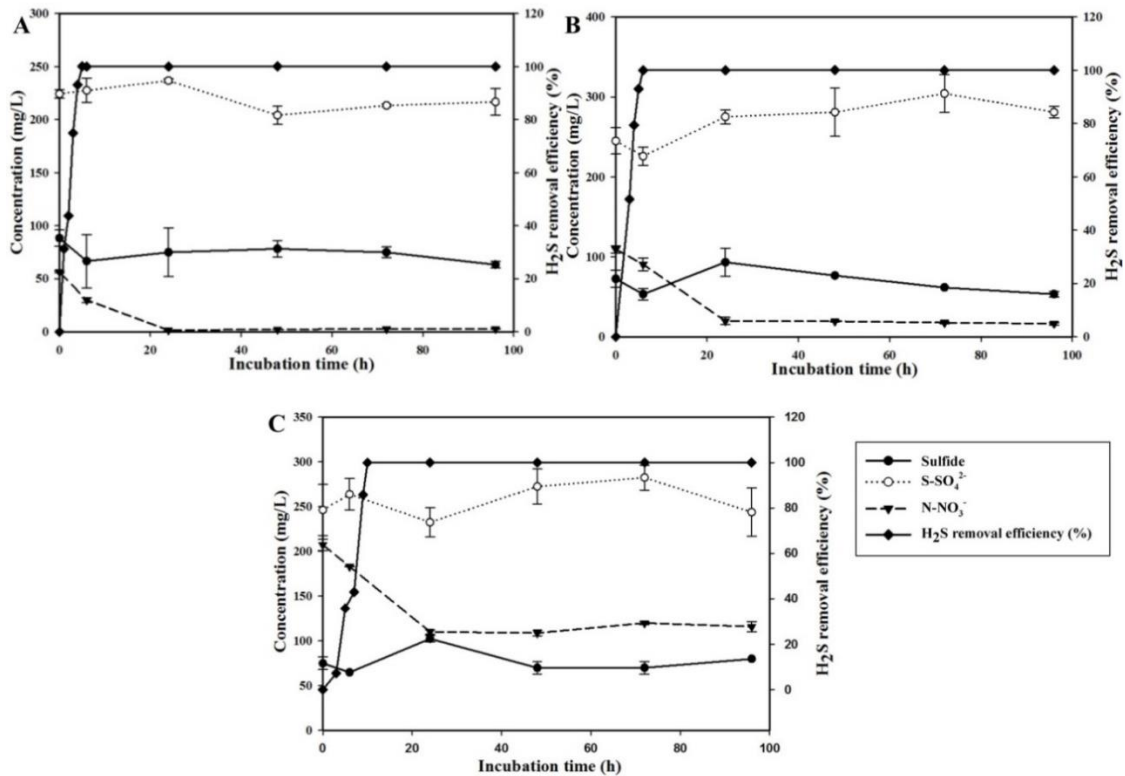
The major product of the sulfide oxidation reaction of this study was  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ . 15% and 18% of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  were detected at initial concentrations of 120 and 240 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L (Figure 4.10). The  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations in all the incubations did not increase exponentially because  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  was also present initially in the medium at concentrations of ~ 225 mg/L (Equation (2.1)). The main end product during incubations with low concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is  $\text{S}^\circ$  which supported by previous reports (Krishnakumar and Manilal, 1999; Cardoso *et al.*, 2006). Nonetheless, there are some discrepancies in the literatures because another study has shown the formation of  $\text{S}^\circ$  at high concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Reyes-Avila *et al.*, 2004).

#### 4.4.3 $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N, $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N profiles and pH in the liquid-phase

~97% of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was reduced at initial  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration of 60 mg/L. 87% and 44% of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N were removed at an initial  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration of 120 and 240 mg/L, respectively. The same patterns of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal were noticed in all the tested experimental conditions.  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was removed instantly within the first 24 h and after that, its concentration remained constant in the bottles (Figure 4.10). From these results, it can be assumed that this strain of NR-SOB can quickly use the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N as an electron acceptor. In a previous study by An *et al.* (2010), the consortium dominated by *Thiomicrospira* sp. strain CVO showed slow  $\text{NO}_3^-$  removal rate throughout the phase of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  production at initial concentrations of 2.1 mM sulfide

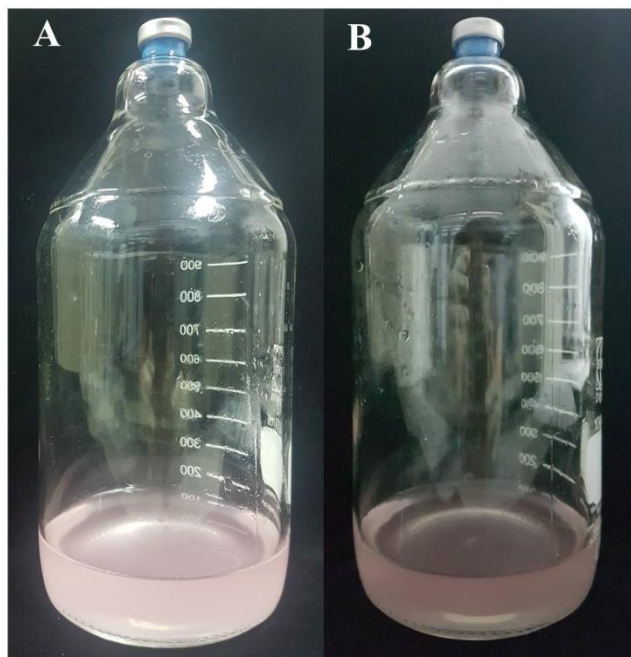
and 10 mM  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . In this study, the  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N concentrations were 0.57, 0.31 and 0.57 mg N- $\text{NO}_2^-$  at 60, 120 and 240 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L, respectively. After complete  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal from the gas phase, the  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N was not detected and it can be presumed that the production of N- $\text{NO}_2^-$  was only temporary and it was converted to other form of nitrogen according to the denitrification pathway:  $\text{NO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 \rightarrow \text{N}_2$  (Prescott *et al.*, 2003; Soreanu *et al.*, 2008). The pH values throughout the experiment were in the range of 7.0 to 8.0 which is the optimum pH for the denitrification (Cai *et al.*, 2008). The increase of pH might induce the accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  resulting in the toxicity to microorganisms and may speed up the instability of the system. Based on the results of this study, the initial concentration of 60 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L was found to be the most appropriate for the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal ( $P < 0.05$ ) because this condition obtained the highest sulfide and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal without  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  accumulation.





**Figure 4.10** H<sub>2</sub>S removal efficiency and sulfide (S<sup>2-</sup>), sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) concentration profiles at initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations of (A) 60, (B) 120 and (C) 240 mg/L. Data are shown as the mean ± SD, derived from three independent replicates.

The highest OD<sub>600</sub> values in the different incubations were observed at the time when H<sub>2</sub>S in the gas phase was completely removed. After that, the turbidity as well as the OD<sub>600</sub> values slightly decreased (Figure 4.11). These results can be correlated to the previous findings described in Section 4.2.5.



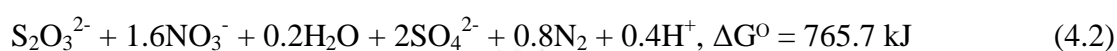
**Figure 4.11** The turbidity of mCSB medium (A) at 6 h of incubation with an initial  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration of 120 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L, and (B) after 6 h of incubation.

#### 4.4.4 Comparison between sulfide ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ) and thiosulfate ( $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ ) as sulfur sources for the growth of MAL 1HM19

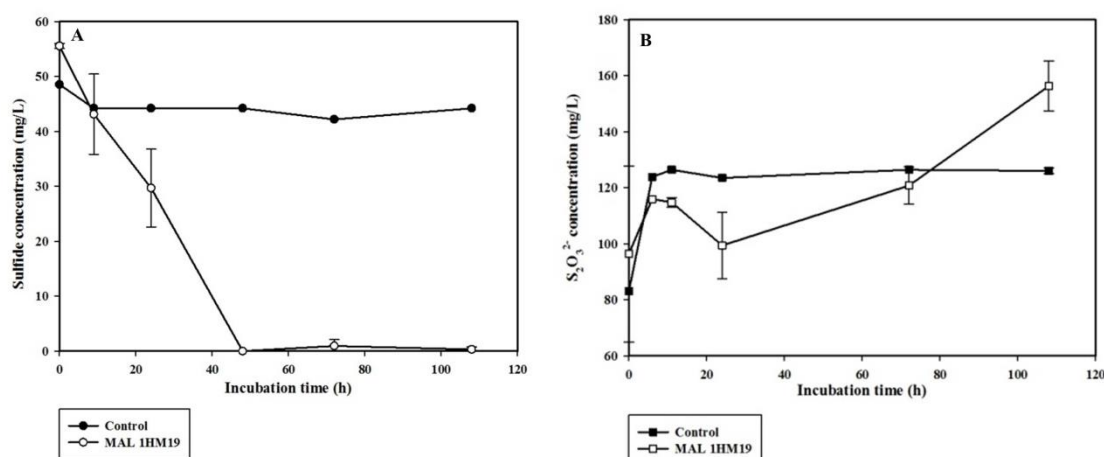
##### 4.4.4.1 Sulfide and $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ profiles in batch experiments

In order to test the ability of the microorganisms to use  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  instead of sulfide, different batch experiments were carried out. The results showed that the sulfide concentrations in the aqueous phase were reduced completely within 48 h (Figure 4.12A). These results correlated to the previous finding as shown in this thesis, as well as the previous study by Watsuntorn *et al.* (2017). Moreover, this results strongly supported the fact that the strain MAL 1HM19 can use sulfide as an energy source. In the case of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ , its concentrations in the aqueous phase were almost constant and it only slightly increased from 72 h until 108 h (Figure 4.12B). The metabolic pathway of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  utilization by the *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19

was not clearly understood in this study. However, it can be assumed that the strain MAL 1HM19 cannot use  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  as a sole energy source.  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  is the key intermediate of the sulfur cycle (Matanhike, 2017). Tang *et al.* (2009) reported  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  oxidation by *Thiobacillus denitrificans* and *Thiomicrospira denitrificans* which are normally known as sulfur bacteria and belong to the NR-SOB that can also simultaneously perform anaerobic denitrification by reducing  $NO_3^-$  to  $N_2$  as shown in equation (4.2):



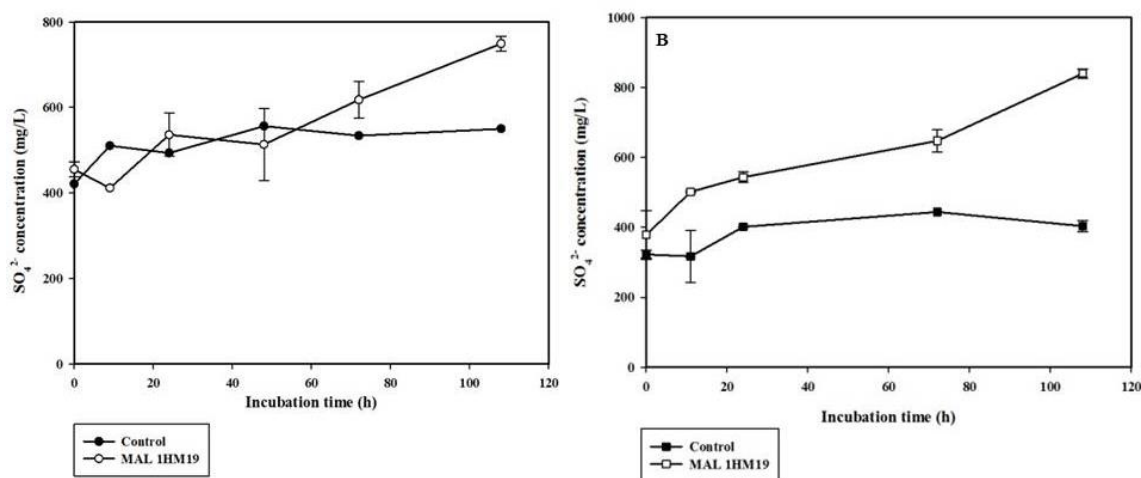
This observation and results are different from previous researches which have reported that the metabolic activity of NR-SOB was considerably higher with  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  compared to other sulfur compound such as  $S^0$  or sulfide. In addition, there are many literatures that have reported that  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  is an intermediate compound of sulfate ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ) oxidation and it can also be used as an electron donor than sulfide. Due to the non-toxic and readily bioavailable properties of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$ , the use of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  has shown to facilitate high denitrification and sulfur oxidation rates (Cardoso *et al.*, 2006).  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  oxidation to  $SO_4^{2-}$  is a detoxification method by heterotrophic bacteria.  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  can improve the carbon assimilation rate resulting in the higher biomass concentration of bacteria (Nicola *et al.*, 2010). Cardoso *et al.* (2006) reported that  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  was the most used electron donors than sulfide and  $S^0$  and the rates of  $NO_3^-$  removal in the presence of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  were 4.6 times higher than the other sulfur sources.



**Figure 4.12** (A) H<sub>2</sub>S and (B) S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> profiles. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from two independent replicates.

#### 4.4.4.2 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> profiles in batch experiments

SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was detected in both experiments (Figure 4.13). The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> formation using sulfide as an electron donor was generated from the biological activity by strain MAL 1HM19 *via* the complete sulfide oxidation pathway. These results fit well with the previous study by Watsuntorn *et al.* (2017) as well as the batch experiment reported in Section 4.4.2. However, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> formation was also detected in the experiment when S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> was used as the electron donor despite no removal of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> from the aqueous solution. The formation of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> as a product using S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> might also be from S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> disproportionation reaction or the spontaneous chemical reaction that does not involve the biological activity of strain MAL 1HM19 (S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> + H<sub>2</sub>O  $\rightarrow$  SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> + H<sub>2</sub>S). According to these chemical mechanisms, the disproportionation of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> yields only a small amount of free energy and it is an important process for the transformation of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> in aquatic ecosystems. Nevertheless, further studies should be carried out to understand the real biochemical mechanisms using adequate control experiments at varying pH conditions.



**Figure 4.13**  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  profiles during (A) sulfide as the sulfur source and (B)  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  as the sulfur source. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from two independent replicates.

#### 4.4.4.3 $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N profiles in batch experiments

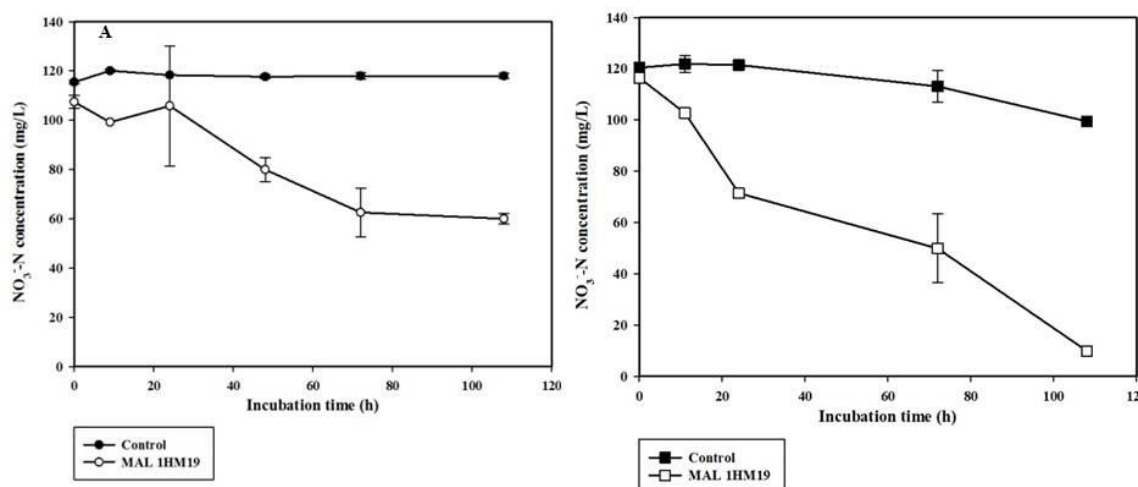
44 % of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations was removed when sulfide was used as the electron donor and > 91%  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal was achieved when  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  was used as the electron donor (Figure 4.14). The  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal in the presence of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  was higher than the removals observed using sulfide in all the batch experiments. One of the probable reasons might be that the strain MAL 1HM19 can use  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N and  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  without using the sulfur oxidation pathway. *P. versutus* is one of the denitrifying bacteria that can consume only  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N as an electron acceptor.

The genus of *Paracoccus* is widely present in aquatic and deep sub-surface as well as waste treatment plants (Baker *et al.*, 1998; Kumar and Spiro, 2017). *Paracoccus* sp. have also demonstrated high efficiency of denitrification reactors (Wang *et al.*, 2015) and several studies have applied this genus of bacteria for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal from wastewater under both anaerobic and aerobic conditions (Liu *et al.*,



2012; Shi *et al.*, 2013). Previously, Liu *et al.* (2012) reported the efficiency of *Paracoccus* sp. strain YF1 isolated from activated sludge for the removal of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N contamination in the wastewater and showed a  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rate of 4.57 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$  /L h at an initial concentration of 100  $\text{NO}_3^-$  mg/L (23 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L). Furthermore, *P. versutus* LYM which was isolated from seabed sludge served as an efficient candidate to remove high  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations from inorganic medium under aerobic conditions (Shi *et al.*, 2013).

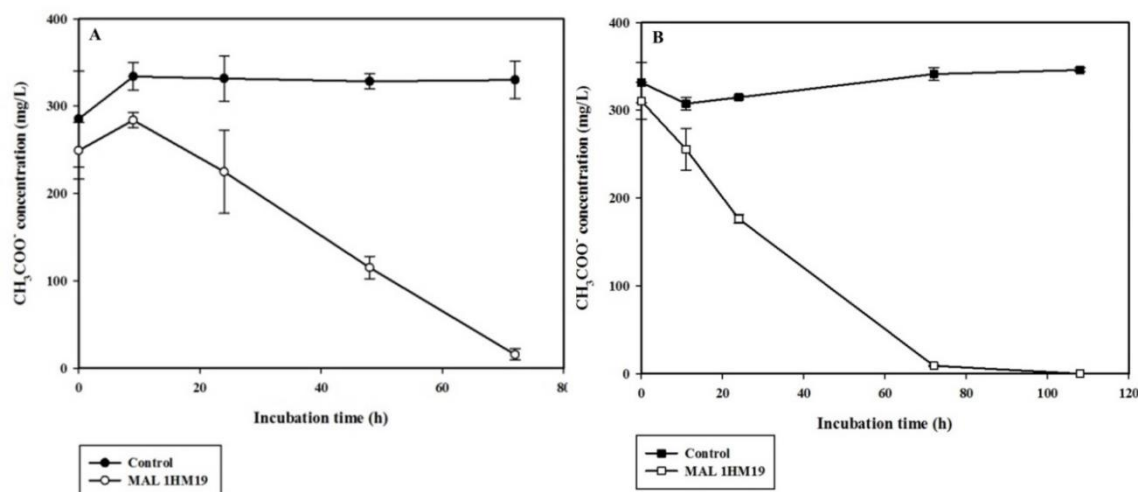
In this study,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N formation was observed as an intermediate product *via* the denitrification step in both experiments. The highest  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N concentrations were 7.2 and 11.0 mg/L of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N from the experiments with  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  and sulfide, respectively. After that, the  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N was not detected in both the experiments. It was therefore assumed that  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N was completely removed to  $\text{N}_2$  according to the denitrification pathway shown in Section 4.4.3.



**Figure 4.14**  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N profiles during (A) sulfide as the sulfur source, and (B)  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  as the sulfur source. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from two independent replicates.

#### 4.4.4.4 $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ profiles in batch experiments

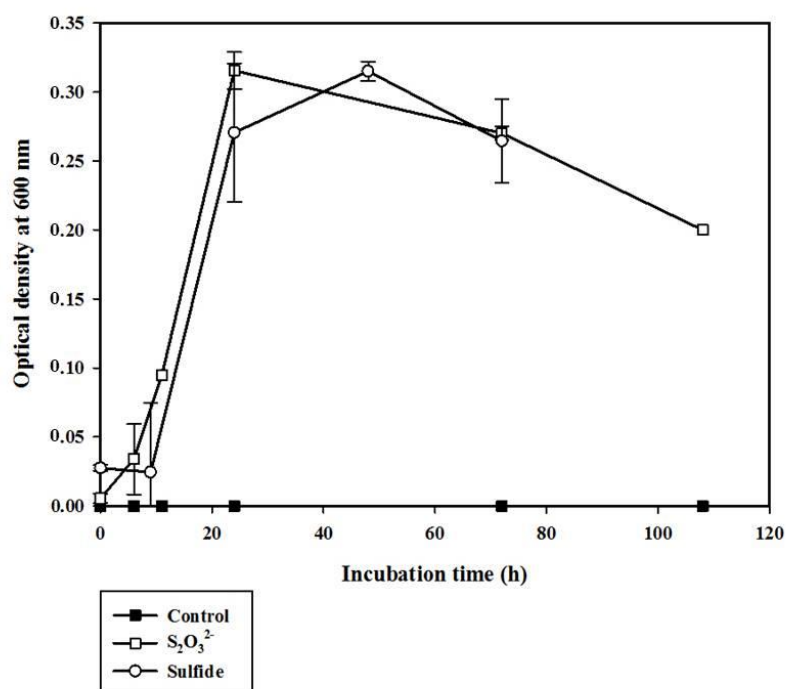
$\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  consumption was almost 100% (Figure 4.15) in both experiments. This clearly indicates the fact that  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  is the main carbon source of this study and it was totally degraded by the activity of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19. The  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  oxidation occurred in order to gain the energy source for strain MAL 1HM19 apart from the sulfide oxidation. Moreover, the presence of  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  has shown to enhance the total denitrification rate as well as decrease the lag phase of denitrification (Cardoso *et al.*, 2006).



**Figure 4.15**  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  profiles during (A) sulfide as the sulfur source, and (B)  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  as the sulfur source. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from two independent

#### 4.4.4.5 Growth of NR-SOB strains

The growth patterns of strain MAL 1HM19 in the presence of both sulfur sources, as shown by their  $\text{OD}_{600}$  values, were similar in the batch assays (Section 4.2.5). Although the strain MAL 1HM19 cannot utilize  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  as the sulfur source, the  $\text{OD}_{600}$  value was higher than the  $\text{OD}_{600}$  value with sulfide (Figure 4.16). The highest  $\text{OD}_{600}$  value with  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  was obtained at 24 h while the highest  $\text{OD}_{600}$  value with sulfide was obtained at 48 h. This observation clearly indicates that the strain MAL 1HM19 grew faster in the presence of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  despite its inability to use  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  as a sulfur source. Hence, sulfide, in the form of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (gas), was selected and used as the electron donor for the strain MAL 1HM19 in further experiments that were performed in an anoxic biotrickling filter (BTF).



**Figure 4.16** Optical density values at 600 nm of the pure cultures of MAL 1HM19 using (A) sulfide as the sulfur source, and (B) S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> as the sulfur source. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SD, derived from two independent replicates.

#### 4.5 Part V: H<sub>2</sub>S removal in an anoxic biotrickling filter (BTF)

The BTF, inoculated with *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19, was operated for 188 d using NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N as an electron acceptor (liquid-phase) and continuously passing H<sub>2</sub>S (gas-phase) under anoxic conditions. In this study, the BTF operations were divided into three phases including (i) fed-batch mode, (ii) continuous mode and (iii) shock loads with different, yet high concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S. In order to evaluate the ability of continuous H<sub>2</sub>S removal under anoxic BTF conditions, N<sub>2</sub> was used as the carrier gas and it was passed at a flow rate of 60 L/h.

##### 4.5.1 H<sub>2</sub>S profiles in the anoxic BTF

###### 4.5.1.1 BTF operation with nutrient supply in fed-batch mode

During Phase I, period I of the anoxic BTF operation, 100% H<sub>2</sub>S removal was detected instantly after starting the BTF, within almost one day (Figure 4.17A) resulting in the production of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> which clearly demonstrated the biological activity of the immobilized cells of strain MAL 1HM19 to remove gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>S. In this study, the good removal of H<sub>2</sub>S was also possibly due to the continuously trickling nutrient solution, i.e. from the top of the filter bed, which might have also absorbed the gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>S. The acclimatization stage of this study was nearly similar to a previous work by Fernández *et al.* (2014). In that study, high RE of H<sub>2</sub>S was observed since the beginning of anoxic BTF operation because the inoculum was obtained from a previously operated BTF operated under the same conditions. During the acclimation stage, 100% RE of H<sub>2</sub>S was achieved. The initial H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations used in this study was greater than the previous report by Nisola *et al.* (2010). According to the authors, the inlet concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S for the BTF inoculated with *Bordetella* sp. Sulf-8 was 50 ppm<sub>v</sub> and it was completely consumed within 3 d. The inoculation of microorganisms in BTF is more arduous than the BF due to difficulty to form the biofilm by microorganisms on the inert material as well as the shear stress created due to the trickling nutrient solution (Jiang *et al.*, 2009).

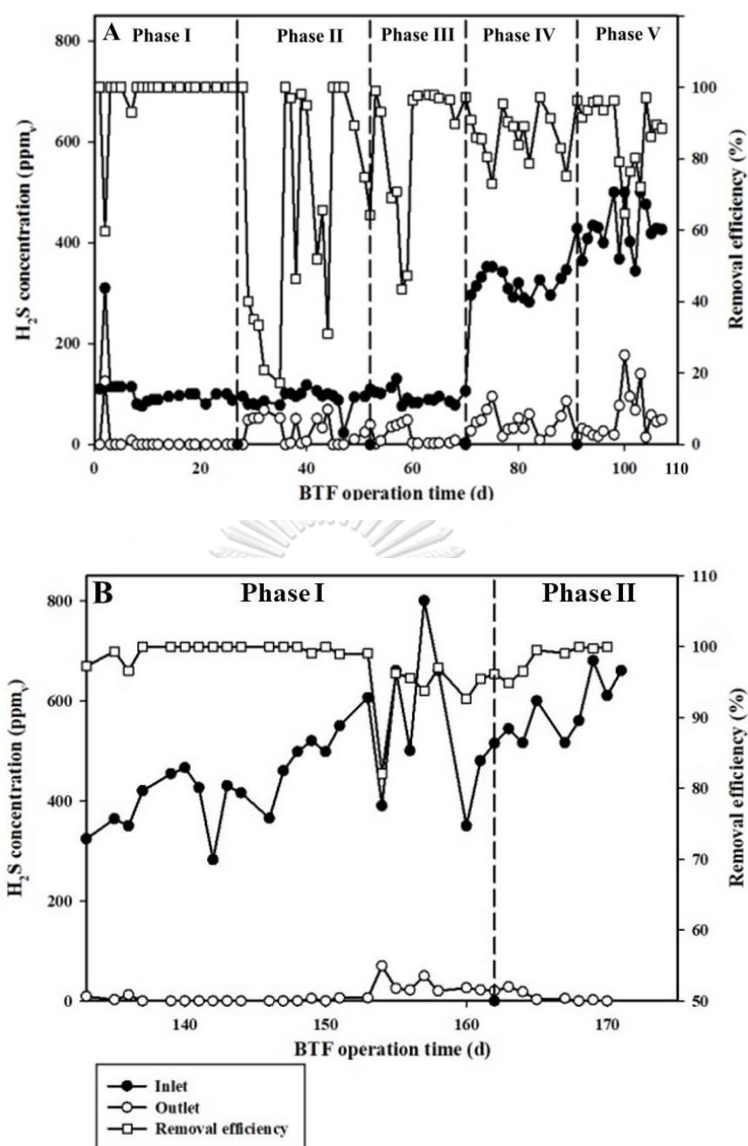
During period II of BTF operation, i.e. in the absence of CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup>, the RE of H<sub>2</sub>S dramatically reduced from 100% to almost 17% in 7 d; however, it reached a RE of 100% after replacing the nutrient medium. Nevertheless, the RE of H<sub>2</sub>S was slightly reduced to 31-46% when the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N was complete consumed. The RE of H<sub>2</sub>S was ~70%; it might be because the microorganisms was able to easily adapt to the new conditions without CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup> as the carbon source. The RE of H<sub>2</sub>S depended on the concentration of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N in the liquid-phase. During this period, the dependence of

$\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was noticed. The RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  decreased only slightly when the concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N in the trickling medium was almost zero and it immediately increased to values as high as 100% when  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was introduced to the BTF. This anoxic BTF was fed a mCSB medium that was refreshed once every week following the recommendations of a previous study by Prado *et al.* (2004). The RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  reached >89% when the new nutrient solution containing  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was passed to the reactor. In this study, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentrations did not significantly affect the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal. Even when the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N was completely consumed, the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was still > 89%.

During the period IV, the inlet  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration was increased to 300 ppm<sub>v</sub>, correspond to an inlet load of 8.37 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h, resulting in a slight decline in RE to 73%. When the inlet  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration was increased further to 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> (loading rate - 14.14 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h), the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was still > 72%.

#### 4.5.1.2. BTF operation with continuous supply of nutrients

When the operational mode of the BTF was changed from fed-batch mode to continuous mode, at an inlet  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration of 500 ppm<sub>v</sub>, the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  increased to values > 92% (Figure 4.17B). These RE values were higher than the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  observed during fed-batch mode of operation. This might be due to the continuous supply and availability of nutrients for the microorganism attached to the PUF packing material of the BTF. Such operation might have increased the activity of the biomass, leading to good removal of both  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N in the BTF.



**Figure 4.17** H<sub>2</sub>S profiles and removal efficiencies in the anoxic BTF: (A) fed-batch, and (B) continuous mode of nutrient supply.

#### 4.5.1.3 Effect of shock loads on H<sub>2</sub>S removal

In industrial settings, the concentrations of pollutants in emissions can vary depending on the unit operation, the raw materials used, the products and also the time of operation in a day. Hence, it is important to design bioreactors that can be versatile in handling fluctuating inlet concentrations and/or flow rates. At the lab-scale, it will be useful to test such conditions in order to understand the consequences

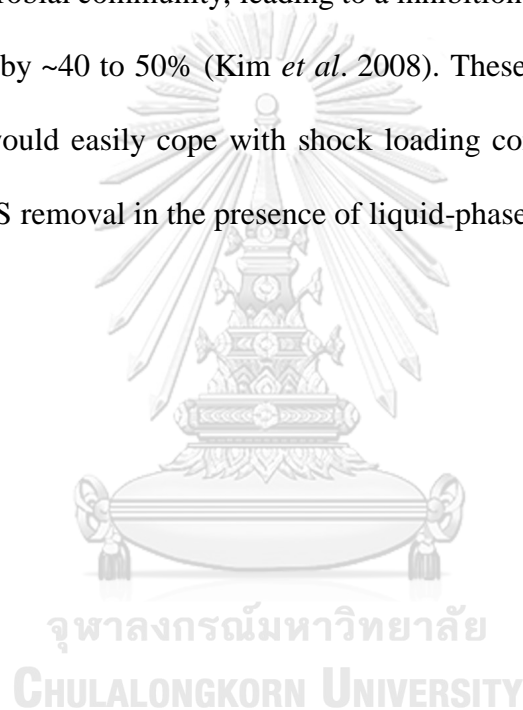
of shock loading situations, i.e. a sudden, unexpected increase or decrease in gas flow rate and concentration, and also envisage the time required by the biomass to recover and demonstrate stable/steady-state removal efficiencies (Kasperczyk and Urbaniec, 2015). Several previous studies have tested the effect of shock-loading or feast and famine conditions in BTF. The results from these studies have proven that an active BTF will not fail completely under such situations, instead, it will be able to operate under fluctuating conditions of pollutant loads for a short time and once the loads are restored to values that are less than the critical load of that system, the BTF will yield maximum degradation of the pollutant (Rene *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2008).

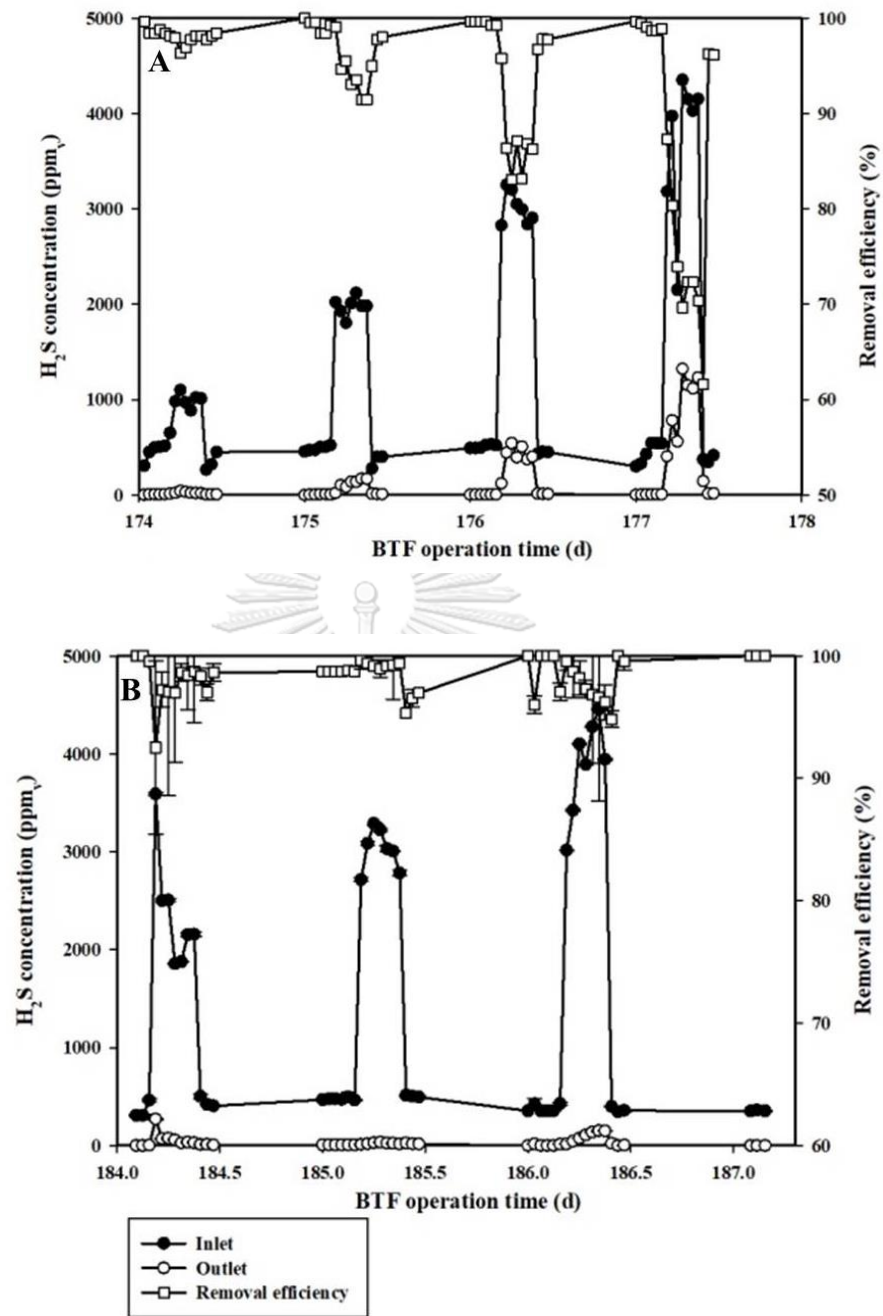
The results from shock loading experiments are shown in Figure IV-18. Two sets of experiments were conducted in order to ascertain the repeatability of the transient tests and understand the activity of the microorganisms. In the first set of experiments (Figure 4.18A), the inlet H<sub>2</sub>S concentration was increased from a previous value of 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> to 1000 ppm<sub>v</sub> during the first shock load. Thereafter the H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations were increased to 2000, 3000, and 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub>, respectively, corresponding to an inlet load of 28.29, 56.58, 84.87 and 113.161 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h, respectively. During these shock loads, the high H<sub>2</sub>S concentration was maintained for ~3.5 h. The RE of H<sub>2</sub>S during these successive shock load tests were > 96%, > 91%, > 83% and 61% at inlet loads of 28.29, 56.58, 84.87 and 113.161 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h (Figure 4.18A), respectively. During the restoration of the original concentrations, i.e. a H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of 500 ppm<sub>v</sub>, the RE increased to 96% (0.14 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h).

For the second set of shock loading experiments (Figure 4.18B), the inlet load of H<sub>2</sub>S was 56.58, 84.87 and 113.161 g S/m<sup>3</sup>·h (concentrations - 2000, 3000, and 4000 ppm<sub>v</sub> of H<sub>2</sub>S). During all these increased H<sub>2</sub>S loading conditions, the RE was



greater than 96% and the BTF was able to show almost 100% RE when the inlet load was decreased to the  $0.14 \text{ g S/m}^3 \cdot \text{h}$  at an inlet  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration of  $500 \text{ ppm}_v$  within 1.5 h (Figure 4.18B). The RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  during the second set of shock loading experiments were higher than the first successive shock loading experiments and a satisfactory bioreactor performance was demonstrated by the BTF. Usually, in BTF or biofilters (BF), a sudden exposure to very high  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration might cause toxicity to the microbial community, leading to a inhibition of microbial activity and a decline in the RE by ~40 to 50% (Kim *et al.* 2008). These good results suggests that the anoxic BTF would easily cope with shock loading conditions and still maintain high gas-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal in the presence of liquid-phase  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$ .





**Figure 4.18** Inlet H<sub>2</sub>S concentration profiles and removal efficiencies in the BTF: (A)

1<sup>st</sup> set of H<sub>2</sub>S shock loading experiments and (B) 2<sup>nd</sup> set of H<sub>2</sub>S of shock loading experiments.

#### 4.5.2 Sulfide ( $S^{2-}$ ) and $SO_4^{2-}$ profiles in the BTF

Trace amounts of sulfide concentration in the liquid-phase (0-0.4 mg/L) were detected in the anoxic BTF during fed-batch mode of operation (Figure 4.19A). The maximum sulfide concentration in the liquid-phase during the  $H_2S$  shock load experiments was 0.7 mg/L which had no inhibitory effect on the microorganisms present in the anoxic BTF. As reported in previous works, the inhibitory concentration of undissociated and dissolved dissociated sulfide and  $H_2S$  forms are in the range of 50 to 400 and 100 to 800 mg/L, respectively (Parkin *et al.*, 1990; Pokorna *et al.*, 2015).

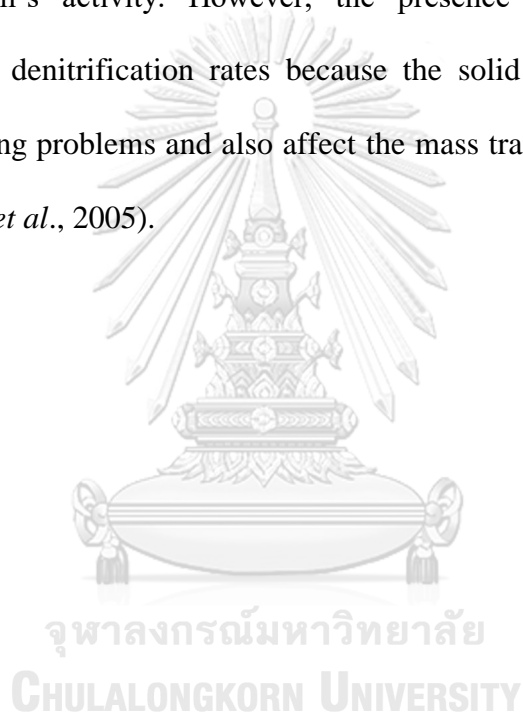
$SO_4^{2-}$  is the major product of the sulfide biodegradation pathway under anoxic conditions. The concentration of  $SO_4^{2-}$  was in the range of 900 to 1600 mg/L even when the  $H_2S$  concentration was increased from 100 to 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> (Figure 4.19B). Consequently, an increase in the  $H_2S$  concentration did not affect the  $SO_4^{2-}$  generation profiles. As shown in a previous study by Vikromvarasiri *et al.* (2017), the  $SO_4^{2-}$  production rate was constant when the inlet concentration of  $H_2S$  was below 570 ppm<sub>v</sub>.

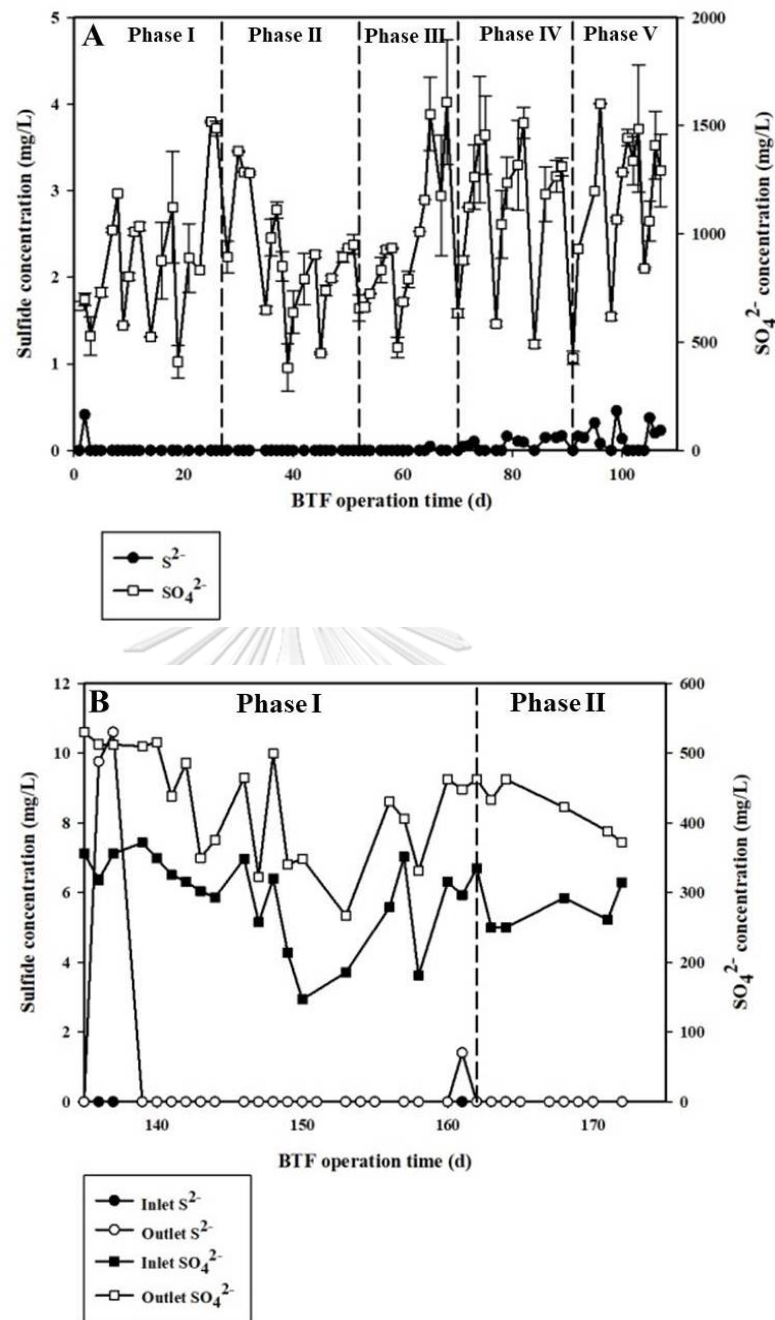
The highest  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentration was 1,600 mg/L during phase I of BTF operation, at an inlet  $H_2S$  concentration of 500 ppm<sub>v</sub> (Figure 4.19B). In this study,  $SO_4^{2-}$  formation or the presence of  $SO_4^{2-}$  in the trickling nutrient medium did not have an inhibitory effect on the microorganism nor an effect on the removal of gas-phase  $H_2S$ . This observation is consistent with the results reported in a previous BTF study by Ramírez *et al.* (2009). In that study, the BTF was inoculated with *Thiobacillus thioparus* and inhibition was not reported even when the  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentration was as high as 5,000 mg/L. According to another report, inhibition by  $SO_4^{2-}$  occurred above

1900-2400 mg/L because high  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations might increase the ionic strength of the nutrient solution (Ongcharit *et al.*, 1991). According to Jin *et al.* (2005), in a BTF inoculated with activated sludge from a wastewater treatment plant,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations  $> 1,900$  mg  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ /L was shown to inhibit  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  biodegradation. As shown in equations (2.4) and (2.5), the end-product of sulfide oxidation is associated with the initial  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration, which acts as an electron acceptor. Furthermore, complete sulfide oxidation are more thermodynamically favorable and they strongly depend on the variations of standard Gibbs free energy (Moraes *et al.*, 2012). The  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations during the continuous mode of BTF operation was less than the  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  formed during fed-batch mode of operation (247-593 mg/L) because sulfur ( $\text{S}^\circ$ ) was also produced as one of the other end-products.

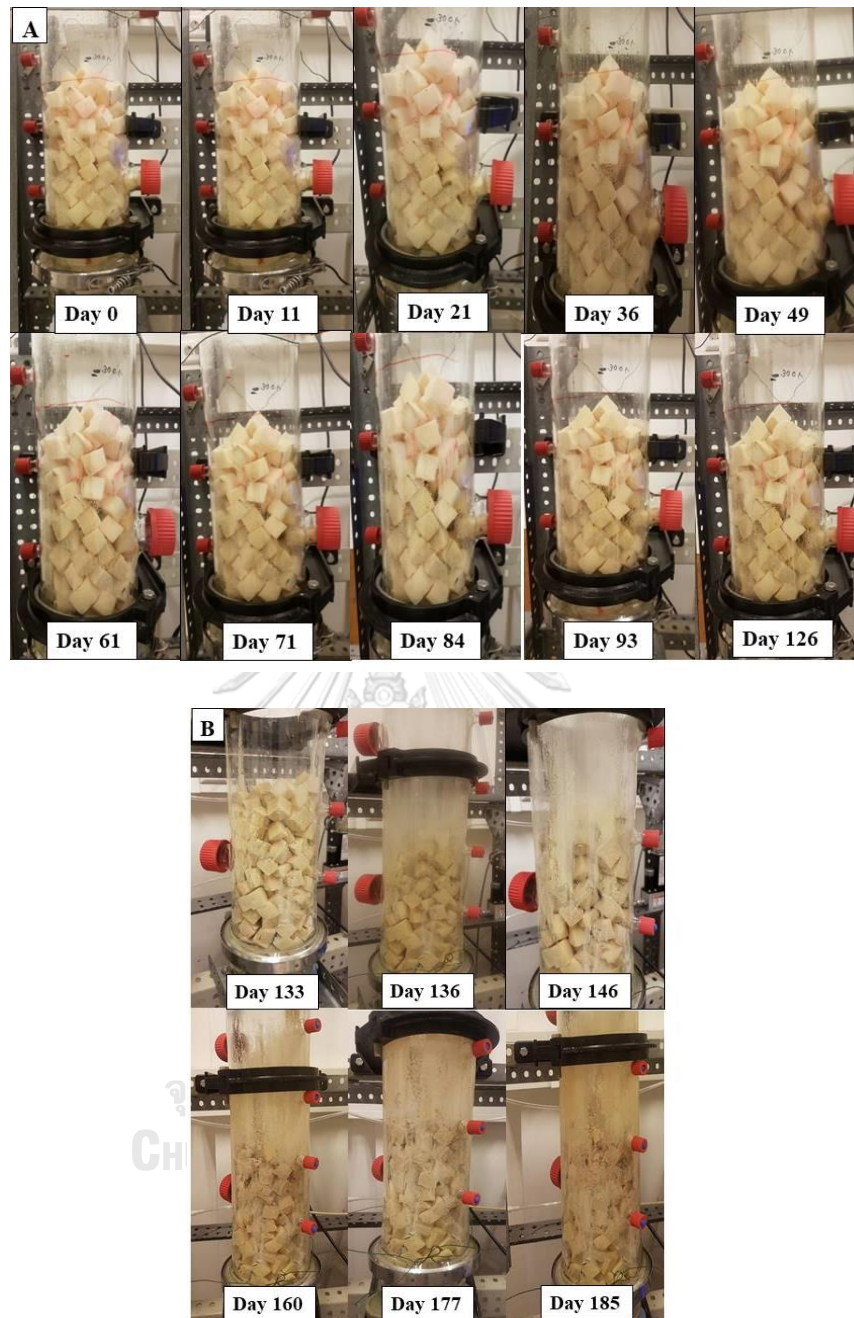
During BTF operation in continuous mode, a cream-whitish layer of precipitate covering the PUFs was observed in the BTF (Figure 4.20B). EDX analysis affirmed these precipitates as  $\text{S}^\circ$  particles (Figure 4.21). However, during fed batch mode of BTF operation,  $\text{S}^\circ$  formation was not evidenced (Figure IV). Thus, when the mode of BTF operation was changed from fed-batch mode to continuous mode, it caused variations in the S/N molar ratio. The S/N molar ratio (0.1) during continuous mode was ten times higher than the S/N molar ratio of fed batch mode (0.01-0.05). This clearly explains the fact that the presence of excess sulfide in the nutrient solution results in partial oxidation and  $\text{S}^\circ$  is generated as the intermediate product (Moraes *et al.*, 2012 Pokorna *et al.*, 2015).  $\text{S}^\circ$  formation is thermodynamically favorable in the presence of sulfide. The  $\text{S}^\circ$  is the primary product from sulfide oxidation which is faster than the second step to  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  (Reyes Avila *et al.*, 2004; Dolejs *et al.*, 2015). Another possible reason for the formation of  $\text{S}^\circ$  might be due to

the high loads of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  that was passed to the BTF. According to Li *et al.* (2011),  $\text{S}^\circ$  increased in the nutrient solution of a BTF at inlet loads ranging between 16.3 and 54.5  $\text{g H}_2\text{S}/\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{h}$ . The end-product of the sulfide oxidation pathway not only depends on the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration but also on the sulfide or other S compounds present in the bioprocess. However, it is noteworthy to mention that the accumulation of end-products from  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  oxidation including  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  or  $\text{S}^\circ$  did not have any negative effect on the microorganism's activity. However, the presence of  $\text{S}^\circ$  might lower the chemolithotrophic denitrification rates because the solid form of  $\text{S}^\circ$  would cause unexpected clogging problems and also affect the mass transfer characteristics of the reactor (Beristain *et al.*, 2005).

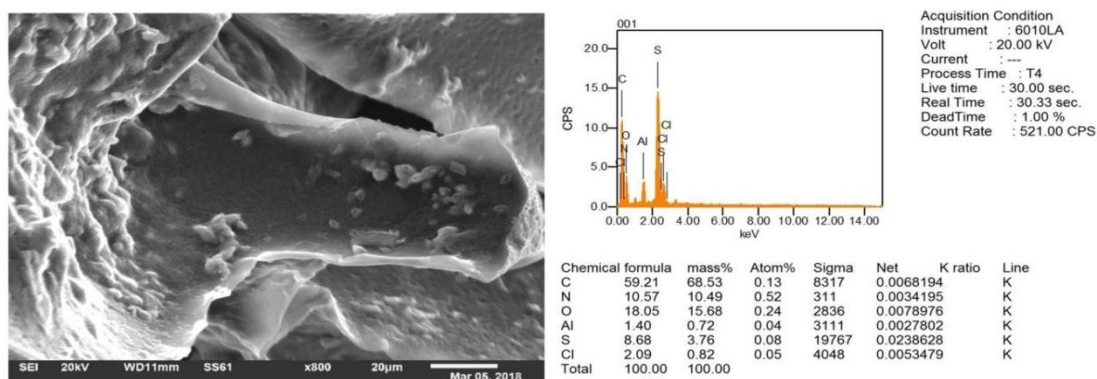




**Figure 4.19** Sulfide and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  profiles in the BTf during (A) fed-batch mode, and (B) continuous mode of operation.



**Figure 4.20** Biomass development and  $S^{\circ}$  accumulation on the packing material of the BTF during (A) fed batch mode, and (B) continuous mode of operation.



**Figure 4.21** SEM image of PUF morphology using SEM-EDS analysis from samples collected during continuous mode of BTF operation.

#### 4.5.3 Nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N) and nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N) profiles in the anoxic BTF

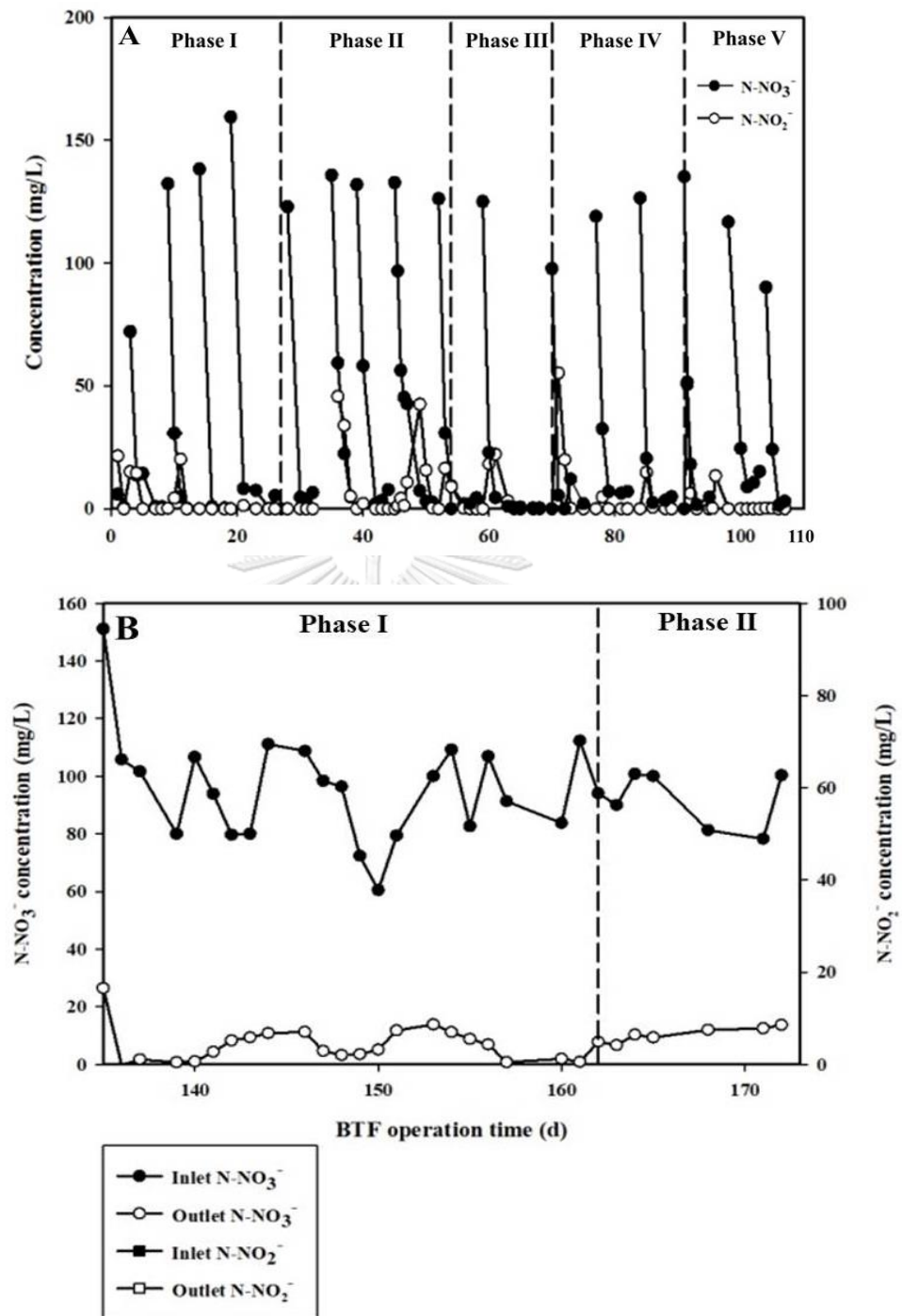
The  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal profiles throughout the anoxic BTF operation were nearly similar and almost instantaneous. During the fed-batch mode, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration was removed completely (~100%) within 2 d for each cycle (Figure 4.22A). Nearly >82%  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N consumption was also detected during the BTF operation when the nutrient medium was continuously trickled over the filter bed (Figure 4.22B). As discussed before,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N is a crucial parameter for gas-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  oxidation (Soreanu *et al.*, 2008). In a previous study, Reyes-Avila *et al.* (2004) indicated that the presence of  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  could enhance the biodegradation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N and sulfide as discussed before in Section 4.5.4.

$\text{NO}_2^-$ -N was detected as an intermediate product (0-55.0 mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N/L) which was in the range of concentration that was not inhibitory to the microorganisms. The maximum accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N in the system was observed for 3 d. The  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N profiles during the continuous mode was lower than 14 mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N/L. The accumulation pattern of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N was usually followed by its complete conversion to  $\text{N}_2$  gas. This observation is different from the report of De Gussemme *et al.* (2009). According to that study, the accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N (43 mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N/L) in a



continuous stirred tank reactor (CSTR) indicated partial denitrification and it was explained that some NR-SOB species do not have the ability to completely reduce nitrate to  $N_2$ .





**Figure 4.22** Nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N) and nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N) profiles in the BTF during (A) fed-batch mode, and (B) continuous mode of operation.

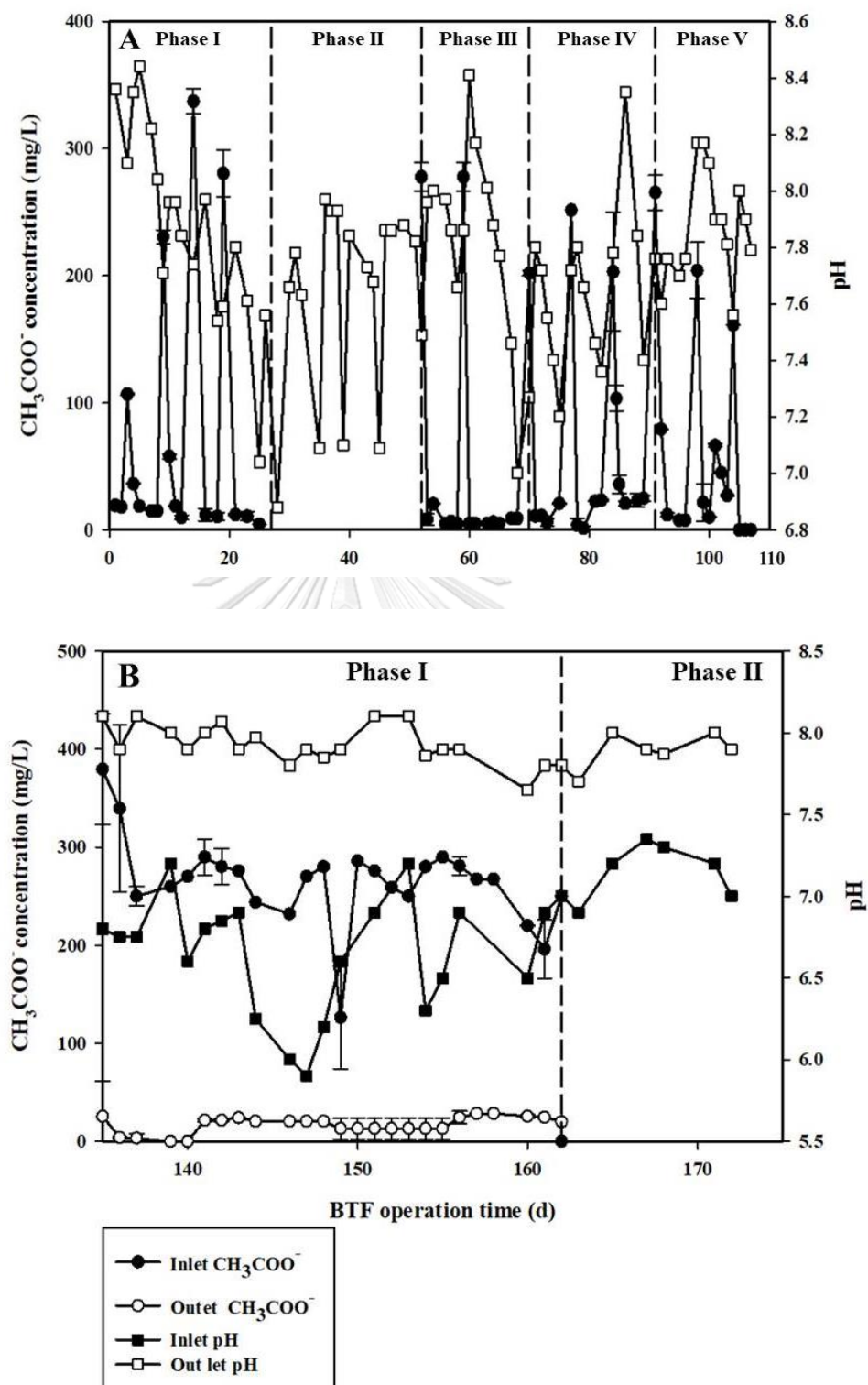
#### 4.5.4 Acetate ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ ) and pH profiles in the anoxic BTF system

100%  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  removal was observed during 188 d of anoxic BTF operation (Figure 4.23). In Phase I, period II, it was evident that the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  dramatically decreased in the absence of  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ . However, after phase II, period II, the BTF was operated in continuous mode and  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  was not added to the reactor. Yet, the RE of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was still high which indicates that the microorganisms were able to adapt to this operating condition.  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  is presumed to be easily absorbed than other inorganic carbons and consequently it improves the cell yield of bacteria. Furthermore, the lag phase of autotrophic denitrification was shorter when  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  was present in the system. In engineered systems, there are numerous NR-SOB which are adaptable to the autotrophic, heterotrophic and mixotrophic conditions. They can use both inorganic and organic carbon as their energy source, for instance *P. versutus*, *Paracoccus denitrificans*, *P. pantotrophus* and *Beggiatoa* spp. (Hagen and Nelson, 1997; Otte *et al.*, 1999). In this study, the anoxic BTF was inoculated with pure culture of *Paracoccus versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 which is one of the NR-SOB that was reported previously to grow in the presence or absence of  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ .

In both fed-batch and continuous mode of anoxic BTF operation, the initial pH value was ~6.5-7.0 and the final pH value was ~7.7-8.1 without any adjustment of pH throughout the long term operation of anoxic BTF (Figure 4.23). It can therefore be concluded that the removal of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  coupled to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N reduction at this pH value was mainly due to biological activity of NR-SOB (Soreanu *et al.*, 2008). Oh *et al.* (2001) reported that the optimum pH is in the range of 6.0-9.0 for autotrophic and heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria which is in the same pH range maintained in this study. The pH value has an impact on the concentration of sulfide in the nutrient

solution of BTF (Solcia *et al.*, 2014). The accumulation of sulfide in the liquid-phase causes toxicity to the bacteria present in the system such as chemolithoautotrophic denitrifying bacteria (Cardoso *et al.*, 2006).





**Figure 4.23** Acetate ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ ) and pH profiles in the BTF during (A) fed-batch mode, and (B) continuous mode of operation.

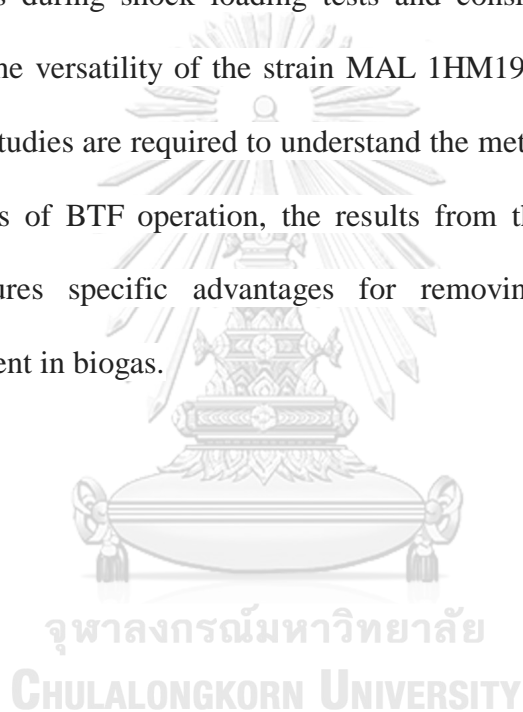
#### 4.5.5 Elimination capacity (EC) of the BTF

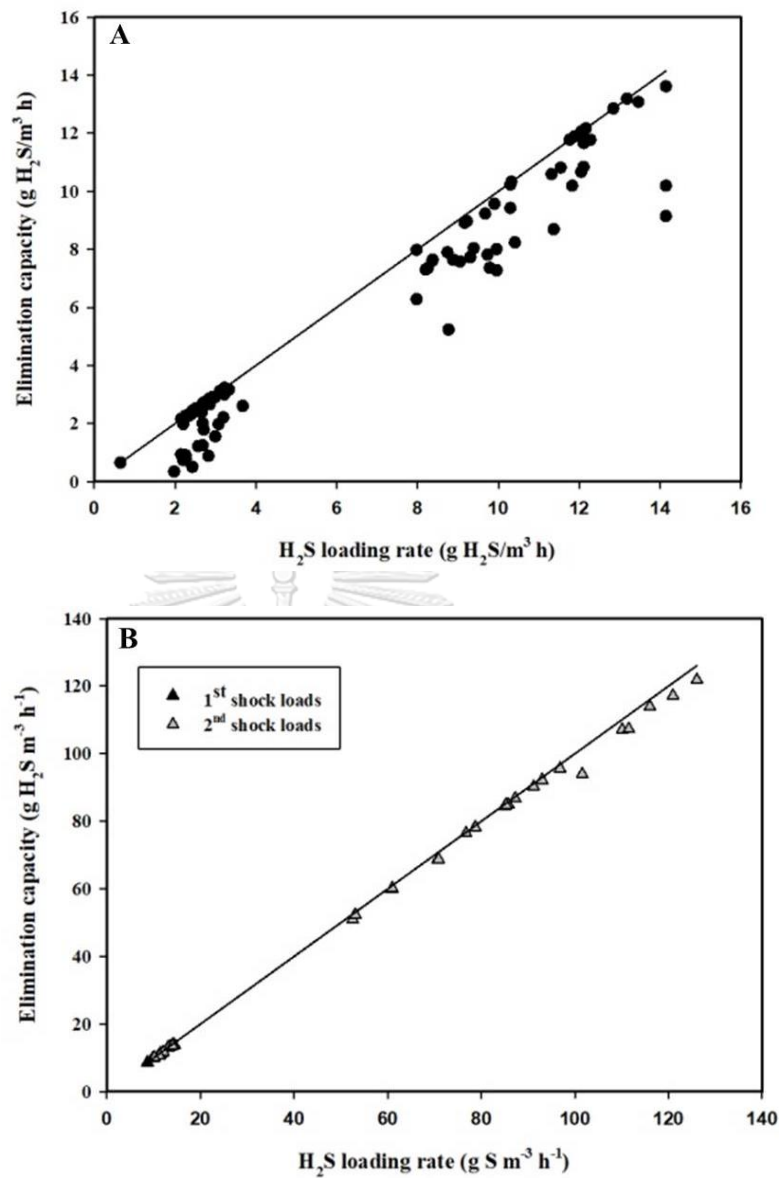
Figure 4.24 shows the EC *versus* inlet loading rate for all the experimental conditions tested in this study. To the best of our knowledge, information concerning the performance of *P. versutus* to remove H<sub>2</sub>S in a BTF has never been reported. The EC values indicate the mass of pollutant that is removed per unit of filter bed volume per time. The EC values is normally correlated to the inlet loading rate and it allows to compare the performances of different bioreactors for waste-gas treatment (Rene *et al.*, 2010).

The EC values achieved during the anoxic BTF operation are summarized in Table 4.3 It is evident from this table that the EC of phase I, period I was  $2.86 \pm 0.66$  g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h, at an inlet H<sub>2</sub>S concentration of 100 ppm<sub>v</sub>. The critical inlet loading rate (ILR<sub>crit</sub>) of the BTF was 17.26 g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h (RE = 100%) during continuous mode of reactor operation (Phase II, period II). The value of ILR<sub>crit</sub> observed in this study is higher than the previously reported values by Ramírez *et al.* (2009). The authors reported an ILR<sub>crit</sub> of 14.9 g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h (RE = 99.8%) for the biodegradation of H<sub>2</sub>S by *Thiobacillus thioparus* which was immobilized on PUFs in an aerobic BTF. However, the value of ILR<sub>crit</sub> from this study was less than the value of ILR<sub>crit</sub> observed in an aerobic BTF inoculated with *Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans* (58.7 g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h; RE > 98%) (Ramírez *et al.* 2011).

The maximum elimination capacity (EC<sub>max</sub>) values during fed batch and continuous mode of BTF operation were  $10.67 \pm 0.0$  and  $21.22 \pm 0.0$  g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h, respectively. The EC<sub>max</sub> value during H<sub>2</sub>S shock load experiment was  $121.83 \pm 0.1$  g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h (RE = 96.5 %) which was achieved at an inlet loading of  $126.08 \pm 0.14$  g S/m<sup>3</sup>.h. The performance of the anoxic BTF inoculated with *P. versutus* strain MAL

1HM19 was also compared with the literature reports (Table 4.4). It can be clearly seen that the anoxic BTF showed higher  $EC_{max}$  values compared to the  $EC_{max}$  observed in other bioreactors inoculated with heterotrophic sulfur oxidizing bacteria (SOB) as well as mixed cultures of autotrophic bacteria. The  $EC_{max}$  values of this study is comparatively lower than the  $EC_{max}$  values obtained from experiments carried out using autotrophic SOB. The good performance of the BTF in terms of reaching high  $EC_{max}$  values during shock loading tests and consistently high  $H_2S$  removal clearly indicates the versatility of the strain MAL 1HM19 to handle gas-phase  $H_2S$ . Although further studies are required to understand the metabolic engineering aspects of different modes of BTF operation, the results from this study suggest that the anoxic BTF assures specific advantages for removing  $H_2S$  and other trace contaminants present in biogas.





**Figure 4.24** Influence of H<sub>2</sub>S loading rate on the elimination capacity of the BTF during different modes of operation: (A) fed-batch and continuous, and (B) H<sub>2</sub>S shock load tests.



**Table 4.3** Inlet loading rate (ILR) and elimination capacity (EC) values obtained in this study during different phases of biotrickling filter (BTF) operation.

Phase	Period	Inlet load rate (g S/m <sup>3</sup> .h)	Elimination capacity (g S/m <sup>3</sup> .h)
I	I	2.86 ± 0.66	2.86 ± 0.66
	II	1.85 ± 0.94	1.85 ± 0.94
	III	2.12 ± 0.55	2.12 ± 0.55
	IV	7.73 ± 0.70	7.73 ± 0.70
	V	10.52 ± 1.63	10.52 ± 1.63
II	I and II	13.67 ± 3.21	13.67 ± 3.21
III	H <sub>2</sub> S shock loads	126.08 ± 0.14	121.84 ± 0.10

**Table 4.4**  $EC_{max}$  values reported in the literature for  $H_2S$  removal using different bioreactor configurations (modified from Nisola *et al.*, 2010).

Microorganism	$EC_{max}$ ( $g/m^3 \cdot h$ )	Reactor type	References
<i>Thiobacillus thiooxidans</i> AZ11	398 - 428	BF	Cho <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans</i>	83, 370	BTF	Sersu <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Aroca <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Bordetella</i> sp. Sulf-8 BTF 94	94	BTF	Nisola <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Activated sludge	51, 67	BTF	Ruokojärvi <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Hirai <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	25	BF	Huang <i>et al.</i> , 1996
<i>Thiobacillus thioparus</i>	14	BF	Aroca <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. and <i>Alcaligenes</i> sp.	20	BTF BS	Potivichayanon <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Alcaligenes faecalis</i> MU2-03	6		
<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp. MUI-03	3		
Mixed cultures of autotrophic bacteria	8	BF	Kim <i>et al.</i> , 2008

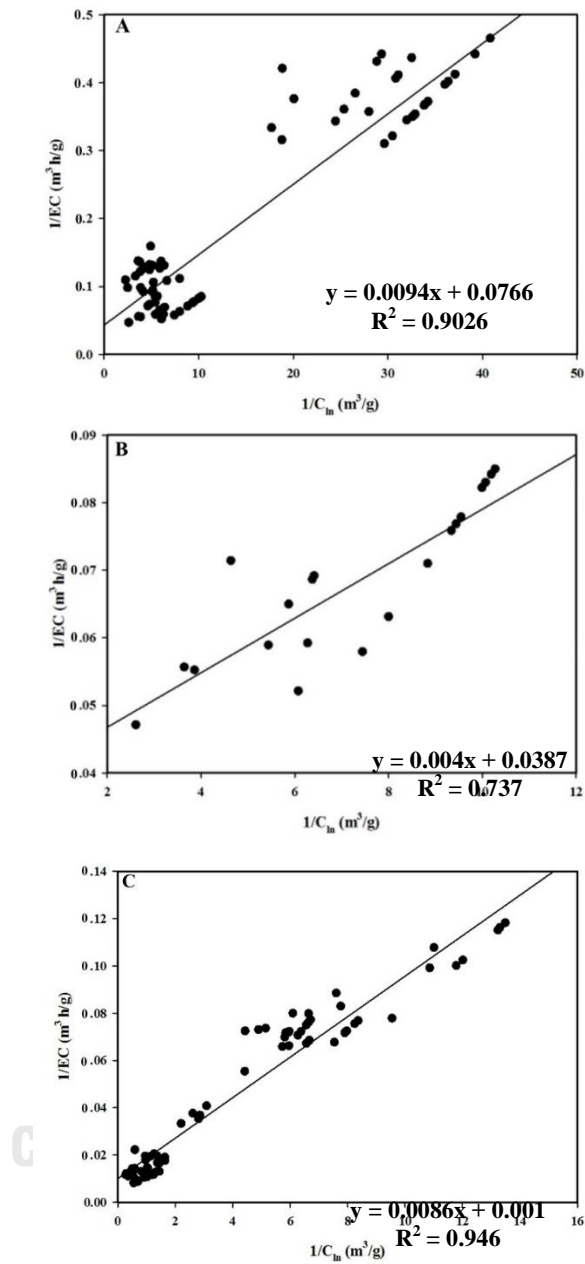
**Note:**

BF-biofilter; BTF-biotrickling filter; BS-bioscrubber

#### 4.5.6. Biokinetics of BTF operation

An analysis of the biokinetics was done in order to estimate the maximum elimination capacity ( $EC_{max}$ ) of the BTF (Rene *et al.*, 2010). The kinetic constants of the BTF were evaluated by using a modified Michaelis-Menten equation. The kinetic parameters including half saturation constant ( $K_s$ ) and  $EC_{max}$  were determined from a linear plot which takes the form of the Lineweaver-Burk equation (equation 3.9). The  $K_s$  value represents the affinity of microorganism to the contaminants present in the waste gas stream, i.e.  $H_2S$  in gas-phase (Rene *et al.*, 2010).

The experimental data from the fed-batch mode, continuous mode and the  $H_2S$  shock load experiments were used separately to estimate the biokinetics of the process under each operational conditions (Figure 4.25). From the mathematical model the values of  $EC_{max}$  from fed-batch mode, continuous mode and shock loads experiments were 13.05, 25.84 and 100  $g/m^3.h$ , respectively. The  $K_s$  values were 0.12, 0.10 and 0.86  $g/m^3$  during the fed-batch mode, continuous mode and shock loads experiments, respectively. The experimentally determined  $EC_{max}$  value is in close agreement with the  $EC_{max}$  derived from the kinetic equation.



**Figure 4.25** Relationship between  $1/EC$  and  $1/C_{in}$  for  $H_2S$  removal during BTF operation: (A) fed-batch mode, (B) continuous mode, and (C) shock load tests.

#### 4.5.7 Global nitrate demand

The global nitrate (GN) demand values estimated from different phases of BTF operation are shown in Table 4.5. The values of GN from phase I, periods IV and V as well as phase II was lower than the GN values obtained from Phase I, periods I-III. Moreover, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rates obtained from this study was constant (~80 - 102 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N /L·d) during the BTF operation (Table 4.5) and the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N removal rates of this study were higher than the previously reported values (20.5 mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N/L·d) by Soreanu *et al.* (2008) with simultaneous removal of 100 %  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the BTF. This observation clearly implies the fact that the anoxic BTF is able to demonstrate high performance for the removal of high concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (gas-phase) and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N (liquid-phase). Concerning the practical implication, the BTF can be applied to remove  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N rich wastewater that are commonly generated from various unit operations of the pulp and paper industry (Example - Kraft mill process).

**Table 4.5** Global nitrate (GN) demand profiles during steady-state BTF operation.

Phase	Period	N/S ratio	H <sub>2</sub> S degradation rate (mg H <sub>2</sub> S /L·d)	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N degradation rate (mg NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N /L·d)	GN value (mg NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> - N/mg H <sub>2</sub> S)
I	I	100	186.50 ± 26.63	101.57 ± 0.00	0.58 ± 0.00
	II	100	147.83 ± 65.10	81.87 ± 11.79	0.35 ± 0.03
	III	100	182.053 ± 22.05	98.76 ± 4.77	0.63 ± 0.00
	IV	30	568.31 ± 45.39	94.93 ± 10.05	0.16 ± 0.01
	V	22	700.31 ± 66.59	86.07 ± 2.17	0.12 ± 0.00
II	I and II	14	675.51 ± 211.43	96.04 ± 26.83	0.15 ± 0.07

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

#### 5.1 Conclusions

In this study, *P. versutus* strain MAL1HM19, a novel strain of NR-SOB was successfully isolated from the sediments and water samples of Mae Um Long Luang hot spring (Thailand). The strain MAL 1HM19 was selected as a promising NR-SOB for H<sub>2</sub>S removal due to its efficiency to degrade 100 % hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) within 5 h. The identification and characterization of strain MAL 1HM19 was also successfully carried out in this study. The results of 16s rDNA and the whole genome sequence analysis of strain MAL 1HM19 revealed that this strain belongs to the genus *P. versutus*. *P. versutus* strain MAL1HM19 was able to grow under a wide range of environmental conditions such as temperature, pH, sulfur sources, carbon sources and salt concentrations.

Based on the nature of the experimental work carried out in batch and continuous conditions, the ability of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 for H<sub>2</sub>S removal was evidenced. The results from short-term experiments, i.e. in batch tests, showed that *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 was able to remove H<sub>2</sub>S in gas phase completely within 10 h, irrespective of the different initial nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) concentrations. The strain MAL 1HM19 removed 700 to 800 ppm<sub>v</sub> gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>S within 5, 6 and 10 h, respectively, and the final product *via* the H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation pathway depended on the initial NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentration. Anew, batch assay results also confirmed the fact that the *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 cannot utilize thiosulfate (S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) as its sulfur source. Although S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> has been widely reported as an intermediate product of the

sulfide ( $S^{2-}$ ) oxidation pathway and also a key intermediate of the sulfur cycle, the novel strain did not show removal of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$ . However, interestingly, the presence of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  enhanced the removal of  $NO_3^-$ -N when compared to batch assay results performed in the presence of sulfide.

During long term operation in a biotrickling filter (BTF), the practicality of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 to remove  $H_2S$  gas under anoxic conditions was demonstrated in both fed-batch and continuous mode of reactor operation (188 d). The results showed that the anoxic BTF, inoculated with pure cultures of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19, was able to show high removal efficiency (RE) of  $H_2S$  within its first 10 d of operation, which clearly indicates the rapid startup of the reactor. The RE of  $H_2S$  during the different phases of operation varied between 17 and 100% depending on the operational mode, as well as the presence of an organic carbon source ( $CH_3COO^-$ ). Under transient state operations, i.e. in the form of high  $H_2S$  shock loads, the anoxic BTF system demonstrated good response and resilience capacity. The RE was restored immediately when the normal load was reversed again which clearly shows its capability to handle fluctuating concentrations of  $H_2S$ . The presence of  $NO_3^-$ -N is also an important factor for  $H_2S$  oxidation and the RE of  $NO_3^-$ -N depended on the mode of BTF operation (fed-batch or continuous). Concerning the kinetics of  $H_2S$  removal by *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19, the strain showed high affinity to  $H_2S$  gas and yielded high  $EC_{max}$  values. The good results obtained from different batch and continuous experiments showed the suitability of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 for  $H_2S$  and  $NO_3^-$ -N removal.



## 5.2 Future perspectives

In this study, the potential of *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 as a potential biocatalyst for H<sub>2</sub>S removal was demonstrated. However, further studies should be carried out to address some of the important issues concerning the mechanism of contaminant removal in liquid and gas phases:

- (i) Proteomic and metabolomics studies should be performed to understand the metabolism of different microbial communities involved in the sulfur cycle. Molecular biology techniques such as RNAseq and microarray should be used to ascertain which specific genes are active during H<sub>2</sub>S oxidation. The gene expression level under each set of operating condition should be determined in order to better empathize the role of metabolic processes in wastewater engineering applications.
- (ii) Use artificial intelligence tools such as artificial neural networks (ANNs) and fuzzy logic to predict the performance of bioreactors carrying out simultaneous removal of gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N.
- (iii) For practical applications, it will also be interesting to perform vigorous bioaugmentation studies and test the effect of adding *P. versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 with other microorganisms. Thus, apart from the removal of volatile inorganic pollutants, volatile organic compounds (VOCs) can also be removed in one bioreactor configuration.
- (iv) Studies should also be carried out using different reactor configurations and the hydrodynamics of the reactors should be

evaluated under a wide range of operating conditions. If possible, pilot scale anoxic (bio)reactors should be operated using biogas containing  $H_2S$  and other odorous substances (for example - biogas from an anaerobic digester) in order to understand the limitations and performance of the bioreactor in an industrial setting.



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## APPENDIX

## Appendix A: Calibration curves

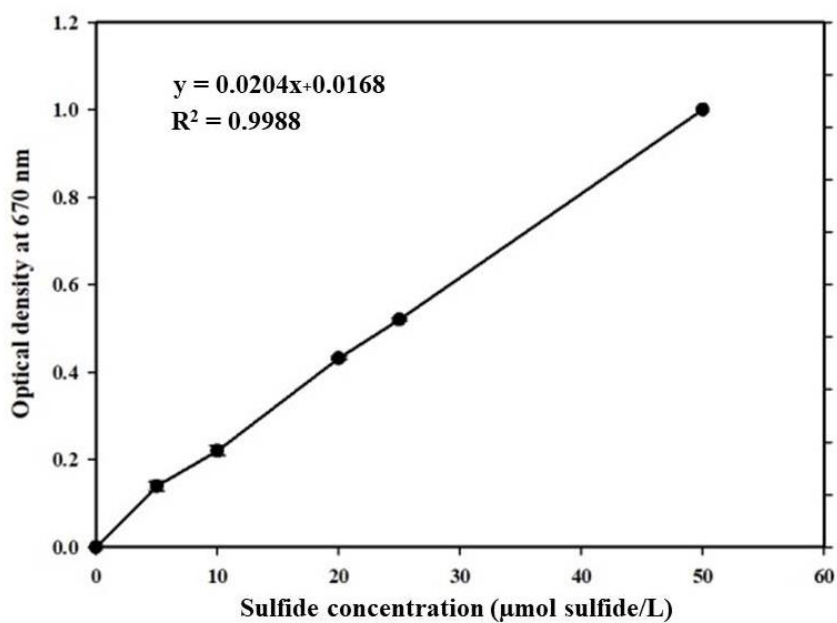
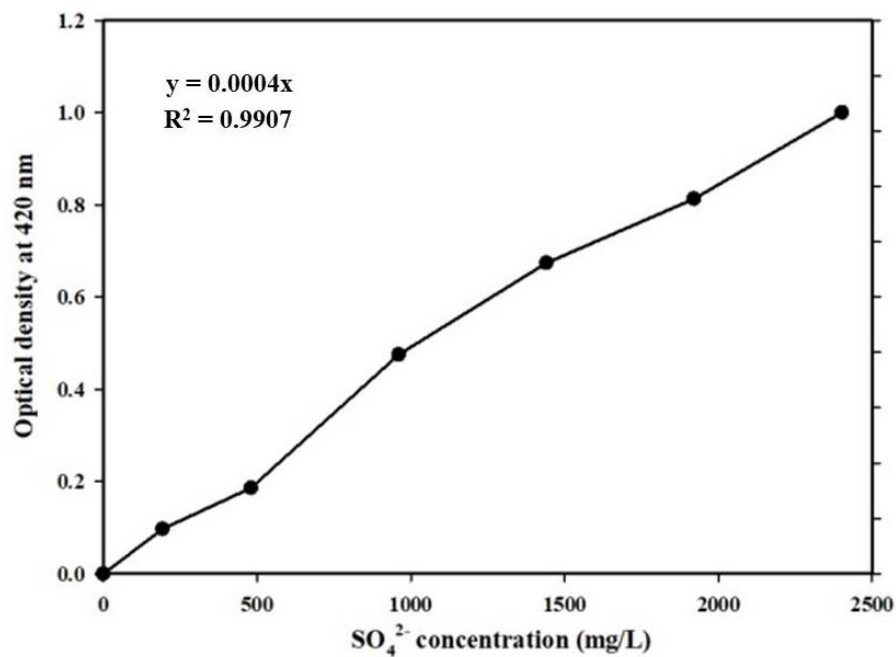


Figure A.1 Calibration curve for sulfide in liquid-phase

Figure A.2 Calibration curve for  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$

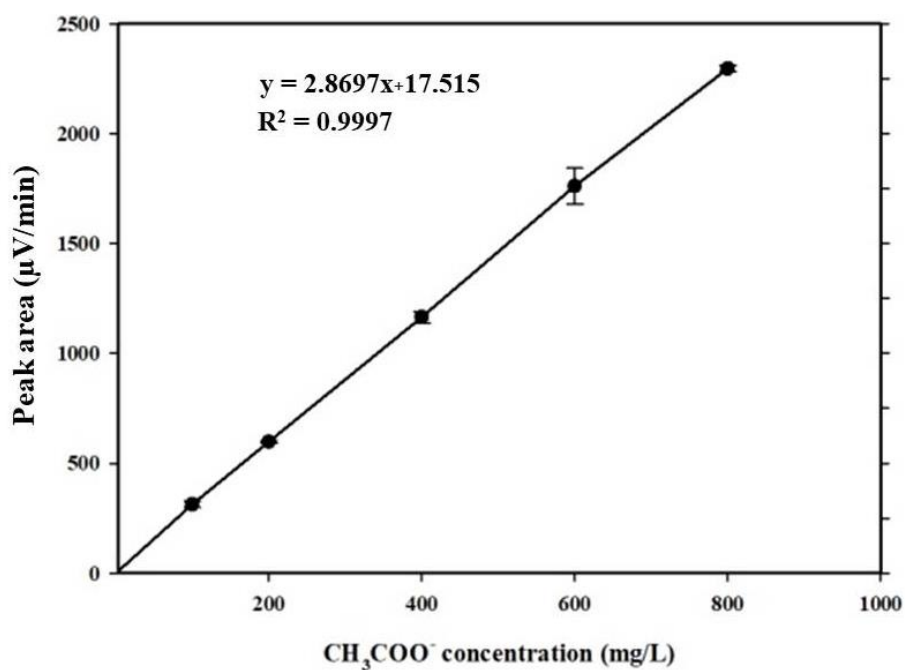


Figure A.3 Calibration curve for  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$

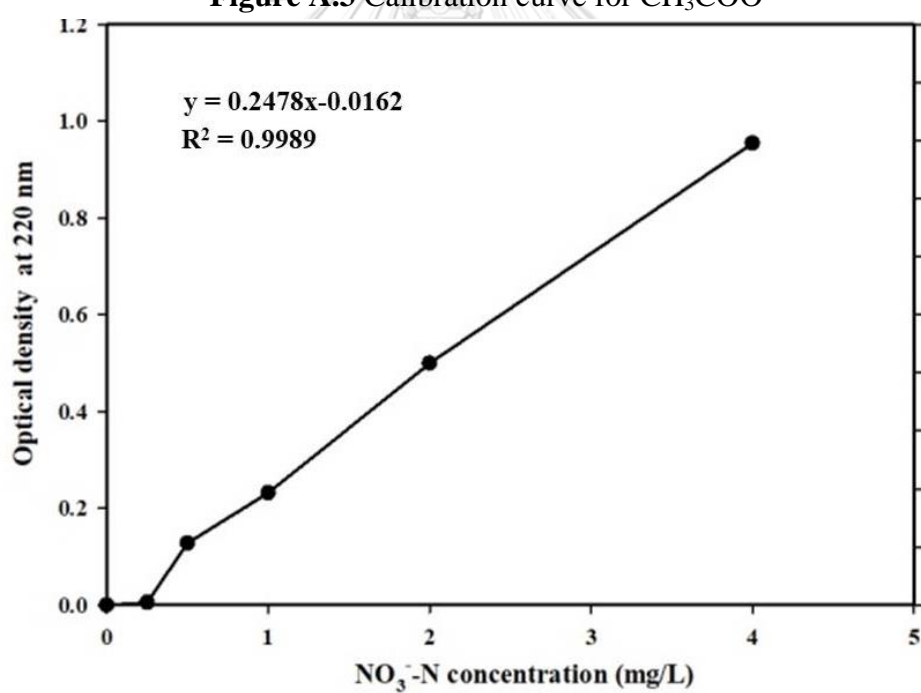
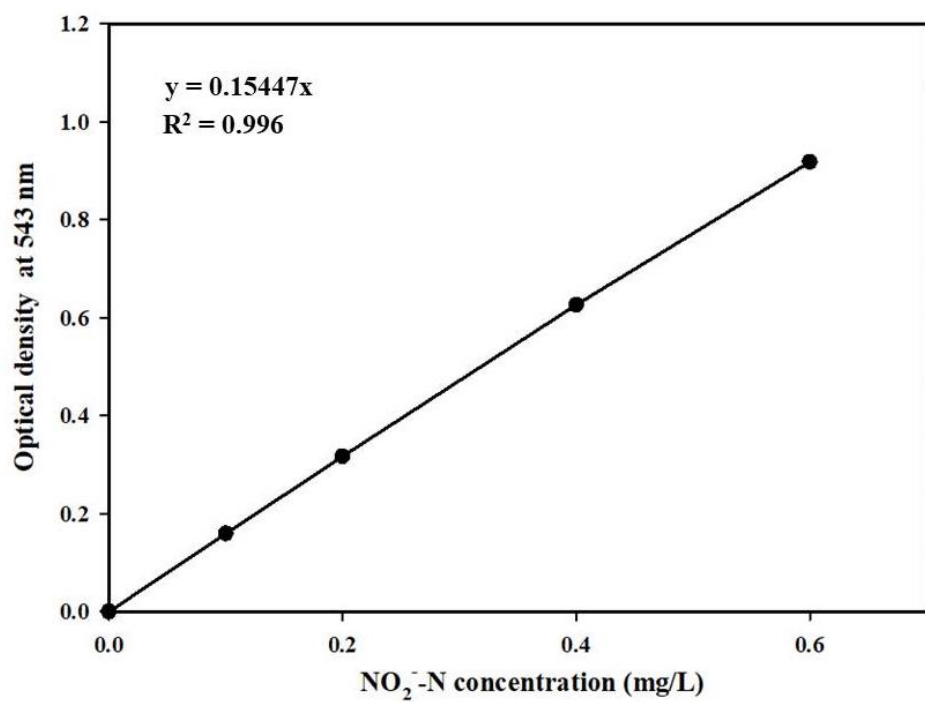


Figure A.4 Calibration curve for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N



**Figure A.5** Calibration curve for  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N



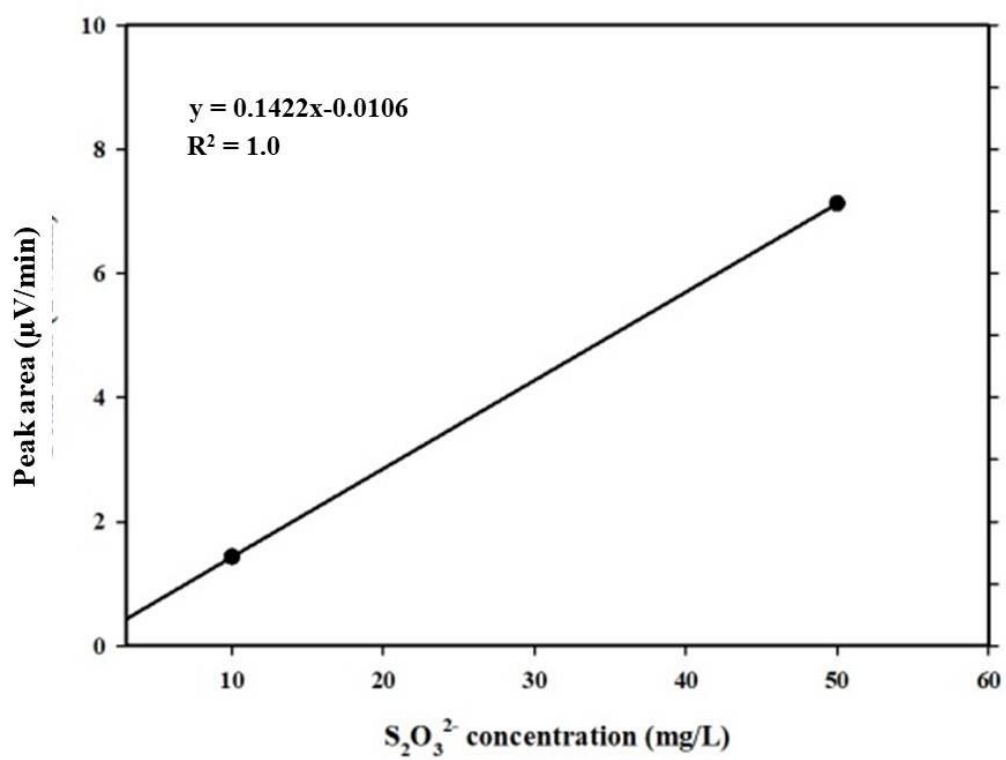


Figure A.6 Calibration curve for S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>





## Appendix B

**Table B.1** Various isolates of NR-SOB from the Mae Um Long Luang hot spring.

Strains	Growth with H <sub>2</sub> S and acetate	Growth with H <sub>2</sub> S and methanol
1. MAL 1HM1	+	-
2. MAL 1HM2	+	-
3. MAL 1HM3	+	-
4. MAL 1HM5	-	+
5. MAL 1HM6	+	+
6. MAL 1HM7	+	-
7. MAL 1HM8	+	+
8. MAL 1HM10	+	+
9. MAL 1HM11	+	+
10. MAL 1HM13	+	-
11. MAL 1HM14	+	-
12. MAL 1HM15	+	+
13. MAL 1HM16	-	-
14. MAL 1HM19	+	+
15. MAL 2HM2	-	-
16. MAL 2HM3	+	-
17. MAL 2HM4	-	-
18. MAL 2HM5	+	+

Note:

“+” refers to the detection of turbidity in the mCSB medium

“-” refers to the absence of turbidity in the mCSB medium

**Table B.2** Various isolates of NR-SOB from the Thep Pha Nom hot spring.

Strains	Growth with H <sub>2</sub> S and acetate	Growth with H <sub>2</sub> S and methanol
1. TPN 1HM1	+	+
2. TPN 1HM2	-	-
3. TPN 1HM3	+	-
4. TPN 1HM4	+	-
5. TPN 1HM5	+	-
6. TPN 1HM6	+	-
7. TPN 2HM1	+	-
8. TPN 2HM2	+	-
9. TPN 2HM4	+	-
10. TPN 2HM5	+	-
11. TPN 2HM7	+	+
12. TPN 2HM8	+	-
13. TPN 2HM9	+	-
14. TPN 2HM10	+	-
15. TPN 2HM11	+	-
16. TPN 2HM12	+	+
17. TPN 2HM13	+	-
18. TPN 2HM14	-	-
19. TPN 3HM1	+	+
20. TPN 3HM2	+	-

Note:

“+” refers to the detection of turbidity in the mCSB medium

“-” refers to the absence of turbidity in the mCSB medium

## VITA

Miss Wannapawn Watsunton was born on November 12th, 1990. She completed her Bachelor's degree in Genetics from Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University in 2012. After that she studied as a Ph.D. student in the Biotechnology program, Chulalongkorn University (Thailand). Her Ph.D. research focuses on the removal of hydrogen sulfide using nitrate-reducing, sulfide oxidizing bacteria (NR-SOB) that was isolated from hot spring. Her PhD research is supported by the 100th Anniversary Chulalongkorn University doctoral scholarship. During her Ph.D. life, she got the mobility to do a research for eleven months at Laboratory of IHE Delft Institute for Water Education, the Netherlands under Eldon R. Rene, Ph.D. (Co-advisor) and Prof. Piet N.L. Lens. Ph.D.

Outcome of this study

Publications:

1. Watsunton, W., Seehone, W., Ruangchainikom, C., Sachakamol, P., Chavanparit, O., Chulalaksananukul, S., Chulalaksananukul, W., 2014. Hydrogen sulfide reduction in gas production system by biological processes. *Srinakharinwirot Sci. J.* 30, 187-202. (In Thai) (Review article).
2. Watsunton, W., Ruangchainikom, C., Rene, E.R., Lens, P. N. L., Chulalaksananukul, W., 2017. Hydrogen sulfide oxidation under anoxic conditions by a nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacterium isolated from the Mae Um Long Luang hot spring, Thailand. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 124, 196-205.
3. Watsunton, W., Ruangchainikom, C., Rene, E.R., Lens, P.N.L., Chulalaksananukul, W., 2018. Comparison of sulfide and nitrate removal from synthetic wastewater by pure and mixed cultures of nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacteria isolated from hot springs in Thailand. (Submitted to *Bioresource Technology*).
4. Watsunton, W., Chulalaksananukul, W., Rene, E.R., Lens, P.N.L., 2018. Anoxic biotrickling filter inoculated with pure culture of *Paracoccus versutus* strain MAL 1HM19 and artificial neuron network analysis. (In preparation).

Conference presentations

Oral presentation

Watsunton, W., Ruangchainikom, C., Rene, E.R., Lens, P.N.L., Chulalaksananukul, W., 2016. Isolation and characterization of nitrate-reducing, sulfide-oxidizing bacteria from Mae Um Long Luang hot spring (Thailand): Anaerobic hydrogen sulfide oxidation under brine conditions. *Challenges in Environmental Science and Engineering (CESE)*, 6-10 November 2016, Kaohsiung, Taiwan.

Posters

Watsunton, W., Rene, E.R., Lens, P.N.L., Chulalaksananukul, W. 2017. Simultaneous H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> removal using different NR-SOB strains isolated from hot springs in Thailand. 7th International Conference on Biotechniques for Air Pollution Control and Bioenergy (Biotechniques-2017), La Coruña, 9-21 July 2017. Spain. (Best poster award).

Watsunton, W., Rene, E.R., Lens, P.N.L., Chulalaksananukul, W. 2017. Simultaneous H<sub>2</sub>S and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> removal using different NR-SOB strains isolated from hot springs in Thailand. PhD symposium, Delft, 2-3 October 2017. The Netherlands.