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The syntrophy mechanisms, microbial population, and process optimization for volatile fatty acids metabolism in anaerobic digestion

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Abstract: The low efficiency and stability of anaerobic digestion (AD) has always hindered its wide application. The accumulation of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) cause acidification and inhibition of anaerobic digester. The conversion of some VFAs (propionate and butyrate) to acetate, CO₂, and H₂ is endergonic under standard conditions, which make it difficult to occur spontaneously in AD system. Thus, the degradation of VFAs is regarded as the rate-limiting step in AD. Studies proved that VFAs could be degraded through the syntrophic cooperation between bacteria and methanogens. Therefore, clear insight into the mechanism of syntrophic methanogenesis as well as the process optimization in syntrophic metabolism of VFAs are essential to improve the efficiency of AD. The present review summarized the roles of syntrophic bacteria and methanogens in AD process, containing metabolism pathways, biochemical reactions, microorganisms characteristics, substrate oxidation, and electron transfer in syntrophic methanogenesis. The main forms and mechanisms of interspecies electron transfer were detailly and deeply described. In addition, the process control and optimization of the syntrophic metabolism of VFAs were also summarized in the review for improving the efficiency of syntrophic methanogenesis. This review provides a deeper understanding of efficiency enhancement of syntrophic metabolism in AD system.

Keywords: Anaerobic digestion, Volatile fatty acids, Syntrophic metabolism, Methanogenesis, Interspecies electron transfer, Process optimization

1. Introduction

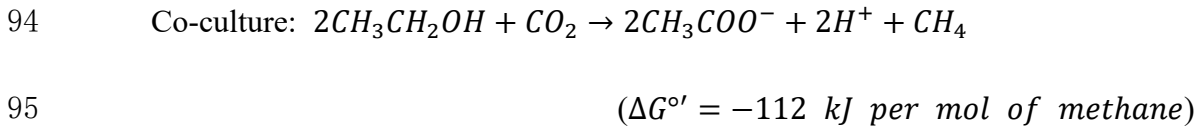
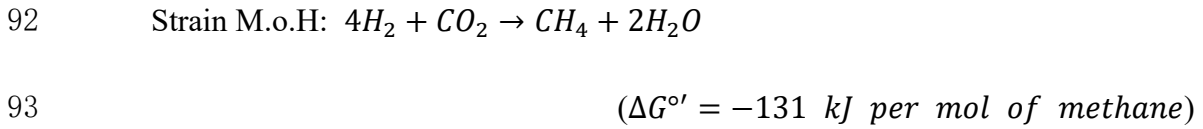
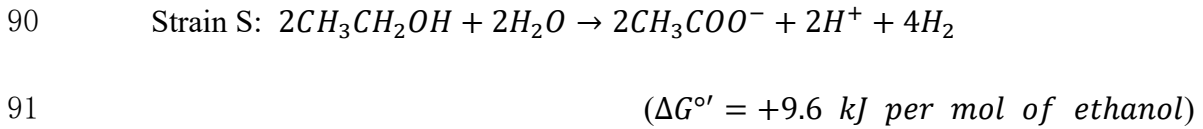
Anaerobic digestion (AD), as an important approach for disposal and energy recovery from organic waste/wastewater, has been widely used for its efficiency and economy. However, poor operational stability still limits the wide application of AD [1]. How to improve the stability and efficiency of AD system has always been a hot topic. Numerous studies focused on the optimization of AD under different process conditions. The main process parameters affecting AD are organic loading rate (OLR), pH, temperature, solid retention time (SRT), toxic compounds, and hydraulic retention time (HRT) [2]. The low OLR would decrease the methane yield since the starvation of microorganisms. However, too high OLR could result in organic overload [3]. Changes of pH would largely affect the activity of microorganisms, too acidic ($\text{pH} < 3$) or too alkaline ($\text{pH} > 12$) are inhibitory to microorganisms involved in AD [4]. The temperature influences the activity of microorganisms (both bacteria and methanogen) [5]. SRT is a critical factor which maintains the balance and activity of the functional microorganisms in AD system [6]. In addition, the presence of toxic compounds in AD could lead to system failure in extreme cases. Thus, a great number of researches were focused on the techniques and modification of AD system [7, 8].

The AD process mainly depends on the mutual and syntrophic interaction of microorganisms. In order to optimize AD process, it is essential to understand the related biochemical reactions. AD is a microbial process mediated by cooperation of different microorganisms, which mainly includes four steps of hydrolysis, acidogenesis,

acetogenesis, and, methanogenesis [9]. In hydrolysis step, with the help of extracellular hydrolytic enzymes, polysaccharides, proteins, lipids, and some other complex polymers are hydrolyzed into sugars, amino acids, purines, pyrimidines, fatty acids, glycerol, and some other monomers. For this process, researches have proposed that the optimum temperature and pH are between 30~50 °C and between 5~7 [10]. The produced monomers from hydrolysis are further degraded to volatile fatty acids (VFAs), succinate, lactate, and ethanol by primary fermenting bacteria. In this process, the generation of VFAs occurs when pH is higher than 5, pH lower than 5 benefits ethanol production, and the reaction will stop when the pH lower than 4 [11]. The produced acetate, H₂/CO₂, formate, and methanol can be directly used by methanogens for methane generation. However, some other fermentation products represented by VFAs cannot be directly utilized by methanogens, which need further fermentation by secondary fermenting bacteria (syntrophic bacteria). Syntrophic bacteria are able to converting the above fermentation products into acetate, formate or some other one-carbon compounds for utilization by methanogens [12]. So, the metabolism and conversion of VFAs are important in AD system, and their excess accumulation could significantly destroy the process and inhibit methane generation [13, 14]. It was commonly believed that methanogenesis is the rate limiting step in AD, however, the syntrophic degradation of VFAs was regarded as another important rate limiting step in AD. Therefore, in order to improve the efficiency of AD, it is essential to regard bacteria and methanogens as a whole system to investigate the syntrophic methanogenesis of

82 VFAs.

83 Syntrophy is defined as a nutritional situation in which two or more organisms
84 combine their metabolic capabilities to catabolize a substrate that cannot be catabolized
85 by any of them alone [15]. In AD system, syntrophic interaction is known as the mutual
86 thermodynamic dependence between bacteria and methanogens. Specifically, bacteria
87 degrade available substrate into acetate, H₂, and/or formate, which are consumed by
88 syntrophic partner of methanogens [16]. A typical example is the co-culture of two
89 partners of strain S and strain M.o.H [17].



96 In the co-culture system, without hydrogenotrophic methanogens, bacteria
97 cannot grow with ethanol as the substrate since the Gibbs free energy of this reaction
98 is positive under standard conditions. According to the relationship between ΔG° and
99 $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ under standard conditions:

100
$$\Delta G^{\circ} = \Delta G^{\circ'} + RT \ln \frac{[CH_3COO^-]^2 [H_2]^4}{[CH_3CH_2OH]^2}$$

101 When the produced H₂ from the first reaction is consumed by methanogens, the
102 Gibbs free energy of this reaction turns to negative and the reaction of oxidizing ethanol

happens [12]. Both acetate and hydrogen are the direct substrates of methanogens, their removal not only provide the condition for the growth of strain S., but also provide the carbon source and energy for methanogens. For bacteria, during the VFAs oxidation process, the Gibbs free energy of reactions are usually positive under standard conditions [18]. Thus, the reaction is favorable in thermodynamics only when methanogens keep the partial pressure of H₂ lower than 10⁻⁴ atm or more less [19]. Previous studies have shown that adding *Methanosarcina* in AD system could alleviate the inhibition to methane generation caused by the accumulation of acetate through coupling growth with syntrophic bacteria, and further improve the stability of the reactor [20]. Moertelmaier and coworker studied the metabolism and microbial population changes of VFAs in a modified anaerobic digester [21]. The results showed that acetate and propionate gradually accumulated in the initial stage of start-up, and the population of *Methanosaeta* remained unchanged, *Methanosarcina* decreased and *Methanomicrobiales* increased. During the degradation and accumulation of acetate and propionate, the number of propionate oxidizing bacteria increased gradually, accounting for 5.1% of the total number of bacteria. *Pelotomaculum* became the dominant bacterium, followed by *Smithella* and *Syntrophobacter*. The increase of the number of propionate oxidizing bacteria promoted the degradation of fatty acids in the system, which benefits the stability of the system. Thus, the syntrophic interaction between microorganisms plays a critical role in the oxidation of VFAs. It has been confirmed that interspecies electron transfer is mainly involved in the syntrophic

methanogenesis process [15]. In syntrophic methanogenic community, redox mediator which produced by the oxidation of VFAs via bacteria are transferred between bacteria and methanogens in a process called interspecies electron transfer [22]. The electrons are generally transferred by hydrogen or formic acid in syntrophic methanogenic community [23], which has been regarded as the forms of interspecies electron transfer for a long time. Interspecies H₂ transfer between bacteria and methanogens can decrease the partial pressure of H₂ to 10⁻⁴ atm and less, which makes the acetogenic reaction possible in thermodynamics [24, 25]. Except that, some electron shuttles like humic substances, quinones phenazines or insoluble biochemical compounds can also mediate the interspecies electron transfer [26, 27]. However, compared with H₂ and formate, these electron carriers have lower interspecies electron transfer efficiency due to their poor diffusion, which might be the limiting factor for methanogenesis [23]. Thus, the research on the optimization of syntrophic metabolism has become a hot topic in anaerobic methanogenesis. In recent years, direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) via cytochrome, conductive pili, and other cellular structures have been reported as well [28], which shows higher efficiency than interspecies hydrogen/formate transfer [29]. Studies have shown that the efficiency and stability of AD systems are related to interspecies electron transfer. Many studies have shown that adding conductive materials (e.g., magnetite, biochar, and activated carbon) can accelerate methanogenic reactions and improve the efficiency of AD [30-33].

In order to comprehensively understand the syntrophic metabolism of VFAs and

improve the efficiency of AD system, the present review focuses on the interaction between syntrophic bacteria and methanogens during the process of syntrophic methanogenesis. In addition, the main forms and mechanisms of interspecies electron transfer in AD system is detailly analyzed. Lastly, the process control and optimization of VFAs syntrophic methanogenesis in AD system are summarized as well. These could give a significance on optimizing the metabolic ability of syntrophic bacteria and maintaining the stability of methanogenesis system.

2. Interspecies electron transfer in syntrophic community

During the macromolecular organic compounds conversion to methane process, electrons produced from the degradation of organic substrates and intermediate production by fermentation bacteria are utilized by methanogens to reduce CO₂ to CH₄ [34, 35]. Therefore, interspecies electron transfer plays an important role in all the involved reactions [22].

2.1 Interspecies hydrogen/formic acid transfer

2.1.1 Interspecies hydrogen transfer

Interspecies H₂ transfer was firstly proposed in 1967, where two microorganisms species were found in cultures of *Methanobacillus omelianskii* [17]. After that, much research showed that syntrophic bacteria and methanogens can live in the syntrophic relationship to achieve interspecies electron transfer with H₂ as the electron carrier [17, 36]. The microorganisms with dehydrogenase/hydrogenases can continuously produce and consume hydrogen via the redox reaction between proton and electron ($2H^+ +$

$2e^- \rightleftharpoons H_2$). The product of this reaction depends on the redox potential of the substrates related with hydrogenases. When there exists an electron donor with low redox potential in the environment, the reaction would come to the direction of the hydrogen generation [37]. As the main redox mediator in microbial metabolism, the redox potentials of $NAD^+/NADH$ and $FADH/FADH_2$ are -320 mV and -220 mV, respectively, the redox potential of $Fd_{(ox)}/Fd_{(red)}$ was -398 mV or lower (-500 mV) [18, 38]. Among them, only the process of $Fd_{(red)}$ reducing protons to produce hydrogen is exergonic, the proton reduction reactions involving $NADH$ and $FADH_2$ are endergonic under standard conditions, which cannot happen spontaneously. In AD system, the standard redox potential of most products produced by syntrophic bacteria through the oxidation of small molecule organic matters (i.e., the oxidation from propionate to succinate) is higher than that of H_2/H^+ ($E^{\circ'} = -414 \text{ mV}$). Methanogens that use hydrogen as electron donor can utilize hydrogen to increase its standard redox potential. When the concentration of hydrogen in the environment decreases from 101 kPa to 1 Pa, the standard redox potential of hydrogen increases from -414 mV to -260 mV. While, the standard redox potential of $NADH$ is -320 mV, which is lower than that of hydrogen, so electrons can transfer from $NADH$ to H^+ or H^+/CO_2 [39]. Thus, hydrogenotrophic methanogens consume hydrogen to maintain a lower hydrogen partial pressure in the system, which leads to the increase of the redox potential of H_2/H^+ . When the hydrogen partial pressure in the system decreases to 1 Pa, the reaction of $NADH$ reducing protons to produce hydrogen can also be exergonic in thermodynamics [15].

There are usually two or more microorganisms involved in the process of syntrophic methanogenesis. Since hydrogen is the direct electron donor, interspecies H_2 transfer from syntrophic bacteria to methanogens is common in syntrophic methanogenesis community. And hydrogen seems to be an ideal electron carrier for its small size and easy to diffuse. Besides, many anaerobic microorganisms have hydrogenases, which makes it possible to catalyze the reversible conversion of hydrogen into protons and electrons [12]. In syntrophic methanogenesis community, the production of H_2 is often coupled with the transfer of redox intermediates like $NAD^+/NADH$, $FAD/FADH_2$, and $Fd_{(ox)}/Fd_{(red)}$ [15], but the marginal value of the minimum H_2 partial pressure varies from different bacteria to maintain their methane production. For methanogens containing cytochromatic C, the marginal value of H_2 partial pressure is more than 10 Pa, while that without cytochromatic C is less than 10 Pa [38]. Therefore, in the syntrophic methanogenesis community, syntrophic bacteria and methanogen can perceive the redox condition of the environment. The metabolism of syntrophic bacteria would be limited at high hydrogen partial pressure, meanwhile, the metabolism of methanogen is promoted [15]. During AD process, electrons produced from the degradation of organic substrates and intermediate production by fermentation bacteria are utilized by methanogens to reduce CO_2 to CH_4 [34, 35]. Interspecies H_2 transfer between bacteria and methanogens is used to control the concentration of H_2 to degrade organic substrate and methanogenesis.

Previous study proposed the model of anaerobic granules in UASB reactor, which

proved that the existed acetoclastic methanogen of *Methanosaeta* in the center of granules is surrounded by acetogens and hydrogenotrophic methanogens [40]. Thus, these granules can exist in syntrophic methanogenic community [41]. The outer layer of the granule was surrounded by fermentative microorganisms, which convert complex organic compounds into simple fermentation products as substrates for syntrophic methanogens [40]. The transmission of intermediate metabolites between microorganisms is mainly through diffusion. When there is physical aggregation between microbial cells, interspecific hydrogen transfer efficiency will be greatly improved [42]. The formation of granules would make it easier for interspecies H_2 transfer since it shortened the distance between cells in granules [43]. A wide range of hydrogenotrophic methanogens are found and cultured from anaerobic bioreactor [44]. In anaerobic bioreactors, the accumulation of VFAs influence the efficiency of AD. Therefore, efficient interspecies electron transfer is critical for the operation of reactor. Formation of granular sludge facilitates interspecies hydrogen transfer by reducing the distance between bacteria and methanogens.

2.1.2 Interspecies formate transfer

There is another method for interspecies electron transfer, which uses formate as the electron carrier. Formate can be produced in primary fermentation during the process of AD. Microorganisms that contain formate dehydrogenase can convert formate to H_2 and CO_2 [45, 46]. Apart from that, anaerobic bacteria can produce formate in the reduction of CO_2 , and the low-potential electrons were provided by ferredoxins,

which could along with interspecies hydrogen transfer [47]. Accordingly, there are two pathways of interspecies formate transfer in methanogenesis: 1) Formate can make conversion to H_2 and CO_2 (HCO_3^-) by syntrophic bacteria with formate dehydrogenase and then convert to CH_4 , 2) Formate can also be oxidized into CH_4 by hydrogenotrophic methanogen via formate hydrogenlyase [48, 49]. The oxidation reduction potential of redox couple formate / CO_2 is -432 mV which is similar to that of H^+/H_2 (-414 mV) [15]. In Thiele and Zeikus' study, interspecies formate transfer comes up to 90% in syntrophic community of *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* and *Methanobacterium formicicum* [50]. Some studies also showed that both interspecies formate and hydrogen transfer can be realized simultaneously in some syntrophic methanogenesis community. For instance, the syntrophic community of *Syntrophospora bryantii* and *Methanospirillum hungatei* own two pathways to produce methane due to that *Syntrophospora bryantii* can both produce hydrogen and formate in the degradation of butyrate [49, 51]. In addition, the co-culture of *Syntrophomonas wolfei* and *Methanospirillum hungatei* can also make butyrate degradation possible [52]. Besides, the study of *Syntrophobacter fumaoxidans* showed that *Syntrophobacter fumaoxidans* can cooperate with the methanogen which utilize both hydrogen and formate as the syntrophic partner, but cannot with the methanogen which only utilize hydrogen [53].

2.1.3 Comparison between interspecies hydrogen transfer and interspecies formate transfer

Both interspecies hydrogen transfer and interspecies formate transfer are

spontaneous in syntrophic methanogenesis community in presence of methanogens. The standard redox potential of H^+/H_2 is -414 mV, which is similar to that of CO_2 /formate (-420 mV), and the electron transfer components are similar as well. Therefore, there is no essential difference between these two electron transfer carriers in energetics. It was also indicated that interspecies formate transfer could replace interspecies hydrogen transfer [12]. Further research proposed that the choice of interspecies electron carrier is up to the difference between the activity of hydrogenase and formate dehydrogenase. In the butyrate-oxidizing syntrophic community with *Syntrophomonas wolfei* and *Syntrophobacterium glycolicus*, only hydrogen acts as electron carrier. In these syntrophic communities, hydrogenase shows activity, which is much higher than that of formate dehydrogenase. While in the propionate degradation syntrophic community of strain MPOB required both hydrogen and formate acting as interspecies electron carrier, since hydrogenase and formate dehydrogenase showed the same activity [54].

Besides, both interspecies hydrogen transfer and interspecies formate transfer follow Fick's law: $F = \frac{A \times D \times C}{d}$ (in which F = diffusion rate; A = surface area; D = molecular diffusion constant; C = concentration difference; d = distance). Accordingly, the efficiency of interspecies electron transfer is affected by the distance between microorganisms [15]. The aggregation of microorganisms is a common phenomenon in syntrophic community, which make it easier to attach themselves on carriers or to each other [55]. Besides, the aggregation between syntrophic bacteria and methanogens may

speed up the rate of interspecies electron transfer. Previous study showed that shorten the distance of interspecies via aggregation could make it easier for interspecies hydrogen transfer [43]. The diffusion rate of H₂ is 30 times that of formate, but the solubility of formate is much higher than that of H₂. Therefore, formate tends to form a higher concentration difference, which is about 1000 times higher than that of H₂ [56]. It is speculated that under the same diffusion rate, H₂ may be mainly involved in short distance interspecific transfer, while formate may be involved in long distance interspecific transfer [57].

2.2 Direct interspecies electron transfer

In recent years, some studies found that some anaerobic microorganisms could transfer electron directly via extracellular cytochrome and conductivity pili [35]. Reguera proposed that the pill of *G. sulfurreducens* could conduct electricity, and firstly named the polymeric protein growing around the cell as “conductive nanowires” [58]. Besides, they speculated that the exist of the conductive nanowires make bacteria free from the traditional pathway of electron transfer via direct contact with electron transfer, which make it possible for electron transfer in a long distance, and largely improve the efficiency of electron transfer. Actually, DIET was observed by Summers et al. in 2010 [59]. They co-cultured two *Geobacter* species of *Geobacter metallireducens* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens*. The former use ethanol as electron donor and the latter use ethanol as electron donor and fumarate as electron acceptor under anaerobic condition. To be more specific, *G. metallireducens* could oxidize ethanol without using fumarate

as the electron acceptor. On the contrary, *G. sulfurreducens* was able to reduce fumarate to succinate but could not oxidize ethanol. Accordingly, interspecies electron transfer is required between the two microorganisms in this system. Summers et al. showed that without hydrogen or formate as electron carriers, the microorganism species aggregated together for direct electrons transfer through a conductive medium. Furthermore, they deleted the OmcS (a cytochrome C) gene to study the DIET between *Geobacter metallireducens* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens*, resulting in the failure of interspecies electron transfer in cell agglutination, which demonstrated the critical role of cytochrome C in DIET. After that, Rotaru et al. [60] found that there existed direct electron transfer between acetogenic *Geobacter* species and methanogenic *Methanosarcina barkeri* through conductive pili or cytochrome. However, when the gene encoding pili protein in *G. sulfurreducens* was deleted, the bacteria lost the ability to reduce the insoluble electron receptor, indicating the important role of conductive pili in electron transport [61]. Furthermore, Estevez-Canales et al. cultured *G. sulfurreducens* with low iron medium to make sure the role of c-type cytochrome in extracellular electron transfer. The concentration of cytochrome in the low iron condition was 15 times lower than that in the normal condition. Although the cells lacking cytochrome could reduce fumarate to succinate, they could not reduce ferric citrate and transfer electrons to graphite electrode, suggesting that c-type cytochrome played an important role in the extracellular electron transfer of *G. sulfurreducens* [61].

Up to now, the three main pathways of DIET are maintained as follow: (1) via

electron conducting pili; (2) via electron-transporting proteins associated with the outer membrane and comprising c-type cytochromes; (3) via non-biological conductive materials (CMs) [62-64].

DIET is regarded as an alternative way to interspecies hydrogen transfer or interspecies formate transfer in recent years since its high efficiency. Unlike the interspecies electron transfer using H₂ or formate as electron carriers, DIET does not need any electron carriers [35], which depends on outer membrane cytochromes, nano-line, electrically conductive pili, or the formation of multispecies aggregates [65]. Thus, the DIET shows higher energy efficiency than interspecies hydrogen or formic acid transfer [29, 66]. Although DIET has advantages over interspecific hydrogen/formate transfer in electron transfer efficiency and thermodynamics, the mechanism of its formation in the methanogenic system with more than two carbon VFAs as substrate is unclear [49]. *Geobacter* has the ability to degrade small molecular alcohols such as propanol and butanol, but cannot directly utilize VFAs such as propionate and butyrate. However, most of the interacting bacteria that have the ability to use propionate and butyrate do not have the cytochrome, conductive pili, and other structures of *Geobacter*. In addition to these theoretical contradictions, DIET is also susceptible to severe hydraulic conditions due to its dependence on physical contact. Therefore, finding alternative method to promote interspecific electron transfer efficiency is still the current research direction of optimizing AD process.

Since the DIET among methanogenesis was proposed, conductive materials have

been extensively reported to enhance methane production in AD system. Up to now, much work has shown that adding conductive materials like granular active carbon [67, 68], biochar [69], carbon fiber [70], magnetite [71], hematite [72], activated carbon, and nano-zero-valent iron [31] could promote the methanogenesis through improving the effectiveness of syntrophic interaction [73], interspecies electron transfer [74, 75]. The addition of conductive materials in AD system could promote the utilization of electrons for methanogenesis [64]. Li et al. [76] proved that the addition of stainless steel in AD system could enhance the ability of electron transfer to promote the methane production. Some studies also found that the maximum electron carrier flux via electrical conduction magnetite was around 10^6 times higher than that associated with the interspecies hydrogen transfer [29]. Besides, the addition of conductive materials also improves the rate of substrate metabolism and methanogenesis [68, 77]. According to previous studies, interspecies electron transfer can also take place between syntrophic bacteria and methanogens or with the aid of conductive materials, which can largely improve the efficiency of methanogenesis [62, 78, 79]. The addition of conductive materials would make the syntrophic interaction more efficient by capturing more electrons. Previous study suggested that adding some specific conductive materials could change the methanogenic pathway from interspecies hydrogen transfer to DIET for greater efficiency [80]. Besides, Yin's study believed the continuously addition of Fe_3O_4 in syntrophic methanogenic community could induce acetoclastic methanogens to hydrogenotrophic methanogens and promote the syntrophic interaction

between bacteria and methanogens [81]. In addition, adding conductive materials in AD system is favorable for the changes in environment such as temperature, pH, H₂, and pressure [82-85].

2.3 Interspecies electron transfer mediated by electron shuttle

Except the above two extracellular electron transfer mechanisms, electron shuttles can also conduct extracellular electron transfer like DIET under anaerobic conditions. Take the syntrophic community of *G. metallireducens* and *G. sulfurreducens* for example, when anthraquinone-2, 6-disulfonate sodium (AQDS) was present, the interspecies hydrogen/formate transfer process was replaced, and the rate of methane production increased significantly [86]. Electron shuttle was also known as redox mediator, which acted as electron carriers to participate in redox reactions reversibly [87]. According to its source, electron shuttles can be divided into endogenous electron shuttles and exogenous electron shuttles. The endogenous electron shuttles are produced by microorganisms themselves i.e., flavin and black pigment, while, the exogenous electron shuttles are natural substances or artificially synthesized materials such as sulfur compounds and humus. Electron shuttle-mediated extracellular electron transfer generally involves the following reactions: the oxidized form of electron shuttles accept electrons from the oxidization of organic matter and become the reduced form of electron shuttles, then the reduced form of electron shuttles transfer electrons to extracellular electron acceptors and return to the oxidized form of electron shuttles. Through the two steps, electron shuttles can be reversibly oxidized and reduced. A

376 typical example is the flavin dinucleotide (FAD) synthesized by extracellular
 377 respiratory bacteria, which can be hydrolyzed into electron shuttle flavin
 378 mononucleotide (FMN) after transmembrane into periplasmic space. However, FMN
 379 can obtain electrons directly from cytochrome MtrC to become reduced FMN_{red}, which
 380 changes back to oxidized FMN_{ox} after contacting extracellular electron receptors (such
 381 as iron and manganese oxides, humus, etc.) to realizes electron transfer [88, 89]. Under
 382 anaerobic condition, interspecies electron transfer can be also mediated by humus or
 383 humic acids [90, 91]. Subsequent electron spin resonance spectroscopy (ESR) and
 384 nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) studies confirmed that quinone groups in humus
 385 were the main electron acceptance sites, which conducted electron transfer [92, 93].
 386 Researches confirmed that using humic acid or anthraquinone-2,6-disulfonate (AQDS)
 387 and its redox form AHQDS as electron acceptor could oxidize substrates by diverse
 388 anaerobic microorganisms. For example, several microorganisms were found to reduce
 389 humic acids or anthraquinone-2,6-disulfonate (AQDS) using hydrogen as electron
 390 donor (e.g., the halorespiring bacterium, *Desulfitobacterium* PCE1, the sulfate-
 391 reducing bacterium, *Desulfovibrio* G11 and the methanogenic archaea,
 392 *Methanospirillum hungatei* JF1) or lactate (*Desulfitobacterium dehalogenans* and
 393 *Desulfitobacterium* PCE1) [23, 26]. Reduced humic acid can also act as electron donor
 394 to reduce some oxidized substrates. Based on this principle, riboflavin and quinones
 395 have been widely used in decolorization and denitrification of azo dyes, reduction of
 396 polybiphenyl and heavy metals such as Fe (III), Mn (IV), Cr (VI), U (VI) to promote

the process of low biological conversion [26, 94, 95].

Unlike the concentration of hydrogen/formate, which depend on the microbial metabolic activity, the concentration of electron shuttles can be easily manipulated artificially. Different from the solid conductive material required for the formation of DIET mechanism, the water-soluble nature of the electron shuttle also facilitates the addition for engineering applications. Given the above advantages, since quinone respiratory bacteria were ubiquitous in anaerobic sludge, interspecies electron transfer mediated by electron shuttle is expected to become the next hot research direction in strengthening microbial interaction.

3. Overview of syntrophic community in anaerobic digestion systems

3.1 Microorganisms involved in syntrophic community

The bacteria in syntrophic systems are not limited to a distinct phylogenetic group of microorganisms, but occur throughout the microbial world. Bacteria grow in pure culture used sugars, amino acids, and organic acids as the substrates. These substrates can be oxidized into carbonyl compounds such as pyruvate or acetaldehyde as the electron acceptor for the oxidation of NADH. The oxidation of NADH couple with the reduction of carbonyl compounds is energetically favorable. When the H₂ concentration decreases to 10 Pa with the help of methanogens, the redox potential of hydrogen changes from -410 mV to -260 mV (formate similarly), which makes the reaction energetically favorable. Thus, when methanogens are active in the culture, syntrophic microorganisms will no longer oxidize substrate into ethanol, lactate, propionate or

butyrate [34]. Some bacteria like *Syntrophomonas wolfei*, *Syntrophus aciditrophicus*, and *Pelotomaculum thermopropionicum* can neither utilize alternate electron acceptors nor oxidize substrate to ethanol, lactate, propionate [96-98]. They must rely on the reduction of protons or CO₂, forming hydrogen or formate, respectively, to make this process possible. Some bacteria are able to produce methane by themselves, the ability of the substrate oxidation in pure culture will be better than that in coculture [99].

Bacterial of *Firmicutes*, *Deltaproteobacteria*, *Synergistetes* can participate in syntrophic methanogenesis processes [34]. There are three types of bacteria in *Firmicutes* have been found to accomplish syntrophic metabolism, which belong to *Syntrophomonadaceae*, *Desulfotomaculum*, and *Thermoanaerobacteraceae*, respectively [100-102]. In AD system, bacteria oxidize VFAs, succinate, alcohol, lactate, and some other compounds to acetate, H₂, and formate, which are finally converted into methane by methanogens [103]. However, the oxidization of some VFAs like propionate, butyrate is endergonic under standard conditions. It can happen spontaneously only with the partial pressure of H₂ lower than 10⁻⁴ atm. Previous research firstly shown that *Syntrophomonas wolfei* could oxidize VFAs in a coculture with a hydrogenotrophic and/or formate-consuming microorganisms [98, 104, 105].

Syntrophic microbial degradation of propionate by *Syntrophobacter fumaroxidans* and butyrate by *Syntrophomonas* (*Syntrophospora*) *bryantii* can occur only if the methanogenic partners utilize both hydrogen and formate [57].

Apart from bacteria, methanogenic archaea also play a critical role in syntrophic

community. Methanogenic archaea are strictly anaerobic microorganisms belonging to the *Euryarchaeota*, which cannot use oxygen as electron acceptor [106-108]. Methanogen can only utilize some specific substrates like acetate, H₂, and methyl-group containing compounds for methane generation. Accordingly, they can be divided into three groups including hydrogen trophic methanogens, acetate trophic methanogens, and methyl trophic methanogens. Although the limited substrates, they still process great phylogenetic and ecological diversity. Methanogens are generally divided into five orders based on their phylogeny and phenotypic properties: *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanopyrales*, *Methanomicrobiales*, *Methanosarcinales*, and *Methanopyrales* [36]. *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanomicrobiales*, and *Methanosarcinales* often appear in AD system [15]. Most methanogens are hydrogenotrophic type of methanogenic, which can reduce CO₂ to methane with H₂ or formate as electron donor. In addition, there are still some acetoclastic methanogens, which utilize acetate as substrate. Two genera of the order *Methanosarcinales*: *Methanotherix* (fam. *Methanosaeta*) and *Methanosarcina* (fam. *Methanosarcinaceae*) belong to the group of acetoclastic methanogens. Members of the genus *Methanotherix* are strictly acetoclastic. While, members of the genus *Methanosarcina* can produce methane not only from acetate and H₂/CO₂, but also directly from methanol and other methyl compounds. Methanogens that utilize methylated compounds belong to methylotrophic methanogens. This group includes members of the orders *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanosarcinales*, and *Methanomassiliicocales*, family *Methanosarcinaceae*. For some methyl-reducing

methanogens cannot dismutate methyl compounds, they can reduce methyl group to methane using H_2 and/or formate as electron donors [14]. More information of methanogens are summarized in Table 2. Methanogens are abundant in environment, which is lack of O_2 and other electron acceptors like NO_3^- , Fe^{3+} , and SO_4^{2-} . In methanogenic culture, complex organic matters are degraded into CH_4 with the help of different groups of anaerobic microorganisms. The presence of methanogen in AD maintains the H_2 partial pressure to make it possible for VFAs degradation by syntrophic bacteria.

3.2 The interaction among syntrophic community

In AD, syntrophic bacteria and methanogens live in syntrophic coculture. Both of them utilize the metabolic abilities from their syntrophic partner in order to solve energy problem, degrade complex compounds [15]. The phenomenon of syntrophic metabolism in methanogenic environment was firstly proposed by [17]. Their research found that in *Methanobacillus omelianskii* culture, the cooperation of two bacterial species can convert ethanol to acetate and methane. Before that, *Methanobacillus omelianskii* was used to be known as a strictly anaerobic bacterium, which can oxidize ethanol to acetate, and the energy release from this process is used for the growth of bacterium [17]. The research of Bryant demonstrated that *Methanobacillus omelianskii* was a syntrophic association of two microorganisms. One of these was *Methanobacterium bryantii* strain M.o.H, which synthesized methane from hydrogen and CO_2 , the other one was species S, which degraded ethanol to acetate and hydrogen.

When these two microorganisms grow respectively, neither of them can produce methane. However, when they grew together with ethanol as the substrate, the hydrogen produced from species S was utilized by strain M.o.H to produce methane.

Previous study discussed two kinds of syntrophic interactions: facultatively syntrophic interaction and obligately syntrophic interaction. As for facultatively syntrophic interaction, some substrates can be degraded by syntrophic bacteria, methanogens do not participate in this process, but they take part in the growth and metabolic of bacteria. For obligately syntrophic interaction, neither bacteria nor methanogen can degrade specific organic substrates individually. Their cooperation plays a critical effect for their growth and substrates degradation [22]. The distance between cells may affect the degradation of organic compounds and the growth rate of microorganisms, which lead to the formation of compact aggregates [50, 109, 110].

4. Process optimization for VFAs syntrophic metabolism in anaerobic digestion system

4.1 Optimization of process parameters in anaerobic digestion

As mentioned above, the main process parameters affecting AD process are OLR, HRT, pH, temperature, and SRT. OLR represents the volume of the organic matter introduced into the digester per unit volume of the anaerobic digester [111]. Nkuna et al. [112] proposed that if the OLR of AD system can reach to the substrate conversion efficiency of 75%, the AD system would keep stability. HRT represents the time of the organic material remains resident in the reactor. Studies have revealed that OLR and

HRT related shocks result in differing responses from AD microbial communities, which in turn contributes to varying levels of system tolerance to the differing stresses [113]. Thus, keep the balance between OLR and HRT could maintain the stability of AD system. To achieve economic viability, AD system should be optimized to produce maximal methane yield at the highest OLR and lowest HRT [114]. Low pH in AD system is led by the accumulation of VFAs during acidogenesis, which is harmful to methanogens. Adding some alkaline substance could avoid the accumulate of VFAs in system [2]. Besides, co-digestion can also realize the control of pH. Lisboa and Lansing demonstrated that the co-digestion of food waste with manure could increase the buffer capacity of the system and minimize the effects of pH changes on process stability [115]. The temperature of AD system can affect the rate of reactions. AD process could be carried out in psychrophilic ($< 20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), mesophilic ($30\sim 38\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), and thermophilic ($50\sim 65\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) three temperature ranges [116]. At thermophilic temperatures, the system always needs more energy input, higher degree of imbalance and sensitivity to toxic inhibitors. So, most AD systems are operated within the mesophilic temperature range even though the thermophilic range could improve the rate of process [2]. Ahring et al. demonstrated that when the temperature of a continuous stirred tank reactor (CSTR) with cattle manure feedstock increased from 55 to 65 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, the production of methane decreased from 65% and 71% to 45% [117]. SRT represents the average resident time of microbial cells within the AD system and is a significant factor maintaining the balance and activity of the functional microbial groups in AD system [6]. Chen et al.

observed that extended SRT contributed to elevated release of recalcitrant compounds and reduced methane yield during the thermophilic AD of wasted activated sludge [118]. While the traditional opinion is that maintaining high SRT could avoid the influence of OLR change and toxic substrate [2]. This is because the ability of some microorganisms could increase at thermophilic temperature (65 °C), and some microorganisms require increased SRT to withstand the effects of low SRT [118]. The study reflected that the optimization of AD system should consider the synergic nature of AD.

In recent years, mathematical modeling has made a lot of progress in the environmental field [119, 120]. A great number of researches focus on using mathematical model to optimize operational parameters in AD system. In order to demonstrate the kinetics of AD process, several mathematical models have been developed. Alwan [7] used a simulation model to optimize the continuous biochemical reactor, and the study showed that the maximum biomass concentration (80.57 g/L) could be achieved when the feed substrate concentration was 197.5 g/L and the dilution rate was 197.57 g/L. Alwan also used global stochastic optimization to improve the operability of lab-scale spouted bed [8]. Georgia et al. [121] proposed a simple AD model for food industry waste, assuming that the organic matter consists of refractory and readily degradable COD, which can be used in different anaerobic digesters through different Monod kinetic consumption for methane production. Cai et al. carried out a Box-Behnken design-response surface methodology (RSM), correlation analysis, and two kinetic models to determine the effect and linkages of the parameters related to

ammonia inhibition in AD [122]. Wang et al. applied several machine learning algorithms in regression and classification models on digestion performance to identify determinant operational parameters and predict methane production, which reveal the great potential of using machine learning algorithms to predict AD performance [6].

4.2 New process for syntrophic methanogenesis enhancement

Since 1890s, the first anaerobic digester used to treat domestic sewage appeared in the UK. Up to now, the technology of anaerobic biological treatment has experienced more than 100 years of development and undergone a number of technology innovation. Anaerobic digester, as the first generation of anaerobic biological treatment equipment, was not widely used due to its low efficiency and burden. Up to the middle of the 20th century, there appeared the second generation of anaerobic reactors such as Anaerobic Contact Process (ACP), Anaerobic Filter (AF), Up-flow Anaerobic Sludge Bed (UASB), which realized the separation of the SRT and HRT, which greatly improved the organic loading and processing efficiency. In the 1990s, a new generation of anaerobic reactors, represented by up-flow anaerobic fluidized bed (AFB) [123], anaerobic expansive granular sludge bed (EGSB) [124] and internal circulating reactor (IC) [125], emerged. The new anaerobic reactor strengthened the mass transfer process between sludge and sewage, thus further improved the treatment efficiency. In recent years, researchers have proposed a variety of new reactors, such as anaerobic baffle reactor (ABR) [126], anaerobic intermittent reactor (ASBR) [127], and anaerobic membrane bioreactor (AnMBR) [128], which provide a new direction for the development of

anaerobic wastewater treatment technology.

From the perspective of products, AD could be divided into the production of VFAs, hydrogen, and methane [129-131]. Every process performs specific reaction and has its own optimum process parameters. In order to produce VFAs, bioreactors could either be designed to produce VFA as the primary product [132] or as a by-product [133]. Several bioreactors such as packed bed biofilm column reactor [134], anaerobic leach bed reactors [129], two-stage thermophilic anaerobic membrane bioreactor [135], CSTR [136], and continuous flow fermentation reactors [137] have shown promising results for the production and separation of VFAs. For hydrogen production, anaerobic down-flow structured bed reactor [138], UASB [139], CSTR [140], continuously external circulating bioreactor [141] have been proposed to improve the production of hydrogen. The design and equipment of bioreactors would largely affect the process of methane production. Several bioreactors like dry AD [131], field scale plug flow reactors [142], UASB [143], CSTR [140], induced bed reactors (IBR) [144], and AnMBR [145] were shown to produce methane in different substrates.

Although anaerobic biological treatment technology has accumulated a large number of research results and application experience in basic theory, reactor design, and process operation, there are still some bottlenecks limiting the efficiency and stability of AD system [146, 147]. For instance, the low organic content could be a key limiting factor when use raw waste water as substrate to produce methane. When the content of organic matter in sewage is low, functional microorganisms like

methanogens cannot get enough substrate for growth and metabolism and suffer from hunger for a long time which leads to the activity of sludge far below the optimal value [148]. For some granular sludge-based reactors (i.e., UASB), long-term low strength wastewater conditions can affect the granulation process and even lead to granular sludge disintegration [149]. Besides, AD process is very sensitive to the inhibitory factors in sewages [146, 147, 150]. For example, the different functional microorganisms involved in AD process have different pH optima, modify the system pH so as to cater for the needs of the individual microbial groups would be a method to optimize AD process. Lin et al. proposed a two-stage AD system for methane generation from swine manure. One of the major benefits of the system was preventing pH fluctuations from detrimentally affecting the individual microbial groups and resulting in system collapse since the acidogenic and methanogenic phases were separated [151]. Thus, bioreactors with two-stage AD system enable the simultaneous production of biohydrogen and methane. Besides, temperature and other environment condition can also be separate specifically to the microorganisms on each step [139, 143].

According to the previous studies, introducing bioelectrochemical system (BES) and conductive material into anaerobic system shown positive impact on methane generation [63, 152]. Since Pham et al. [153] firstly proposed the idea of coupling the BES system with AD system, researchers have made a series of attempts on the development, application, and regulation of the combined AD system. For example,

Tartakovsky et al. [154] demonstrated that the UASB reactor equipped with electrodes for water electrolysis significantly improved the methane production and system stability. Zou et al. [155] proposed a technique of an ABR combined with MECs to enhance the stability and efficiency of ABR. For the new process, the COD removal rate and methane content were up to 98% and 98% respectively. Moreover, Zamalloa et al. [156] compared the biogas production and biogas quality of a 20 L lab-scale septic tank coupled with a microbial electrolysis cell (MEC) and a common septic tank. The result showed that the biogas production of MEC-septic tank system is 5 time as much as the common one, the emission of phosphorous and H_2S was also lower than the common septic tank. In conclusion, many experimental phenomena proved introducing BES in anaerobic system can significantly improve the methane production and system stability. [27, 28, 114, 115, 118]

4.3 Metabolic regulation of main microorganisms in syntrophic methanogenesis process

During methanogenesis, intermediates are consumed by methanogens to produce methane. As is mentioned before, methanogens were confined to several specific substrates. Acetoclastic methanogenesis from acetate accounts for approximately 2/3 of the methane production, with hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis accounting for approximately the remaining 1/3 of the methane production. Besides, methanogenesis from methanol, methylamines, and formate has also been observed [157]. Due to the complexity of microorganism species and metabolic pathways in AD system,

understanding the diversity of microorganism species and the rules of community succession caused by the changes of environmental factors are critical for studying the structure and function of microbial community and revealing the degradation mechanism. Microbial communities in anaerobic digester were influenced by environmental parameters, such as added inoculum, temperature, pH, HRT, feedstock type, OLR, impurities, VFAs, C/N ratio, reactor design, and stirring intensity [158]. Wang et al. [159] studied the composition and evolution of microorganism communities in the AD of grass silage by metagenomics, established and analyzed a clone library, concluding that under different environmental conditions, the community composition, the structure, the abundance of functional flora and the dominant flora would change correspondingly. Duan et al. [160] also conducted metagenomic analysis to reveal the nonylphenol-shaped acidification and methanogenesis during sludge AD. Their study found that acetoclastic methanogenesis was replaced by the combination of acetoclastic and hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis when improve the concentration of noylphenol. The effective operation of AD system largely depends on the enrichment of functional microorganisms and the structure of microbial community in the activated sludge AD. Adding some specific microorganisms to increase the activity and diversity of activated sludge will achieve better results. Bioaugmentation is the process of increasing the rate of biodegradation by adding dominant strains [161]. Bioaugmentation is widely used in wastewater treatment, which can improve the substrate degradation. Mohan et al. [162] used bioaugmentation to treat synthetic wastewater containing benzyl alcohol,

the degradation of benzyl alcohol increased from 0.98 mg/min to 1.90 mg/min. Maqbool et al. [163] demonstrated that bioaugmentation with hydrocarbon degrading bacterial culture in UASB could accelerate the car wash wastewater treatment.

In addition, it is essential to know interactions between microorganisms through quorum sensing (QS) for the system optimization in syntrophic methanogenesis. QS is defined as the cell-to-cell communication occurred in microbial community in order to collectively control and tune biological behaviors to cope with changes of cell density and the surrounding environment [164, 165]. Microorganisms can produce and release signal molecules, when the concentration of these signal molecules comes to an extreme value, they will combine with the receptors and then activate the expression of target genes to modify relevant phenotypes [166]. The phenomenon of QS was first investigated in bacterium *Vibrio fischeri*, which proved the importance of QS in bioluminescence [167, 168]. After that, numerous studies proposed that many microbial processes were controlled by QS, such as the production of secondary metabolite [169], the production of antibiotics [170], the formation of biofilm [171], the secretion of virulence factors [172] and so on. Through QS, microorganisms are able to operate like an organ and adapt to the environment actively [173].

At present, five kinds of QS signal molecules, N-acyl-homoserine lactones (AHLs), Auto-inducer-2 (AI-2), Autoinducing peptides (AIPs), methyl dodecenoic acid, and quinolone have been discovered [174-176]. QS signal system can be divided into different types according to the different signal molecules [177]. For example, Gram-

negative bacteria mainly use LuxR/I mediated by acyl-homoserine lactones (AHLs) [178]; the target of signal Autoinducer 2 (AI-2) is Gram-negative or Gram-positive bacteria [179]; Gram-positive bacteria generally use autoinducing peptide (AIP) as self-inducer to regulate the development of gene receptors through a two-component signaling system [180]; in entero-hemorrhagic E.coli, there exists autoinducer 3 (AI-3) which regulate the expression of virulence factors; the QS signal system of methanogenic is similar to Gram-negative, thus belongs to LuxR/I system [181]. Studies have shown that AHLs and AIPs are the intraspecific QS signaling molecules of Gram-negative (G^-) and Gram-positive (G^+) bacteria respectively, while, AI-2 is the self-inducer of bacterial secretion and mediates microbial interspecific behavior [182]. Up to now, more than 100 proteobacteria have been identified to secrete AHLs. These microorganisms mainly synthesize AHLs through three types of enzymes, which are proteins belonging to the family of LuxI, LuxM, and HdtS, respectively. Most AHL synthases are proteins belonging to the LuxI family [183].

Currently, QS has been increasingly applied in wastewater treatment to promote the aggregation activity and the environmental resistance of activated sludge [184, 185]. Some research showed that the addition of AHLs could promote the chitinase activity in activated sludge, which indicated that QS system could mediate the secretion of extracellular enzymes and improve the efficiency of aerobic activated sludge process [186]. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* can degrade aromatic compounds and secrete two kinds of QS signaling molecules under aerobic conditions, the addition of endogenous

signal molecules could promote the degradation of phenol [187]. All these studies indicate that QS can be used as a control approach to improve the efficiency of wastewater treatment.

As for AD, since both hydrogen and acetate producing bacteria and methanogens are G^- bacteria, and most acid producing fermentation bacteria are G^- bacteria as well, the current research on QS in methane fermentation system mainly focuses on AHLs. Up to now, a series of AHLs have been detected in anaerobic sludge [188], and the methanogenic bacteria in anaerobic granular sludge can release and utilize AHLs by themselves, in order to optimize the methanogenic metabolic process of VFAs [189]. Some studies have shown that in UASB reactor, AHLs can promote the growth of *Methanothrix*, which accelerates the formation of sludge and maintains the stability and efficiency of reactor [181]. The addition of some specific AHLs can accelerate the degradation of organic substrates and the production of methane. Exogenous AHLs plays an important role in regulating the concentration of bacterial extracellular polymers and the structure of microbial community [190, 191]. Du et al. [192] constructed a microbial QS database of anaerobic methanogen through metagenomic and bioanalytical analysis to investigate the functional quorum sensing genes in AD reactor, which provided guidance for studying QS in AD.

5. Future perspective

AD has been widely used in waste/wastewater treatment with additional energy recovery [193]. After hydrolysis, acidogenesis, and acetogenesis steps, complex

organic substrates are converted to methane by methanogens [192]. Unlike aerobic process, sequential reactions of degradation are essential, thus syntrophic interactions between microorganisms via interspecies electron transfer is needed [14]. Syntrophic interactions between bacteria and methanogens are the basis to maintain an efficient AD system [23]. The microorganisms involved in syntrophic methanogenesis and mechanism of interspecies electron transfer between microorganisms are summarized in the present work. Study on optimizing syntrophic metabolic is an emerging topic on anaerobic microbiology recently. Many studies focus on adding conductive materials or nanoparticles to enhance syntrophic metabolic in AD. Therefore, how to enhance syntrophic metabolic ability via regulating the synthesis capability of electronic carriers need further investigation. Besides, the relationship between the two main electron carriers of hydrogen and formate and the differences between them for the contribution of product need more consideration as well. Recently, many studies focused on bioaugmentation technology, adding conductive materials during AD, external power supply for anaerobic reactor, two-phase AD reactor and coupling process to improve the efficiency of AD. Lastly, the application of omics analysis i.e. metagenomics and metatranscriptomics can provide deeper physiological and biochemical information by predicting the specific metabolic pathways and functional genes, which promote microbial AD process and develop high efficient AD technology.

6. Conclusions

Methanogenesis has always been considered as a rate-limiting step in AD. With the deepen understanding of the metabolic process of syntrophic bacteria, it was found

that the syntrophy conservation of VFAs was also an important rate-limiting step. Therefore, it is essential to take syntrophic bacteria and methanogen as a whole for analysis to improve the AD efficiency. The nature of syntrophic metabolism of VFAs mediated by anaerobic microorganisms is interspecies electron transfer. Traditional interspecies electron transfer uses hydrogen/formate as electron carriers. The formation of hydrogen and formate is hindered by thermodynamics, and their diffusion is restricted by Frick's law. Thus, the transfer of matter and energy between syntrophic microorganisms and methanogens are mainly limited by the process of interspecific electron transfer. Seeking a more efficient interspecies electron transfer method with higher thermodynamic barriers than interspecies hydrogen/formate transfers has gradually become a hot research topic. Along with the research of microorganism extracellular respiration, the mechanism of DIET and electron shuttle has been studied and presented higher advantage. Previous works mainly focus on process optimization. However, due to the complexity of microorganisms involved in AD, process optimization would not easily achieve. Understanding the microorganisms and biochemical reactions among AD would accelerate the syntrophic methanogenesis, which benefits the efficiency and stability of the system.

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1439 **Table 1** The reactions for substrates degradation and conversion to methane in
1440 anaerobic digestion

Substrates	Reactions	$\Delta G^{0'}$ (kJ/mol)
Propionate	$CH_3CH_2COOH + H_2O \rightarrow 2CH_3COOH + 3H_2 + CO_2$	+76.1
Butyrate	$CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2CH_3COOH + 2H_2$	+48.1
Lactate	$CH_3CH_2OH + H_2O \rightarrow CH_3COOH + 2H_2$	-4.2
Ethanol	$CH_3CH_2OH + H_2O \rightarrow CH_3COOH + 2H_2$	+9.6
Formate	$4HCOOH \rightarrow CH_4 + 3CO_2 + 2H_2O$	-130
Acetate	$CH_3COOH \rightarrow CH_4 + CO_2$	-33
Hydrogen	$4H_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$	-135

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Table 2 Summary of properties of the main methanogens

Methanogens	Methanogenic substrates	Temperatures	Typical habits
<i>Methanobacterium</i>	H ₂ , (formate)	37~45°C	Anaerobic digestors, freshwater sediments, marshy soils, rumen
<i>Methanobrevibacter</i>	H ₂ , formate	37~40°C	Animal gastrointestinal tracts, anaerobic digestors, rice paddies, decaying woody tissues
<i>Methanosphaera</i>	H ₂ + methanol	37°C	Animal gastrointestinal tracts
<i>Methanothermobacter</i>	H ₂ or formate	55~65°C	Anaerobic digestors
<i>Methanothermus</i>	H ₂	80~88°C	Hot springs
<i>Methanococcus</i>	H ₂ , formate	35~40°C	Marine sediments
<i>Methanothermococcus</i>	H ₂ , formate	60~65°C	Marine geothermal sediments
<i>Methanocaldococcus</i>	H ₂	80~85°C	Marine geothermal sediments
<i>Methanotorris</i>	H ₂	88°C	Marine geothermal sediments
<i>Methanomicrobium</i>	H ₂ , formate	40°C	Anaerobic digestors, groundwater, rumen
<i>Methanoculleus</i>	H ₂ , formate	20~55°C	Anaerobic digestors, marine sediments, freshwater sediments, rice paddies, oil fields, hot springs
<i>Methanofollis</i>	H ₂ , formate	37~40°C	Anaerobic digestors
<i>Methanogenium</i>	H ₂ , formate	15~57°C	Marine sediments, freshwater sediments, rice paddies, animal gastrointestinal tracts
<i>Methanolacinia</i>	H ₂	40°C	Marine sediments
<i>Methanoplanus</i>	H ₂ , formate	32~40°C	Oil fields
<i>Methanospirillum</i>	H ₂ , formate	30~37°C	Anaerobic digestors, marine sediments
<i>Methanocorpusculum</i>	H ₂ , formate	30~40°C	Anaerobic digestors, freshwater sediments
<i>Methanocalculus</i>	H ₂ , formate	30~40°C	Oil fields
<i>Methanosarcina</i>	(H ₂), MeNH ₂ ,	35~60°C	Anaerobic digestors,

	Acetate		marine sediments, freshwater sediments, rumen
<i>Methanococcoides</i>	MeNH ₂	23~35°C	Marine sediments
<i>Methanohalobium</i>	MeNH ₂	40~55°C	Hypersaline sediments
<i>Methanohalophilus</i>	MeNH ₂	35~40°C	Hypersaline sediments
<i>Methanlobus</i>	MeNH ₂	37°C	Hypersaline sediments
<i>Methanomethylovorans</i>	MeNH ₂	20~50°C	Freshwater sediments, anaerobic digestors
<i>Methanimicrococcus</i>	H ₂ + MeNH ₂	39°C	Animal gastrointestinal tracts
<i>Methanosalsum</i>	MeNH ₂	35~45°C	Hypersaline sediments
<i>Methanosaeta</i>	Acetate	35~60°C	Anaerobic digestors, freshwater sediments
<i>Methanopyrus</i>	H ₂	98°C	Marine geothermal sediments

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Table 3 Overview of the syntrophic community in methanogenic system

Bacteria	Methanogens	Substrates
<i>S. organism</i>	<i>Methanobacterium bryantii</i>	Ethanol, rumen fluid
<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i>	<i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Lactate, ethanol
<i>Syntrophomonas wolfei</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Methanobacterium arbophilieum</i>	Butyrate
<i>Desulfovibrio</i> sp.	<i>Methanosarcina barkeri</i>	Lactate
<i>Syntrophus buswellii</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Desulfovibrio</i> sp.	Benzoate
<i>Syntrophospora bryantii</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Desulfovibrio</i> sp.	Fatty acids with 4-11 carbon atoms
<i>Pelobacter carbinolicus</i> , <i>Pelobacter propionicus</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Primary alcohols/diols
<i>Acidogenic bacteria</i> (<i>Butyribacterium</i> <i>methylotrophicum</i> , <i>Sporomusa ovata</i> , <i>Acetobacterium woodii</i>)	<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i> , <i>Methanobrevibacter arboriphilus</i> strain AZ	Methanol
<i>Sporomusa acidovorans</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i> G6, <i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Methanol
<i>Hyperthermophilic sulfidogens</i> <i>Thermococcus celer</i> , <i>Thermococcus stetteri</i> , <i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> , and <i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i>	<i>Methanococcus thermolithotrophicus</i> or <i>Methanococcus jannaschii</i>	Starch, peptone
<i>Pelotomaculum schinkii</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Propionate
<i>Pelotomaculum</i> <i>propionicum</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Methanothermobacter</i> <i>thermautotrophicus</i>	Propionate
<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i>	<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i>	Lactate
<i>Desulfovibrio alaskensis</i> G20	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> JF-1	Lactate
<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i> <i>Hiddenborough</i>	<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i>	Lactate

<i>Pelobacter carbinolicus</i>	<i>Geobacter sulfurreducens</i>	Ethanol
<i>Syntrophomonas wolfei</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Butyrate
<i>Clostridium sporogene</i>	<i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i> <i>Methanosarcina barkeri</i>	Isoleucine
<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i>	<i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Ethanol, lactate
<i>Desulfovibrio alaskensis</i> G20	<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i>	Lactate
<i>Syntrophomonas wolfei</i>	<i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Butyrate
<i>MPOB</i> (<i>Syntrophobacter fumaroxidans</i>)	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Propionate
<i>Syntrophospora bryanti</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i> , <i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	Butyrate
<i>Thermaproteus phaeum</i>	<i>Methanothermobacter</i> <i>thermautotrophicus</i>	Acetate
<i>Syntrophomonas wolfei</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Butyrate, crotonate
<i>Syntrophus aciditrophicus</i>	<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Benzoate, cyclohexane-1-carboxylate

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1452 **Figure Captions**

1453 **Fig. 1** Process of anaerobic digestion

1454 **Fig. 2** The mechanisms of interspecies H₂ or formate transfer.

1455 **Fig. 3** Syntrophic microorganisms involved in interspecies hydrogen and formate
1456 transfers.

1457 **Fig. 4** The different mechanisms of three direct interspecies electron transfers.

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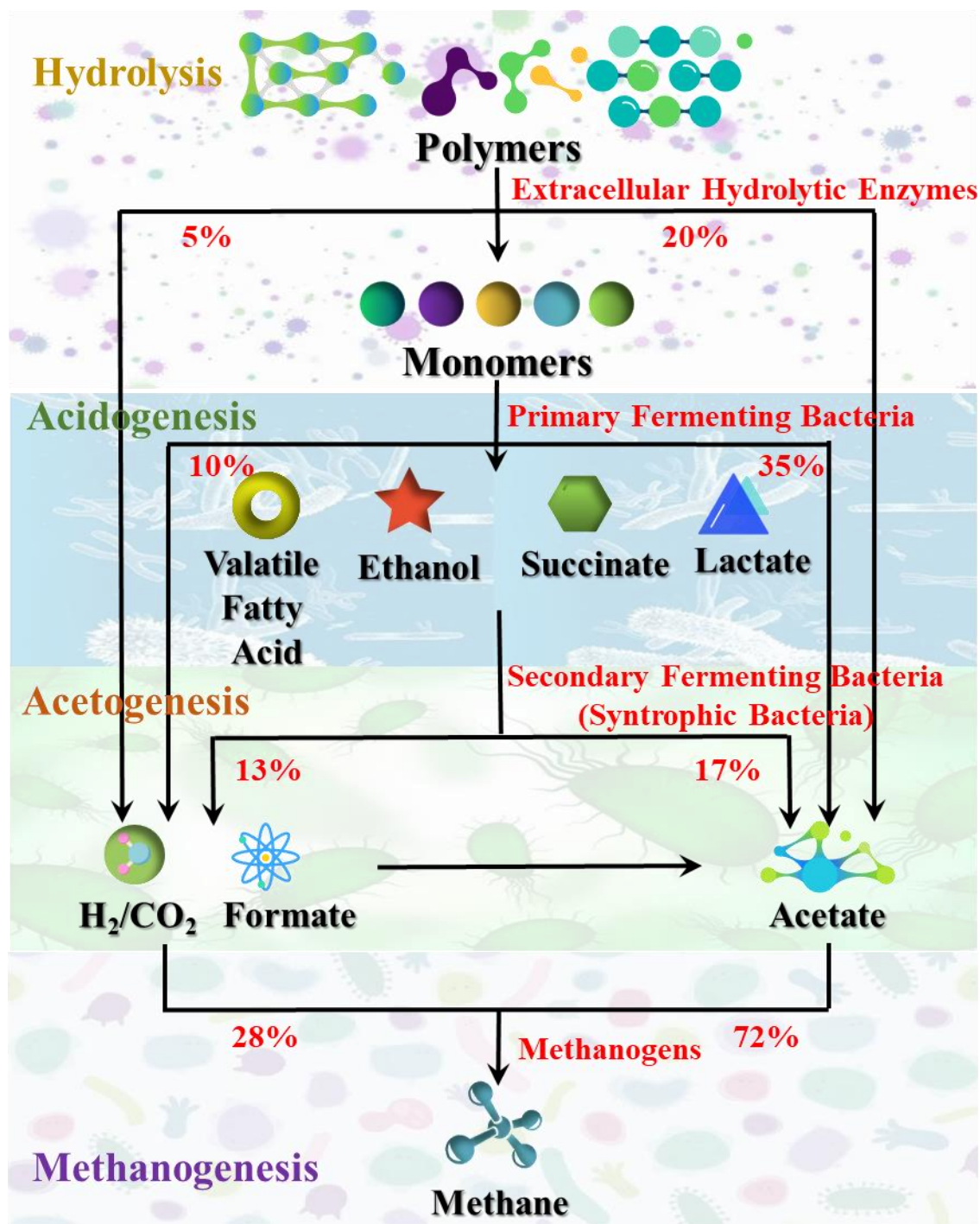
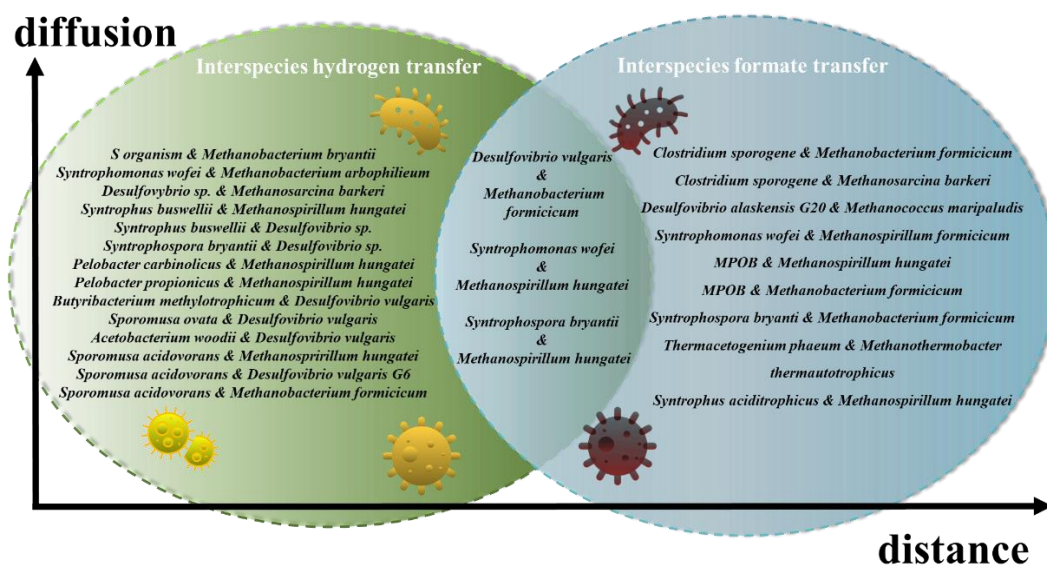


Fig.1

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Fig. 2

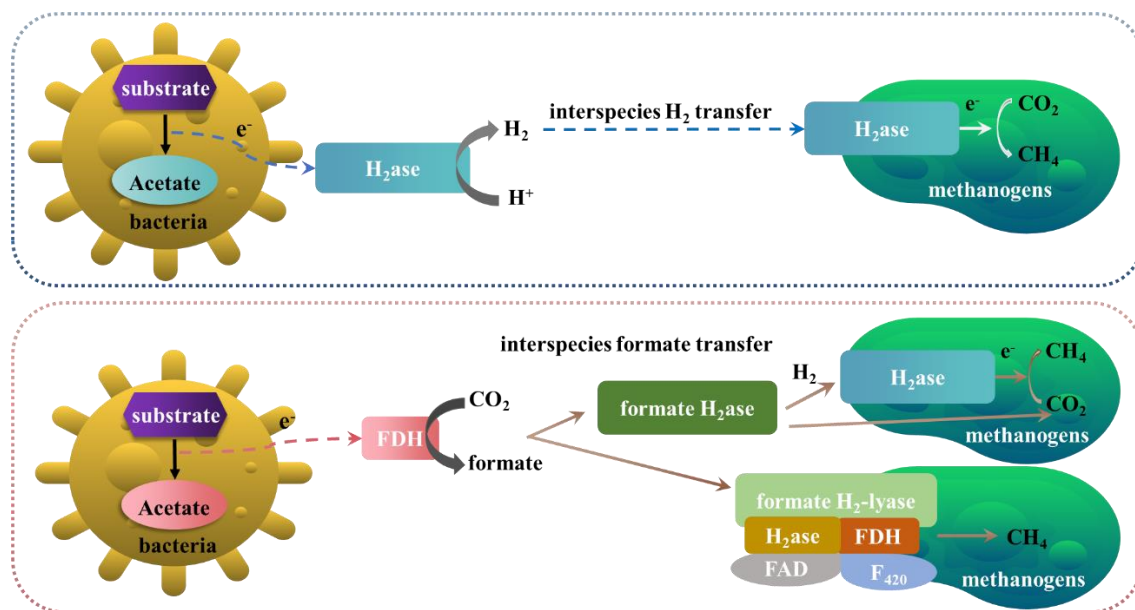
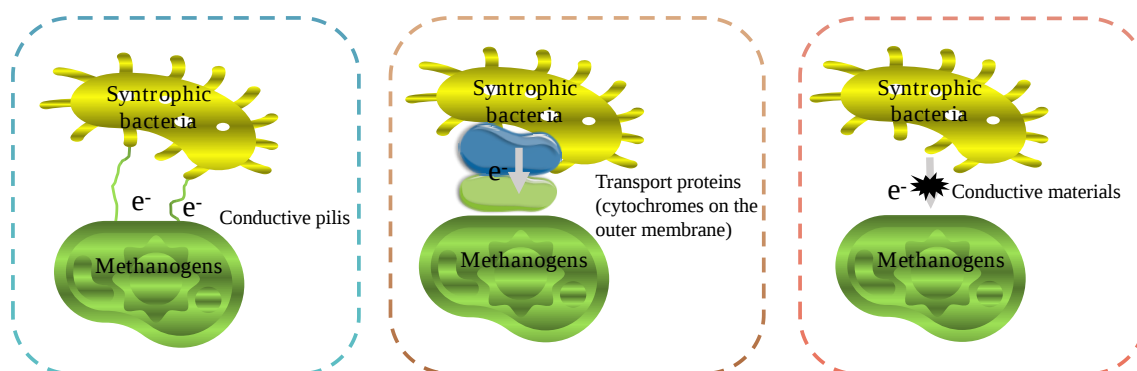


Fig. 3

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Fig. 4