

Microbial Diversity of Methanogenic Communities in the Systems for Anaerobic Treatment of Organic Waste

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Abstract—Methane production via anaerobic degradation of organic-contaminated wastewater, semiliquid, or solid municipal waste of complex composition by methanogenic microbial communities is a multistage process involving at least four groups of microorganisms. These are hydrolytic bacteria (polysaccharolytic, proteolytic, and lipolytic), fermentative bacteria, acetogenic bacteria (syntrophic, proton-reducing), and methanogenic archaea; complex trophic interactions exist between these groups. The review provides information concerning the diversity of the major microbial groups identified in the systems for wastewater and concentrated waste treatment, solid-phase anaerobic fermentation, and landfills for disposal of municipal solid waste, and also specifies the sources of isolation of the type strains. The research demonstrates that both new microorganisms and those previously isolated from natural habitats may be found in waste treatment systems. High microbial diversity in the systems for organic waste treatment provides for stable methanogenesis under fluctuating environmental conditions.

Keywords: anaerobic bacteria and archaea, methanogenic microbial communities, methanogenesis, organic waste

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INTRODUCTION

Anaerobic microbial degradation of organic matter (OM) is a multistage process of OM conversion into biogas, containing mainly methane and CO₂. At least four groups of microorganisms are involved in this process: hydrolytic bacteria (polysaccharolytic, proteolytic, and lipolytic), fermentative bacteria, acetogenic bacteria (syntrophic, proton-reducing), and methanogenic archaea. Since every group of microorganisms in methanogenic communities has specific substrates and products of metabolism, this community is able to switch between different pathways of OM decomposition, acting as a self-regulating system maintaining the optimal values of pH, Eh, and other environmental parameters [1].

The electron acceptor used for anaerobic OM decomposition is OM carbon, which is reduced to methane via a sequence of intermediate stages. OM carbon oxidized to CO₂ is used as the electron donor for this process. Thus, anaerobic microbial degradation results in OM conversion from the solid (liquid) phase to the gas phase. This pattern is the basis of the biotechnology for utilization of almost all kinds of organic waste [2]. Relatively low production of microbial biomass, applicability for concentrated wastewater and solid waste, as well as production of a renewable energy source (methane) are the advantages of anaerobic OM treatment [3]. This biotechnology is considered reliable and is used in full-scale treatment facilities in many countries of Europe, Asia, and America. New technologies aimed at more efficient water treatment, accelerated utilization of solid organic waste, and increased yield of methane are being developed under laboratory conditions [4].

Since the understanding of specifics of microbial activity is important for high efficiency of waste treatment, determination of the structure of microbial communities in anaerobic reactors is of importance for engineering. Thus, knowledge of the responses of methanogenic communities to varying conditions in the system is essential for stable and efficient operation

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Abbreviations: ARDRA, amplified ribosomal DNA restriction analysis; ASBR, anaerobic sequencing batch reactor; CSTR, continuously stirred tank reactor; CFSTR, continuous-flow stirred-tank reactor; DGGE, denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis; EGSB, anaerobic expanded granular sludge bed reactor; FISH, fluorescence in situ hybridization; LB, batch leach bed reactor; MAR-FISH, microautoradiography-fluorescence in situ hybridization; MSW, municipal solid waste; OM, organic matter; PB, packed-bed reactor; qPCR, quantitative PCR; RT-PCR, real-time PCR; SSCP, single strand conformation polymorphism; T-RFLP, terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism; VFA, volatile fatty acids; UAF, up-flow anaerobic filter reactor; UASB, up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket reactor.

of an anaerobic reactor. A number of works dealt with determination of the diversity and activity of methanogens in the reactors treating, municipal, and industrial wastewater of complex composition, as well as simple soluble substrates (mostly synthetic ones). There are, however, relatively few works dealing with the structure of methanogenic communities in the systems of solid-phase fermentation [5]. Development of culture-independent molecular biological techniques of the 16S rRNA gene analysis facilitated investigations of microbial communities, including the communities of waste treatment systems, where microbial diversity is extremely high. Application of molecular approaches to anaerobic reactors and municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills resulted in detection of the organisms related to both cultured and uncultured microorganisms, as well as some unknown organisms with unclear function.

Detailed information concerning the trophic relations and biochemical characteristics of the major microbial groups within methanogenic communities has been provided in numerous publications [1, 6–12]. The present review characterizes organic waste and briefly describes the fundamental basics of anaerobic OM decomposition and of the functioning of methanogenic communities. Specific attention is paid to phylogenetic diversity of microorganisms (hydrolytics, fermenters, syntrophs, and methanogens) in laboratory and full-scale systems for wastewater treatment, solid-phase anaerobic fermentation, and at the landfills. The microorganisms initially isolated from waste treatment facilities, as well as those detected in these systems by molecular genetic techniques and related to known species isolated from natural habitats, are listed in the text and in the tables.

COMPOSITION OF ORGANIC WASTE

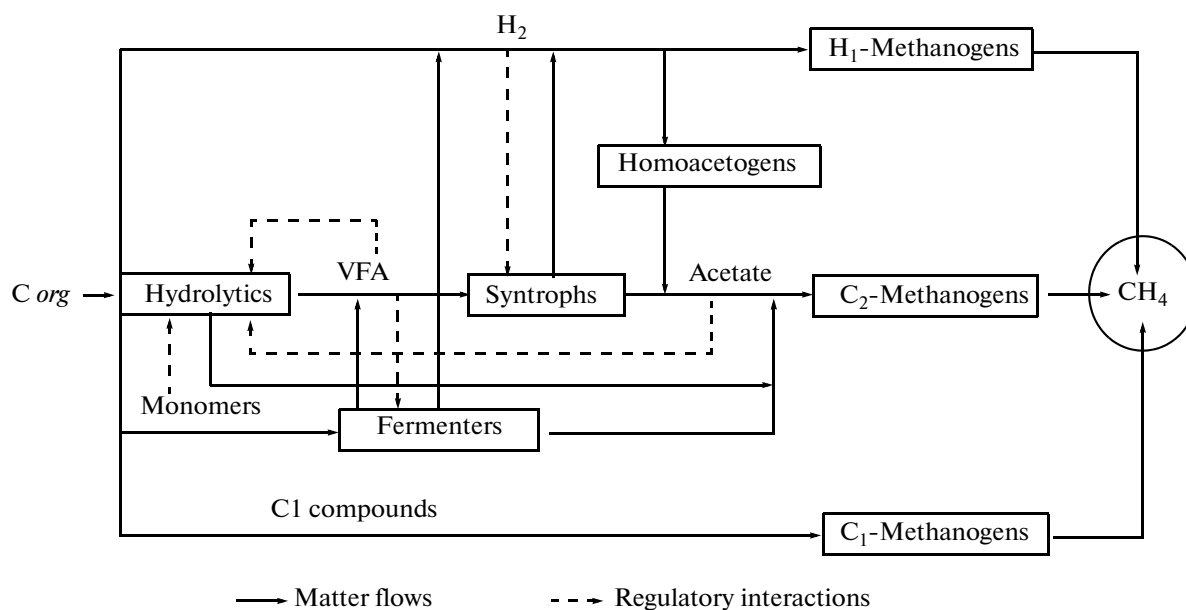
Organic waste is classified according to its origin (as municipal, industrial, and agricultural) or according to its physical state as liquid (wastewater), semiliquid (sewage sludge and semiliquid manure), and solid (MSW, food waste, agricultural waste, and dunage manure) [3]. The waste contains the whole spectrum of simple and complex OM. Depending on their source (municipal and industrial waste, animal husbandry and agricultural waste), specific organic compounds may predominate, although exact composition of the waste is often unknown. Chemical analysis of the waste, while possible, provides little information useful for development of the technological approaches to waste treatment. Organic waste is therefore conditionally classified according to predominance of one of the three components—carbohydrates, proteins, and fats.

Carbohydrate-rich waste. Carbohydrates are present in all waste, albeit in different proportions. Food waste, as well as waste of the sugar industry or fruit and vegetable processing, is enriched with simple sugars and disaccharides, which are easily decomposed by methanogenic communities with formation of volatile fatty acids (VFA). High levels of simple sugars may result in rapid VFA accumulation in the reactor, decreased pH, and suppression of methanogenesis. For balanced operation of anaerobic reactors, mixing the feedstock containing high amounts of simple carbohydrates with waste with lower content of easily degradable organic components is recommended [13].

The wastes of pulp-and-paper and woodworking industries, MSW, and straw or silage rich in polysaccharides (cellulose and hemicellulose) are difficult to hydrolyze by microorganisms under anaerobic conditions. Physicochemical or biological pretreatment of this material is required for its efficient anaerobic fermentation. Pretreatment is aimed at modification of the structure of hemicellulose or lignin, decreasing the crystallinity of cellulose, and increasing the substrate surface area [4]. Application of agricultural waste without pretreatment results in low biogas yield due to the high values of C/N ratio and lignin content. Moreover, this material may be contaminated by pesticide and herbicide residues, which may affect the kinetics of the process [13, 14].

Protein-rich waste. Similar to carbohydrates, proteins are present in all organic waste. Slaughterhouse waste, pig and poultry manure, and stillage from the ethanol industry are examples of waste with high protein content. Domestic wastewater and food waste also contain proteins, albeit in lower amounts. Microbial degradation of proteins results in release of ammonium ions, which are strong inhibitors of methanogenic communities and may cause reactor malfunction [13].

Fat-rich waste. Waste and wastewater of slaughterhouses, as well as waste from the dairy industry and oil production are typical materials with high fat content used for biogas production by anaerobic fermentation. Microbial degradation of fats results in high production of methane-rich biogas. High fat content in the waste may, however, cause reactor malfunction. Thus, degradation of triglycerides produces long-chain fatty acids (over 12 carbon atoms) and glycerol. Glycerol is rapidly converted to biogas, while decomposition of long-chain fatty acids is a more complex process carried out by a syntrophic association of bacteria and hydrogenotrophic methanogens. These acids may be accumulated in the system. Some long-chain fatty acids in high concentrations may inhibit activity of anaerobic microorganisms, including methanogens. Oleic and stearic acids have a negative effect on methanogens at 0.2–0.5 g L⁻¹ [14, 15]. Long-chain fatty



Trophic relations in a methanogenic community, from Zavarzin [16].

acids possess also detergent properties, which may cause foaming, especially at elevated temperatures.

Co-fermentation of mixed feedstock. Co-fermentation of mixture of different input materials usually provides better results than fermentation of homogenous substrates. Mixed feedstock probably contains more components required for microbial growth or has the C/N ratio closer to the optimal value. Complex substrates provide for development of various microbial groups, thus increasing the stability of the process and making the system more resistant to toxic compounds. Co-fermentation of various substrates may be used to improve the performance of the reactor, e.g., simplifying the pumping and mixing of the input [13]. Full-scale industrial systems of solid-phase anaerobic fermentation use a mixture of food and agricultural waste, MSW organic fraction, and sewage sludge.

MICROBIAL DIVERSITY IN THE SYSTEMS OF ANAEROBIC WASTE TREATMENT

For fermentation of polymer-containing waste, hydrolysis and VFA decomposition to the substrates of methanogenesis are the key reactions determining the rate of the entire process. Hydrogen is the central metabolite responsible for the regulation of methanogenic communities. When hydrogen partial pressure is maintained at a low level, interspecies hydrogen transfer becomes possible, which affects the metabolism of hydrolytic and fermenting microorganisms and enables the reactions of VFA and alcohol degradation by acetogenic (syntrophic) bacteria (figure). Micro-

bial abundance and diversity in methanogenic communities depends on the composition of degraded OM and on the conditions developing in the system. Apart from the major microbial groups, methanogenic communities contain the microorganisms not involved directly in OM degradation but playing an important role in providing the growth factors for other bacteria, removal of the toxic products of anaerobic metabolism, and maintaining anoxic conditions [1, 16, 17].

Hydrolytic Bacteria

Hydrolysis is the first stage of OM decomposition, determining the overall rate of the process. Most anaerobic hydrolytic bacteria synthesize cell-bound enzymes or specific enzyme complexes (cellulosomes); they usually carry out the process in direct contact with the surface of hydrolyzed materials. Hydrolytics thrive under conditions of substrate excess; this unhydrolyzed substrate is unavailable to other organisms. According to the substrates used, hydrolytics fall into the groups of polysaccharolytic, proteolytic, and lipolytic organisms, which utilize preferentially the polymers of carbohydrates, nitrogenous compounds, and lipids, as well as the products of their hydrolysis. Hydrolysis is closely associated with the fermentative stage (acidogenesis), with polymer-hydrolyzing microorganisms often fermenting the monomeric products of hydrolysis, thus carrying out both phases [1, 6].

Polysaccharolytic bacteria. Organic waste contain various polysaccharides: cellulose, hemicellulose,

starch, xylan, pectin, etc. Cellulolytic clostridia play the major role in anaerobic degradation of such waste. Molecular genetic techniques (FISH, qPCR, T-RFLP, and cloning) revealed the predominance of *Clostridium* spp. in laboratory and full-scale anaerobic reactors treating wastewater of various industries, landfill leachates, reactors fermenting the organic fraction of MSW, sewage sludge, and silage [18–20]. Apart from clostridia, members of the genera *Ace-tovibrio*, *Ruminococcus*, *Fibrobacter*, *Bacteroides*, and *Spirochaeta* are involved in polysaccharide degradation at landfills and mesophilic reactors operating at 30–35°C [18–25]. These organisms are the typical rumen inhabitants and are known to be capable of efficient cellulose degradation. Cellulolytic anaerobic fungi of the order *Neocallimastigales* involved in polysaccharide degradation were also found at landfills [20, 25].

Analysis of experimental works on the composition of microbial communities in various systems of anaerobic waste treatment revealed that most polysaccharolytic bacteria identified by molecular genetic techniques in mesophilic reactors were closely related to the species isolated from anthropogenic systems (sewage sludge, anaerobic reactors, landfill soil, cereal debris, rumen, and human and animal feces) (Table 1 [19, 21–24, 26–42]). The polysaccharolytics identified in thermophilic reactors operating at 50–55°C were related to the species isolated from both anthropogenic (digested sludge, compost, fermented manure, and contaminated soils) and natural habitats (water, mud and sediments of geothermally heated pools and thermal springs). *Clostridium* species prevailed in the first case, while *Petrotoga* and *Thermoanaerobacterium* species were found in the second case (Table 2 [18, 27, 32, 36, 38, 41–51]). Polysaccharolytics identified in hydrogen bioreactors operating at temperatures above 65°C were related to extremely thermophilic members of the genera *Caloramator*, *Caldanaerobacter*, *Thermoanaerobacter*, and *Thermoanaerobacterium*, which have been isolated mostly from natural habitats (geothermally heated streams and thermal springs) (Table 3 [18, 36, 38, 40, 42, 45, 52, 53]).

In reactors operating at 30–35°C, both mesophilic and moderately thermophilic polysaccharolytics occur. Thus, predominance of thermotolerant clostridia *C. thermocellum* and *C. stercorarium* was revealed by FISH in various mesophilic laboratory and industrial reactors [18]. Similarly, mesophilic cellulolytic clostridia with growth optimum at 20–40°C have often been identified in thermophilic reactors (>50°C) [32, 36, 38] (Table 1).

It was suggested that the species composition of cellulolytic bacteria has no effect on the rate and stability of cellulose degradation in anaerobic reactors.

The overall rate of cellulose decomposition depends on the rate and degree of substrate colonization, rather than on the presence of specific cellulolytic microbial species [27]. Colonization of the surface of an insoluble substrate is the strategy of cellulolytics, and their metabolism is proportional to available area [1]. Homogenization of solid waste prior to their fermentation in anaerobic reactors or landfilling is therefore desirable, since it promotes increased rates of OM degradation and development of conditions for formation of microbial biofilms over the surface of the decomposed material [25].

Proteolytic and lipolytic bacteria. Diversity of proteolytic and lipolytic bacteria in the systems of anaerobic waste treatment is poorly studied. *Butyrivibrio proteoclasticus* isolated from cattle manure [54] and the moderately thermophilic halotolerant *Anaerosalibacter bizertensis* isolated from the sludge of storage tanks holding wastes generated by the recycling of discarded motor oils [55] are bacteria exhibiting proteolytic activity. The thermophilic proteolytic *Caloramator proteoclasticus* isolated from the mesophilic granular methanogenic sludge of a whey-treating UASB reactor [56] was subsequently identified by DGGE in an ASBR reactor treating the palm oil mill effluent [32]. A thermophilic proteolytic *Coprothermobacter platensis* was isolated from a mesophilic UASB reactor treating wastewater of a baker's yeast production facility [57]. Another species *Coprothermobacter proteolyticus*, which was isolated from a thermophilic reactor fermenting tannery waste and cattle manure [58], is most often detected by molecular techniques in various waste treatment systems [36, 45, 59]. Many proteolytic bacteria are also capable of carbohydrate fermentation.

A mesophilic species *Selenomonas lipolytica* isolated from an anaerobic lagoon receiving wastewater from an edible oil mill possesses lipolytic activity [60]. An organism closely related to a thermophilic lipolytic *Bacillus coagulans* was identified by DGGE in enrichment cultures on cellulose from thermophilic compost of solid waste management facility [45].

Fermentative Bacteria

Fermentative bacteria are responsible for the acidogenic (hydrogen) stage of anaerobic OM decomposition. Their substrates—various sugars, higher fatty acids, peptides, amino acids, and other products of polymer hydrolysis—are fermented to hydrogen, CO₂, and lower fatty acids and alcohols depending on their type of metabolism and environmental conditions. Some fermenters are also able to metabolize phenolic and nitrogen- or sulfur-containing compounds of the waste. Activity of fermentative bacteria results in a drastic decrease of carbohydrate content in

Table 1. Mesophilic polysaccharolytic bacteria detected in waste treatment systems

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Acetivibrio cellulolyticus</i>	Municipal sewage sludge, sludge of a two-stage anaerobic reactor (pretreated cornstalks)	Cultivation, DGGE	[21, 23]	Municipal sewage sludge
<i>A. cellulosolvans</i>	Municipal sewage sludge	Cultivation	[22]	"
<i>Bacteroides cellulosolvans</i>	Municipal sewage sludge, laboratory reactor inoculated with an enriched on microcrystalline cellulose landfill leachate microbial consortium	Cultivation, FISH	[26, 27]	Municipal sewage sludge
<i>Cellulomonas fermentans</i>	Landfill soil; laboratory chemolithotrophic denitrifying UASB reactor inoculated with methanogenic sludge from a full-scale reactor (paper waste)	Cultivation, cloning	[28, 29]	Landfill soil
<i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i>	CSTR (soluble condensed molasses), anaerobic completely mixed tank reactors (whey permeate)	RT-PCR; DGGE	[30, 31]	Cereal crops, soil, lake sediments
<i>C. cellobioparum</i>	Laboratory LB reactors (silage)	T-RFLP-cloning	[19]	Rumen
<i>C. cellulolyticum</i>	Thermophilic H ₂ -ASBR (palm oil mill effluent)	DGGE	[32]	Decomposing grass
<i>C. cellulovorans</i>	Methanogenic reactor (finely divided hybrid poplar wood)	Cultivation	[33]	"
<i>C. lentocellum</i>	River sediment containing paper-mill waste	Cultivation	[34]	"
<i>C. leptum</i>	Cattle manure; thermophilic CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry); laboratory LB reactors (silage)	Cultivation; T-RFLP, cloning	[19, 35, 36]	Human feces
<i>C. populeti</i>	Methanogenic reactor (woody-biomass); thermophilic CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry)	Cultivation, cloning	[36, 37]	Methanogenic reactor fermenting finely divided hybrid poplar wood
<i>C. roseum</i>	Thermophilic H ₂ -UASB reactor (wheat straw hydrolysate)	DGGE	[38]	Corn (soil may be the habitat)
<i>C. ramosum</i>	Cattle manure	Cultivation	[35]	Human clinical material
<i>C. spiroforme</i>				Human, chicken, and rabbit feces
<i>C. sufflavum</i>	Methanogenic digester (cattle waste)	Cultivation	[39]	"
<i>Halocella cellulolytica</i>	Thermophilic solid-state anaerobic digester (paper waste)	Cloning	[40]	Anaerobic sediments of Lake Sivash hypersaline lagoon (Crimea)
<i>Ruminococcus flavefaciens</i>	Anaerobic reactor (MSW organic fraction)	DGGE	[24]	Cattle and sheep rumen
<i>Soehngenia saccharolytica</i>	UASB reactor (potato starch wastewater)	Cultivation	[41]	"

* Closely related microorganisms were identified by molecular techniques.

** According to Bergey's Manual [42] and original publications.

Table 2. Moderately thermophilic polysaccharolytic bacteria detected in waste treatment systems

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Clostridium amygdalinum</i>	UASB reactor (potato starch wastewater)	Cultivation	[41]	"
<i>C. cellulosi</i>	Cattle manure compost; enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	Cultivation, DGGE	[43–45]	Cattle manure compost
<i>C. caenicola</i>	Digested sludge from methane-tank (MSW); enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	Cultivation, DGG	[45, 46]	Sludge from an MSW-digesting methane-tank
<i>C. clariflavum</i>	Digested sludge from methane-tank (MSW)	Cultivation	[46]	
<i>C. isatidis</i>	H ₂ -UASB reactor (wheat straw hydrolysate)	DGGE	[38]	Woad vat
<i>C. straminisolvens</i>	Compost from feces of domestic animals, poultry, rice straw, and sugarcane waste; CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry)	Cultivation, cloning	[36, 47]	Compost from feces of domestic animals, poultry, rice straw, and sugarcane waste
<i>C. thermoamylolyticum</i>	H ₂ -ASBR (palm oil mill effluent); enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	DGGE	[32, 45]	Mud of hot springs in Hveragerdi (Iceland)
<i>C. thermocellum</i>	Fermented manure; H ₂ -ASBR (palm oil mill effluent); consortium isolated from compost on an artificial medium (cellulose); CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry); solid-phase anaerobic digester (paper waste); laboratory reactor inoculated with an enriched on microcrystalline cellulose landfill leachate microbial consortium; mesophilic anaerobic acidogenic digester (raw sewage)	Cultivation, DGGE, FISH, cloning	[18, 27, 32, 36, 40, 44, 48]	Fermented manure
<i>C. thermopalmarium</i>	Enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	DGGE	[45]	Palm wine (Senegal)
<i>Petrotoga mobilis</i>	CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry)	Cloning	[36]	Hot oilfield water of a North Sea oil reservoir
<i>Thermoanaerobacterium aotearoense</i>	H ₂ -producing sludge from a fermentor (cellulose-containing wastewater); solid-phase fermentor (fruit and vegetable waste)	DGGE, cloning	[49, 50]	Water and sediments of geothermally heated pools (New Zealand)
<i>T. thertnosaccharolyticum</i>	Consortia from thermophilic composts on cellulose, including those from a biowaste treatment plant; H ₂ -ASBR (palm oil mill effluent)	DGGE	[32, 44, 45, 51]	Contaminated soil

* Closely related microorganisms were identified by molecular techniques.

** According to Bergey's Manual [42] and original publications.

Table 3. Extremely thermophilic polysaccharolytic bacteria detected in waste treatment systems

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Caloramator fervidus</i>	H ₂ -UASB reactor (wheat straw hydrolysate containing mainly hemicellulose)	DGGE	[38]	Geothermal spring (New Zealand)
<i>Thermoanaerobacter wiegelii</i>				Freshwater pool formed by a water outlet of a heat exchanger (New Zealand)
<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>				Oilfield (France)
<i>C. subterraneus</i> subsp. <i>subterraneus</i>	Enrichment cultures from cattle manure	DGGE	[52]	Oilfield (France)
<i>C. subterraneus</i> subsp. <i>tengcongensis</i>				Hot spring (China)
<i>C. subterraneus</i> subsp. <i>yonseiensis</i>				Geothermal hot stream at Sileri (Jawa)
<i>Clostridium stercorarium</i>	Mesophilic laboratory and industrial reactors; CFSTR (artificial garbage slurry); solid-phase anaerobic digester (paper waste); enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	Cloning; DGGE; FISH	[18, 36, 40, 45]	Plant debris from a compost heap decomposing at 70°C
<i>Thermoanaerobacter italicus</i>	Enrichment cultures obtained on cellulose from thermophilic compost of a biowaste treatment plant	DGGE	[45]	Thermal spa (Italy)
<i>T. mathranii</i> subsp. <i>mathranii</i>				Hot spring (Iceland)
<i>Thermoanaerobacterium polysaccharolyticum</i>	Leachate of a waste pile from a canning factory (sweet corn and other vegetables)	Cultivation	[53]	"
<i>Thermoanaerobacterium zeae</i>				"

* Closely related microorganisms were identified by molecular techniques.

** According to Bergey's Manual [42] and original publications.

the medium and an increase in the concentrations of lower fatty acids (formic, acetic, propionic, and butyric) CO₂, H₂, and alcohols (ethanol, propanol, and butanol). Mutual dependence exists between hydrolytic and fermenting bacteria: hydrolytics provide oligomeric substrates, while fermenters maintain the concentrations of hydrolysis products below the threshold level required for hydrolase synthesis; the latter is under metabolic control [1].

Fermentative bacteria developing in waste treatment systems are highly diverse. Fermenters of the classes *Clostridia*—*Acetanaerobacterium elongatum* (paper mill wastewater) [61], *Acetivibrio multivorans* (oil refinery wastewater) [62], *Anaerofilum pentosovorans* (industrial wastewater) [63], *Ethanoligenens harbinense* (molasses wastewater) [64], and *Saccharofermentans acetigenes* (brewery wastewater) [65]; *Bacteroidia*—*Bacteroides paurosaccharolyticus* (cattle farms wastewater) [66]; and *Actinobacteria*—*Bifidobacterium thermacidophilum* (wastewater from a bean-curd farm) [67] were originally obtained in pure cultures from anaerobic reactors treating wastewaters of various industries.

Acid-producing clostridia were identified in anaerobic reactors by molecular genetic techniques. In a laboratory CSTR inoculated with activated sludge from a municipal wastewater treatment facility and used for hydrogen production from soluble condensed molasses, mesophilic clostridia *C. saccharobutylicum*, *C. sporosphaeroides*, and *C. pasteurianum* were identified by RT-PCR [30]. The species *C. pasteurianum* and *C. tyrobutyricum* were detected by DGGE in H₂-producing acidogenic granular sludge from a reactor treating sucrose-containing synthetic wastewater [68]. Clostridia closely related to the psychrophilic species *C. bowmanii* isolated from Lake Fryxell (Antarctica) were detected by cloning in a methanogenic sludge from a full-scale UASB bioreactor treating recycle paper factory waste [29]. In completely mixed mesophilic laboratory reactors for treatment of synthetic glucose wastewater, whey permeate, and liquefied sewage sludge, clostridia related to *C. propionicum*, *C. tertium*, *C. sticklandii*, and *C. magnum* were identified by RT-PCR and DGGE. Apart from clostridia, fermentative bacteria closely related to *Streptococcus bovis*, *Aeromonas hydrophila*, and *Anaerofilum agile* were revealed in these reactors [31]. The species *A. agile* was originally isolated from a methanogenic reactor treating acidic whey and inoculated with activated sludge from a wastewater treatment plant [63].

Lactobacilli closely related to the mesophilic species *Lactobacillus hammesii*, *L. parabrevis*, *L. sakei*, *L. spicheri*, and to the psychrophilic species *L. fuchuensis* were identified by DGGE in reactors of full-scale municipal biogas plant. The biological fraction of MSW, agricultural waste, free flowing commer-

cial waste, liquid manure, and bio-waste requiring sanitation (waste from grease separators and canteen kitchens) were processed in this plant under thermophilic conditions (55°C). These reactors also contained fermentative organisms closely related to mesophilic *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Pseudoramibacter alactolyticus*, and moderately thermophilic *Anaerobaculum mobile*, *Sporanaerobacter acetigenes* [69]. The species *A. mobile* isolated from an anaerobic lagoon receiving wastewater from a wool-processing factory [70] was detected by cloning in a thermophilic laboratory CSTR using artificial garbage slurry as a feedstock [36]. The species *S. acetigenes*, originally isolated from a mesophilic commercial UASB reactor treating wastewater contaminated by diverse OM [71], was subsequently identified by cloning in the laboratory-scale reactors fermenting thermally hydrolysed waste activated sludge [72].

In general, fermentative bacteria are relatively resistant to the fluctuating conditions inside a reactor due to their high species diversity and capacity for fermentation of a broad spectrum of organic compounds. The acidogenic stage of OM decomposition is therefore highly efficient and may be used for production of considerable amounts of biohydrogen as a fermentation product, especially in the case of decomposition of semiliquid or solid organic waste.

Acetogenic (Syntrophic or Proton-Reducing) Bacteria

In methanogenic communities, the products of the acidogenic stage (VFA and alcohols), as well as some amino acids and aromatic compounds, are oxidized syntrophically to H₂, CO₂, formate, and acetate (the substrates for methanogenesis). It was shown that VFA oxidation becomes exergonic, so that bacteria may obtain sufficient energy for growth, only when the concentrations of the products of this process (hydrogen and formate) are maintained at low levels [9]. Syntrophic bacteria are therefore dependent on their hydrogen/formate-utilizing partners. At this stage, the concentration of the carrier (hydrogen or formate) is the key problem, since it should be below the inhibitory level for the hydrogen/formate-producing organism and sufficiently high for the hydrogen/formate-utilizing one. Partial hydrogen pressure for syntrophic VFA decomposition should not exceed 10⁻⁴ bar [7]. Malfunctioning of anaerobic reactors, e.g., in the case of overloading, results in a sharp increase of higher VFA concentrations, probably associated with increased hydrogen partial pressure. Removal of produced acetate is also important for stable decomposition of VFA and alcohols [73].

Syntrophic associations of bacteria and hydrogen/formate-utilizing methanogenic archaea have certain specific characteristics: (1) while VFA decom-

position is coupled to growth, neither bacteria, nor methanogens alone are able to degrade these compounds; (2) intercellular distance affects the rate of the process and specific growth rates, resulting in formation of aggregates of bacteria and archaea, one of the reasons for formation of granular sludge in anaerobic digesters; and (3) syntrophic associations exist under conditions close to thermodynamic equilibrium, and special biochemical mechanisms are required in order to distribute the chemical energy between the members of the community [8]. Aggregation of the consortia of syntrophic bacteria and methanogenic archaea is highly important for high rates of methanogenesis via VFA decomposition. Formation of granular sludge in anaerobic reactors is one of the necessary conditions for efficient wastewater treatment [74]. Inside microbial granules, the optimal conditions for interspecies hydrogen transfer and for biomass accumulation are maintained, which makes it possible to isolate syntrophic bacteria and methanogenic archaea from anaerobic reactors and to investigate their physiology.

Dependence of syntrophic bacteria upon the hydrogen/formate-utilizing partner has been long considered obligatory. By now, however, almost all bacteria capable of syntrophic metabolism have been isolated in pure cultures with the carbon sources more oxidized than those utilized during syntrophic growth (e.g., crotonate for VFA-utilizing bacteria or fumarate, for propionate-utilizing ones). Only several species are known to be obligate syntrophic bacteria: *Syntrophomonas zehnderi*, *S. sapovorans*, *Pelotomaculum schinkii*, and *P. isophthalicum* [9, 75].

Analysis of the 16S rRNA gene sequences of bacteria capable of syntrophic metabolism revealed many of them to belong to the class *Deltaproteobacteria* (to the genera *Syntrophus*, *Syntrophobacter*, *Desulfoglaeba*, *Geobacter*, *Desulfovibrio*, and *Pelobacter*). Two other groups of syntrophs are low-G + C gram-positive bacteria. The first one contains members of the genera *Desulfotomaculum*, *Pelotomaculum*, *Sporotomaculum*, and *Syntrophobotulus*. The second group forms the family *Syntrophomonadaceae* comprising the genera *Syntrophomonas*, *Syntrophothermus*, and *Thermosyntropha* [9].

Syntrophic bacteria are most often isolated from anaerobic reactors treating various types of wastewater. *Syntrophomonas wolfei*, the first described bacteria capable of syntrophic VFA oxidation in co-culture with a hydrogen-utilizing methanogen, was isolated from anaerobic digester sludge [76]. Six more mesophilic *Syntrophomonas* species degrading butyrate and more long-chained VFA were isolated from anaerobic reactors treating municipal wastewater and wastewater of various industries [77–82]. An organism closely related to *S. sapovorans*, identified by cloning in a full-scale anaerobic plant, digests the excess sludge of the

domestic wastewater treatment facility [83]. Thermophilic *Syntrophothermus lipocalidus*, another member of the family *Syntrophomonadaceae*, was isolated from granular sludge of a thermophilic UASB reactor which had been fed with an artificial wastewater containing sucrose, acetate, and propionate as the major carbon sources [84].

Syntrophus aciditrophicus, isolated from a benzoate-degrading enrichment culture obtained from secondary anaerobic digester sludge of a municipal sewage treatment plant, is capable of syntrophic oxidation of butyrate, longer-chain VFA, and benzoate [85]. *Syntrophus buswellii*, isolated from the municipal primary anaerobic sewage digester, is also capable of syntrophic benzoate utilization [86].

Syntrophobacter wolinii, isolated from the primary anaerobic digester sludge, was the first described syntroph degrading propionate [87]. A closely related organism was identified by cloning in an UASB reactor treating brewery wastewater [88]. Three more propionate-degrading, sulfate-reducing *Syntrophobacter* species were isolated from anaerobic sludge: *S. pfennigii* from the anoxic sludge of the municipal sewage plant [89], *S. fumaroxidans* from granular sludge of an UASB reactor treating sugar refinery wastewater [90], and *S. sulfatireducens* from the sludge of UASB reactors treating brewery and bean curd wastewater [91]. The presence of *S. fumaroxidans*, *S. wolinii*, and *S. pfennigii* was revealed by membrane hybridization in reactors treating MSW and sewage sludge [92]. A species closely related to *S. fumaroxidans* was identified by DGGE in enrichment cultures obtained on propionate from mesophilic granular sludge of a full-scale reactor treating paper mill wastewater [93]. The thermophilic *Desulfotomaculum thermobenzoicum* subsp. *thermosyntrophicum* is another sulfate-reducing bacterium capable of syntrophic propionate degradation. It was isolated from granular sludge of a laboratory-scale UASB reactor operated at 55 C with a mixture of VFA as feed, which was inoculated with mesophilic granular sludge from a potato-processing factory [94].

Mesophilic *Pelotomaculum schinkii*, *P. propionicum*, and thermophilic *P. thermopropionicum*, which were isolated from methanogenic sludge of UASB reactors [95–97], are also capable of propionate decomposition in syntrophic associations with hydrogenotrophic methanogens. *P. thermopropionicum*, apart from propionate, is capable of syntrophic degradation of lactate and various alcohols. Two other *Pelotomaculum* species, *P. terephthalicum* and *P. isophthalicum*, were isolated from granular sludge of a UASB reactor treating wastewater from manufacturing of terephthalic and isophthalic acids. These species syntrophically decompose various phthalate isomers and other aromatic compounds [98]. Although

they are incapable of sulfate reduction, these *Pelotomaculum* species—as well as benzoate-degrading syntroph *Sporotomaculum syntrophicum* isolated from methanogenic sludge of a reactor treating terephthalate manufacturing wastewater [99]—are closely related to sulfate-reducing *Desulfotomaculum* spp. according to their 16S rRNA gene sequences.

Mesophilic *Smithella propionica* isolated from an anaerobic UAF reactor inoculated with digested domestic sewage sludge and operated with propionate as the major feedstock [100] is another propionate-degrading syntroph. In a co-culture with methanogens, *S. propionica* decomposes propionate to acetate, small amounts of butyrate, CO₂, and methane. In co-cultures it can also grow and produce methane from crotonate, butyrate, malate and fumarate; in pure culture, it only grows on crotonate. Closely related organisms were detected by cloning and membrane hybridization in reactors digesting excess sludge of domestic wastewater treatment facility and MSW [83, 92].

Mesophilic *Clostridium ultunense* isolated from a laboratory reactor fed with pig manure is capable of syntrophic acetate oxidation [101]. *C. ultunense*, was subsequently revealed by DGGE in thermophilic reactors of a full-scale municipal biogas plant utilizing different solid organic waste [69]. Predominance of syntrophic acetate oxidizers *C. ultunense*, *Tepidanaerobacter acetatoydans*, and *Syntrophaceticus schinkii* at the ammonia level above 0.8–6.9 g NH₄-N L⁻¹ was revealed by qPCR in laboratory-scale mesophilic reactors with gradually increasing ammonium load. It indicates resistance of these syntrophs to high concentrations of toxic ammonium ions [102]. Another acetate oxidizing syntroph, thermophilic *Thermacetogenium phaeum*, was isolated from a methanogenic reactor treating kraft-pulp wastewater [103]. The organisms exhibiting 93% similarity of 16S rRNA gene sequence to *T. phaeum* and 96% similarity to *Tepidanaerobacter syntrophicus* were detected by cloning in a UAF reactor treating awamori distillery wastewater [104]. *T. syntrophicus* isolated from sludge of thermophilic digesters that decomposed either MSW or sewage sludge is capable of syntrophic oxidation of lactate and some alcohols [104].

Thermotoga lettingae isolated from an anaerobic thermophilic sulfate-reducing reactor is capable of syntrophic decomposition of methanol to CO₂ and H₂ in association with hydrogenotrophic methanogens. In pure culture this organism ferments methanol to acetate, CO₂, and H₂, but the process is slower than under syntrophic conditions or in the presence of electron acceptors (thiosulfate, S₀, Fe(III), or anthraquinone-2,6-disulfonate). In the presence of thiosulfate or elemental sulfur, methanol is converted to CO₂ and partially to alanine. The organism is able to

grow on acetate in the presence of thiosulfate or a methanogen [105].

Organisms closely related to a rumen inhabitant *Syntrophococcus sucromutans*, which is capable of syntrophic fructose decomposition in association with hydrogen/formate-utilizing microorganisms, were revealed by DGGE in thermophilic reactors of a full-scale municipal biogas plant utilizing different solid organic waste [69, 107].

Although over 25 new species of syntrophic bacteria have been isolated from anaerobic reactors, quantitative in situ data obtained by molecular genetic techniques (FISH, MAR-FISH, and membrane hybridization) revealed low abundance of metabolically active syntrophs in a number of laboratory and full-scale reactors. In these systems, the contribution of syntrophic bacteria to the total microbial number or total rRNA (in the case of membrane hybridization) usually does not exceed 5% [75]. Since syntrophic VFA oxidation is the key stage limiting OM decomposition, anaerobic reactors should provide conditions favoring accumulation of bacteria carrying out syntrophic metabolism.

Methanogenic Archaea

The complex process of anaerobic OM decomposition is completed by methanogenic archaea, which use H₂/CO₂, acetate, and methylated compounds as the major substrates for methanogenesis. Some of them are able to use formate and carbon monoxide as well. Acetate is the most important substrate for methanogenesis, responsible for production of up to 70% methane in the course of mesophilic decomposition of complex OM [108]. In mesophilic reactors fermenting the feedstock with high protein content, ammonium is accumulated and syntrophic acetate oxidation commences. In such reactors, syntrophic bacteria and hydrogenotrophic methanogens predominate, since they are more resistant to toxic effects of ammonium than acetoclastic methanogens [102].

Analysis of experimental works on methanogenesis in laboratory and full-scale reactors revealed certain patterns of methanogen development in these systems. First, *Methanosaeta* spp. usually predominate in the reactors where low acetate concentrations are maintained (e.g., sewage sludge digestion). Abundance of *Methanosaeta* spp. is also higher in reactors with granular sludge than in those with flocculating sludge. Predominance of *Methanosarcina* spp. occurs at high concentrations of acetate and other VFA (e.g., manure fermentation) [5]. These results agree perfectly with the physiological characteristics of the genera *Methanosaeta* and *Methanosarcina*. *Methanosaeta* spp. exhibit high affinity to acetate (the minimal threshold of 7–70 μM) and low growth rates, while *Methano-*

Table 4. Mesophilic methanogenic archaea detected in waste treatment systems

Species*	Site of identification (feed-stock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
Aceticlastic methanogens (acetate)				
<i>Methanosaeta concilii</i>	Digested sewage sludge, fermented manure, mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (wastewater of soy protein and molasses production, potato processing, sugar plant, paper mill, etc; solid paper, food, agricultural waste), MSW landfill	Cultivation, immunofluorescence, T-RFLP, cloning, DGGE, ARDRA, SSCP, membrane hybridization	[29, 88, 92, 93, 112, 114–123]	Digested sludge from the sewage treatment plant
Hydrogenotrophic methanogens (H ₂ /CO ₂ , in some cases formate)				
<i>Methanobacterium bryantii</i>	MSW landfill; high-rate anaerobic bioreactor (sulfite evaporator condensate); granular sludge of an UASB reactor (2,4-dichlorophenol)	Cultivation; immunofluorescence	[124–126]	Anaerobic digester
<i>Methanobacterium beijingenense</i>	Granular sludge of an UASB reactor (brewery wastewater); laboratory LB reactors (silage)	Cultivation; T-RFLP-cloning	[19, 127]	Granular sludge of a mesophilic UASB reactor (brewery wastewater)
<i>Methanobacterium congolense</i>	Anaerobic reactors (raw cassava-peel waste, MSW organic fraction); laboratory LB reactors (silage)	Cultivation; DGGE, T-RFLP-cloning	[19, 24, 128]	Anaerobic reactor processing raw cassava-peel waste
<i>Methanobacterium espanolense</i>	Primary sludge (kraft pulp mill wastewater)	Cultivation	[129]	"
<i>Methanobacterium formicicum</i>	MSW landfills; mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (wastewater of soy protein production, paper mill wastewater, starch-, VFA-, and 2, 4-dichlorophenol-containing wastewater; solid food waste, MSW organic fraction, sewage sludge, sulfite evaporator condensate)	T-RFLP, DGGE, immunofluorescence, SSCP, cultivation; cloning	[24, 93, 117, 119, 123–126, 130]	Sewage sludge
<i>Methanobacterium subterraneum</i>	UASB reactor (brewery wastewater)	Cloning	[88]	Groundwater from deep subterranean granitic aquifers
<i>Methanobrevibacter arboriphilus</i>	Mesophilic reactors (wastewater of sugar and potato-processing plants; wastewater containing whey permeate, VFA; sulfite evaporator condensate)	Cultivation, immunofluorescence	[116–118, 125]	Wetwood enrichment cultures
<i>Methanobrevibacter cuticularis</i>	Full-scale anaerobic reactor (food waste)	T-RFLP	[119]	Hindgut of the termite <i>Reticulitermes flavipes</i>
<i>Methanobrevibacter curvatus</i>				

Table 4. (Contd.)

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Methanobrevibacter smithii</i>	Mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (wastewater of soy protein production, potato processing, whey permeate-, VFA-, and 2,4-dichlorophenol-containing wastewater; solid food waste, sewage sludge)	Immunofluorescence, SSCP, cultivation	[117, 118, 123, 125, 126]	Enrichment culture from sewage sludge on formate; human feces
<i>Methanococcus voltae</i>	Granular sludge of a UASB reactor (2,4-dichlorophenol)	Cultivation	[126]	River sediments (United States)
<i>Methanocorpusculum bavaricum</i>	Wastewater pond (sugar factory wastewater)	Cultivation	[131]	"
<i>Methanocorpusculum parvum</i>	Methanogenic digester (sour whey); laboratory reactor (synthetic wastewater, VFA, sucrose); granular sludge of a hybrid reactor (wastewater of molasses production); sludge from a wastewater pond (paper mill wastewater); solid-phase reactor (MSW)	Cultivation T-RFLP-cloning, ARDRA, DGGE	[113, 120, 121, 132, 133]	Anaerobic sour whey digester, originally inoculated with sewage sludge
<i>Methanocorpusculum sinense</i>	Pilot plant (distillery wastewater)	Cultivation	[131]	"
<i>Methanoculleus olentangyi</i>	MSW landfills; mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (awamori distillery and brewery wastewater, wastewater containing 2,4-dichlorophenol, tannery waste, MSW organic fraction, agricultural waste, liquid manure, biowaste)	Cultivation, T-RFLP, cloning, DGGE	[69, 88, 104, 112, 126, 130, 134]	River sediments (United States), reactor fermenting tannery waste initially inoculated with digested sewage sludge
<i>Methanoculleus palmolei</i>	Anaerobic digester (palm oil plant wastewater), MSW landfill	Cultivation, cloning	[122, 135]	Anaerobic digester treating wastewater of palm oil plant
<i>Methanofollis liminatans</i>	Effluent of an anaerobic reactor (industrial wastewater); MSW landfills	Cultivation, T-RFLP, cloning	[112, 122, 136]	Effluent of a reactor treating industrial wastewater
<i>Methanogenium cariaci</i> (psychrotolerant species, t_{opt} 20–25°C)	High-rate turbulent reactors (whey-permeate containing wastewater); sludge from an UASB reactor (potato processing wastewater, VFA)	Immunofluorescence	[117, 118]	Marine sediments (Cariaco Trench)
<i>Methanospirillum hungatei</i>	Mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (sugar plant, molasses production, potato processing, palm oil mill, and brewery wastewater; VFA-, ethanol-, sucrose-, 2,4-dichlorophenol-containing wastewater; food waste, sewage sludge)	Cultivation, immunofluorescence T-RFLP-cloning, ARDRA, SSCP, DGGE	[88, 116, 118, 120, 121, 123, 126, 137, 138]	Sewage sludge

Table 4. (Contd.)

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Methanospirillum stamsii</i> (psychrotolerant species, t_{opt} 20–25°C)	Granular sludge from a low-temperature (3–8°C) laboratory EGSB reactor (VFA)	Cultivation	[139]	"
Methanogens utilizing all substrates (acetate, methylamines, methanol, H ₂ /CO ₂ , CO)				
<i>Methanosarcina barkeri</i>	MSW landfills; mesophilic anaerobic reactors (wastewater of sugar plant, soy protein production; whey-, ethanol-, VFA-, sucros-containing wastewater; solid food waste, MSW, sewage sludge)	Cultivation, immunofluorescence, T-RFLP, cloning, DGGE	[112, 113, 116, 117, 119, 120, 122, 124, 140]	Enrichment culture on butyrate from sewage sludge digester
<i>Methanosarcina lacustris</i> (t_{opt} 20–25°C)	Laboratory reactor (fermented manure); sludge from a wastewater pond (paper mill wastewater)	Cultivation	[133]	Anaerobic lake sediments (Switzerland)
<i>Methanosarcina mazeii</i>	Mesophilically fermented cattle manure; mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (sewage sludge, wastewater containing whey-permeate, 2,4-dichlorophenol; solid food waste, MSW organic fraction, wheat straw hydrolysate, sulfite evaporator condensate)	Cultivation, T-RELP, DGGE, immunofluorescence	[24, 38, 113, 115, 117, 119, 125, 126, 141]	Methane-tank
<i>Methanosarcina siciliae</i>	Full-scale reactor (food waste); laboratory LB reactors (silage)	T-RFLP, cloning	[19, 119]	Marine sediments, oil well
<i>Methanosarcina vacuolata</i>	Methane-tank sludge	Cultivation	[142]	"
Methylotrophic methanogens (methanol or methylamines, some also utilize acetate, methanethiol, and dimethyl sulfide)				
<i>Methanomethylovorans hollandica</i>	Thermophilic laboratory reactor (methanol); UASB reactor (brewery wastewater); MSW landfill	ARDRA, DGGE, cloning	[88, 122, 143]	Sediments of a eutrophic freshwater pond (The Netherlands)
<i>Methanosarcina semesiae</i>	MSW landfill	Cloning	[122]	Mangrove sediment
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i>	Granular sludge from a UASB reactor (2,4-dichlorophenol); full-scale reactor (food waste)	T-RFLP, cultivation	[119, 126]	Littoral marine sediments (United States)

Table 4. (Contd.)

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
<i>Methanospaera stadtmanae</i>	Thermophilic reactors of full-scale municipal biogas plant (MSW organic fraction, agricultural waste, free flowing commercial waste, liquid manure, bio-waste)	DGGE	[69]	Human feces
<i>Methanimicrococcus blatticola</i>				Hindgut of a cockroach <i>Periplaneta americana</i>

* Closely related microorganisms were identified by molecular techniques.

** According to Bergey's Manual [42] and original publications.

sarcina spp. have low affinity to acetate (the minimal threshold of 0.2–1.2 mM) and high growth rates [110]. Successful start-up of laboratory anaerobic co-digesters treating MSW and sewage sludge occurred when the content of archaeal rRNA was high, with predominance of aceticlastic methanogens *Methanosaeta concilii*. In contrast, digesters that experienced a difficult start-up period and VFA accumulation had lower levels of archaeal rRNA with proportionally more abundant *Methanosarcina* spp. and *Methanobacteriaceae* [92]. Aceticlastic *Methanosaeta* species (*M. concilii* and *M. thermophila*), as well as *Methanosarcina* species (*M. barkeri*, *M. mazeii*, and *M. thermophila*), which utilize a variety of substrates (acetate, methylamines, methanol, and H₂/CO₂), are most often found at MSW landfills and in mesophilic or thermophilic anaerobic reactors treating wastewater of various industries, sewage sludge, MSW, manure, etc. (Tables 4 and 5).

Moreover, the species diversity of methanogens is higher in mesophilic reactors than in thermophilic ones. The number of mesophilic methanogenic species detected in various reactors and at landfills (Table 4) is more than twice higher than the number of thermophilic species found in the same systems (Table 5). Hydrogenotrophic methanogens predominate in thermophilic reactors [5]. Nine out of twelve species of methanogens detected in various thermophilic reactors were hydrogenotrophic (*Methanoculleus* spp., *Methanothermobacter* spp.) (Table 5). The prevalence of hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis over aceticlastic under thermophilic conditions was confirmed for bottom sediments of a contaminated lake by the radioisotope method [109]. Quantitative data obtained by FISH revealed, however, the predomi-

nance of hydrogenotrophic methanogens only during the start-up of thermophilic laboratory CSTR fermenting MSW. When the reactor reached the steady-state conditions they were replaced by the acetotrophic methanogens [111]. On the contrary, at landfills hydrogenotrophic methanogens prevailed over aceticlastic ones in the course of time [25]. At the sites with fresh waste (about 2 years old), hydrogenotrophic, aceticlastic, and Cl-utilizing methanogens of the orders *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanomicrobiales*, and *Methanosarcinales* developed, while at "older" sites (~6 years old), hydrogenotrophic methanogens of the orders *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanomicrobiales* prevailed (according to cloning and RFLP) [112]. Similar results have been obtained by DGGE and cloning for laboratory reactors simulating waste decomposition at the MSW landfills [113].

Thus, anaerobic methanogenic communities are ensembles of interacting groups of microorganisms forming an integrated trophic system. In this system, the microorganisms experience competition for the common substrates or cooperation in their utilization. Application of molecular genetic techniques to waste treatment systems reveals both new anaerobic microorganisms and those previously isolated from natural environments. These findings improve our understanding of biodiversity and ecology of the microorganisms in methanogenic communities. Knowing the biodiversity and physiological characteristics of the components of methanogenic communities, it is possible to optimize the technological parameters of the operation of full-scale anaerobic reactors, to increase the efficiency and rate of OM conversion and methane

Table 5. Moderately thermophilic methanogenic archaea detected in waste treatment systems

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
Aceticlastic methanogens (acetate)				
<i>Methanosaeta thermophila</i>	Digested sewage sludge from a thermophilic methane-tank, thermophilically fermented cattle manure	Cultivation	[115, 144, 145]	Mud of a hydrothermal chloride lake (Kamchatka); digested sewage sludge from a thermophilic methane-tank
Hydrogenotrophic methanogens (H ₂ /CO ₂ , in some cases formate)				
<i>Methanobacterium thermaggregans</i>	UASB reactor (brewery wastewater)	Cloning	[88]	Mud sample from a cattle pasture
<i>Methanoculleus receptaculi</i>	Thermophilic laboratory reactor (food waste, sewage sludge)	SSCP	[123]	Shengli oil field (China)
<i>Methanoculleus thermophilicus</i>	Thermophilic CSTR (artificial garbage slurry), MSW landfills; thermophilic granular sludge from a hybrid reactor (molasses production wastewater)	Cloning, T-RFLP, ARDRA	[36, 112, 121, 130]	Sediments underlying high-temperature effluent from a coastal nuclear power plant
<i>Methanolinea tarda</i>	Anaerobic prodionate-degrading enrichment culture isolated from mesophilic methanogenic sludge (municipal wastewater)	Cultivation	[146]	"
<i>Methanothermobacter defluvii</i>	Sludge from an anaerobic reactor (methacrylate-containing wastewater); thermophilic UASB reactor (wheat straw hydrolysate containing mainly hemicellulose)	Cultivation, DGGE	[38, 147]	Sludge from an anaerobic reactor treating methacrylate-containing wastewater
<i>Methanothermobacter marburgensis</i>	Digested sewage sludge from mesophilic methane-tank	Cultivation	[148]	"
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i>	Digested sewage sludge, thermophilically fermented cattle manure; thermophilic anaerobic reactors (potato processing and molasses production wastewater; VFA-containing wastewater, wheat straw hydrolysate)	Cultivation, immunofluorescence, DGGE, ARDRA	[38, 115, 118, 121, 149, 150]	Digested sewage sludge
<i>Methanothermobacter thermoflexus</i>	Sludge from an anaerobic reactor (methacrylate-containing wastewater)	Cultivation	[147]	"
<i>Methanothermobacter thermophilus</i>	Digested sewage sludge from a thermophilic methane-tank	Cultivation	[151]	"
<i>Methanothermobacter wolfeii</i>	Enrichment cultures from a mixture of sewage sludge and river sediment, full-scale thermophilic anaerobic reactors (domestic and livestock waste, sewage sludge)	Cultivation, cloning	[152, 153]	Enrichment cultures from a mixture of sewage sludge and river sediment

Table 5. (Contd.)

Species*	Site of identification (feedstock)	Identification technique	References	Source of type strain isolation**
Methylophilic methanogens (methanol or methylamines, some also utilize acetate)				
<i>Methanomethylovorans thermophila</i>	UASB reactor (methanol)	Cultivation	[154]	"
<i>Methanosarcina thermophila</i>	Mesophilic and thermophilic anaerobic reactors (sulfite evaporator condensate; potato processing and awamori distillery wastewater; food waste, sewage sludge); MSW landfill	Cultivation, immunofluorescence, SSCP, T-RFLP, cloning	[36, 104, 118, 119, 123, 125, 130, 155]	Laboratory thermophilic reactor inoculated with the sewage sludge from a municipal wastewater treatment plant

* Closely related microorganisms were identified by molecular techniques.

** According to Bergey's Manual [42] and original publications.

yield in the biogas, and to develop new technologies for solid waste utilization.

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