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1 **Selection and application of sulfide oxidizing microorganisms able to**
2 **withstand thiols in gas biodesulfurization systems**

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26 **Abstract**

27 After the first commercial applications of a new biological process to remove
28 hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) from low pressure biogas, the need arose to broaden the
29 operating window to enable the removal of organosulfur compounds from high
30 pressure sour gases. In this study we selected microorganisms, from a full-scale
31 biodesulfurization system, that are capable of withstanding the presence of thiols.
32 This full-scale unit has been in stable operation for more than 10 years. We
33 investigated the microbial community by using next-generation sequencing of 16S
34 rRNA gene amplicons which showed that methanethiol gave a competitive
35 advantage to bacteria belonging to the genera *Thioalkalibacter* (*Halothiobacillaceae*
36 family) and *Alkalilimnicola* (*Ectothiorhodospiraceae* family). The sulfide-oxidizing
37 potential of the acclimatized population was investigated under elevated thiol loading
38 rates (4.5 - 9.1 mM d⁻¹), consisting of a combination of methanethiol, ethanethiol, and
39 propanethiol. With this biomass, it was possible to reach a stable bioreactor
40 operation at which 80% of the supplied H₂S (up to 61 mM d⁻¹) was oxidized to
41 elemental sulfur. Moreover, it was found that a conventionally applied method to
42 control oxygen supply to the bioreactor, i.e. by maintaining a redox potential set-point
43 value, appeared to be ineffective in the presence of thiols.

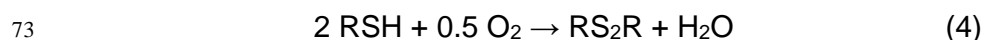
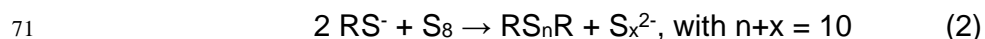
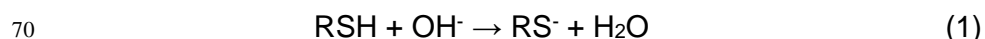
44 **1. Introduction**

45 Thiols are analogues of alcohols with a general formula of RSH, where R
46 represents an aliphatic chain. These organosulfur compounds can be present in
47 many sour gas streams such as landfill gas, liquefied petroleum gas and natural
48 gas.¹⁻³ The presence of thiols in gas streams is associated with the occurrence of
49 hydrogen sulfide (H₂S). Both are corrosive and acidifying compounds that contribute
50 to air pollution and are toxic to humans. Hence, H₂S and thiols need to be removed
51 from sour gas streams prior to consumption by applying either physicochemical or
52 biological desulfurization processes.⁴

53 We have developed a family of gas biodesulfurization processes that operate
54 under haloalkaline conditions, i.e. at elevated pH values (>8.5) and carbonate
55 concentrations (~ 1 M) to ensure high H₂S absorption rates from the reaction with
56 hydroxyl and (bi)carbonate ions.^{5,6} It is known that haloalkaliphilic sulfur-oxidizing
57 bacteria (SOB) are suitable for sulfide oxidation because of their high sulfide-
58 oxidizing capacity at elevated salt and pH levels.^{7,8}

59 Short chain thiols such as methanethiol (MT), ethanethiol (ET), and
60 n-propanethiol (PT) have pK_a values around 10.4.^{9,10} Consequently, these
61 compounds are removed from gas streams together with H₂S under alkaline
62 conditions (Eq. 1). However, in contrast to H₂S, thiols inhibit SOB already at
63 ~0.6 μM.^{11,12} Dissociated thiols (RS⁻) are strong nucleophiles and therefore very
64 reactive.¹³ For example, a reaction between thiol and biologically produced sulfur
65 globules results in the rapid formation of diorgano polysulfanes (Eq. 2).¹⁴ The first
66 reaction product is diorgano pentasulfide, which immediately undergoes
67 interconversion reactions to form a mixture of organosulfur compounds (Eq. 3).

68 Moreover, thiols can be easily oxidized by oxygen to diorgano disulfides (Eq. 4),
69 where the oxidation rate of thiols decreases with increasing molecular weight.¹⁵



74 Literature about the effect of thiols and diorgano polysulfanes on
75 biodesulfurization processes is scarce and there is a growing need to expand the
76 application window of existing biodesulfurization systems for thiol removal which
77 necessitates more research. This paper describes the effect of high loading rates
78 (4.5 - 9.1 mM d⁻¹) of the most common volatile thiols (MT, ET, and PT) on the overall
79 performance of gas biodesulfurization processes. According to our knowledge, the
80 effect of higher thiols (ET and PT) on biological H₂S removal process has not been
81 extensively studied yet. In order to find an appropriate inoculum for a bench-scale
82 bioreactor, the biomass from a full-scale installation treating a natural gas
83 condensate stream containing H₂S and thiols was used. A detailed description of this
84 desulfurization plant is provided in the Supplementary Information (S1). The
85 acclimatization to and the effect of MT, ET, and PT on the microbial population was
86 monitored by using next-generation sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons.

87

88

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 **2.1. Experimental setup**

91 The experimental setup consisted of a falling film gas absorber and a
92 fed-batch air-lift bioreactor (Fig. 1). A falling-film absorber was chosen to avoid any

93 sulfur plugging issues, as previously encountered with a packed column. Table 1
94 shows the dimensions and process conditions of the gas absorber. The liquid volume
95 of the bioreactor was 2.2 L and the volume of the gas absorber was 0.2 L. The total
96 liquid volume remained constant throughout each experimental run. Oxygen gas
97 (99.995 vol.%) was supplied to the bioreactor by a mass flow controller (type EL-
98 FLOW, model F-201DV-AGD-33-K/E, 0-30 mL min⁻¹, Bronkhorst, the Netherlands) to
99 control the oxidation reduction potential (ORP) value. The same type of mass flow
100 controller was used to feed H₂S (99.8 vol.%, 0-17 mL min⁻¹), MT, ET, and PT (1
101 vol.% in N₂, 0-30 mL min⁻¹), and N₂ gas (99.995 vol.%, 0-350 mL min⁻¹) to the gas
102 absorber and the bioreactor. Carbon dioxide (99.99 vol.%) was fed to the inlet of the
103 gas absorber with a solenoid valve (125318, Burkert, Germany) when the pH of the
104 bioreactor medium was above its set-point value. The oxygen and carbon dioxide
105 supply rates were controlled with a multiparameter transmitter (Liquiline CM442;
106 Endress+Hauser, the Netherlands) based on real-time signals from the redox
107 potential electrode (Ag/AgCl reference electrode, Orbisint CPS12D;
108 Endress+Hauser) and a pH sensor (Orbisint CPS11D; Endress+Hauser),
109 respectively. A gear pump (EW-74014-40, Metrohm Applikon, Schiedam, the
110 Netherlands) recycled the liquid between the bioreactor and the gas absorber. The
111 gas phase from the bioreactor headspace was continuously sent to the bottom of the
112 bioreactor (34 L min⁻¹) with a gas compressor (N-840, KNF, Germany). The
113 bioreactor and the gas absorber were kept at 35 °C with a thermostatted bath (DC10-
114 P5/U, Haake, Germany). Gaseous samples were collected from sampling points
115 placed at the inlet and outlet of the gas absorber and in the bioreactor headspace
116 (Fig. 1). Liquid samples were collected from a sampling point located in the middle
117 section of the bioreactor (Fig. 1).

118

119 *2.1.1. Medium composition*

120 The reactor medium included a carbonate/bicarbonate buffer of 0.1 M Na₂CO₃
121 and 0.8 M NaHCO₃. Furthermore, the medium contained 1.0 g K₂HPO₄, 0.2 g MgCl₂
122 × 6 H₂O, and 0.6 g urea per 1 L Milli-Q ultrapure water. A trace elements solution
123 was added (1 mL L⁻¹) as described elsewhere.¹⁶ The final pH of the medium was kept
124 constant at 9.00 ± 0.01 at 35 °C.

125

126 *2.1.2. Inoculum*

127 The bioreactor was inoculated with cells obtained by centrifugation (30 min at
128 16,000 × g) of a 2-L culture collected from a full-scale installation used to desulfurize
129 a natural-gas condensate containing low concentrations of thiols (as described in S1,
130 Supporting Information).

131

132 **2.2. Experimental design**

133 Unless stated otherwise, all experiments were performed in the experimental
134 setup as described in section 2.1. Firstly, we acclimatized the biomass originating
135 from the full-scale installation (described in S1, Supporting Information) to MT, which
136 is the most common and toxic of all thiol species.^{17,18} This process was performed
137 under a gradually increasing MT loading rate ranging from 0.1 to 7.6 mM d⁻¹ over a
138 period of 63 days (see Section 3.1). During the selection period there was no N₂ flow
139 over the bioreactor (Fig. 1).

140 Secondly, we studied the potential application of the acclimatized biomass to
141 remove H₂S in the presence of MT, ET, and PT. These experiments were conducted
142 under various flow rates of N₂ gas (0-18 L h⁻¹) over the bioreactor to assess the effect

143 of the volatile organic sulfur compounds (VOSCs) stripping on the system
144 performance. An overview of the operating conditions for these experiments is given
145 in Table 2. The total MT and ET loading rate of the gas absorber was 9.1 mM d^{-1} ,
146 while the PT loading rate was 4.5 mM d^{-1} for experiments in which single thiols were
147 supplied to the system. All experimental runs were conducted under sulfur-producing
148 conditions ($\text{ORP} = -390 \pm 5 \text{ mV}$). The H_2S loading rate was kept constant at
149 61.3 mM d^{-1} . Before the onset of each experiment, the ORP was kept constant within
150 $\pm 5 \text{ mV}$. Each experiment lasted for 24 h, during which four gas and liquid samples
151 were taken at regular time intervals. For experiments described in Table 2, the ionic
152 charge balance was established by comparing equivalent amounts of cations and
153 anions (see Section 2.3). The difference was $4 \pm 3 \%$ indicating that there was no
154 significant gap in the sulfur balance.

155

156 **2.3. Analytical techniques**

157 Liquid sample preparation and chemical analysis of sulfur compounds (sulfur,
158 sulfate, and thiosulfate) and biomass concentration were performed as described
159 previously.¹⁹ In addition to sulfur containing anions, we also analyzed Na^+ and K^+
160 with ion chromatography as described for the anions¹⁹ except that a Metrohm
161 Metrosep C4 - 150/4.0 mm column was used with a mobile phase of 0.9 mL 3 mM
162 $\text{HNO}_3 \text{ min}^{-1}$.

163 To close the ionic charge balance, the carbonate and bicarbonate ion
164 concentrations were calculated using the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation²⁰ on the
165 basis of inorganic carbon determined using high temperature catalytic oxidation at
166 $680 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in a TOC-VCPH/CPN analyzer (Shimadzu, the Netherlands). Before starting

167 the analyses, all solids were removed by filtration over a 0.22 µm syringe filter (Millex
168 G5 filter unit; Millipore). The samples were subsequently stored at 4 °C.

169 Concentrations of gaseous compounds (H₂S, O₂, N₂, and VOSCs; i.e. MT, ET,
170 PT, and their diorgano polysulfanes) were analyzed using gas chromatography with a
171 flame photometric detector as described previously.¹⁹ To identify VOSCs, we used
172 gas chromatography (6890N, Agilent, the Netherlands) coupled with a triple
173 quadrupole mass spectrometer (5975, Agilent, the Netherlands), equipped with an
174 Agilent column (HP-5MS, 30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 µm, Agilent, the Netherlands).
175 Initially, the oven temperature was 50 °C. After 2 min, a gradient of 12.5 °C min⁻¹ was
176 applied to reach 200 °C. We operated the mass spectrometer in SIM mode with a
177 filament voltage of 70 eV and an electron multiplier voltage of 1200 to 2800 V.
178 Helium was the carrier gas, with a flow rate of 1.3 mL min⁻¹. The injection volume was
179 1 mL.

180

181 ***2.4. DNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene sequencing***

182 Biomass samples were collected for microbial community analysis of
183 respectively (1) the inoculum; (2) samples collected during the selection process for
184 MT-tolerant biomass; and (3) at the beginning and the end of each experimental run
185 (Table 2). The samples were washed twice with a buffer of pH 9 and 0.5 M Na⁺ to
186 prevent the occurrence of an osmotic shock. The washing was performed by (1)
187 centrifuging the samples at 20,000 x g for 5 min; (2) removal of the supernatant; and
188 (3) addition of fresh buffer and mixing with a vortex to re-suspend the pellet.
189 Afterwards, Total Genomic DNA was extracted from the washed biomass using the
190 PowerBiofilm™ DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio, USA) following the manufacturer's
191 instructions. All the above procedures were performed in duplicate for each sample.

192 The 16S rRNA gene profiling for the samples collected during the selection
193 process was performed as described previously.¹⁷ For biomass samples taken during
194 the experimental runs with different thiols, partial 16S rRNA genes were amplified
195 using primers 341F and 805R²¹ following a modified PCR protocol by Hugerth et al.
196 (2014).²² Dual-index multiplexed library construction and sequencing was carried out
197 at Science for Life Laboratory, Sweden (www.scilifelab.se) on the Illumina MiSeq
198 platform as 2 × 301 pair-ends according.²³ Sequence data were processed using the
199 UPARSE pipeline²⁴ and annotated against the SINA/SILVA database (SILVA 119)²⁵
200 before analysis in Explicit 2.10.5.²⁶ The number of clustered operational taxonomic
201 units (OTUs) and additional sequence data are given in Supporting Information (S2).
202 The EMBL-EBI accession number for presented 16S rRNA sequences is
203 PRJEB14146.

204

205 ***2.5. Effect of diorgano polysulfanes on the redox potential***

206 We investigated the effect of dimethyl-, diethyl-, and dipropyl polysulfanes on
207 the ORP by using a setup consisting of a glass mini-reactor (60 mL) equipped with a
208 magnetic stirrer as described elsewhere.²⁷ The reactor was closed with a Teflon
209 piston. The ORP was measured with a redox potential electrode (Ag/AgCl reference
210 electrode, Orbisint CPS12D; Endress+Hauser). A multiparameter transmitter
211 (Liquiline CM442; Endress+Hauser, the Netherlands) was used to record the signals
212 from the ORP sensor. All the experiments were performed at 35 °C (DC10-P5/U
213 thermostat bath, Haake, Germany).

214 Solutions of dimethyl-, diethyl-, and dipropyl polysulfanes were prepared by
215 addition of 6 g L⁻¹ biosulfur to 1.2 mM MT, ET, or PT solutions and incubated on a
216 shaker for 24 hours at room temperature to allow for complete reaction between thiol

217 and biosulfur (Eq. 2). The conversion efficiency of thiols was verified using GC
218 analysis. Solutions of dimethyl and diethyl polysulfanes were injected separately to
219 the mini-reactor filled with the medium using a glass syringe with the injection volume
220 between 50-150 μL . Each concentration was analyzed in triplicate.

221

222

223 **3. Results and discussion**

224 ***3.1. Selection for the MT-tolerant biomass originating from the full-scale*** 225 ***system***

226 To select microorganisms capable of withstanding MT, we exposed biomass
227 obtained from the full-scale bioreactor to gradually increasing MT concentrations for
228 a period of 63 days. The laboratory reactor conditions (pH, ORP, and salinity) were
229 kept the similar to those in the full-scale bioreactor (Supporting Information S1).
230 Bioreactor performance and microbial population dynamics were followed during the
231 selection period (Fig. 2).

232 During the first 20 days of operation, the MT loading rate was negatively
233 correlated with biotic production of sulfur due to inhibition of the originally dominating
234 SOB. This resulted in increased abiotic production of thiosulfate (Fig. 2) through
235 polysulfide anions.²⁸ From day 20 to 40, sulfur production was between 60 and 75%
236 under increased MT loading range (2 - 6 mM d^{-1}). After day 50, we found that the
237 selectivity for biological sulfur formation was higher (70 v. 50%) and chemical
238 production of thiosulfate was lower (20 v. 46%) compared to the initial phase of the
239 selection process (day 17 v. 60; Fig. 2). A clear shift in the original microbial
240 community in the laboratory bioreactor occurred during first the 20 days of incubation
241 with MT (Fig. 2). The relative abundance of bacteria belonging to the

242 *Ectothiorhosdospiraceae* family decreased from 28% to 3%, whilst the relative
243 abundance of *Bacillaceae* family doubled in the same period. For the inoculum and
244 sample collected on day 20, the most abundant genus belonging to
245 *Ectothiorhosdospiraceae* family was found to be *Thioalkalivibrio*, which is commonly
246 found in full-scale Thiopaq™ reactors.²⁹ A decrease in the abundance of
247 *Ectothiorhosdospiraceae* indicated that bacteria from the genus *Thioalkalivibrio* are
248 highly vulnerable to MT, which is in line with our previous observations.¹⁹

249 At the end of the selection period (day 61), we observed a complete change of
250 the microbial population compared to the inoculum (Fig. 2). Bacteria from
251 *Halothiobacillaceae* family became the dominant phylogenetic group (67%), while
252 these bacteria were not detectable in the full-scale plant (Fig. 2). Within this family,
253 the dominant group belonged to the genus *Thioalkalibacter* that were also identified
254 in samples from soda lakes.³⁰ Moreover, we observed a recovery of the relative
255 abundance of *Ectothiorhosdospiraceae* family from 3 to 21% compared to day 20.
256 However, within this family, the dominant SOB genus shifted from obligatory
257 autotrophic *Thioalkalivibrio* to facultative autotrophic *Alkalilimnicola*.^{31,32} The most
258 probable cause of this shift was the relatively high MT loading rate (up to 7.6 mM d⁻¹,
259 Fig. 2), which is almost 20 fold higher than in the full-scale installation as described in
260 the Supporting Information (S1). Moreover, thiols present in the full-scale feed-gas
261 mainly consisted of higher thiols (PT and buthanethiol) which show less inhibition to
262 SOB than MT.¹⁷ These factors might have given a competitive advantage to the SOB
263 from *Thioalkalibacter* and *Alkalilimnicola* genus dominating after the shift.
264 Additionally, we observed a decrease in abundance of heterotrophic genus
265 *Halomonas* from 55 to 11% relative abundance. The reason for this can be a

266 decreased amount of organic compounds originating from the full-scale sludge. The
267 selected biomass was then used in the follow up experiments.

268

269 **3.2. Application of the highly MT-tolerant population for H₂S removal in the** 270 **presence of thiols**

271 *3.2.1. Performance of the lab-scale biodesulfurization system*

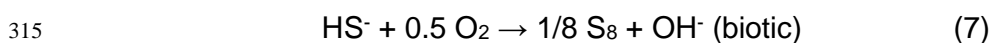
272 To assess the overall performance of the integrated laboratory bioreactor it is
273 necessary to firstly measure the scrubbing efficiency of H₂S and thiols in the gas
274 absorber (Fig. 1). In all experiments (Table 2), H₂S was almost completely absorbed
275 from the inlet gas stream ($99.829 \pm 0.007\%$) while the scrubbing efficiency of MT, ET,
276 and PT was around $69 \pm 4\%$, $65 \pm 2\%$, and $44 \pm 2\%$, respectively. The difference in
277 scrubbing efficiencies between H₂S and thiols was the result from a higher solubility
278 of H₂S, resulting from a lower pK_a value than that of thiols (7.0 v. ~10.4) and a higher
279 Henry's law constant (0.41 v. ~0.15; values for water at 20 °C).³³

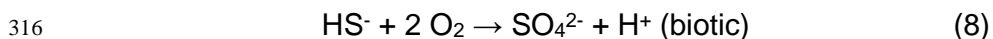
280 Nitrogen gas was continuously added to the bioreactor suspension (as
281 presented in Fig. 1) to assess the effect of thiols stripping on the bioreactor
282 performance and to mimic open full-scale reactors. In such reactors, air is used for
283 both oxygen supply and mixing of the bioreactor suspension, where the excess gas
284 is discharged to the atmosphere after passing a compost filter.³⁴ The VOSC
285 concentrations in the bioreactor decreased with increased flow rate of N₂ (Fig. 3A-C)
286 and showed that thiols can be effectively stripped by applying a low volumetric flow
287 rate of an inert gas. Moreover, it can be observed that the sum of VOSCs in the
288 bioreactor headspace decreased with increasing thiol hydrophobicity (Fig. 3A-C).³³

289 A lower selectivity for sulfur production was found at higher VOSC
290 concentrations. Probably this resulted from the inhibitory effects of VOSCs on the

291 overall biological sulfide oxidation rate^{12,19} which in turn, leads to an increasing
292 abiotic formation of polysulfide anions causing spontaneous thiosulfate formation.^{28,35}
293 However, it was demonstrated that stripping of VOSCs resulted in a significant
294 increase in the selectivity for sulfur formation when the inlet gas stream was
295 supplemented with MT (Fig. 3A). At the highest VOSCs concentration, the selectivity
296 for biologically produced sulfur was the lowest (56 mol%) and more thiosulfate
297 (38 mol%) was formed. However, at decreasing VOSCs concentration as a result of
298 stripping by N₂, the selectivity for sulfur formation increased to about 74 mol% (Fig.
299 3A), which is relatively close to the uninhibited process.³⁶

300 Contrary to experiments with MT, supplementation of the feed gas with ET
301 (Experiments 5-8, Table 2) resulted in an increase in the selectivity for biological
302 sulfate production with increasing VOSC concentrations, while the thiosulfate
303 selectivity remained constant at around 18 mol% (Fig. 3B). We hypothesize that this
304 unexpected change from sulfur to sulfate production was caused by diethyl
305 polysulfanes in the medium, formed from the reaction between ET and biosulfur
306 particles (Eq. 2-3), on the ORP. Our previous research has shown that the ORP is
307 primarily determined by the sulfide concentration.³⁷ However, in the present study we
308 found that in addition to sulfide, diethyl polysulfanes also lower the ORP resulting in
309 an excessive supply of oxygen to the bioreactor in order to maintain the desired set
310 point value of e.g. -390 mV. This could be seen in an increased concentration of
311 oxygen in the bioreactor (Fig. 3A v. Fig. 3B) and a doubling of the O₂/H₂S supply ratio
312 (from 0.75 to 1.4 mol mol⁻¹) compared to experiments with MT and other studies.^{5,11}
313 This ratio is related to the total sulfide concentration³⁸ and the stoichiometry of the
314 simplified bio-oxidation reactions:³⁷





317 We therefore conclude that the selectivity from sulfur to sulfate can be shifted by
318 increasing the $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply ratio.^{39,40} In experiments with only MT, any clear
319 change in product selectivity was not seen. An explanation for this observation is that
320 diethyl polysulfanes lower the ORP by 36 ± 4 mV more than dimethyl polysulfanes
321 that are formed from the abiotic oxidation of MT (Fig. 4). Moreover, diethyl
322 polysulfanes are also less volatile than dimethyl polysulfanes,⁴¹ which resulted in a
323 lower stripping rates from the bioreactor and thus in higher concentrations.

324 The results show that a commonly used method to control the bioreactor by
325 the ORP is insufficient as the ORP was no longer solely determined by the sulfide
326 concentration. Hence, it is necessary to develop a new method to control the O_2
327 supply to biodesulfurization reactors. Such a method should not rely on indirect
328 parameters such as the ORP but should be based on the direct and on-line analyses
329 of the sulfide and VOSC concentration, e.g. spectrophotometric methods.

330 In experiments with PT, the loading rate was lowered from 9.1 to 4.5 mM d^{-1} ,
331 as the bioreactor appeared to be unstable under the higher loading rate. Unstable
332 operation of the bioreactor occurs when it is not possible to maintain a constant ORP
333 value by dosing O_2 to the gas recycling loop (Fig. 1). The reason for instability of the
334 bioreactor was the presence of dipropyl disulfides in the medium, which are more
335 reducing compounds than dimethyl disulfides (Fig. 4). Another contributing factor
336 could be the higher hydrophobicity and lower volatility of dipropyl polysulfanes
337 compared to dimethyl and diethyl polysulfanes⁴¹ resulting in higher concentrations in
338 the bioreactor. After lowering the PT loading rate to 4.5 mM d^{-1} , no significant effects
339 were observed on the product selectivity (Fig. 3C). The sulfur selectivity remained

340 constant at about 80 mol% which was also found for a sulfide oxidation system that
341 was not impacted by thiols.³⁶

342 Next, the effect of combined supply of three of thiols (MT, ET, and PT) on the
343 bioreactor performance was investigated under N₂-flow rates varying between 0 and
344 18 L h⁻¹. The loading rate of each thiol was 2.5 mM d⁻¹ whilst the H₂S loading rate
345 was kept constant at 61.3 mM d⁻¹. However, no other effect than those described
346 above was observed.

347

348 3.2.2. Effect of thiols on the biomass composition

349 At the end of each experimental run (Section 3.2.1) biomass samples were
350 collected to investigate the effect of thiols on the microbial community composition
351 (Fig. 5). The presence of thiols appeared to provide a competitive advantage to
352 various populations when compared to previous studies with sulfide-oxidizing
353 bioreactors at haloalkaline conditions.²⁹ When MT and ET were supplied at elevated
354 concentrations, the fraction of populations belonging to the family *Halothiobacillaceae*
355 significantly increased which was also observed in the above described thiol
356 acclimation experiments. The only described haloalkaliphilic autotrophic sulfide
357 oxidizing species in this family is *Thioalkalibacter halophilus*.³⁰ The sequence identity
358 analysis with nucleotide Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST)⁴² was used to
359 identify close relatives in the NCBI taxonomy database and revealed that all
360 sequences in the *Halothiobacillaceae* family had 97-99% identity to *Thioalkalibacter*.
361 This genus of SOB was not detectable in samples from full-scale biodesulfurization
362 plants treating gas without thiols where species belonging to the genus
363 *Thioalkalivibrio* (family *Ectothiorhodospiraceae*) are dominant.²⁹ Hardly any literature
364 information is available to explain why *Thioalkalibacter* became more abundant in the

365 presence of MT and ET. It might be that these bacteria have a higher tolerance
366 towards thiols than other haloalkaliphilic SOB. In contrast, in the presence of PT the
367 population decreased to below values that were present in the inoculum. The fact
368 that PT was supplied in lower concentrations compared to MT and ET might explain
369 the difference as other bacteria might still be tolerant to thiols and thus take away the
370 selective advantage of *Thioalkalibacter*. As there is no any information available on
371 the relation between the identified SOB and thiols, more studies are necessary on
372 the influence of thiols on pure cultures.

373 After exposure to elevated thiol concentrations another shift was observed in
374 the composition within the family *Ectothiorhodospiraceae* (Fig. 5), whereby the
375 originally dominating obligatory autotrophic *Thioalkalivibrio* was outcompeted by a
376 facultative autotrophic haloalkaliphilic sulfide oxidizer belonging to the genus
377 *Alkalilimnicola* (98-100% identity).

378 It was also observed that the relative abundance of the haloalkaliphilic
379 anaerobic genus *Tindallia* (97-99% identity) belonging to the *Clostridiales* increased
380 in all experiments with thiols (e.g. from 0.7 to 14% in the presence of PT). *Tindallia*
381 species have been isolated from soda lakes where thiosulfate and sulfur can act as
382 electron acceptors.⁴³ Recently, they were also identified as a dominant sulfidogenic
383 bacterium in anaerobic bioreactors operated at haloalkaline conditions.⁴⁴ This might
384 indicate that in such reactors a full dissimilatory sulfur cycle can occur at oxygen
385 limitations (i.e. $\text{HS}^- \rightarrow \text{S}_8 \rightarrow \text{HS}^- \leftarrow \text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-} \leftarrow \text{HS}^-$).

386 In addition to the already known haloalkaliphilic SOB species, we observed an
387 increased abundance of obligate haloalkalitolerant heterotrophic bacteria belonging
388 to the genus *Aliidiomarina*.⁴⁵ To the best of our knowledge, there is no information
389 available about their possible sulfide oxidizing capacity or use of VOSCs. Although

390 the reason for increased presence of these bacteria in bioreactor fed with ET and PT
391 is yet unknown it is possible that growth occurs on dead cells. This is because they
392 are able to hydrolyse DNA and proteins.⁴⁶

393

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408

409

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557
558

559 **TABLES**

560 **Table 1.** Dimensions and process conditions of the gas absorber for H₂S and thiols
561 removal.

Dimensions and process conditions	
Column diameter [m]	0.011
Column height [m]	0.8
Total gas flow [Nm ³ s ⁻¹]	2.8 × 10 ⁻⁶
Empty bed retention time [s]	27
H ₂ S loading [Nm ³ s ⁻¹]	4.2 × 10 ⁻⁸
Thiols loading [Nm ³ s ⁻¹]	1.7 – 6.2 × 10 ⁻⁹
Liquid flow [Nm ³ s ⁻¹]	2.8 × 10 ⁻⁶

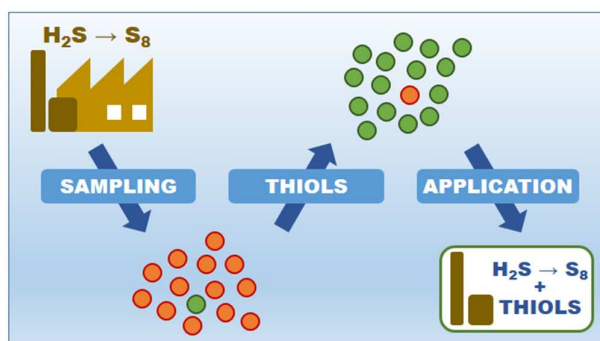
562

563 **Table 2.** Loading rate of thiols to the experimental setup for each experiment
 564 operated under constant H₂S loading rate (61.3 mM d⁻¹) and reduction-oxidation
 565 potential (-390 mV).

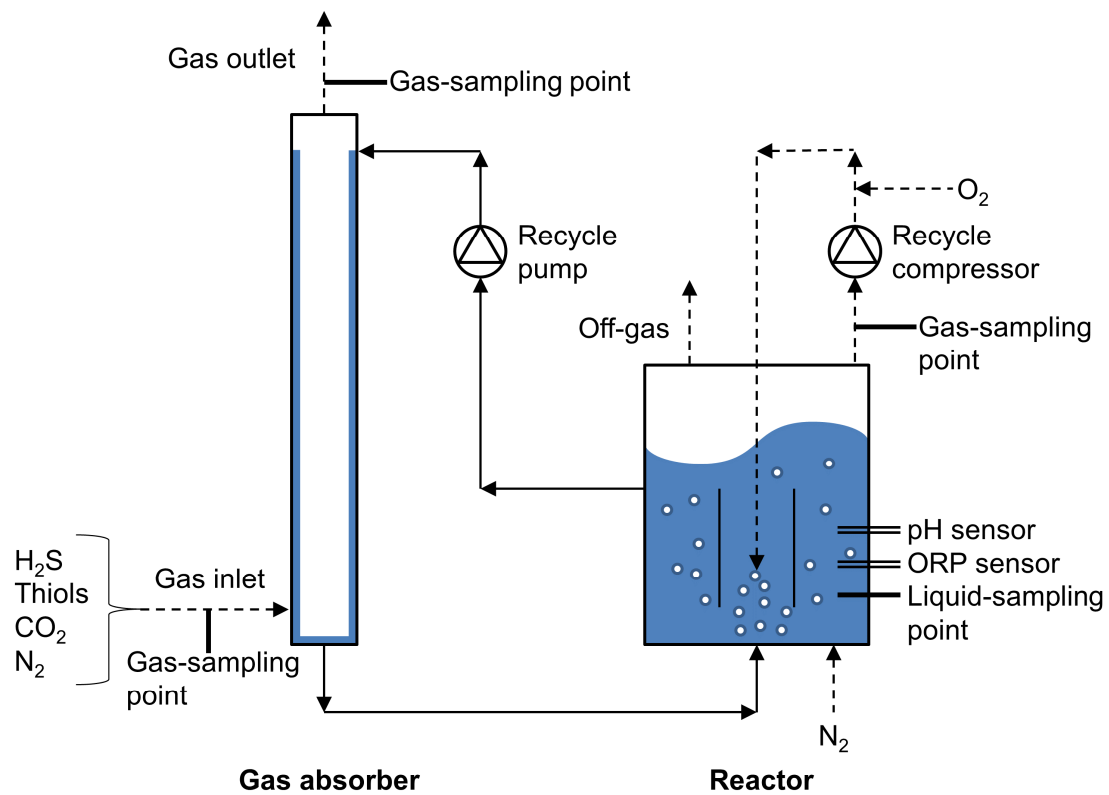
Experiment number	Supplied thiol to the gas absorber	Thiol loading rate [mM d ⁻¹]	N ₂ flow over the bioreactor [NL h ⁻¹]
1	Methanethiol	9.1	0 (gas-tight reactor)
2			6
3			12
4			18
5	Ethanethiol	9.1	0 (gas-tight reactor)
6			6
7			12
8			18
9	Propanethiol	4.5	0 (gas-tight reactor)
10			6
11			12
12			18

566 **FIGURES**

567 **Graphical abstract:**

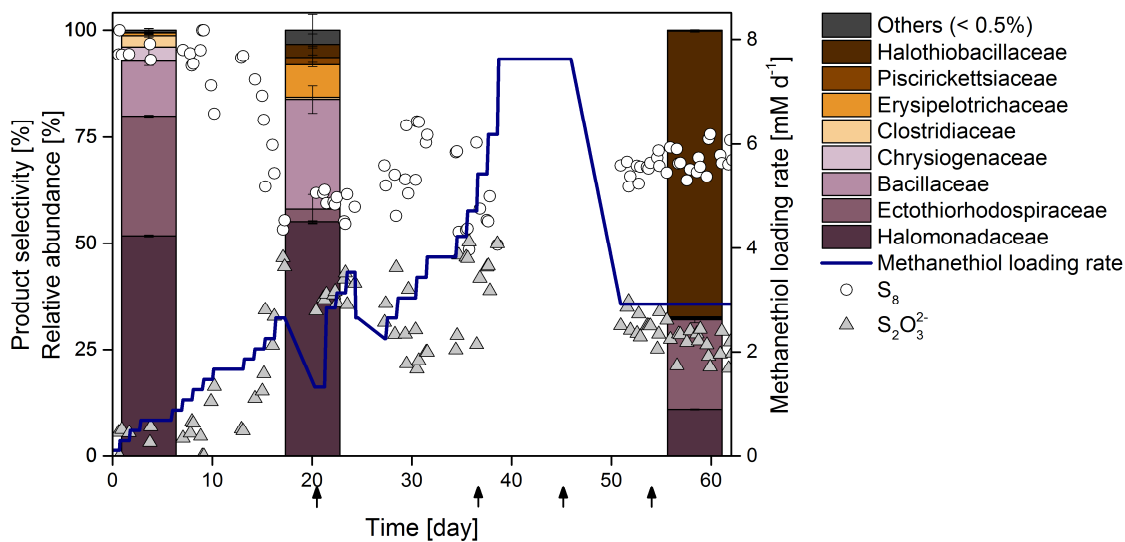


568



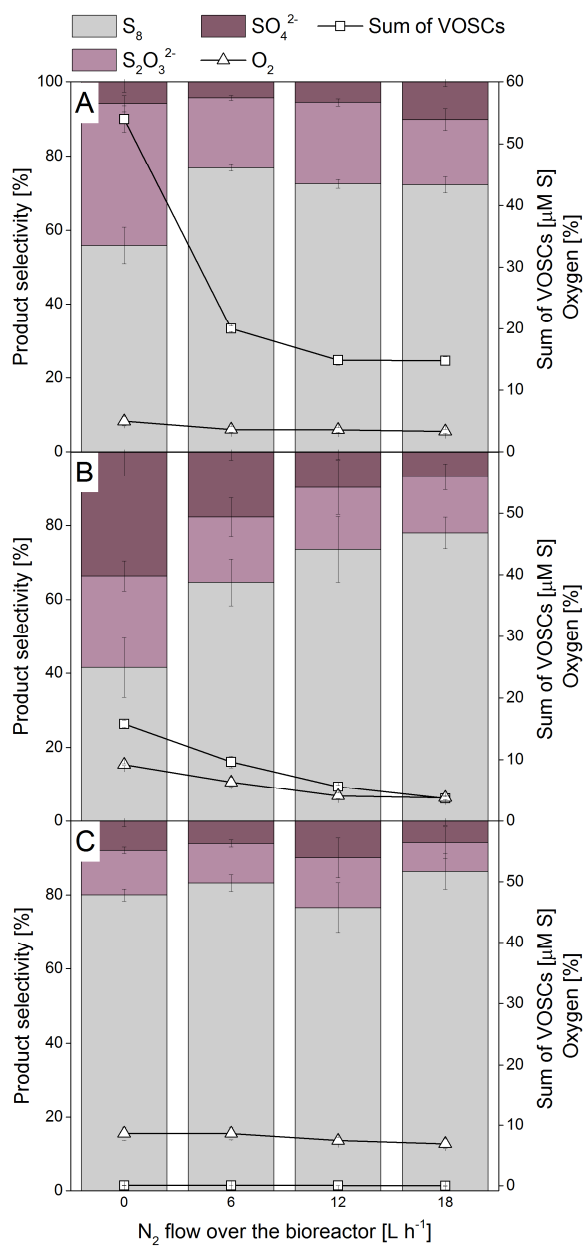
569

570 **Figure 1.** Flow scheme of experimental setup used for fed-batch experiments.



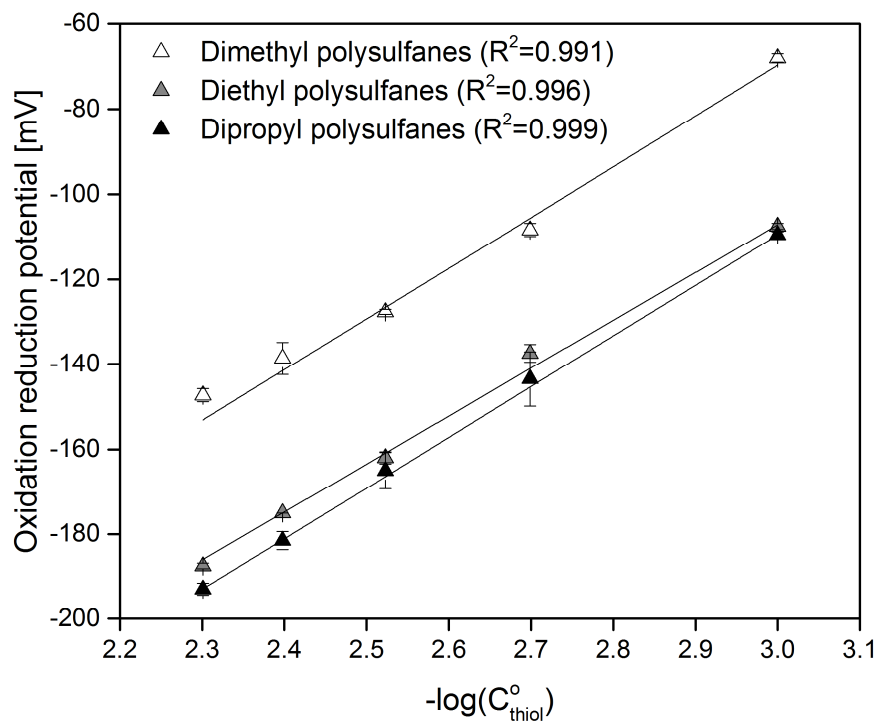
571

572 **Figure 2.** Performance of the laboratory bioreactor during acclimatization of the
 573 biomass to methanethiol and the relative abundance of microbial composition based
 574 on the 16S rRNA gene. DNA was extracted and sequenced from biomass at day: 0
 575 (inoculum from Thiopaq™ full-scale plant in Southern Illinois), 20, and 61, during
 576 which the reactor was exposed to methanethiol (0.1 - 7.6 mM d⁻¹). Only bacteria with
 577 a relative abundance higher than 0.5% are listed (remaining bacteria are grouped
 578 into “Others”). The results represent the average value between two replicates and
 579 the error bars represent the standard deviation. The laboratory reactor was operated
 580 at oxidation reduction potential of -390 mV, pH = 9 and the H₂S loading rate was
 581 61.3 mM d⁻¹.



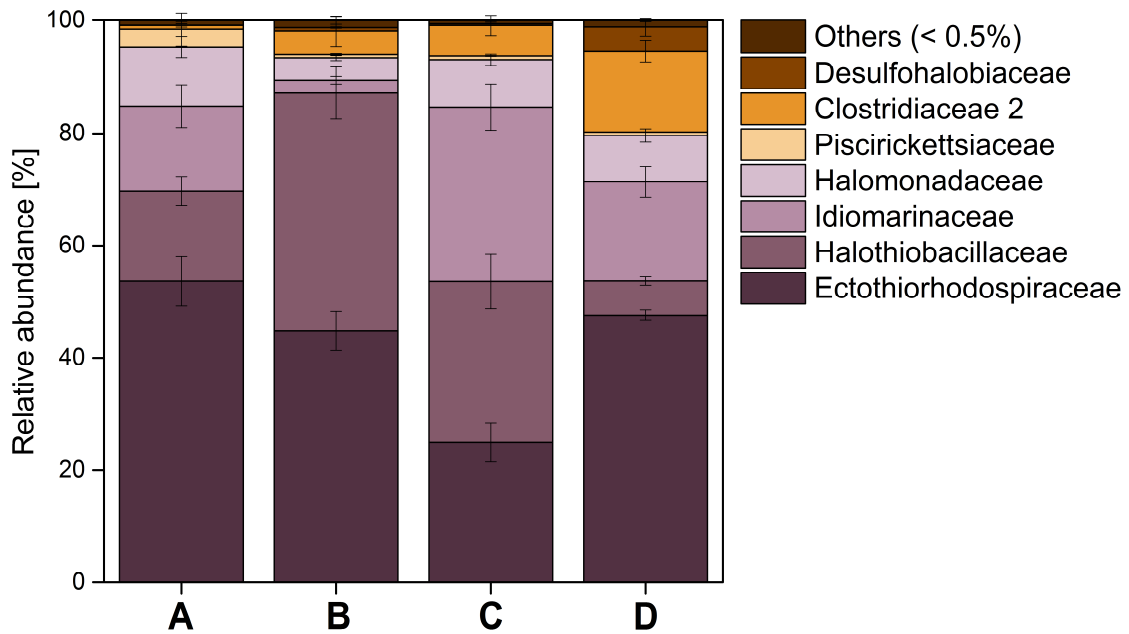
582

583 **Figure 3.** Performance of the gas biodesulfurization system fed with H₂S
 584 (61.3 mM d⁻¹) plus: **A.** methanethiol; loading rate was 9.1 mM d⁻¹. **B.** ethanethiol;
 585 loading rate was 9.1 mM d⁻¹. **C.** propanethiol; loading rate was 4.5 mM d⁻¹. The
 586 reactor system was operated at an ORP of -390 mV, pH = 9 and multiple flows of
 587 nitrogen over the bioreactor. The error bars represent the standard deviation from
 588 quadruple samples.



589

590 **Figure 4.** Relationship between the oxidation reduction potential and the initial thiol
 591 concentration (C_{thiol}° , mM) in a reaction between thiol and biosulfur leading to
 592 formation of diorgano polysulfanes. All points were measured in triplicated and the
 593 error bars represent the standard deviation. Measurements were performed in a
 594 medium with $[Na^{+} + K^{+}] = 1 \text{ M}$, $\text{pH} = 9$ and $T = 35^{\circ}\text{C}$.



595

596 **Figure 5.** Relative abundance of the microbial composition based on partial 16S
 597 rRNA gene sequences. DNA was extracted and sequenced from the inoculum (A)
 598 and biomass taken at the end of MT (B), ET (C), and PT (D) experiments. The
 599 laboratory reactor was operated at oxidation reduction potential of -390 mV, pH = 9
 600 and the H₂S loading rate was 61.3 mM d⁻¹. Only bacteria with a relative abundance
 601 higher than 0.5% are listed (remaining bacteria are grouped into “Others”). The
 602 results represent the average value between two replicates and the error bars
 603 represents the standard deviation.

604