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Inhibition of a biological sulfide oxidation under haloalkaline conditions by thiols and diorgano polysulfanes

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24 **Abstract**

25 A novel approach has been developed for the simultaneous description of sulfur and sulfate
26 formation from the biological oxidation of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) using a quick, sulfide-
27 dependent respiration test. Next to H₂S, thiols are commonly present in sour gas streams. We
28 investigated the inhibition mode and the corresponding inhibition constants of six thiols and
29 diorgano polysulfanes on the biological oxidation of H₂S. A linear relationship was found
30 between the calculated IC₅₀ values and the lipophilicity of the inhibitors. Moreover,
31 a mathematical model was proposed to estimate the biomass activity in the absence and
32 presence of sulfurous inhibitors. The biomass used in the respiration tests originated from
33 a full-scale biodesulfurization reactor. A microbial community analysis of this biomass
34 revealed that two groups of microorganism are abundant, viz. *Ectothiorhodospiraceae* and
35 *Piscirickettsiaceae*.

1. Introduction

Biological processes to remove hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) from gas streams have become increasingly attractive in recent years as an alternative to physicochemical technologies (Janssen et al. 2009; Schieder et al. 2003). Key drivers to select biotechnological solutions for the treatment of sour gas streams instead of physicochemical processes are the higher H₂S removal efficiencies, lower operational cost and, most importantly, the simpler operating procedures (Cline et al. 2003). After the first commercial applications in the oil and gas industry, the need has arisen to broaden the operating window of these bioprocesses by enabling the removal of thiols next to H₂S as these volatile organosulfur compounds are regularly present in sour natural gas streams.

Thiols are considerably more toxic to sulfur oxidizing bacteria (SOB) than dissolved sulfide (Roman et al. 2015b; van den Bosch et al. 2009). In the presence of oxygen thiols are rapidly oxidized to organic disulfides (Eq. 1) (van Leerdam et al. 2011). Thiols also react with biologically produced sulfur particles to form diorgano polysulfanes (Eq. 2). These organosulfur compounds (with $n > 3$) are unstable and quickly decompose to stable di- and trisulfides (Steudel 2002), according to Eq. 3.

Diorgano di- and trisulfides are found to be the most predominant organosulfur compounds in a bioreactor operating at haloalkaline conditions (Roman et al. 2015b). Clearly, a better understanding of the toxic effects of these compounds on SOB is of key importance to ensure a stable reactor performance.

It was shown that *Thioalkalivibrio sulfidophilus* is the most dominant SOB in full-scale Thiopaq installations that are operated at haloalkaline conditions, i.e. at pH 9, 1 M

total Na⁺ and at a redox potential below -250 mV to ensure sulfur-producing conditions (Sorokin et al. 2012). Based on a complete genome analysis Muyzer et al. (2011) reconstructed a sulfur oxidation pathway in *Tv. sulfidophilus*. In this pathway SOB oxidize sulfide to sulfate via zero-valent sulfur as an intermediate. In the first step *Tv. sulfidophilus* oxidizes sulfide to a polysulfur-containing compound(s), hereafter referred to as {S_x}. {S_x} can be secreted from the periplasm as elemental sulfur globules at low redox conditions or oxidized to sulfate via intermediate sulfite at elevated redox values (Fig. 1). The reactions describing the formation of both products can be written in the following simplified form:

A more detailed description of the underlying principles of biological sulfide oxidation was presented by Klok et al. (2012).

Reaction kinetics of the biological sulfide oxidation processes can be studied by performing biological oxygen monitoring (BOM) tests, which are based on monitoring the decrease of the dissolved oxygen concentration. Recently it was found that for biomass samples in which representatives of the genus *Thioalkalivibrio* were identified as the dominating SOB, the oxygen consumption rate can be described by two different reaction rates (Roman et al. 2015b). The first and fast rate (R1) is related to the partial oxidation of sulfide to {S_x}, while the second and much lower rate (R2) is related to the further oxidation of {S_x} to sulfate ions (Fig. 1) (Sorokin et al. 2008).

We have also shown that by understanding the inhibition mode for a single thiol, it is possible to model the performance of the biodesulfurization process in lab-scale reactors (Roman et al. 2015b). The aim of the current study is to investigate the inhibitory effects of the most common thiols i.e. MT, ethanethiol (ET), 1-propanethiol (PT) and the products of their chemical oxidation (Eq. 1-3): DMDS, diethyl disulfide (DEDS) and dipropyl disulfide

(DPDS) on the biological oxidation rate of dissolved sulfide. The identified modes of inhibition and the associated kinetic parameters will be used in a set of mathematical equations to describe the prevailing reaction kinetics in integrated systems for the treatment of sulfide and thiols containing gas streams. Several authors have presented kinetic models to characterize the aerobic biological sulfide oxidation process (Mora et al. 2016; Klok et al. 2013; Roosta et al. 2011). However, the inhibition by organic sulfur compounds was never taken into account despite the fact that thiols are a commonly present in sour gas streams (Cui et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2006; Kim et al. 2005). Our mathematical model builds on a genomic model proposed by Muyzer et al. (2011). The presented model can be used as a tool for designing industrial biodesulfurization installations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental setup

Respiration tests were performed to assess the kinetic parameters of biological sulfide oxidation and the mode of inhibition by thiols and diorgano polysulfanes (Table 1) in an air-saturated medium. We used a similar setup as described elsewhere (Kleinjan et al. 2005), which consisted of a glass mini-reactor (60 mL) equipped with a magnetic stirrer. The reactor was closed with a Teflon piston to avoid any oxygen ingress. We added stock solutions containing the inhibitors and sulfide to the reactor with a syringe passing through the piston. The sulfide oxidation rate was determined by measuring the oxygen consumption rate with a dissolved-oxygen (DO) sensor (Oxymax COS22D, Endress+Hauser). Signals from the DO sensor were recorded using a multiparameter transmitter (Liquiline CM442; Endress+Hauser, the Netherlands). All experiments were performed at 35 °C (DC10-P5/U thermostat bath, Haake, Germany)(Roman et al. 2015a; Graaff 2012; van den Bosch et al. 2009).

2.2. *Medium composition*

The reactor medium included a carbonate/bicarbonate buffer of 0.1 M Na₂CO₃ and 0.8 M NaHCO₃ (1 M total Na⁺). Furthermore, the medium contained 1.0 g K₂HPO₄, 0.20 g MgCl₂ × 6 H₂O, and 0.60 g urea, each per 1 L of Milli-Q water. A trace elements solution (1 mL L⁻¹) was added as described elsewhere (Pfennig and Lippert 1966). The final pH of the medium was 9 at 35 °C.

2.3. *Biomass*

In the respiration tests we used biomass sampled from a full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation, located at Industriewater Eerbeek B.V., the Netherlands which is operated at oxygen-limiting conditions and low redox potential values (Janssen et al. 2009).

A sulfur-free biomass suspension was prepared by centrifugation (30 min at 16,000 x g) of the sulfide-oxidizing culture followed by a washing step after re-suspending the pellet in the same medium as described in section 2.2.

DNA extraction from biomass samples taken from a full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation were performed as follows. First, the samples were washed twice with a buffer of pH 9 and 0.5 M Na⁺ to prevent the occurrence of an osmotic shock. Then, the washing was performed by (1) centrifuging the samples at 20,000 x g for 5 min; (2) removal of the supernatant; and (3) addition of fresh buffer and mixing with a vortex to re-suspend the pellet. Afterwards, Total Genomic DNA was extracted from the washed biomass using the PowerBiofilm™ DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. All the above procedures were performed in duplicate.

For biomass samples from the full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation the 16S rRNA gene profiling was performed as following. Illumina 16S rRNA gene amplicon libraries were generated and sequenced at BaseClear BV (Leiden, the Netherlands). In short,

136 barcoded amplicons from the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA genes were generated using a 2-step
137 PCR. 10-25 ng genomic DNA was used as template for the first PCR with a total volume of
138 50 µl using the 341F (5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and the 785R (5'-
139 GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3') primers appended with Illumina adaptor sequences.
140 PCR products were purified and the size of the PCR products were checked on a Bioanalyzer
141 (Agilent, CA, USA) and quantified by fluorometric analysis. Purified PCR products were
142 used for the 2nd PCR in combination with sample-specific barcoded primers. Subsequently,
143 PCR products were purified, checked on a Bioanalyzer (Agilent, CA, USA) and quantified,
144 followed by multiplexing, clustering, and sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq with the paired-
145 end 250 cycles protocol and indexing. The sequencing run was analyzed with Illumina
146 CASAVA pipeline (v1.8.3) with demultiplexing based on sample-specific barcodes. The raw
147 sequencing data produced was processed by removing the sequence reads of too low quality
148 (only "passing filter" reads were selected) and discarding reads containing adaptor sequences
149 or PhiX control with an in-house filtering protocol. A quality assessment on the remaining
150 reads was performed using the FASTQC quality control tool version 0.10.0.

152 **2.4. Respiration tests**

153 Sulfide-dependent O₂-consumption rates were measured in a thermostated reactor
154 (Section 2.1). The biomass concentration was always kept at 10 mg N L⁻¹, measured as the
155 amount of organic nitrogen oxidized to nitrate by digestion with peroxodisulphate (LCK238,
156 Hach Lange, the Netherlands) in triplicate. The medium with biomass was aerated as
157 described elsewhere (van den Bosch et al. 2009). Measurements commenced after sulfide was
158 injected and lasted for 5 to 14 minutes. All solutions containing sulfurous compounds were
159 freshly prepared before each series of experiments. Methanol was used as a solvent for
160 hydrophobic inhibitors (Table 1), which had no effect on the oxygen consumption rate (data

not shown). For all other inhibitors, we used Milli-Q water as a solvent. In order to prevent any oxidation of thiols all solvents were first purged with 99.99% nitrogen gas for at least 15 min.

A wide range of sulfide concentrations was applied to estimate the kinetic parameters for both biological sulfide oxidation rates (R1 and R2, Fig.1). Sulfide concentrations ranging between 0.02 and 0.3 mM were used to estimate kinetic parameters related to R1. In this concentration range R2 was more or less constant and ranges around its maximum value. Hence, a reliable estimation of its value was not possible. In order to estimate kinetic parameters related to R2 significantly lower sulfide concentrations (0.005 - 0.012 mM) were applied. For these ranges of sulfide concentrations, we experimentally verified that the contribution of chemical sulfide oxidation to biological sulfide oxidation is insignificantly small, and can therefore be neglected.

We performed a series of experiments in the absence of any inhibitor to estimate the maximum biological sulfide oxidation (r_{max}) rate and the associated Michaelis constant (K_M). The sulfide concentration for R1 varied from 0.2 to 4.0 K_M and for R2 from 2.0 to 8.0 K_M to obtain reliable estimates of K_M and r_{max} (Marangoni 2003). The methylene blue method (Cuvette test LCK653, Hach Lange, the Netherlands) was used to verify the sulfide concentration in stock solution. All measurements were performed in triplicate. We performed respiration tests in the presence of an inhibitor to identify the mode of inhibition and the parameters for inhibitors that bind to free enzyme (K_i) and enzyme-substrate complex (K_{ies}). In these tests first the inhibitor was added and then the substrate. Each series of experiments was carried out in duplicate. We tested all inhibitors for both oxidation steps (R1 and R2) at 35 °C with an incubation time between 1 and 60 min to determine the time required for biomass incubation with an inhibitor at a certain concentration.

2.5. Modelling biological sulfide oxidation pathway

A mathematical model for describing the biological sulfide oxidation with SOB has been developed on the basis of material balances for sulfide, $\{S_x\}$ and O_2 . It has been assumed that in the absence of inhibitors SOB oxidize sulfide (Eq. 6-7) to $\{S_x\}$ (Eq. 8). The formed $\{S_x\}$ is transformed to sulfate which results in an additional oxygen consumption (Eq. 9).

$$\frac{dc_{HS}}{dt} = -c_b \gamma^{R1} \frac{r_{max}^{R1} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R1} + c_{HS}} \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{dc_{O_2}^{R1}}{dt} = -c_b \frac{r_{max}^{R1} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R1} + c_{HS}} \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{dc_{Sx}}{dt} = c_b \gamma^{R1} \frac{r_{max}^{R1} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R1} + c_{HS}} - c_b \gamma^{R2} \frac{r_{max}^{R2} c_{Sx}}{K_M^{R2} + c_{Sx}} \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{dc_{O_2}^{R2}}{dt} = -c_b \frac{r_{max}^{R2} c_{Sx}}{K_M^{R2} + c_{Sx}} \quad (9)$$

The superscripts $R1$ and $R2$ refer to the first and second oxidation rate, as shown in Figure 1.

The model also includes the endogenous oxygen consumption (r_{eg}) (van den Bosch et al. 2009), which was calculated as follows:

$$\frac{dc_{O_2}^{eg}}{dt} = -r_{eg} \quad (10)$$

Biomass growth is not included in the model equations as we assume that it remains constant during the relatively short time frame (<14 min) of the respiration experiments (Roman et al. 2015a). It should be noted that the terms used for describing the sulfide and $\{S_x\}$ consumption rates have the same unit, because sulfide is transformed to $\{S_x\}$. The yield coefficients for sulfide (γ^{R1} , mM HS^- (mM O_2)⁻¹) and $\{S_x\}$ consumption (γ^{R2} , mM HS^- (mM O_2)⁻¹) account for the conversion of r_{max} for oxygen consumption to sulfide consumption. It is not possible to estimate $\gamma^{R1,R2}$ and $r_{max}^{R1,R2}$ independently, as they always appear as the algebraic product $\gamma \cdot r_{max}$. Therefore, the values for $\gamma^{R1,R2}$ were chosen from the stoichiometric equations 4 and 5 and in, what follows, only $r_{max}^{R1,R2}$ and the affinity constants in Eq. 6-9 were estimated from the experimental data. Furthermore, it is assumed that oxygen is not a limiting factor as the

medium is air-saturated i.e. there is an excess amount of oxygen available and the affinity constant for oxygen-respiring SOB are in the range of a few μM (Zannoni and others 2004). BOM tests with sulfide as substrate showed values of 1.5-2.5 μM O_2 for the representatives of the genus *Thioalkalivibrio* (unpublished results). The general mass balances for the substrates and $\{S_x\}$ are solved for the following range of initial experimental conditions:

$$c_{HS}(0) \in [0.003, 0.3] \quad (11)$$

$$c_{Sx}(0) = 0 \quad (12)$$

$$c_{O_2}^{R1}(0) \in [0.01, 0.022] \quad (13)$$

$$c_{O_2}^{R2}(0) = 0 \quad (14)$$

Furthermore, c_{HS} , c_{Sx} and c_{O_2} are the concentrations (in mM) of sulfide, $\{S_x\}$ and oxygen, respectively. The total oxygen consumption is given by:

$$c_{O_2}^{tot} = c_{O_2}^{R1} + c_{O_2}^{R2} + c_{O_2}^{eg} \quad (15)$$

An uncertainty assessment of the predicted model output was performed by using a Monte Carlo simulation technique with parameters sampled from the distribution space of the estimated parameters. For each estimated parameter 100 samples were drawn, leading to 100 sampled parameter vectors. For each vector, we calculated the corresponding model output trajectory. Based upon the 100 model output trajectories, the mean and the time-varying standard deviation of the model output were calculated.

2.6. Estimation of kinetic parameters

We estimated the kinetic parameters in Eq. 6-9 by using a static approach in which a stepwise method was taken to minimize the residual error (Marangoni 2003). Firstly, we estimated r_{max} and K_M from experimental data in the absence of an inhibitor for both R1 and R2. Secondly, the estimated parameters (r_{max} and K_M) were substituted into a modified

“Michaelis-Menten” equation that describes the mode of inhibition, to estimate the inhibition constants (K_i and K_{ies}).

To estimate the kinetic parameters related to R2, we had to assume the initial sulfide concentrations instead of $\{S_x\}$ concentrations as it is not possible to measure the intracellularly bonded $\{S_x\}$. To evaluate the effect of this choice we additionally estimated parameters (r_{max} , K_M , and when applicable the inhibition constants: K_i and K_{ies}) using a dynamic approach which relies on solving the relevant set of differential equations (Eq. 6-10) iteratively. In this approach the $\{S_x\}$ concentration is implicitly calculated from the proposed and validated model (Section 3.4). In particular, we solved the following optimization problem:

$$\min \sum (c_{O_2}^{tot}(t) - \widehat{c_{O_2}^{tot}}(t, \theta))^2 \quad (16)$$

with $\widehat{c_{O_2}^{tot}}$ the calculated total oxygen concentration (Eq. 15), given the solutions to Eq. 6-10 for the set of kinetic parameters (θ : r_{max} , K_M). In the presence of inhibitors (Eq. 17-19) the set of parameters is extended with the inhibition constants: K_i and K_{ies} . Given the observations of $c_{O_2}^{tot}$, the kinetic parameters were estimated using a non-linear least-squares method (Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm), as described by Keesman (2011).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Microbial diversity in a full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation

Microbial community analysis of biomass collected from a full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation in Eerbeek (the Netherlands) showed that the bacterial composition (Supplementary Information, Fig. S1) is similar to what has been described previously (Sorokin et al. 2012). The dominant bacterial group (approximately 50% of the 16S rRNA sequences analyzed) belongs to the family *Ectothiorhodospiraceae*. Within this

group, 99% of the 16S rRNA sequences belonged to the genus *Thioalkalivibrio*. Also bacteria related to the family *Piscirickettsiaceae* are abundant, 24.8% and 26.1% in both replicates. Within this group, approximately 80% of the 16S rRNA sequences are closely related to the *Thiomicrospira pelophila*/*Thioalkalimicrobium* cluster, which are often present in the full-scale Thiopaq installations (Sorokin et al. 2011).

3.2. Determination of incubation time

A complete saturation of enzymes with an inhibitor is required in order to properly determine the inhibition constants (K_i and K_{es}). Zhang et al. (2001) indicated that in the presence of an inhibitor the incubation time needed to reach complete saturation is related to the inhibitor concentration which, in turn, is related to the degree of inhibition. Due to different susceptibilities of R1 and R2 to the inhibitors (Roman et al. 2015a) it was necessary to apply different inhibitor concentrations, i.e. a higher and a lower one for respectively R1 and R2 (Fig.1). The concentration of each inhibitor was chosen such that only partial inhibition was achieved. An appropriate incubation time for each concentration of each inhibitor had to be determined whilst taking into account that too long incubation times for thiols shall be avoided in order to prevent any chemical oxidation to disulfides (Eq. 1).

From the results shown in Figure 2 it follows that R1 and R2 require different incubation times to reach a complete saturation of the enzymes in the presence of an inhibitor. Table 2 shows the inhibitor concentrations and incubation times that were selected in the remainder of this study.

3.3. Determination of inhibition mode and kinetic parameters

The results from sulfide-dependent respiration tests were plotted in double-reciprocal plots (Supplementary Information, Fig. S2) to identify the inhibition mode related to R1 and

R2. From this plot it clearly follows that MT, ET and PT act as competitive inhibitors for R1. Therefore, the mode of inhibition can be described by a modified “Michaelis-Menten” equation:

$$r_i^{R1} = \frac{r_{max}^{R1} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R1} \left(1 + \frac{c_i}{K_i^{R1}}\right) + c_{HS}} \quad (17)$$

where c_i is an inhibitor concentration. This mode of inhibition is in agreement with our previous findings viz. that MT acts as a competitive inhibitor for sulfide oxidation by SOB (Roman et al. 2015a). According to Wilms et al. (1980), this can be explained by the structural similarity between sulfide (HS^-) and MT (CH_3S^-). In contrast, diorgano disulfides are non-competitive inhibitors for R1 and their inhibitory effects can be described as follows:

$$r_i^{R1} = \frac{r_{max}^{R1} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R1} + c_{HS} \left(1 + \frac{c_i}{K_{ies}^{R1}}\right)} \quad (18)$$

This type of inhibition is common in multi-substrate reactions (Eq. 4-5) in contrast to single-substrate reactions (Segal 1993).

To establish the effect of thiols and diorgano polysulfanes on R2, double reciprocal plots were prepared which show a mixed type of inhibition (Supplementary Information, Fig. S2), indicating that the inhibitors are able to bind at the active and allosteric site of enzymes. The corresponding specific reaction rate is given by:

$$r_i^{R2} = \frac{r_{max}^{R2} c_{HS}}{K_M^{R2} \left(1 + \frac{c_i}{K_i^{R2}}\right) + c_{HS} \left(1 + \frac{c_i}{K_{ies}^{R2}}\right)} \quad (19)$$

It is obvious that equations 17-19 only describe a phenomenological characterization of the experimental observation but do not provide any underlying mechanisms. However, in section 3.4, we will describe that the lipophilicity effects of the inhibitors influence the inhibition of sulfide oxidation. Then, the specific reaction rates (Eq. 17-19) can substitute the generic rates mentioned (Eq. 6-9) to predict the biomass activity in the presence of thiols and diorgano polysulfanes.

After unveiling the mode of inhibition for each inhibitor on R1 and R2, it was possible to estimate the kinetic parameters in equations 17-19. Estimated values of r_{max} , K_M , K_i and K_{ies} and the corresponding standard deviations are shown in Table 3. From these parameter estimations it follows that MT is the most toxic thiol as it has the lowest K_i value. This is in agreement with our hypothesis that the inhibitory effect decreases with increasing steric hindrance of the thiols (Roman et al. 2015a). Estimated values of K_{ies} for R1 and diorgano polysulfanes are strongly correlated with their molecular weight ($R^2 = 0.999$). Similar strong correlations are observed for K_i and K_{ies} of thiols and for K_i of diorgano polysulfanes for R2. However, K_{ies} of diorgano polysulfanes is more or less constant (approximately 0.24 mM), indicating that the same non-competitive inhibition mechanism applies. Because the diorgano polysulfanes in our tests only differ in their aliphatic chain length while the number of sulfur atoms remains the same, it can be hypothesized that non-competitive inhibition (K_{ies}) is related to the sulfur-sulfur bond.

The results from the parameter estimations show that there is no significant difference between the estimated values obtained via the dynamic and the static approach (data not shown). However, the dynamic approach yields K_m values with a higher level of uncertainty in the estimate because the data contained less information.

3.4. Calculation of IC_{50} and its correlation with lipophilicity

The IC_{50} value represents the inhibitor concentration at which 50% inhibition occurs of an enzymatic reaction at a specific substrate concentration. A mathematical relation between the inhibition constants and the IC_{50} value is described by Yung-Chi and Prusoff (1973). Equations describing this relationship for competitive, uncompetitive and mixed inhibition are given by:

$$IC_{50} = K_i \left(1 + \frac{c_{HS}}{K_M} \right) \quad (20)$$

$$IC_{50} = K_{ies} \left(1 + \frac{K_M}{c_{HS}} \right) \quad (21)$$

$$IC_{50} = \frac{c_{HS} + K_M}{\frac{K_M}{K_i} + \frac{c_{HS}}{K_{ies}}} \quad (22)$$

Based on the estimated values for the kinetic parameters and the corresponding uncertainties (Table 3), we calculated IC_{50} values with uncertainty bounds for both oxygen consumption rates (R1 and R2) and for each of the inhibitors (Fig. 3 A-C). Taking into account that the IC_{50} value is dependent on the substrate concentration, results are plotted in the range of 0-3 mM sulfide. To compare our results with available literature data, the IC_{50} values for MT and DMDS for R1 have been reviewed (Table 4). The values for both inhibitors are very similar to previously reported data. It can be seen that thiols become less toxic with increasing substrate concentrations (Fig. 3A), while the IC_{50} values for diorgano polysulfanes stabilize at around 1 mM for substrate concentrations above 0.5 mM (Fig. 3B). Moreover, it can be observed that R2 is more susceptible to the inhibitors at almost all sulfide concentrations (Fig. 3C) because of much lower IC_{50} values. These results support our previous findings from lab-scale reactor experiments that biological production of sulfate is more vulnerable to inhibitors than the biological production of sulfur (Roman et al. 2015a; Roman et al. 2015b).

It is known that the biological activity of inhibitors can be directly related to their physicochemical properties (Cronin 2004). Hence, we compared their lipophilicity expressed as logarithm of octanol-water partition coefficient ($\log(P)$), with the measured IC_{50} values. The estimation of $\log(P)$ for the various inhibitors was calculated using ALOGPS 2.1 software (Anon n.d.; Tetko and Tanchuk 2002). For thiols the $\log(P)$ values ranged from 0.4 to 1.2 and for diorgano polysulfanes ranged from 1 to 3. To determine whether lipophilicity is correlated with IC_{50} values at sulfide concentration of 0.2 mM, the relationship between

log(P) and IC₅₀ values for the particular group of inhibitors for both oxidation rates (R1 and R2) was assessed by linear regression (Fig. 4 A-B). A clear and positive correlation was found between log(P) and the IC₅₀ values for thiols for both R1 and R2, with coefficients of determination of 0.848 and 0.999, respectively (Fig. 4A). These correlations show that hydrophobic thiols are less toxic to SOB compared to the more hydrophilic ones. This might also indicate that inhibition by thiols is related to the hydrophilic interaction in the inhibition mechanisms. For diorgano polysulfanes, we found large negative correlations between log(P) and the IC₅₀ values with coefficients of determination of 0.995 and 0.994 for R1 and R2, respectively (Fig. 4B). In contrast to thiols, toxicity of diorgano polysulfanes increases with their lipophilicity which suggests involvement of hydrophobic interaction in the inhibition mechanisms. This could mean that diorgano polysulfanes are affecting enzymes that are embedded in the cell membrane which is in agreement with another observation that diorgano polysulfanes toxicity is not competitive for R1 because the substrate, i.e. sulfide, reacts with enzymes located outside the cell membrane in the periplasm or on the external surface of the cell membrane (Gregersen et al. 2011).

3.5. Comparison of the model results with experimental data

The estimated kinetic parameters in Table 3 were obtained from sulfide-dependent respiration tests and then used in the above described mathematical model (Eq. 6-15). The model predictions were compared with a set of independent respirometric results. The biomass used for the validation experiments was taken from the same full-scale reactor but two months after biomass sampling for the parameter estimation tests. The model was experimentally validated in the absence of an inhibitor with the initial sulfide concentration ranging from 0.005 to 0.2 mM (Fig. 5A-F). From these results, it can be seen that the proposed model predicts the oxygen consumption reasonably well for haloalkaliphilic SOB

cultivated under O₂-limiting conditions. For the highest sulfide concentrations the deviation between experimental measurements and model predictions increases somewhat which can be attributed to a lag phase of the SOB. Nevertheless, an error analysis of r^{R1} showed that the coefficient of variation was always below $\pm 25\%$, which is a reasonable margin if one takes into account the measurement errors in the dissolved oxygen, sulfide, biomass concentrations, liquid volumes and influence of the error propagation. Furthermore, the measured and predicted reaction rates seem to correspond (Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). The uncertainty in the model output resulting from uncertainties in the estimates for the kinetic parameters (Table 3) is rather small because of strong correlations between the identifiable parameter estimates, as also follows from the covariance and correlation matrix of the estimates (Supplementary Information, S2). In addition, respiration tests with biomass concentration of 1 mg N L⁻¹ were performed to validate the model. Although these tests were performed with ten times lower biomass concentration than tests used for the parameter estimation, no significant differences between the model output and the measured oxygen consumption rate were observed, i.e. the coefficient of variation was below $\pm 27\%$.

Hereafter, the model was validated with tests performed at constant initial sulfide concentration (0.03 mM) in the presence of MT, ET and DMDS at different concentrations (Fig. 6A-F). For this purpose, equations describing the model (Eq. 6-15) were adjusted with modified “Michaelis-Menten” equations (Eq. 17-19) depending on the type of inhibitor. For all measurements, model predictions are in a good agreement with the experimental results (on average the difference is $14 \pm 4\%$ for R1 and $7 \pm 6\%$ for R2). This allows for an explicit mathematical description and supports double sulfide-dependent oxygen consumption rates by SOB. Consequently, the model can be used to predict the biomass activity and to predict the accumulation rate of intracellularly produced {S_x}.

From Figure 6 it can be seen that for biological oxidation of sulfide inhibited by MT and ET, the experimental results and the model predictions show almost two times lower sulfide consumption rates and significantly lower oxidation rates of $\{S_x\}$ compared to uninhibited reactions. For reactions inhibited by DMDS, the oxidation of sulfide is inhibited only slightly (8%, Fig. 6E) and moderately (23%, Fig. 6F), while the oxidation of $\{S_x\}$ is almost completely blocked (Fig. 6E-F). These results clearly show that the sulfide oxidation is significantly less vulnerable to these sulfurous inhibitors than $\{S_x\}$ oxidation is. In the presence of an inhibitor model output uncertainties increased due to the uncertainty of inhibition constants (Figure 5).

4. Conclusions

In this study, a novel approach for the simultaneous description of biological sulfur and sulfate formation using a quick sulfide-dependent respiration test has been presented. By applying approach, the inhibition of haloalkaliphilic SOB by the most common thiols and their corresponding diorgano polysulfanes was described. We found that IC_{50} values are correlated with the lipophilicity of the inhibitors. Thiols interfere with the oxidation of sulfide by hydrophilic interaction while hydrophobic interaction is the most important mechanism for diorgano polysulfanes. This can be related to the ionic and non-ionic form of the various inhibitors. For each inhibitor, we identified the inhibition mode and the corresponding inhibition constants. Understanding the inhibitory properties of thiols on the biological oxidation of sulfide allows designing full-scale systems in which any inhibition is prevented e.g. by increasing the biomass or/and substrate concentration.

Moreover, a mathematical model has been described to calculate the biological sulfide oxidizing capacity in the absence or presence of inhibitory thiols and their corresponding diorgano polysulfanes. The proposed model can be used to design full-scale installations to

remove H₂S from gas streams in which thiols and diorgano polysulfanes are present (Janssen et al. 1998).

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563 **TABLES**

564 **Table 1.** Chemicals used to prepare solutions in the current study. All chemicals were
565 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, the Netherlands.

Compound name	CAS no.	Chemical formula	Solvent
Sodium sulfide hydrate	1313-84-4	$\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot 9 \text{H}_2\text{O}$	Water
Sodium thiomethoxide	5188-07-08	CH_3SNa	Water
Ethanethiol	75-08-1	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{SH}$	Methanol
1-Propanethiol	107-03-9	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{SH}$	Methanol
Dimethyl disulfide	624-92-0	$\text{CH}_3\text{S}_2\text{CH}_3$	Methanol
Diethyl disulfide	110-81-6	$(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{S}_2$	Methanol
Dipropyl disulfide	629-19-6	$(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2)_2\text{S}_2$	Methanol

566

567 **Table 2.** Concentration of inhibitors (C_i) and incubation time (T) used in sulfide-dependent
 568 respiration tests for assessing the oxygen consumption rates R1 and R2.

Inhibitor	R1		R2	
	C_i [mM]	T [min]	C_i [mM]	T [min]
Methanethiol	0.024	5	0.005	2
Ethanethiol	0.061	5	0.025	6
Propanethiol	0.080	15	0.017	15
Dimethyl disulfide	0.960	10	0.100	20
Diethyl disulfide	1.200	10	0.100	15
Dipropyl disulfide	0.850	25	0.420	10

569

Table 3. Estimated specific maximal reaction rate (r_{max}), Michaelis-Menten constant (K_M) and inhibition constants (K_i and K_{ies}) with their corresponding standard deviation (σ) for the first (R1) and second (R2) oxygen consumption rates.

Reaction rate	Inhibitor	Mode of inhibition	Parameter	Estimated value	σ	Unit
R1 ($\text{HS}^- \rightarrow \{\text{S}_x\}$)	Not inhibited reaction		r_{max}	600	30	$\mu\text{M O}_2 \text{ (mg N h)}^{-1}$
			K_M	79	9	μM
	MT	competitive	K_i	23	2	μM
	ET		K_i	46	5	μM
	PT		K_i	50	6	μM
	DMDS	uncompetitive	K_{ies}	1000	90	μM
	DEDS		K_{ies}	710	60	μM
	DPDS		K_{ies}	440	20	μM
R2 ($\{\text{S}_x\} \rightarrow \text{SO}_4^{2-}$)	Not inhibited reaction		r_{max}	103	4	$\mu\text{M O}_2 \text{ (mg N h)}^{-1}$
			K_M	1.9	0.4	μM
	MT	mixed	K_i	5	2	μM
			K_{ies}	14	3	μM
	ET		K_i	8.2	0.8	μM
			K_{ies}	40	3	μM
	PT		K_i	10	2	μM
			K_{ies}	70	10	μM
	DMDS	K_i	49	6	μM	
		K_{ies}	260	20	μM	
	DEDS	K_i	61	6	μM	
		K_{ies}	230	20	μM	
	DPDS	K_i	100	10	μM	
		K_{ies}	220	10	μM	

574 **Table. 4.** Calculated IC₅₀ values for methanethiol and dimethyl disulfide, and comparison
 575 with literature data at sulfide concentration of 0.2 mM.

IC ₅₀ [mM]		pH	[Na ⁺ + K ⁺]	Reference
Methanethiol	Dimethyl disulfide			
0.08 ± 0.01	1.4 ± 0.1	9	1	current study
0.05	1.5	9	2	(van den Bosch et al. 2009)
0.11 ± 0.02	N.A.	8.5	1.5	(Roman et al. 2015a)
0.2 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.2	9.5	0.8	(Graaff 2012)

576 N.A. – not available

577 **FIGURES**

578
 579 **Figure 1.** Schematic overview of the reaction that occurs in the bacterial cell related to sulfide
 580 oxidation and the corresponding oxygen concentration profile from biological oxygen
 581 measurements.

Figure 2. Incubation test performed to investigate time needed for complete saturation of enzymes with inhibitor. **A.** Inhibition results for the first rate of the oxygen consumption rate. Concentrations of methanethiol, ethanethiol, propanethiol, dimethyl disulfide, diethyl disulfide, dipropyl disulfide were equal to 0.0243, 0.06, 0.08, 0.96, 1.2 and 2.5 mM respectively. The arrow indicates the incubation time used in tests with methanethiol. **B.** Inhibition results for the second rate of the oxygen consumption rate. Concentrations of methanethiol, ethanethiol, propanethiol, dimethyl disulfide, diethyl disulfide, dipropyl disulfide were equal to 0.04, 0.01, 0.04, 0.1, 0.1 and 0.42 mM respectively. In all experiments the biomass concentration was 10 mgN L⁻¹, [Na⁺ + K⁺] = 1 M, pH = 9 and T = 35 °C.

Figure 3. Calculated IC_{50} values with corresponding uncertainty bounds at increasing concentration of sulfide. **A.** Methanethiol, ethanethiol and propanethiol for the first oxygen consumption rate (R1). **B.** Dimethyl disulfide, diethyl disulfide and dipropyl disulfide (R1). **C.** All aforementioned inhibitors for the second oxygen consumption rate (R2).

Figure 4. Relationship between lipophilicity and IC₅₀ values at sulfide concentration of 0.2 mM. **A.** Methanethiol, ethanethiol, propanethiol for the first (R1) and the second (R2) oxygen consumption rate. **B.** Dimethyl disulfide, diethyl disulfide, dipropyl disulfide for R1 and R2.

Figure 5. Comparison between measured and predicted dissolved oxygen (DO) consumption rate and model predictions of sulfide (HS^-) and polysulfur compound $\{\text{S}_x\}$ concentrations, in absence of an inhibitor. Results of the simulation are based on estimates from Table 3. The sample interval is 1 s for both measured and predicted results. The initial sulfide concentration was 0.005, 0.01, 0.06, 0.08, 0.12, 0.2 mM in figures A-F, respectively. The biomass concentration was 10 mgN L^{-1} , $[\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+] = 1 \text{ M}$, $\text{pH} = 9$ and $T = 35^\circ\text{C}$.

Figure 6. Comparison between measured and predicted dissolved oxygen (DO) consumption rate and model predictions of sulfide (HS^-) and polysulfur compound $\{\text{S}_x\}$ concentration with corresponding model output uncertainties as a result of variations in estimated parameters. Results of the simulation are based on estimates from Table 3. The sample interval is 1 s for both measured and predicted results. Respiration test were performed at different concentration of various inhibitors: **A.** Methanethiol, 0.02 mM. **B.** Methanethiol, 0.04 mM. **C.** Ethanethiol, 0.04 mM. **D.** Ethanethiol, 0.08 mM. **E.** Dimethyl disulfide, 0.5 mM. **F.** Dimethyl disulfide, 1 mM. DO blank refers to an experiment performed without inhibitor. The biomass concentration was 10 mgN L^{-1} , $[\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+] = 1 \text{ M}$, $\text{pH} = 9$ and $T = 35 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

Supplementary Information

S1. Figures:

Figure S1. Relative abundance of the microbial composition based on the 16S rRNA gene for the biomass from a full-scale gas biodesulfurization installation (Janssen et al. 2009). Only bacteria with a relative abundance higher than 0.5% are listed (remaining bacteria are grouped into “Others”). A and B represents two replicates.

★ Uninhibited ■ Methanethiol ● Ethanethiol ▲ Propanethiol
□ Dimethyl disulfide ○ Diethyl disulfide ☆ Uninhibited (for dipropyl disulfide) △ Dipropyl disulfide

Figure S2. An example of results from sulfide-dependent respiration tests plotted on double-reciprocal plots for the first (A and B) and the second (C and D) oxygen consumption rate, where r is the reaction rate (mM O₂ (mg N h)⁻¹) and C_{HS} is the sulfide concentration (mM). The inhibitors concentrations for each oxygen consumption rate are given in Table 2. The biomass concentration was 10 mg N L⁻¹, pH = 9 and T = 35 °C.

1

2 **Figure S3.** Comparison between measured and predicted reaction rate for the first rate of the

3 oxygen consumption rate at different initial sulfide concentrations.

4 S2. Covariance and correlation matrix of the estimates

5 The parameter estimates related to the first oxygen consumption rate (R1) are given by:

$$6 \quad \hat{\theta}_{R1} = \begin{pmatrix} r_{max}^{R1} \\ K_m^{R1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.079 \end{pmatrix}$$

7 with corresponding covariance and correlation matrices:

$$8 \quad COV\hat{\theta}_{R1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0012 & 0.0003 \\ 0.0003 & 0.0001 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$9 \quad R_{\hat{\theta}_{R1}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.866 \\ 0.866 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

10 Similarly, parameters estimates related to the second oxygen consumption rate (R2) are
11 described by:

$$12 \quad \hat{\theta}_{R2} = \begin{pmatrix} r_{max}^{R2} \\ K_m^{R2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.103 \\ 0.0019 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$13 \quad COV\hat{\theta}_{R2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0000148 & 0.0000019 \\ 0.0000019 & 0.0000003 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$14 \quad R_{\hat{\theta}_{R2}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.864 \\ 0.864 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

15