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A novel aerobic sulfate reduction process in landfill mineralized refuse



Weijia Liu, Yuyang Long *, Yuan Fang, Luyao Ying, Dongsheng Shen

Zhejiang Provincial Key Laboratory of Solid Waste Treatment and Recycling, School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Zhejiang Gongshang University, Hangzhou 310012, China

HIGHLIGHTS

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- H₂S from mineralized refuse could be greatly promoted when exposing to O₂.
 MFB without SRB has high aerobic sul-
- fate reduction capacity.
- Lactate and $S_2O_3^{2-}$ were the preferred electron donor and acceptor for MFB.

A R T I C L E I N F O

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ABSTRACT

It is thought that mineralized refuse could be excavated from almost-full landfill sites to provide space for the increasing burden of municipal solid waste. When excavating, however, the H₂S emissions from the mineralized waste need to be considered carefully. In an attempt to understand how H₂S emissions might change during this excavation process, we carried out a series of tests, including exposing anaerobic mineralized refuse to oxygen, isolating and determining possible functional bacteria, and characterizing the electron donors and/or acceptors. The results showed that H₂S would be released when landfill mineralized refuse was exposed to oxygen (O₂), and could reach concentrations of 6 mg m⁻³, which was 3 times the concentrations of H₂S released from anaerobic mineralized refuse. Sulfur-metabolized microorganisms accounted for only 0.5% of the microbial functional bacteria (MFB) derived from the mineralized refuse when exposed to O₂ for 60 days, and SRB were not present. The MFB maintained H₂S production by aerobic sulfate reduction using SO₄²⁻ and S₂O₃²⁻ were the preferred electron donor and acceptor, respectively. By enhancing the carbon source and electron transfer, MFB may undergo strong aerobic sulfate reduction even at low abundances of sulfur-metabolized microorganisms.

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1. Introduction

The rapid growth of the economy and the improvement in living standards has led to increased production of municipal solid waste (MSW). However, the rapid expansion of urban areas also means that landfills are increasingly close to urban residential areas, and there is

* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* longyy@zjgsu.edu.cn (Y. Long). progressively more concern about pollution from landfill odor (Capelli et al., 2008; Masamoto et al., 2012). Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), one of the strongest odors with a low olfactory threshold and high toxicity (Sun et al., 2017), is attracting a lot of attention because of its ability to corrode and potential to harm human health.

Hydrogen sulfide is mainly produced by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) (Alzuhair et al., 2008; Muyzer and Stams, 2008), which have traditionally been considered a type of anaerobic microbe (Burow et al., 2014). However, an increasing number of recent studies have indicated

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that this metabolic process can survive in the presence of oxygen (O_2) . Because of the toxic effects of O₂, SRB have developed strategies to protect themselves, namely behavioral strategies and molecular strategies (Cypionka, 2000). The former include aerotaxis and aggregate formation, while the latter allow SRB to remove O₂ and protect themselves from harmful effects (Dolla et al., 2006). Through forming aggregates, some SRB may be able to survive periodic exposure to oxic conditions in their natural habitats. Sulfate-reducing bacteria form clusters of cells. The cell numbers of SRB in the upper layer of these clusters vary with the time of day and the O₂ concentration. Selected species of SRB have high tolerances to O₂, even when grown in pure cultures, and can survive short-term exposure to O₂ (Cypionka and Widdel, 1985). Desulfovibrio desulfuricans NCIB8301 that was grown in the presence of O₂ survived well over the first 24 h but the cell viability decreased rapidly for longer exposure times. Another study reported that the cell yield fell drastically as the partial pressure of O2 increased, and was correlated with a decrease in both lactate use and H₂S production (Abdollahi and Wimpenny, 1990). In continuous cultures of Desulfovibrio oxyclinae, sulfate reduction was inhibited at oxygen concentrations of 1% in the gas phase (Krekeler et al., 1997). It is generally accepted that these processes are the result of sequential redox processes that are determined by the redox potential, which occurs in sediment and groundwater aquifers everywhere. However, not all phenomena can be attributed to the redox potential. For example, Canfield and Des Marais (1991) reported that sulfate reduction occurred consistently within the photosynthetic zone of microbial mats. Teske et al. (1998) found that SRB on the surface of high-salinity cyanobacteria had day and night sulfate reduction rates of 1000 and 2200 nmol mL⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively, which were higher than the reduction rates reported in anaerobic biomats. Sigalevich and Cohen (2000) discovered that sulfate reduction occurred during co-culture of Desulfovibrio oxyclinae with aerobic bacteria (Marinobacter sp.) when exposed to 5% O_2 at a flux rate of 223 µmol min⁻¹. This evidence indicates that dissimilatory sulfate reduction can occur in the presence of O2 and not just in sequential redox processes, and challenges the traditional view that sulfate reduction is an obiligate anaerobic process.

Excavation of aged landfill has been suggested as a sustainable strategy that will help to resolve the conflict between the rapid increase in the volume of MSW and the limited choice of new landfill sites. If this strategy is adopted, we need to pay attention to the H₂S emissions during the excavation. In our previous studies, we found that H₂S emissions could be enhanced rather than inhibited when mineralized anaerobic landfill refuse was exposed to air (Shen et al., 2015) and, from our experiments of a simulated landfill, we concluded that this enhancement was mediated by aerobic sulfate-reducing processes (Long et al., 2016). The rapid rates of sulfate reduction that we observed in the presence of high O₂ may indicate a novel biochemical pathway for sulfate reduction or that there are complex microbial interactions, the details of which are not yet known. The aim of this study was to gain an understanding of aerobic sulfate reduction in landfill waste that was exposed to O₂. To do this, we carried out a series of tests in which we exposed anaerobic mineralized refuse to O₂, isolated and determined the possible functional bacteria, and characterized the electron donors and/or acceptors.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mineralized refuse with O₂ exposure batch experiment

We took a sample of mineralized refuse from an anaerobic simulated landfill (Fang et al., 2016, b). We removed the inert fractions of mineralized refuse, including glass, metal, plastic, and stone and then crushed it and passed it through a 0.42 mm sieve to remove more small stones and pieces of glass. The sample was then mixed thoroughly and stored in an airtight plastic bag in a refrigerator. The main characteristics of the mineralized refuse sample are shown in Supplementary Table S1.

We carried out a series of O₂ exposure batch experiments in 150-mL serum bottles. A 30-g aliquot of mineralized refuse was weighed and placed into each serum bottle, and then each bottle was sealed with a butyl rubber stopper. The headspace O_2 concentrations were set as 0%, 5%, 10%, 15%, or 21% using the gas replacement method. Firstly, we used N₂ replaced air in serum bottles by stainless steel needle. Then the corresponding volume of N₂ was replaced by pure O₂, to achieve different O₂ concentration. We used 14 parallel serum bottles in our tests. All the serum bottles were incubated in a temperature-controlled room at 30 °C. To avoid any possible effects of opening and closing the bottles, all samples were collected by the destructive method; that is, a bottle from each group was sampled randomly at the designated sampling time and then was excluded from the experiment after the sampling. Mineralized refuse samples were analyzed for pH, moisture contents, and concentrations of dissolved organic carbon, sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) , and forms of sulfide (H_2S , HS^- , and S^{2-}). Gas samples were analyzed for H₂S and O₂.

2.2. Enrichment of mixed functional bacteria (MFB)

In batch experiment, we exposed the mineralized refuse to O_2 for 60 days. During the domestication process, the sulfate content decreased from 5116 mg kg⁻¹ to 3652 mg kg⁻¹ when the conditions were aerobic and the O_2 concentration was 15% (v/v). We considered the decrease in the sulfate concentration was associated with microbes. We collected the mineralized refuse from the reactor to acclimate the possible functional sulfate-reducing microbes. We then domesticated the refuse in a solution with a sulfate concentration of 170 mg L⁻¹ at a liquid-to-solid ratio of 10:1 and aerated the mixture for about 1 month to enrich the possible functional sulfate-reducing microbes. The sulfate content decreased by 43% during this process. The matrix was then separated and the supernatant was collected as MFB.

2.3. Metabolic characteristics of MFBs that were exposed of O₂

2.3.1. Sulfate-reducing behavior of MFB

We set up a test (A) that comprised the MFB, basal medium, and sodium sulfate to investigate the sulfate-reducing behavior. We also set up a sterilized control (CK-A) with the same configuration as group A.

We carried out the tests in a series of sealed glass bottles with a capacity of about 580 mL under aerobic conditions. The headspace, which was about 120 mL, of each glass bottle was filled with sterilized air with an O₂ concentration of 21% (v/v) after the matrix was loaded with the basal medium and sodium sulfate. The initial sulfate concentration in each bottle was around 230 mg L⁻¹. Each treatment was performed in duplicate. The bottles were kept at 30 °C on an orbital shaker set to 100 r min⁻¹.

A modified mineral salt medium (Huang et al., 2014) was used in all the continuous culture experiments. The medium contained 4.5 g L⁻¹ of Na₂HPO₄12H₂O, 1.0 g L⁻¹ of KH₂PO₄, 1.5 g of L⁻¹ NH₄Cl, 0.2 g L⁻¹ of MgSO₄7H₂O, and 0.3 g L⁻¹ of yeast extract. The medium also contained trace elements (0.07 g L⁻¹ of ZnCl₂, 0.1 g L⁻¹ of MnCl₂4H₂O, 0.006 g L⁻¹ of H₃BO₃, 0.13 g L⁻¹ of CaCl₂2H₂O, 0.002 g L⁻¹ of CuCl₂2H₂O, 0.024 g L⁻¹ of NiCl₂6H₂O, 0.036 g L⁻¹ of Na₂MO₄2H₂O, 0.238 g L⁻¹ of CoCl₂6H₂O,

Table 1	
The experiment design	of electron acceptors.

Treatments	Electron acceptor	Electron donor	Inoculum
B1	SO_4^{2-}	+	+
B2	$S_2O_3^{2-}$	+	+
B3		+	+
CK-B1	SO_4^{2-}	+	+,sterilization
CK-B2	$S_2 O_3^{2-}$	+	+, sterilization
CK-B3		+	+, sterilization

Note: SO_4^2 :960 mg L⁻¹ S₂O₃²⁻:1120 mg L⁻¹ the electron donor: glucose (10.8 g L⁻¹), Inoculum: 0.5 mL bacteria liquid. Download English Version:

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