

# Gas Metabolism Evidence in Support of the Juxtaposition of Hydrogen-Producing and Methanogenic Bacteria in Sewage Sludge and Lake Sediments

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**We developed new techniques to measure dissolved H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> consumption kinetics in anoxic ecosystems that were not dependent on headspace measurements or gas transfer-limited experimentation. These H<sub>2</sub> metabolism parameters were then compared with measured methane production rates, and estimates of H<sub>2</sub> production and interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer were made. The H<sub>2</sub> pool sizes were 205 and 31 nM in sewage sludge from an anaerobic digester and in sediments (24 m) from Lake Mendota, respectively. The H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constants, as determined by using in situ pool sizes and temperatures, were 103 and 31 h<sup>-1</sup> for sludge and sediment, respectively. The observed H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate accounted for only 5 to 6% of the expected H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub>-dependent methanogenesis in these ecosystems. Our results are in general agreement with the results reported previously and are used to support the conclusion that most of the H<sub>2</sub>-dependent methanogenesis in these ecosystems occurs as a consequence of direct interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer between juxtapositioned microbial associations within flocs or consortia.**

Hydrogen is an important precursor of methanogenesis in sewage and freshwater sediments (1, 5, 10, 13, 25, 30, 32; Phelps and Zeikus, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, submitted for publication). H<sub>2</sub>-consuming microorganisms are of great importance in these anoxic environments, since they maintain a low H<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and thus allow the functioning of biological reactions which otherwise would not occur because of thermodynamic reasons (34). Syntrophic partnerships between H<sub>2</sub> consumers (e.g., methanogens) and H<sub>2</sub> producers (e.g., H<sub>2</sub>-producing acetogens) shift the overall fermentation balance of a primary substrate toward better usage of its energy content (28). The term interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer has usually been used for systems in which the presence of one or more H<sub>2</sub>-consuming species significantly alters the metabolism of a fermentative organism toward production of more oxidized end products (1-4, 15, 16). This alteration can be demonstrated in defined bacterial mixed cultures and in natural environments when the activity of H<sub>2</sub> consumers is inhibited (10, 12, 26).

Previous research on interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer has not demonstrated the need for physical contact or juxtapositioning of syntrophic partners, and this process is generally understood as syntrophism via a common pool of H<sub>2</sub>. Thus, if syntrophic bacterial associations are randomly distributed within an environment and the bacteria are not in physical contact or close to each other, then the H<sub>2</sub> produced from one partner should be able to equilibrate with the common H<sub>2</sub> pool before it is utilized by the other partner. On the other hand, if the syntrophic bacterial associations are juxtapositioned then the produced H<sub>2</sub> should be partially consumed before it can equilibrate with the common H<sub>2</sub> pool. The purpose of this study was to develop suitable methods to study this problem and to provide evidence in support of the hypothesis that the mechanism of H<sub>2</sub> transfer

in anoxic sediments or sewage sludge involves juxtapositioning.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Chemicals.** Purified gases (pressurized air, N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub>) were obtained from Matheson Gas Co., Joliet, Ill. Traces of H<sub>2</sub> were removed from the gases by using a Hopkalit metal oxide converter (Drägerwerke, Lübeck, Federal Republic of Germany). The other chemicals were of analytical quality and were obtained from Mallinckrodt, Paris, Ky., or Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.

**Sampling procedures.** Anoxic sediment samples were taken with an Eckman dredge from Lake Mendota, Wis. (depth, 24 m) during summer stratification. The anaerobic processes of methanogenesis and sulfidogenesis have been well characterized in this lake (9, 30; Phelps and Zeikus, submitted). The upper 5 cm of the sediment was transferred into glass bottles under an N<sub>2</sub> gas stream. The bottles were completely filled, anaerobically sealed with rubber stoppers, and transported to the laboratory in an ice chest. For measuring H<sub>2</sub> concentrations and turnover rates, sediment samples were transferred into special glass flasks (see below) by using a 60-ml plastic syringe to which latex tubing (length, 7 cm; inside diameter, 5 mm) was connected instead of a needle.

Anoxic samples of sewage sludge were taken from a tap on the Nine Springs Municipal Sewage Plant anaerobic digester in Madison, Wis. The end of the tap was inserted into a 1-liter beaker, and the beaker was flushed with sewage for 30 s. Samples were removed from this filled beaker by using a 60-ml syringe and were placed into the special glass flasks.

**Measurement of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentration.** The procedure used for measuring dissolved H<sub>2</sub> in sediment or sludge samples is shown in Fig. 1. Samples (approximately 30 to 50 ml) were transferred into special 100-ml glass flasks which had been flushed with H<sub>2</sub>-free N<sub>2</sub> (steps a and b). The special glass flasks were the same as those used for measuring H<sub>2</sub> or

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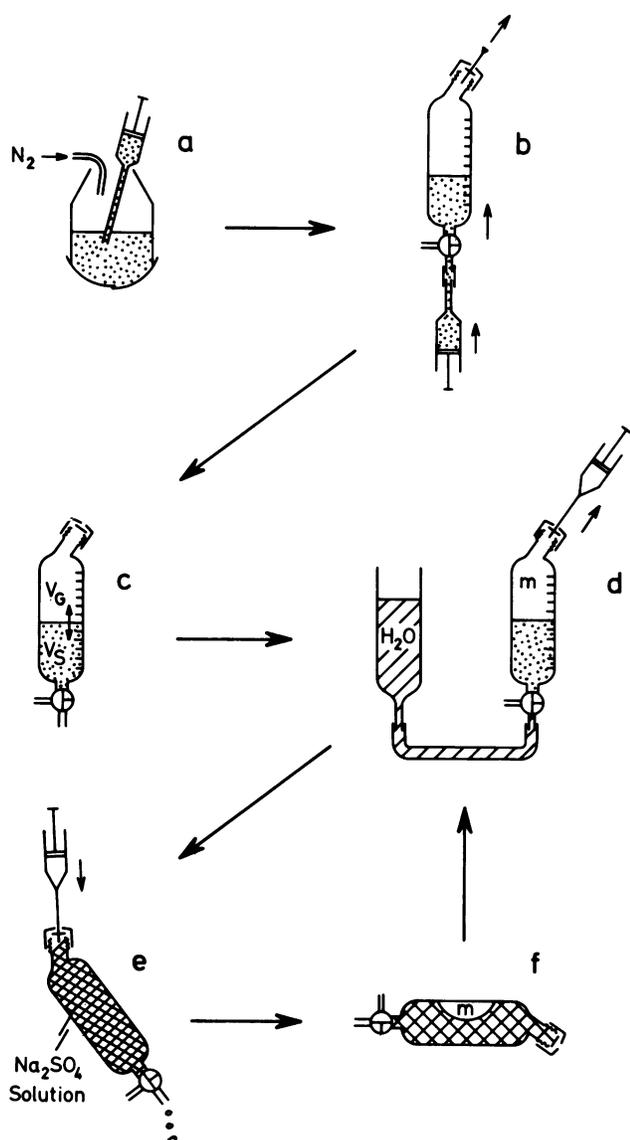


FIG. 1. Schematic diagram of the procedures used to measure dissolved hydrogen in anoxic sewage and sludge samples. See text for details.

CO in water samples (7), except that the openings of the three-way stopcock made of Teflon were enlarged to about 2.5 mm (inside diameter). The H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> dissolved in the sediment were extracted immediately into the N<sub>2</sub> gas phase by vigorous shaking. The volumes of the sediment or sludge (V<sub>S</sub>) and of the gas phase (V<sub>G</sub>) were recorded (step c). A cylinder filled with water was connected to the extraction flask to put a slight overpressure on the gas phase, and gas samples were taken with air-tight syringes and transferred into a flask completely filled with a saturated Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution containing 100 μg of HgCl<sub>2</sub> per ml (steps d and e). The extracted gas was transported into the laboratory as a gas bubble. (step f). There, the gas bubble was analyzed for its mixing ratio (m) of H<sub>2</sub> (step d). The concentration of H<sub>2</sub> dissolved in the sediment (C<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub>) was calculated from the mixing ratio by using the following formula:  $C_{H_2} = m(V_G/V_S)$  (equation 1).

The molar concentrations of H<sub>2</sub> were calculated from the

concentrations measured as microliters of H<sub>2</sub> per liter of sample and the molar volume of an ideal gas at the in situ temperature and were corrected for the dry matter content of the sample. The same procedure was used to determine the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration. The efficiency of the extraction procedure was checked after equilibration of the sediment with a standard H<sub>2</sub> gas mixture. Because of the low Bunsen solubility coefficient for H<sub>2</sub> in water ( $\leq 0.02$ ), the small amounts of H<sub>2</sub> (<2%) that remained dissolved in the sediment and were not extracted into the gas phase were insignificant compared with the overall accuracy of the extraction and analysis procedure and thus were neglected. Tests showed that gas bubbles could be stored for at least 2 days (step f) without significant change of the H<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio (reproducibility,  $\pm 5\%$ ). However, dramatic changes occurred if the extracted gas was kept in contact with sediment or sludge during transport to the laboratory (e.g., transport at step c). Addition of NaOH (final concentration, 0.5 N) or glutaraldehyde (final concentration, 2.5%) to the sediment to destroy biological activity during the extraction and storage at step c resulted in an increase in H<sub>2</sub> concentration. Hence, it was absolutely necessary to separate the gas phase from the sediment immediately after extraction.

The H<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio was analyzed in an H<sub>2</sub> analyzer based on the HgO-to-Hg vapor conversion technique (23, 24), which has a lower detection limit of 10 parts of H<sub>2</sub> per billion (10 nl of H<sub>2</sub> per liter), allowing the detection of approximately 10 nl of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> per liter of sediment. The precision of the extraction and H<sub>2</sub> analysis was within  $\pm 10\%$ . CH<sub>4</sub> either was analyzed in a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector or was detected as a second peak in the chromatogram of the H<sub>2</sub> analyzer. The lower detection limits were 0.002 and 0.02% (vol/vol), respectively, allowing the detection of approximately 0.02 to 0.2 ml of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> per liter of sediment.

**Measurement of H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constants.** The procedure used to determine H<sub>2</sub> turnover rates is shown in Fig. 2. Samples were transferred by syringe into a 160-ml serum bottle closed with a black rubber stopper that contained a glass tube. The glass tube was connected to butyl rubber tubing which was closed by a clamp. The empty bottles were evacuated and flushed several times with N<sub>2</sub> and were kept anaerobic under an overpressure of N<sub>2</sub> (approximately 50 kPa). The bottles were almost filled with sediment or sludge, clamped, and transported on ice to the laboratory (steps a through c). Then approximately 20 ml of N<sub>2</sub> containing a calculated amount of H<sub>2</sub> was injected into the bottles, replacing the sediment by the gas headspace (step d). The bottles were vigorously shaken to equilibrate the H<sub>2</sub> between the gas and the aqueous phase (step 3). Then the sediment or sludge (approximately 60 ml) was transferred into a glass syringe (300 ml) with a ground glass barrel by applying N<sub>2</sub> pressure to the headspace of the bottle (step f). The syringe containing the sediment or sludge was then incubated in a water bath kept at the in situ temperature recorded in the field (step g). Steps d through g typically took less than 4 min. Subsamples (2 ml) of sediment or sludge were taken from the big syringe by using a small 10-ml plastic syringe (step h). After the subsample was removed, 8 ml of H<sub>2</sub>-free air was sucked into the syringe (step i), and the H<sub>2</sub> dissolved in the sediment or sludge was extracted into the air by vigorous shaking. The gas phase of the syringe was then transferred into a flask that was completely filled with water (step k) to remove the sediment or sludge. The H<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio of this gas bubble was then immediately analyzed (step l). Steps h through l typically took less than 3 min. By

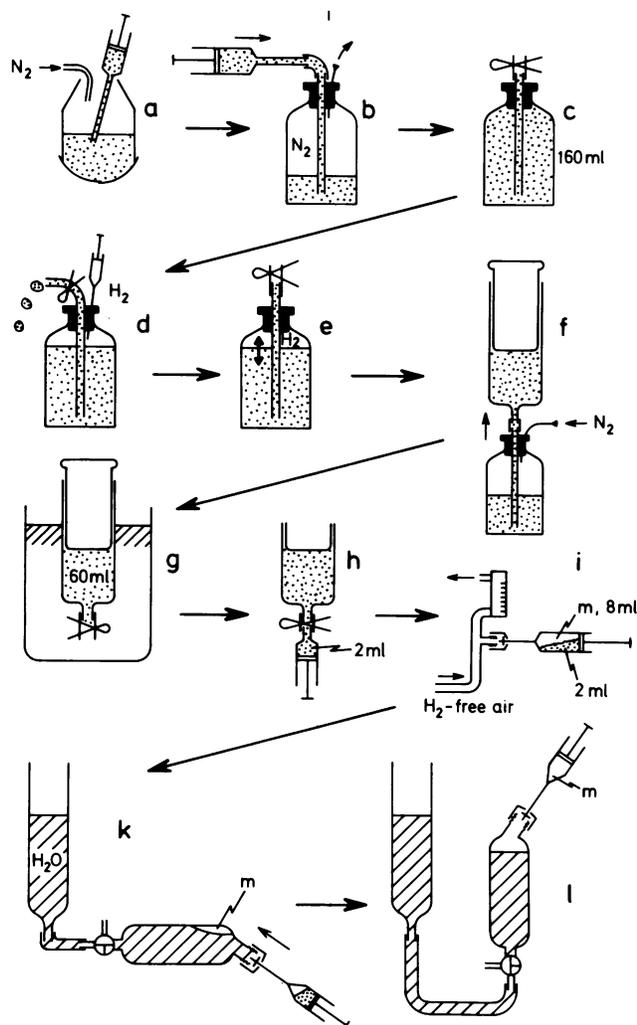


FIG. 2. Schematic diagram of the procedure used to measure the kinetics of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> turnover in anoxic sewage and sediments. Our procedures avoided experimental use of gaseous headspace and gas phase transfer limitations. See text for details.

overlapping samples and extraction and analysis times, it was possible to obtain time point resolutions of 0.5 to 1 min. The H<sub>2</sub> concentration in the sediment was four times the mixing ratio in the gas phase when the small amount of nonextracted H<sub>2</sub> was neglected. The H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constant was calculated from the time course of the logarithmic decrease in dissolved H<sub>2</sub> level (precision, ≤15%).

**Determination of CH<sub>4</sub> production.** Sediment samples (20

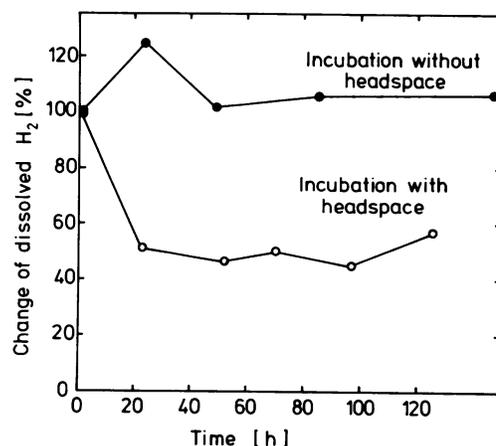


FIG. 3. Comparison of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> changes in experimental sediment samples incubated in the presence and absence of a headspace. Sediment incubation at in situ temperatures took place in 160-ml serum vials that were flushed with N<sub>2</sub> and contained either 20 ml of sediment (with headspace) or 160 ml of sediment (without headspace). The dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentration (i.e., the in situ concentration) was measured immediately after sampling, and this value was set at 100%.

ml) from Lake Mendota were transferred into 160-ml serum bottles that were flushed with N<sub>2</sub> and sealed with black rubber stoppers. The headspaces of the bottles were pressurized with N<sub>2</sub> to a total pressure of 130 kPa. The bottles were incubated in duplicate at the in situ temperature for 5 days. During this period, 400-μl gas samples were taken with a gas-tight pressure lock syringe twice a day and analyzed for methane in a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector. The CH<sub>4</sub> production rate was calculated from the linear increase in the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration in the headspace of the bottles. This increase was linear for at least 2.5 days, and no lag phase was observed. The CH<sub>4</sub> production rate in the sewage sludge was determined by the same procedure, and these results were compared with data on gas production, gas composition, and digester volume provided by the municipal sewage treatment plant in Madison. These latter values were within 20% of the CH<sub>4</sub> production values determined in our laboratory.

### RESULTS

The average in situ concentrations of H<sub>2</sub> measured in five replicate samples of sewage sludge and lake sediment were 205 and 31 nM, respectively (Table 1). Preliminary experiments were performed to test the influence of incubation

TABLE 1. Comparison of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentrations and H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constants in relation to methanogenesis parameters in sewage sludge and sediment<sup>a</sup>

Anoxic ecosystem	Dissolved H <sub>2</sub> concn (nM)	H <sub>2</sub> turnover rate constant (h <sup>-1</sup> )	H <sub>2</sub> production rate (μM/h)	CH <sub>4</sub> production rate (μM/h)	% of CH <sub>4</sub> originating from H <sub>2</sub>	% of CH <sub>4</sub> originating from CO <sub>2</sub>	Interspecies H <sub>2</sub> transfer rate for methanogenesis (μM/h)
Sludge	205 ± 62	100 ± 9	21	390	1.4	30 <sup>b</sup>	450
Sediment	31 ± 13	31 ± 6	1	15	1.7	21–35 <sup>c</sup>	18

<sup>a</sup> Values were measured or calculated as described in the text for samples taken from the Nine Springs Anaerobic Digester and from Lake Mendota, Madison, Wis. (depth, 24 m).

<sup>b</sup> Data from studies by Boone (1), Mountfort and Asher (17), and Smith and Mah (25).

<sup>c</sup> Data from studies by Phelps and Zeikus (in press) and Winfrey and Zeikus (30).

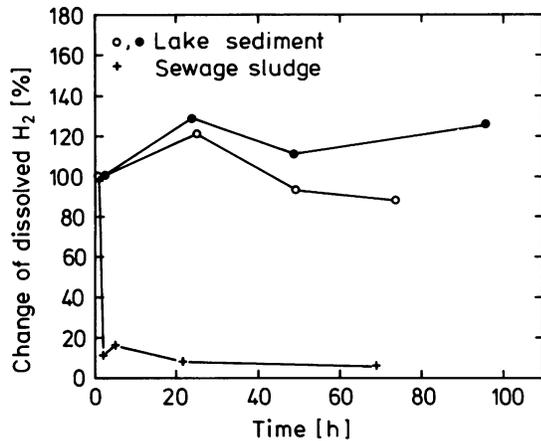


FIG. 4. Comparison of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentration changes in representative sludge and lake sediment samples. Incubation of samples at in situ temperatures was performed without a headspace, as described in the legend to Fig. 3.

conditions on the steady-state H<sub>2</sub> pool size in sewage and sludge samples. Figure 3 shows that the H<sub>2</sub> pool size dropped to a lower steady-state concentration when the sediment sample was incubated with an N<sub>2</sub> headspace (sediment to headspace ratio, 1:8), compared with no significant change when incubation was without the use of a headspace. The former result was probably a consequence of the fact that the headspace constituted a much larger reservoir for H<sub>2</sub> than the water phase because of the low Bunsen solubility coefficient (0.02 at 8°C). For these reasons, the remaining experiments were performed without a headspace.

Figure 4 shows the relationship between incubation time and change in the dissolved hydrogen concentration in sediment and sludge samples. The concentration of dissolved hydrogen in sewage sludge dropped to 10% of the in situ value after 1 to 5 h. On the other hand, the dissolved hydrogen concentration in Lake Mendota sediment stayed within 90 to 120% of the initial value for 100 h. The difference in these two anoxic ecosystems is most probably a reflection of the quantity and quality of the organic electron donors and the actual carbon and electron flow patterns in an anaerobic digester compared with a lake sediment. These results demonstrate the necessity of immediate sample processing at the field site to measure H<sub>2</sub> concentrations that approximate in situ conditions.

Figure 5 shows the consumption kinetics of exogenous hydrogen additions in samples incubated without a headspace at in situ temperatures. At saturating H<sub>2</sub> concentrations, the H<sub>2</sub> concentration decreased linearly with time, indicating zero-order kinetics and giving the  $V_{\max}$  of H<sub>2</sub> consumption. When H<sub>2</sub> utilization was followed with time to lower H<sub>2</sub> concentrations, the H<sub>2</sub> decrease shifted from a linear rate to a logarithmic rate, indicating first-order kinetics. The logarithmic rate of H<sub>2</sub> decrease was the H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constant ( $K_t$ ), which was 103 and 31 h<sup>-1</sup> for sludge and sediment, respectively. When the H<sub>2</sub> concentration had decreased so much in sewage sludge that it approached the in situ concentration, the rate of H<sub>2</sub> decrease gradually became smaller and finally reached zero change. This observation indicates that the in situ concentration of the H<sub>2</sub> pool ( $C_{H_2}$ ) was a steady-state concentration which resulted from simultaneous production and consumption of H<sub>2</sub>. The rate of H<sub>2</sub> production ( $P$ ) could be calculated from the following

equation:  $P = C_{H_2} K_t$  (equation 2). For steady-state conditions, the H<sub>2</sub> production rate must be equal to the H<sub>2</sub> consumption rate or equivalent to the turnover rate of the H<sub>2</sub> pool at in situ H<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

Table 1 shows the measured rates of methane production, the in situ concentrations of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> and the H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constants with the calculated rates of H<sub>2</sub> production, the amounts of methane originating from H<sub>2</sub>, the amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> originating from CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, and the interspecies H<sub>2</sub> transfer rates in sewage sludge and lake sediment. The higher values for in situ H<sub>2</sub> concentration, H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate, H<sub>2</sub> production rate, and methane production rate in sewage sludge than in lake sediment are indicative of the higher turnover and anaerobic mineralization of organic matter in sewage. The percentage of methane which was derived from hydrogen was calculated by using the following stoichiometric relationship:  $4H_2 + CO_2 = CH_4 + 2H_2O$  (equation 3).

As a result, only about 1.5% of the total methane produced in either sewage or sediment could have originated from the H<sub>2</sub> consumed out of the common H<sub>2</sub> pool (i.e., the measured dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentration). The amount of methane produced from H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> via equation 3 was estimated from the

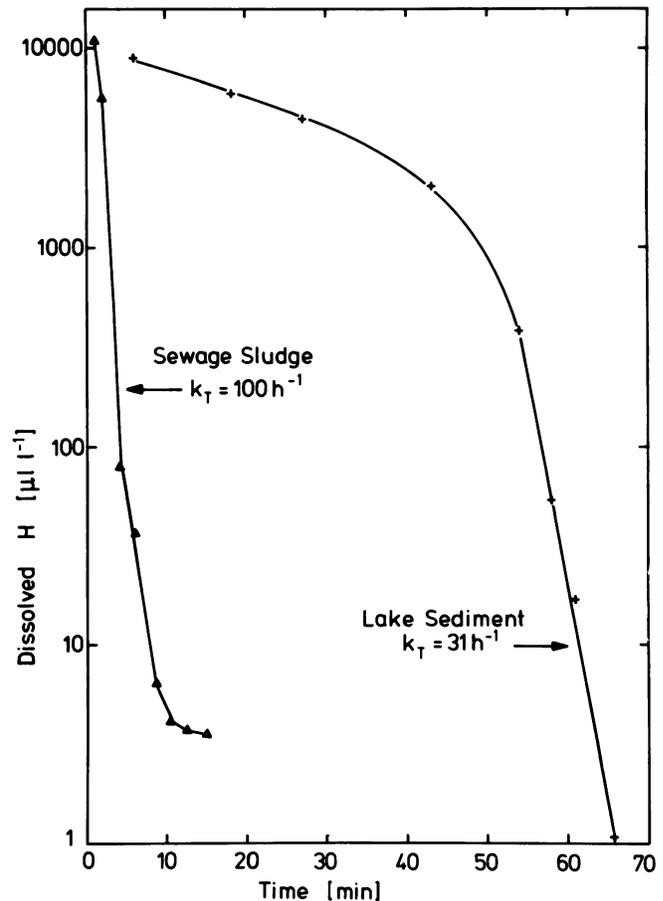


FIG. 5. Comparison of dissolved H<sub>2</sub> consumption kinetics in sewage sludge and lake sediment. Sediments were incubated without a headspace at the in situ temperature by using the procedures described in the legend to Fig. 2. At rate-limiting H<sub>2</sub> concentrations, the H<sub>2</sub> concentration decreased logarithmically, indicating a first-order reaction whose constant was taken as the H<sub>2</sub> turnover rate constant ( $K_t$ ).

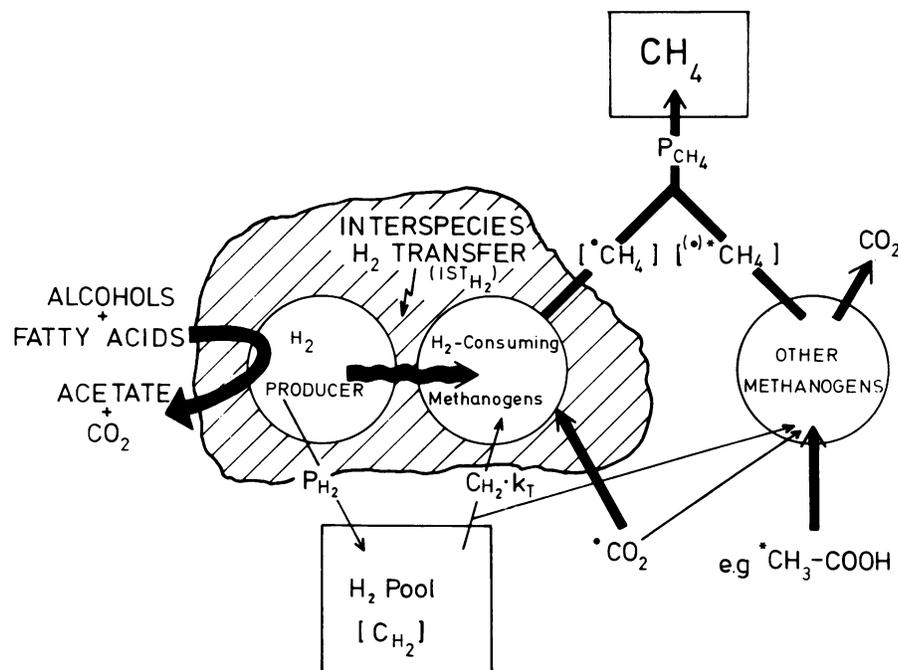


FIG. 6. Carbon and electron flow diagram showing the importance of juxtapositioning of  $H_2$  producers and methanogens in nature. The fact that only 5 to 6% of the total expected methane formed in sewage or sludge samples can be accounted for by the free pool of dissolved  $H_2$  suggests that syntrophic partners are spatially located in a matrix or floc which limits diffusion of hydrogen into the aqueous phase as a consequence of close spatial localization of  $H_2$  producers with methanogens which consume the  $H_2$  before it leaves the matrix.

amount  $^{14}CH_4$  produced in experiments that contained  $^{14}CH_4$ . When these procedures were used, approximately 30% of the total  $CH_4$  production observed in sewage (1, 17, 25) or Lake Mendota sediment (30; Phelps and Zeikus, submitted for publication) was from  $CO_2$  reduction by hydrogen. Thus, only 5 to 6% of the methane derived from  $H_2$ - $CO_2$  could have been due to  $H_2$  consumption from the common  $H_2$  pool. Therefore, we suggest that the rest of the  $H_2$ - $CO_2$ -derived  $CH_4$  (94 to 95%) originated as a result of interspecies  $H_2$  transfer between juxtapositioned syntrophic partners associated within microbial consortia or flocs. The interspecies  $H_2$  transfer rate was determined by subtracting the calculated hydrogen production rate from the amount of  $H_2$  production needed to account for methanogenesis from  $H_2$ - $CO_2$ . The interspecies  $H_2$  transfer rates which we calculated are much higher than the calculated  $H_2$  production rate in either sewage sludge or lake sediment.

#### DISCUSSION

Figure 6 shows a schematic diagram which summarizes the interpretive conclusions of this study on  $H_2$  metabolism and methanogenesis. In well-studied anaerobic ecosystems, such as sewage sludge digestors, microbial associations or consortia develop as flocs of different species embedded within an exopolymer matrix (8, 31, 34, 35). Juxtapositioning of  $H_2$  producers and methanogens in sludge and sediment was supported by comparing the turnover of the common  $H_2$  pool with the rate of  $H_2$ - $CO_2$ -derived  $CH_4$  production. In contrast to the expected contribution of 30%, the  $H_2$  turnover rates accounted for only 5 to 6% of the methane production rates. Therefore, we assume that the rest of the  $H_2$  was directly transferred between syntrophic associations of  $H_2$  producers and methanogens that were juxtapositioned within a floc or consortium. In this manner, most of the  $H_2$  produced did not equilibrate with the common pool of  $H_2$

(i.e., the measured dissolved  $H_2$  concentration); rather, it was directly consumed by the adjacent methanogens before it diffused out of the floc matrix. Therefore, we conclude that the juxtapositioning during interspecies  $H_2$  transfer is of great importance for explaining methanogenesis in nature. Other studies (J. Thiele, M. Chartrain, and J. G. Zeikus, submitted for publication) on the  $H_2$  metabolism in flocs derived from a whey-processing methane digester have provided direct physical and microscopic evidence for juxtapositioning during interspecies  $H_2$  transfer that supports the gas analysis approach described here.

We also describe new methods for measuring in situ  $H_2$  pool concentrations in anoxic environments and for determining  $H_2$  consumption kinetics. Until now, measurements of in situ  $H_2$  concentrations have almost been lacking. This is mainly because the low concentration of  $H_2$  present are below the detection limit of the analytical equipment usually used (26, 30). Recently, steady-state concentrations of headspace  $H_2$  were determined in sewage and lake sediments by new techniques (12, 18, 19). However, in situ concentrations of dissolved  $H_2$  have so far been similarly reported only in the anaerobic hypolimnium of a eutrophic lake (6) and in the anoxic water of a salt pond (22). In previous studies on  $H_2$  uptake in anoxic exosystems, a headspace analysis was performed (11, 12, 14, 18, 20, 27). However, the technique used is sensitive to limitation of  $H_2$  transfer from the gas phase to the aqueous phase and may result in an underestimate of the  $H_2$  turnover rate constant. The new methods described in this paper overcome these limitations and, in addition, have the advantage of a higher sensitivity compared with headspace analysis because of the low Bunsen solubility coefficient of  $H_2$  in water.

The in situ concentrations of the  $H_2$  pool in sewage and Lake Mendota sediments were 30 and 200 nM (1.5 and 30 Pa), respectively. These concentrations are the result of

simultaneous H<sub>2</sub> consumption and production reactions which are in steady state under in situ conditions. The ratio of production to consumption was higher in sewage than in lake sediments. Our data compare well with other values reported for steady-state H<sub>2</sub> concentrations measured during incubation of a eutrophic lake sediment (12) and sewage sludge (19). To explain the higher H<sub>2</sub> concentrations in sewage than in sediment, we suggest that H<sub>2</sub>-producing activities may increase more with increased input of degradable organic matter than H<sub>2</sub>-consuming activities, thus resulting in increased steady-state concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>.

H<sub>2</sub>-producing reactions are either exergonic or endergonic when examined under standard chemical conditions (28, 33, 35). Examples of endergonic H<sub>2</sub>-producing reactions are fermentations of ethanol, propionate, and other fatty acids by the so-called obligate proton-reducing bacteria to acetate, CO<sub>2</sub> and, H<sub>2</sub> (2-4, 15, 16, 28). The latter reactions become exergonic and thus thermodynamically possible in anoxic ecosystems as soon as the H<sub>2</sub> partial pressure drops below a particular value (34). High concentrations of substrates such as alcohols and fatty acids, high pH values, and low concentrations of the products acetate and CO<sub>2</sub> allow a higher H<sub>2</sub> partial pressure than vice versa. Therefore, we may hypothesize that the relatively high H<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in sewage is due to the relatively high contents of alcohols and fatty acids compared with the Lake Mendota sediments (8, 21; Phelps and Zeikus, submitted for publication). The H<sub>2</sub> partial pressures (1.4 to 30 Pa) which have been measured in Lake Mendota sediments and sewage are low enough to allow the fermentation of alcohols and fatty acids, but growth of propionate oxidizers would be limited by these relatively high H<sub>2</sub> partial pressures. However, it is possible that obligate proton-reducing propionate oxidizers are protected from the high H<sub>2</sub> concentration of the common H<sub>2</sub> pool by living in microniches provided by juxtapositioning of H<sub>2</sub> consumers which keep a very low H<sub>2</sub> concentration in the microniche. Thus, biopolymer floc formation in consortia may proceed parallel to juxtapositioning of different species from various trophic groups.

The importance of the H<sub>2</sub> transfer between juxtapositioned partners within sewage sludge flocs is also inferred from the observation that the common H<sub>2</sub> pool concentration (i.e., dissolved H<sub>2</sub> concentration) dropped rapidly during the incubation of sewage sludge, whereas the rate of methanogenesis stayed constant. Apparently, overall methanogenesis is not as dependent on the common H<sub>2</sub> pool. Although the excess hydrogen of the common H<sub>2</sub> pool is used up when the sample is removed from the steady-state digestion system, this excess H<sub>2</sub> may be a result of electron donor-driven hydrogen production capacity which is not associated with syntrophic H<sub>2</sub> transfer interactions. In lake sediment, the H<sub>2</sub> pool size stayed constant for several days as long as the sample was incubated without a headspace, indicating a balance between hydrogen-producing and -consuming reactions, perhaps as a consequence of available electron donors or more balance between syntrophic H<sub>2</sub> transfer interactions or both. It will be interesting to understand more completely the microbial basis of syntrophic H<sub>2</sub> transfer interactions in these anoxic ecosystems, including the role of different bacteria in consortia and the exact basis for competition between different types of H<sub>2</sub>-consuming bacteria.

The importance of juxtapositioning is also in agreement with recent observations of Van Bruggen et al. (29). These authors observed that there are as many symbiotic methanogens inside sapropelic protozoa cells as there are

free-living methanogens in the sediment. As they suggest, it might well be that a large part of the methane of a sediment is produced by methanogens which use the H<sub>2</sub> originating inside the protozoan cells.

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