

1 **Feasibility of sunflower oil cake degradation with three different anaerobic consortia**

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10
11 **ABSTRACT**

12
13 Sunflower oil cake (SuOC) is the solid by-product from the sunflower oil extraction process and an
14 important pollutant waste because of its high organic content. For the anaerobic digestion of SuOC
15 three different industrial reactors were compared as inoculum sources. This was done using a
16 biochemical methane production (BMP) test. Inoculum I was a granular biomass from an industrial
17 reactor treating soft-drink wastewaters. Inoculum II was a flocculent biomass from a full-scale
18 reactor treating biosolids generated in an urban wastewater treatment plant. Inoculum III was a
19 granular biomass from an industrial reactor treating brewery wastes.

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24 The highest kinetic constant for methane production was achieved using inoculum II. The inoculum
25 sources were analyzed through PCR amplification of 16S rRNA genes and fingerprinting before
26 (t=0) and after the BMP test (t=12 days). No significant differences were found in the bacterial
27 community fingerprints between the beginning and the end of the experiments. The bacterial and
28 archaeal communities of inoculum II were further analyzed. The main bacteria found in this
29 inoculum belongs to Alphaproteobacteria and Chloroflexi. Of the Archaea detected,
30 Methanomicrobiales and Methanosarcinales made up practically the whole archaeal community.
31 The results showed the importance of selecting an appropriate inoculum in short term processes due
32 to the fact that the major microbial constituents in the initial consortia remained stable throughout
33 anaerobic digestion.

34
35 **Keywords:** Sunflower oil cake, biochemical methane potential, microbial community, fingerprints,
36 methane yield, kinetics.

38 INTRODUCTION

39
40 Sunflower oil cake (SuOC) is the solid waste generated during the sunflower seed oil extraction
41 process. World sunflower seed production ranged between 29.1 and 31.1 million tonnes over the
42 last few seasons. ^[1] As a result, large quantities of SuOC are generated every year. In Spain alone,
43 between 4 and 5 million tonnes of this by-product are produced, giving rise to an important
44 environmental issue. ^[2] Current perspectives on how to obtain high value products from wastes
45 involve anaerobic digestion processes for biogas generation [(a mixture of methane and carbon
46 dioxide with a high energetic value (21.4 MJ per m³)]. These anaerobic processes are performed by

47 complex groups of microorganisms (Bacteria and Archaea) which coordinate the degradation of
48 organic matter. A relatively low percentage of these microorganisms present in anaerobic digestion
49 processes have been isolated. This lack of knowledge results sometimes in malfunctions and
50 unexplainable failures of biogas fermenters. For these reasons, it must be analyzed in more detail. ^[3]
51 Only a few studies have considered the potential influence of inoculum in anaerobic digestion
52 systems. Moreno-Andrade and Buitrón ^[4] studied the influence of five different inocula on an
53 anaerobic biodegradability test of two different substrates, one easily degradable (glucose) and the
54 other toxic (phenol). These authors emphasized the importance of using the appropriate inoculum to
55 obtain satisfactory results from anaerobic processes. After testing two different inocula, granular
56 and suspended, Pereira et al. ^[5] found granular inoculum to be the best option for the anaerobic
57 treatment of synthetic oleic acid-based effluent, since the methanogenic activity of the granular
58 inoculum was 2-7 times higher than that of the suspended biomass and was more resistant to long
59 chain fatty acid toxicity. Foster-Carneiro et al. ^[6] compared six different inoculum sources for the
60 anaerobic thermophilic digestion of the organic fraction of municipal solid wastes. Tabatabaei et al.
61 ^[7] studied the importance of the microbial community, focusing on the methanogenic archaea in the
62 anaerobic digestion of brewery wastewater, palm oil mill effluents, dairy wastes, cheese whey, dairy
63 wastewater, pulp and paper wastewaters and olive oil mill wastewaters with respect to their
64 dominant methanogenic population.
65
66 During the process of anaerobic digestion it is expected that the microbial communities adapt as a
67 consequence of the growth of microorganisms under the specific conditions of digestion and the
68 substrate treated. The dynamics of the acetoclastic methanogenic community have been evaluated
69 under the influence of different wastewater compositions and even under inhibitory conditions. ^{[8, 9,}

70 ^{10]} The microbial community structure has been studied under low temperature conditions and under
71 the influence of metal supplementation. ^[11, 12, 13] However, the transformations which occur in the
72 microbial communities during the anaerobic digestion of organic wastes and methane production
73 are still not fully understood.

74
75 It is clear that the efficiency of biogas production during the anaerobic digestion of organic residues
76 depends on the microorganisms involved in the process. The study of these microbial communities
77 represents an important step towards understanding and optimizing these anaerobic treatments.
78 Thus, the aim of this work was to study the influence of the inoculum type on the anaerobic
79 digestion of SuOC in terms of methane production. Microbial community fingerprints from the
80 initial inoculum source and after the biochemical methane potential test (BMP) were compared,
81 determining the major components of the communities involved in the process to achieve the best
82 methane production kinetics.

83

84 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

85

86 **Substrate**

87

88 The substrate used in this study was SuOC. Prior to the experiments, a study of the different particle
89 sizes present in this solid waste was carried out by separation with a mechanical sieve. The most
90 abundant size found (29.4%) was 0.7-1.0 mm. Consequently, this size was used in the experiments.
91 Table 1 shows the full composition and main features of the SuOC used in this study (mean values
92 are averages of four determinations).

93

94 **Inocula**

95

96 Three different inoculum sources were used: a) an anaerobic granular inoculum derived from a full-
97 scale upflow anaerobic sludge blanket (UASB) reactor treating wastewaters from a soft-drinks
98 industry (I); b) a flocculent anaerobic inoculum from a full-scale completely stirred tank reactor
99 (CSTR) treating biosolids from a conventional urban wastewater treatment plant (II); and c) an
100 anaerobic granular inoculum from a UASB reactor treating brewery wastes (III). Table 2 shows the
101 main characteristics of these three inocula. The experiments were carried out at an
102 inoculum:substrate ratio of 2:1. An inoculum concentration of 15 g VS L⁻¹ was used for each
103 reactor.

104

105 **Reactors and Operational Conditions**

106

107 The experiments were carried out in a thermostated water bath (35°C) in batch mode. The reactors
108 were stirred at 250 rpm with a magnetic stirrer. The BMP test was run by triplicate. Two controls
109 without substrate were added in each run. A final working volume of 250 mL was used for each
110 treatment. Methane production was measured by a NaOH solution (3N) displacement (CO₂
111 produced in the anaerobic process was kept in this sodium hydroxide solution).

112

113 **Experimental Set up**

114

115 The experiment was carried out by triplicate and two control reactors with no substrate added were
116 run for each different inoculum. The reactors were filled with 15 g VS L⁻¹ of inoculum, the
117 corresponding quantity of SuOC to reach a ratio of 2:1 inoculum to substrate, 25 mL of a 50 g
118 NaHCO₃ L⁻¹ solution to keep pH stable, 50 mL of nutrient solution (Table 3) and distilled water to a
119 total volume of 250 mL. Methane production was measured for a period of 12 consecutive days.

120

121 **Analytical Methods**

122

123 Solids and moisture were determined according to the standard methods 2540B and 2540E. ^[14]

124 Total chemical oxygen demand was determined using the solid substrate open reflux method. ^[15]

125 Total protein was determined by multiplying the total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN) value by 6.25. ^[16]

126 Fat content was extracted by a soxhlet system using hexane (UNE-EN-ISO 659:2000). Cellulose,
127 hemicellulose and lignin were determined by the Goering and Van Soest method. ^[17]

128 The elemental composition of the SuOC (C, N, O and H) was measured using a Leco CHNS-932
129 (Leco Corporation, St Joseph, MI, EEUU) elemental analyzer. For particle size selection the
130 sunflower oil cake was sieved using a mechanical sieve (bio-meta, Retsch).

131

132 **Methane Production Kinetics**

133

134 A first-order kinetic model was used to estimate the specific rate constant according to Chen-

135 Hashimoto Equation 1: ^[18]

$$136 \quad B=B_o [1-\exp (-k t)] \quad (1)$$

137 where: B is the methane yield ($\text{mL CH}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ VS added}$), B_o is the ultimate or maximum methane
138 yield, asymptote to the production curve *versus* time, k (day^{-1}) is the specific rate constant, and t is
139 the digestion time (days). Methane yield values (B) were calculated by subtracting methane
140 produced by the controls (inoculum only) from their corresponding treatment reactors. These
141 differences were divided by the VS of the substrate.^[18] B_o and k were calculated from the
142 experimental data by non linear regression using Sigmaplot 9.0 (Systat Software. Inc., San Jose,
143 CA).

144

145 **Molecular Characterization of Microbial Communities**

146

147 Microbial communities, both *Archaea* and *Bacteria*, were studied by molecular fingerprinting
148 methods complemented with cloning and sequencing for the identification of the major components
149 of the bacterial and archaeal communities. DNA was extracted using the Nucleospin Food DNA
150 extraction kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) according to the manufacturer's
151 recommendations. Fragments of the 16S ribosomal RNA (16S rRNA) genes from the *Bacteria* and
152 *Archaea* were amplified by PCR with different primer pairs. Fingerprints of the bacterial and
153 archaeal communities were obtained by Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE)
154 following the method described by Muyzer et al.^[19] DNA was directly amplified by PCR using the
155 primer pair 341F-GC (5'-CCT ACG GGA GGC AGC AG with a GC-rich tail attached to its 5' end)
156 ^[19] and 518R for the *Bacteria* and the primer pair 344F-GC (5'- with a GC-rich tail attached to its 5'
157 end) and 518R for the *Archaea*. Relative quantification of molecular fingerprints from pairs of
158 community profiles was performed following the quantitative procedure described by Portillo and
159 Gonzalez.^[20] Gels obtained by DGGE were digitalized using Kodak 1D image analysis software

160 (Kodak, New Haven, CT). The images were analyzed using the timage program
161 (<http://entropy.brneurosci.org/timage.html>) applying its densitometry function. Comparisons
162 between community fingerprints were carried out as described by Portillo and Gonzalez ^[20]
163 calculating a Cramér-von Mises-type statistic through a Monte-Carlo test procedure to determine
164 the significance of differences between microbial communities.

165
166 PCR products for 16S rRNA gene library construction were obtained with the primer pair 27F (5'-
167 AGA GTT TGA TYM TGG CTC) and 907R (5'-CCC CGT CAA TTC ATT TGA GTT T) for the
168 Bacteria ^[21] and the pair 20bF (5'-YTC CSG TTG ATC CYG CSR GA) and 1492bR (5'-GGY TAC
169 CTT GTK WCG ACT T) for the Archaea. ^[22] These PCR products were purified with the PCR
170 purification kit (JetQuick, Germany) and cloned using a TOPO-TA cloning kit (Invitrogen,
171 Carlsbad, USA). The 16S rRNA libraries obtained were used to identify the major components of
172 the bacterial and archaeal communities. A screening procedure based on the discrimination of
173 clones using PCR-DGGE previously described by Gonzalez et al. ^[23] was applied to these libraries
174 to identify the major DNA bands observed in DGGE analyses.

175
176 Sequence data were edited using Chromas software, version 1.45 (Technelysium, Tewantin,
177 Australia). Homology searches from the nucleic acid sequences were performed using the Blast
178 algorithm ^[24] at the NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information;
179 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast/>). Sequences were inspected for the presence of chimeras using
180 the Ccode program as described by Gonzalez et al. ^[25]

181

182 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

183
184 The volumes of methane (at standard temperature and pressure) obtained after 12 days of the BMP
185 test for inocula II and III were higher than that obtained for inoculum I (293, 360 and 387 mL CH₄
186 for inocula I, II and III, respectively). Methane production for inoculum III was 7.5% higher than
187 for inoculum II and 31.1% higher than for inoculum I. The experimental methane yields per gram of
188 VS added (*B*) are shown in Figure 1. The best *B* values after 12 days were obtained for inocula II
189 and III (193 and 205 mL CH₄ accumulated g⁻¹ VS added, respectively), these yields being higher
190 than that obtained for inoculum I (156 mL CH₄ accumulated g⁻¹ VS added). The value of the
191 methane yield for inoculum III was 6.2% higher than for inoculum II, which in turn was 23.7%
192 higher than the value for inoculum I. The yield for inoculum III was 31.4% higher than for
193 inoculum I. Therefore, inocula II and III had similar methane yields and were both higher than for
194 inoculum I.

195
196 The percentage of volatile solids removed was 42% for inocula II and III and only 33% for
197 inoculum I. Inocula II and III from industrial reactors treating solid substrates showed better results
198 than inoculum I from wastewater treatment. This could be attributed to the higher
199 hydrolytic/enzymatic capacity of these inoculum sources which are used to break biosolids in urban
200 wastewater treatment plants (inoculum II) and to treat brewery wastes (inoculum III).

201 The cellulose, lignin and hemicellulose structure of SuOC is complex. Cellulose is a polymer with
202 low microbial degradability and is considered the rate-limiting substrate in the anaerobic digestion
203 of solid wastes.^[26] In a comparative study for cellulose solubilisation in anaerobic reactors,
204 O'Sullivan et al^[27] showed how differences in reactor configuration and operational conditions had
205 no significant impact on the solubilisation rate of cellulose, whereas the difference in composition

206 of the microbial communities showed a marked effect. This could be the reason why inoculum I,
207 which had thus far been used to treat wastewaters, had given the worst results as regards methane
208 production and kinetics for SuOC treatment. These findings should be studied in more detail.
209 The first-order kinetic model used to estimate the specific rate constants fit satisfactorily to the
210 obtained experimental data (with R^2 values higher than 0.965; Fig. 1). The values obtained for k
211 were 0.11 ± 0.02 , 0.37 ± 0.01 and 0.34 ± 0.01 days⁻¹ for inocula I, II and III, respectively (Table 4).
212 Therefore, the specific rate constant for inoculum II was 8.8% higher than that achieved for
213 inoculum III and 236.4% higher than that obtained for inoculum I.

214
215 Figures 2 and 3 show the molecular fingerprints obtained by PCR-DGGE and represent the major
216 components of the bacterial (Fig. 2) and archaeal (Fig. 3) communities from the different inoculum
217 sources (I, II and III) used during this study. For inoculum II, the taxonomic affiliation and the
218 accession numbers of the closest homologue for the major components of the bacterial and archaeal
219 communities are given in Tables 5 and 6, respectively. Comparisons of fingerprints from the
220 bacterial and archaeal communities for the three inoculum sources used in this study (Figs. 2 [A, C
221 and E] and 3 [G, I and K]) showed distinctive banding patterns which would indicate distinct
222 microbial communities among the three inocula, depending on their source.

223
224 Maximum methane production was reached after nine days for inocula II and III and after twelve
225 days for inoculum I. After 12 days' digestion time, the bacterial communities (Fig. 2 [B, D and F])
226 established in the anaerobic digestion process of the SuOC, showed similar fingerprinting profiles
227 to those of the bacterial communities in their respective inocula (Fig. 2 [A, C and E]) before the
228 anaerobic process. Statistical comparison of fingerprints from the initially inoculated communities

229 and the final communities after the BMP test showed no significant differences (Table 7) in the
230 bacterial communities from the different inoculum sources used in this study.

231
232 After the anaerobic digestion process of sunflower oil cake (Table 7), no significant differences
233 were found in the archaeal community fingerprints between the initial inoculum (Fig. 3 [I and K])
234 and inocula II and III (Fig. 3 [J and L]). However, significant differences were observed between
235 the initial inoculum (Fig. 3 [G]) and the archaeal community developed (Fig. 3 [H]) in inoculum I.
236 Despite this change in the structure of the archaeal communities in inoculum I, the major archaeal
237 components remained as important members of the final (after the anaerobic digestion process)
238 communities. Changes observed in specific archaeal phylotypes in inoculum I could be the cause of
239 a reduced performance of the process when compared to the evolution of inocula II and III which
240 were maintained during anaerobic digestion.

241
242 The bacterial and archaeal communities from inoculum II where the inoculum showed optimum
243 methane kinetic parameters, was studied in further detail to identify the major components of the
244 communities implicated in the anaerobic digestion and methane production. Table 5 shows the
245 proportion of the major bacterial constituents of the community in inoculum II. Alphaproteobacteria
246 (20.6% and 28.8% of the total identified DNA in the inoculum and after anaerobic digestion,
247 respectively), within the Rhodobacteraceae Family (e.g., *Paracoccus*), and Chloroflexi (22.6% and
248 23.4% of the total bacteria in the inoculum and in the community developed after anaerobic
249 treatment, respectively) were the dominant bacterial groups. Proteobacteria, identified through
250 members of the Alphaproteobacteria, Betaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria, represented up
251 to 40.7% and 35% of the identified bacteria in the inoculum and in the anaerobic digester,

252 respectively. Other major bacterial groups identified in the community were Bacteroidetes (between
253 9.0% and 21.7% of identified bacterial phylotypes), Firmicutes (over 11%; e.g.,
254 *Thermoanaerobacterium*), Actinobacteria (3.4% to 2.5%), Synergistetes (e.g., *Synergistes*) (above
255 2%), and Candidate Division WS6 (between 3.0% and 5.7% of the identified phylotypes).

256

257 The major bacterial components constituting the community of the anaerobic digestion process of
258 sunflower oil cake coincide with the bacterial groups present in communities reported for other
259 wastes. ^[22, 28] Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi and Firmicutes have been reported as major components
260 in bacterial communities during the anaerobic digestion processes of organic wastes. ^[22, 29, 30]

261 Chloroflexi has recently been shown as a highly significant component in the transformation of
262 complex substrates such as olive residues from oil production and this bacterial phylum is being
263 increasingly recognized for its importance in anaerobic systems. ^[22, 29-31] In these communities,
264 numerous phyla which are not well-known, such as the Bacteroidetes, Synergistetes and the
265 Candidate Division WS6, were detected. At present, there is limited knowledge about the
266 metabolism of these phyla and they are generally detected only by their 16S rRNA gene sequences.
267 Furthermore, there is little or no availability of representative cultivated microorganisms belonging
268 to these bacterial phyla, which indicates that there is a significant portion of the bacterial
269 community in need of further physiological research. The importance of Synergistetes, for instance,
270 in anaerobic treatments has been highlighted in recent studies ^[32-33], as has the presence of
271 Candidate Division WS6 in anaerobic waste treatments and its relationship to methanogenic
272 Archaea. ^[34]

273

274 Archaea are the microorganisms responsible for the production of methane. The archaeal
275 communities represented by methanogenic groups constituted a critical component of the
276 prokaryotic communities leading to methane production. Table 6 shows the proportion of the major
277 archaeal phylotypes in inoculum II. The detected sequences from the archaeal community all
278 corresponded to methane-producing Archaea. Different archaeal phylotypes were detected in the
279 anaerobic digestion process of sunflower oil cake and belonged to the Methanosarcinales and
280 Methanomicrobiales orders. The Methanosarcinales, mainly represented by different phylotypes
281 belonging to the genus *Methanosaeta*, were the dominant methanogens, constituting over 67% of
282 the archaeal community.

283
284 A dominance of the methanogens Methanosarcinales and Methanomicrobiales has been previously
285 reported as indicators of well-established methane-producing anaerobic digestion processes.^[22, 35, 36]
286 These methanogens are acetoclastic methane producers and confirm the importance of this pathway
287 in methanogenesis, as seen during the digestion of SuOC. As a consequence, a direct interaction
288 between bacteria and archaea is envisioned, the main role of the bacterial community during this
289 anaerobic process appeared to be the production of acetate from the polymers constituting the
290 SuOC. This acetate is the major substrate which is directly utilized by the methanogenic archaea as
291 the source for methane production.

292

293 **CONCLUSIONS**

294

295 The results obtained during this study underline the importance of using productive and active
296 inoculum sources to initiate anaerobic digestion processes of sunflower oil cake wastes. Microbial

297 communities showed no changes during short term experiments (12 days). Obtaining the highest
298 possible SuOC treatment efficiencies is a consequence of the conservation of the major components
299 of well-established bacterial and archaeal communities during the digestion treatments. Only when
300 an optimal inoculum is used can methane production and degradation of the processed substrate
301 (i.e., SuOC) be maximized. A loss or reduction in specific phylotypes during the anaerobic
302 treatments can be reflected by a diminishing efficiency both in methane production and organic load
303 degradation.

304

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434 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

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437 **Figure 1.** Variation of the volume of methane produced per gram of VS added over time for inocula

438 I, II and III.

439 **Figure 2.** Bacterial community fingerprints obtained by PCR-DGGE: (A, C, E) for the three

440 different inoculum sources used for the initial inoculation of reactors and (B, D, F) after the BMP

441 tests at the end of the anaerobic SuOC treatments.

442 **Figure 3.** Archaeal community fingerprints obtained by PCR-DGGE: (G, I, K) for the three

443 different inoculum sources used for the initial inoculation of reactors and (H, J, L) after the BMP

444 tests at the end of the anaerobic SuOC treatments.

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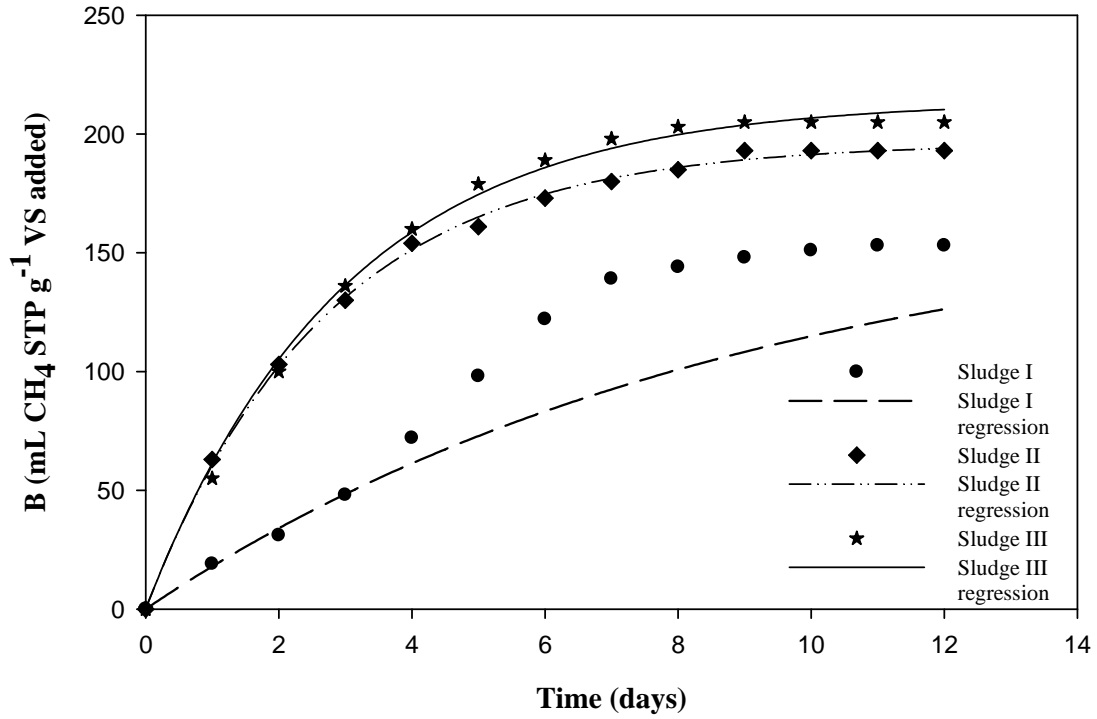
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460 Fig. 1

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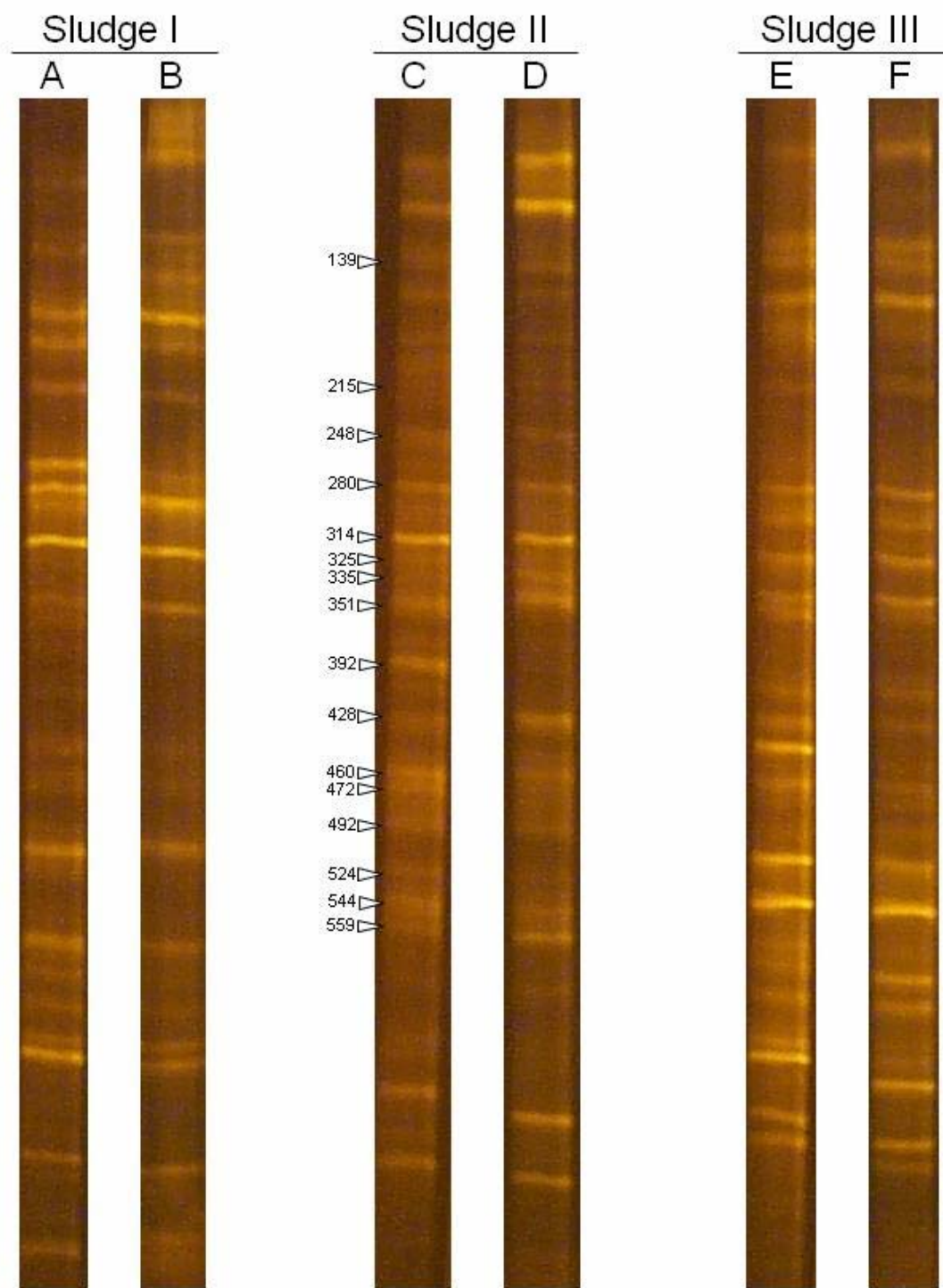
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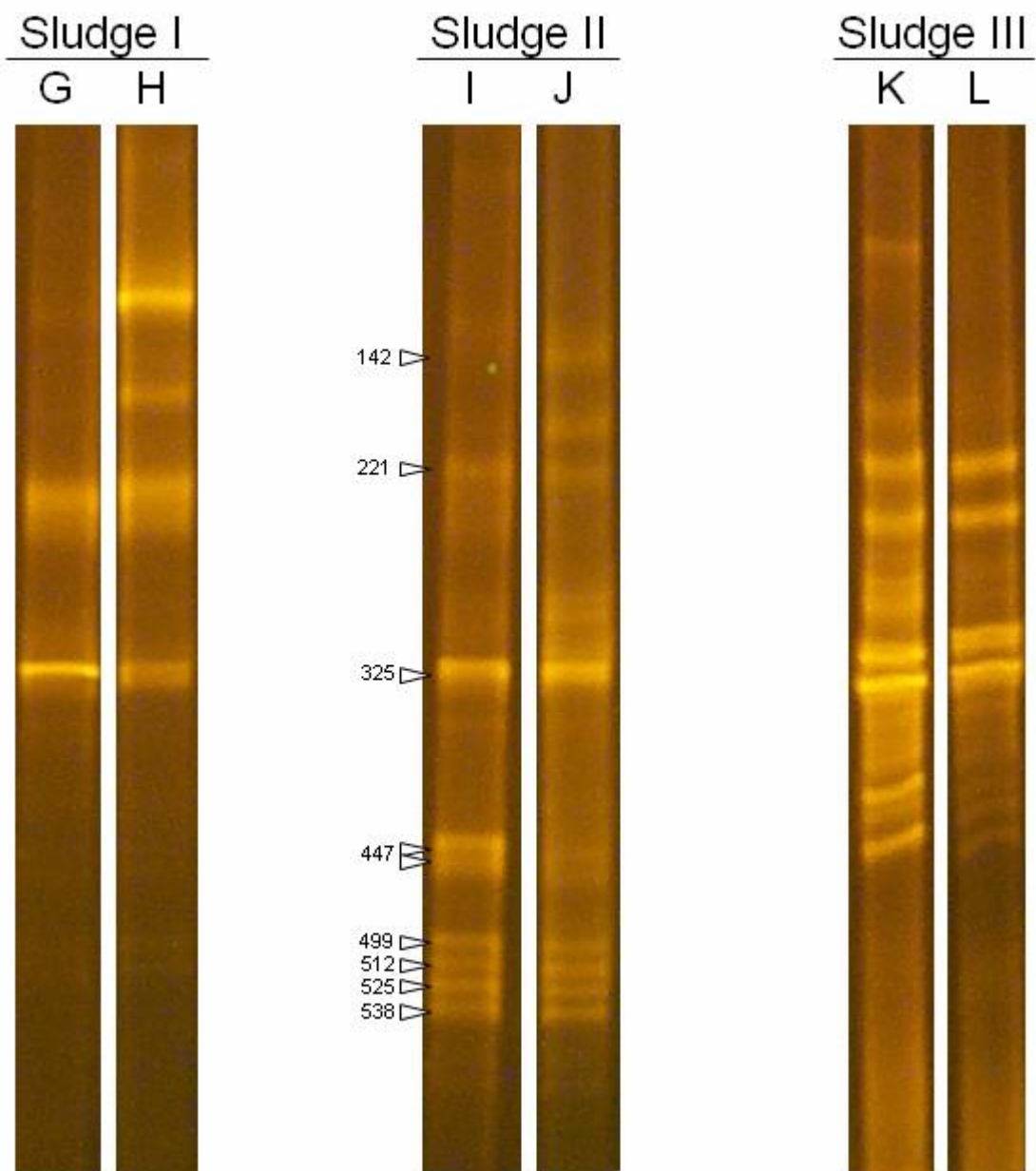
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474 Fig. 3

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480 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the SuOC used as substrate.

Parameter*	Value±SD**
Moisture (%)	8.0±0.5
Total protein (%)	31.4±1.6
Fats (%)	1.7±0.1
Carbohydrates (%)	58.7±2.6
Hemicellulose (%)	9.2±0.5
Lignin (%)	9.5±0.4
Cellulose (%)	21.7±1.1
TS (%)	93.4±1.9
MS (%)	6.6±0.1
VS (%)	86.5±1.3
TCOD (g O ₂ g ⁻¹ TS dry basis)	1.08±0.04
C (%)	43.6± 0.3
H (%)	6.2± 0.1
N (%)	4.6± 0.6
O (%)	45.6± 0.5

*TS: total solids, MS: mineral solids, VS: volatile solids, TCOD: total chemical oxygen demand.

**SD: standard deviation.

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489 **Table 2.** Characteristics and origin of the inoculum sources used in the experiments.

Sludge	Source (Reactor type)	Reactor volume (m ³)	pH	TS (g L ⁻¹)	VS (g L ⁻¹)
I	UASB	450	7.4	30	25
II	CSTR	2000	7.6	43	20
III	UASB	550	7.5	83	47

TS: total solids; VS: volatile solids; UASB: upflow anaerobic sludge blanket; CSTR: continuously stirred tank reactor.

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507 **Table 3.** Composition of the nutrient and trace element solutions used.

Nutrient solution composition	Concentration (g L ⁻¹)
NH ₄ Cl	1.4
K ₂ HPO ₄	1.25
MgSO ₄ H ₂ O	0.5
CaCl ₂ 2H ₂ O	0.05
Yeast extract	0.5
Trace element solution	5.0 ^a

Trace element solution composition	Concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
FeCl ₃ 4H ₂ O	2000
CoCl ₂ · 6H ₂ O	2000
MnCl ₂ 4H ₂ O	500
CuCl ₂ 2H ₂ O	38
ZnCl ₂	50
H ₃ BO ₃	50
(NH ₄) ₆ Mo ₇ O ₂₄ · 4H ₂ O	50
AlCl ₃ 6H ₂ O	90

Units for the trace element solution added to the nutrient solution are in mL of trace solution per L of nutrient solution (mL L⁻¹).

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Table 4. Values of B_o and k obtained using the Chen-Hashimoto equation for the three sludges studied and their variation coefficients.

Sludge	R^2	$B_o \pm SD$ (mL CH ₄ g ⁻¹ SV added)	$k \pm SD$ (days ⁻¹)	VC _{B_o} (%)	VC _k (%)
I	0.9648	172 ± 27	0.11 ± 0.02	15.5%	25.4%
II	0.9985	196 ± 1	0.37 ± 0.01	0.6%	2.1%
III	0.9964	214 ± 2	0.34 ± 0.01	1.1%	3.6%

SD: standard deviation; VC: variation coefficient

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535 **Table 5.** Accession numbers of closest homologue and proportions of the major bacterial
 536 phylotypes identified during this study determined through community fingerprinting analysis using
 537 PCR-DGGE from inoculum II.

Migration	Taxonomic affiliation (Accession No. of closest homologue)	Fraction inoculum*	Fraction BMP*
139	Chloroflexi (CU926181)	3.4	3.8
215	Betaproteobacteria (GU454925)	1.9	0.8
248	Candidate Division WS6 (AF423183)	3.4	1.6
280	Chloroflexi (EF174275)	3.0	2.7
314	Chloroflexi (CU924314)	6.6	5.9
325	Actinobacteria (AY426438)	2.0	1.3
335	Alphaproteobacteria (AJ440751)	1.2	3.8
351	Alphaproteobacteria (GQ500763)	5.3	6.7
392	<i>Thauera</i> , Betaproteobacteria (DQ098974)	5.6	1.0
428	Bacteroidetes (CU922674)	2.7	6.1
460	<i>Paracoccus</i> , Alphaproteobacteria (FJ386516)	5.7	4.8
472	Chromatiales, Gammaproteobacteria (AM176837)	4.4	1.5
492	Thermoanaerobacteriales, Firmicutes (EU878332)	2.1	2.5
524	<i>Synergistes</i> , Synergistetes (FN436049)	2.4	1.4
544	Firmicutes (CU919983)	6.9	3.8
559	Bacteroidetes (AB330856)	2.6	5.4
	Total identified	59.2	53.1

*Percentage of total fluorescence intensity quantified from the banding pattern of PCR-DGGE analysis.

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Table 6. Accession numbers of closest homologue and proportions of the major archaeal phylotypes identified during this study determined through community fingerprinting analysis using PCR-DGGE from inoculum II.

Migration	Taxonomic affiliation (Accession No. of closest homologue)	Fraction inoculum*	Fraction BMP*
142	Methanosarcinales (FJ705109)	6.0	7.7
221	<i>Methanosaeta</i> , Methanosarcinales (AB494241)	12.1	7.0
325	<i>Methanosaeta</i> , Methanosarcinales (FM162203)	20.5	28.8
447	Methanosarcinales (GU196156)	16.9	11.4
499	<i>Methanosaeta</i> , Methanosarcinales (EU591661)	6.4	6.3
512	Methanosarcinales (CU916012)	5.8	8.2
525	Methanomicrobiales (EU591675)	8.4	5.7
538	Methanomicrobiales (EU591675)	6.9	7.1
	Total identified	83.0	82.2

*Percentage of total fluorescence intensity quantified from the banding pattern of PCR-DGGE analysis.

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Table 7. Statistical results of the comparison between the microbial communities at the beginning (inocula) and ending of the anaerobic treatment of sunflower oil cake for the three types of inoculated sludges.

Inoculated sludge	Archaea		Bacteria	
	P	CV (%)	P	CV (%)
I	0.023*	0.098	0.170	0.093
II	0.188	0.081	0.211	0.079
III	0.542	0.046	0.316	0.068

P: Probability values; CV: coefficient of variation. Asterisk indicates significant differences (P<0.05).

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