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## A Simple “One-Pot” Bioconversion Process

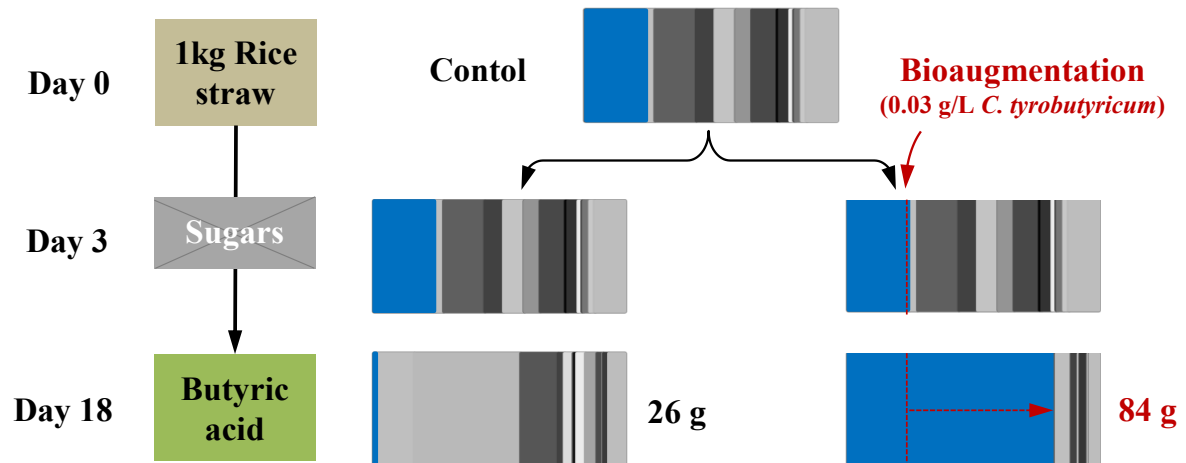


Figure Abstract

### **Highlights**

- *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* plays a key role in rice straw – butyrate conversion.
- Bioaugmentation enhanced butyric acid concentration by 326%.
- High butyrate titer of 18.05 g/L was achieved with a selectivity of 60.7%.
- Significant shift of bacterial community was recorded after augmentation.

1 **Bioaugmentation with *Clostridium tyroburicum* to improve butyric acid**  
2 **production through direct rice straw bioconversion**

3

4 Xue Chi<sup>a</sup>, Jianzheng Li<sup>a,\*</sup>, Xin Wang<sup>b</sup>, Yafei Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Shao-Yuan Leu<sup>c,\*</sup>, Ying Wang<sup>c</sup>

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6 <sup>a</sup> State Key Laboratory of Urban Water Resource and Environment, Harbin Institute of  
7 Technology, 73 Huanghe Road, Harbin 150090, China

8 <sup>b</sup> School of Resources and Environment, Northeast Agriculture University, 59 Mucai Road,  
9 Harbin 150001, China

10 <sup>c</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, the Hong Kong Polytechnic  
11 University, Kowloon, Hong Kong, China

12 \* Corresponding Authors. Phone: +86 (451)-86283761; Fax: +86 (451)-86283761;

13 E-mails: [syleu@polyu.edu.hk](mailto:syleu@polyu.edu.hk) (S.-Y. Leu); [ljz6677@163.com](mailto:ljz6677@163.com) (J. Li);

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## Abstract

16  
17 One-pot bioconversion is an economically attractive biorefinery strategy to reduce enzyme  
18 consumption. Direct conversion of lignocellulosic biomass for butyric acid production is still  
19 challenging because of competition among microorganisms. In a consolidated hydrolysis  
20 /fermentation bioprocess (CBP) the microbial structure may eventually prefer the production  
21 of caproic acid rather than butyric acid production. This paper presents a new  
22 bioaugmentation approach for high butyric acid production from rice straw. By dosing 0.03  
23 g/L of *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755 in the CBP, an increase of 226% higher  
24 butyric acid was yielded. The selectivity and concentration also increased to 60.7% and 18.1  
25 g/L, respectively. DNA-sequencing confirmed the shift of bacterial community in the  
26 augmented CBP. Butyric acid producer was enriched in the bioaugmented bacterial  
27 community and the bacteria related to long chain acids production was degenerated. The  
28 findings may be useful in future research and process design to enhance productivity of  
29 desired bio-products.

30

31 **Keywords:** Bioaugmentation; Butyric acid; *Clostridium tyrobutyricum*; Rice straw; Microbial  
32 community

33

## 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Butyric acid is a valuable building-block precursor of many chemicals and materials  
36 (Baroi et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2013). This chemical has mainly been derived from  
37 unsustainable petroleum refinery. Producing cost-effective butyric acid from lignocellulosic  
38 feedstock has become a critical step towards a sustainable society. Lignocellulosic biomass is  
39 available in large quantities with widely distribution and low prices, although its complex cell  
40 wall structure can result in high recalcitrant to bioconversion (Tsapekos et al., 2017). In a  
41 typical biorefinery process exogenous enzymes are employed to hydrolyze lignocellulose in  
42 the separate hydrolysis and fermentation (SHF) or simultaneous saccharification and  
43 fermentation (SSF) process. This practice could almost counteract the benefit of the low-cost  
44 feedstock (Jørgensen et al., 2007). Combining endogenous enzyme production,  
45 saccharification and fermentation in a single vessel, consolidated bioprocess (CBP) provides  
46 a potential approach to butyric acid production directly from lignocellulosic biomass (Wilson,  
47 2009). Without involvement of exogenous enzymes, the lignocellulosic biorefinery process  
48 would be greatly simplified and get more cost-effective butyric acid production (Parisutham  
49 et al., 2014).

50 Microbes used in CBP can degrade lignocellulosic feedstock to bioproduct owing to the  
51 metabolic flexibility conferred by the many members of the community (Agler et al., 2011).  
52 However, conventional fermentation processes for butyric acid production usually suffer  
53 from the low final product concentration, yield and productivity, resulting in difficulties for  
54 large scale application. Bioaugmentation is a common practice conducted by adding specific  
55 microbes to a system to enhance desired activities. It has also been applied successfully to  
56 improve biodegradability and biogas production from lignocellulosic wastes with hydrolytic  
57 bacteria (Čater et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Tsapekos et al., 2017). Compared to the  
58 bioaugmentation with hydrolytic bacteria, adding butyric acid-producing bacteria to a

59 cellulolytic microbial consortium could be feasible to improve butyric acid production from  
60 lignocellulosic feedstock.

61 A stable microbial consortium was obtained in our previous study to ferment alkali  
62 pretreated rice straw for butyric acid production (Ai et al., 2013). In the batch fermentation,  
63 the microbial consortium produced 6.01 g/L butyric acid from 10.67 g/L pretreated rice straw  
64 with by-products such as acetic, propionic, isobutyric, isovaleric, valeric and caproic acid.  
65 Although the butyric acid selectivity reached 75.4%, the fermentation was still suffered from  
66 low final product concentration. In order to further improve the butyric acid production,  
67 *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* was employed for bioaugmented fermentation (**Fig. 1**). Among all  
68 the butyric acid-producing bacteria, *C. tyrobutyricum* has received much attention over other  
69 species due to its simple medium requirement for cell growth, relatively high product purity  
70 and yield (Jiang et al., 2011; X. Liu & Yang, 2006). In line with our previous findings the  
71 main objectives of this work were to evaluate the potential of using the bioaugmentation with  
72 *C. tyrobutyricum* for enhanced butyric acid production from rice straw. To get a  
73 comprehensive insight into the biological mechanism for the effect of the bioaugmentation on  
74 the fermentation processes, the microbial community structure was also investigated using  
75 Illumina Miseq platform.

76

## 77 **2. Materials and methods**

### 78 2.1 Preparation of pretreated rice straw

79 Rice straw was collected at a local farm which containing 39.7% cellulose, 24.8%  
80 hemicellulose and 15.3% lignin (Harbin, China) (Van & Wine, 1968). The air-dried rice straw  
81 was cut into 10-15 cm length and pretreated with 1% (w/v) NaOH solution with a solid: liquid  
82 ratio of 1:15 (w/v) (based on dry weight) (Ai et al., 2013). The pretreatment was conducted in  
83 a 21-L tank-reactor containing 20 L working volume and incubated at 50°C for 72 h. After

84 solid-liquid separation, the residual solid fraction was washed with distilled water to reach  
85 neutral pH. Composition per kilogram of the pretreated rice straw contained 530 g cellulose  
86 (53.0%), 274 g hemicellulose (27.4%), 80 g lignin (8.0%) and 15 g ash (1.5%), respectively.

87

## 88 2.2 Microorganism and media

### 89 2.2.1 Microbial consortium for lignocellulosic butyric acid production

90 The microbial consortium to produce butyric acid from pretreated rice straw was a stable  
91 mixed culture obtained previously (Ai et al., 2013) and was named as DCB. Consortium  
92 DCB was stored at 4°C as spores in fresh peptone cellulose solution (PCS) medium  
93 containing the following components (per 1 L distilled water): 5 g tryptone, 1 g yeast extract,  
94 5 g NaCl, 2 g CaCO<sub>3</sub>, 0.5 g D-cysteine hydrochloride, and 10 g pretreated rice straw was  
95 added as substrate.

### 96 2.2.2 Strain for bioaugmentation

97 *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755 obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von  
98 Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ) was used for bioaugmentation. The strain was  
99 stored in the form of spores in fresh PCS medium at 4°C. The inoculum preparation was  
100 performed by transferring 0.5 mL of stored spore suspension to a 20-mL Hungate tube with  
101 9.5 mL PCS medium containing 10 g/L glucose and incubating at 140 rpm and 37°C for 22 h.

102

## 103 2.3 Butyric acid fermentation

104 The control and bioaugmented fermentation were conducted in a 3-L stirred-tank reactor  
105 by feeding 1 L PCS medium containing 20 g/L pretreated rice straw under 37°C and 60 rpm  
106 with the constant pH of 6.5. Both fermentations were initiated by inoculation with 5% (v/v)  
107 consortium DCB. Then 2.5% (v/v) of bioaugmented strain *C. tyrobutyricum* was inoculated  
108 (2.5%, v/v) to one of the reactors, which was designed as bioaugmented consortium DCB

109 (BDCB) on the 3<sup>rd</sup> day. 20 g/L pretreated rice straw and 2 g/L peptone were fed every two  
110 days to the two reactors during the 3<sup>rd</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> day. Both the biogas and aqueous samples were  
111 analyzed daily for composition of substrates and fermentation products. Weight losses of the  
112 fed pretreated rice straw were measured at the end of fermentation.

113

#### 114 2.4 Analytical procedures

115 The biogas produced in each of the fermentations was measured by wet gas meter  
116 (LML-1, Changchun Automotive Filter Co., LTD., Changchun, China). The composition of  
117 the biogas was analyzed with a gas chromatograph (SP-6800A, Shandong Lunan Instrument  
118 Factory, China) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and a 2-m stainless column  
119 packed with Porapak Q (60/80 mesh, Lanzhou ZhongKeKaiDi Chemical Newtech Co., Ltd,  
120 China). The carrier gas was N<sub>2</sub>. The temperature of the column oven was set at 50°C,  
121 meanwhile 80°C was set for both the injection port and the detector.

122 The concentrations of aqueous products in the culture supernatant were determined by  
123 another gas chromatograph (SP-6800, Shandong Lunan Instrument Factory, China) equipped  
124 with a flame ionization detector and a 30 m FFAP capillary column (i.d.0.32 mm,  
125 SHIMADZU, Japan), also with N<sub>2</sub> as the carrier gas. The oven temperature was 160°C, and  
126 both temperatures of the injector and the detector were set at 210°C.

127 The weight loss of rice straw during acidogenic fermentation was calculated as  
128 described by Ai et al. (2013).

#### 129 2.5 Analysis of the microbial community

130 10 mL samples from each fermentation were collected at distinctly different  
131 experimental periods in order to determine the microbial diversity in response to the  
132 bioaugmentation strategies. Three group of samples were obtained: (1) before the  
133 bioaugmentation period at 3<sup>rd</sup> day (DCB-3), (2) after the end of the control fermentation at



134 18<sup>th</sup> day (DCB-18), (3) after the end of the bioaugmented fermentation at 18<sup>th</sup> day  
135 (BDCB-18).

136 Genomic DNA from samples was isolated and purified using the DNA Isolation Kit  
137 (MO BIO laboratories, Inc.) following the guidelines of the manufacturer's protocol. The  
138 hypervariable V3-V4 regions of microbial 16S rRNA genes were amplified using primers  
139 pairs 341f (5'-CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and 805r (5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCT  
140 AATCC-3') (Herlemann et al., 2011). Composition of the PCR products of V4 region was  
141 determined by pyrosequencing using the Illumina Miseq sequencer platform (Shanghai  
142 Sangon, China).

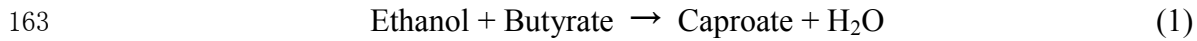
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### 144 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 145 3.1 Performance of fermentations

146 In our previous study, it was shown that the microbial consortium efficiently produce  
147 butyric acid using alkali pretreated rice straw in a batch test, which indicated that the  
148 consortium DCB was an excellent butyric acid producer from lignocellulose (Ai et al., 2013).  
149 In an attempt to improve further butyric acid concentration, we initially described a  
150 bioaugmentation strategy by supplementation with *C. tyrobutyricum* in a fed-batch mode of  
151 CBP. The control and bioaugmented fermentations using consortium DCB and BDCB were  
152 investigated for 18 days, respectively (Table 1, Fig. 2). It was noticed that the consortium  
153 DCB degenerated remarkably during the fed-batch fermentation process, resulting in only  
154 5.53 g/L butyric acid from total 140 g/L pretreated rice straw, which account for 20.8%  
155 product selectivity (Table 1). As illustrated in Fig. 2a, the accumulation of butyric acid  
156 reached maximum on the 3<sup>rd</sup> day, and slightly decreased from that day onwards. With feeding  
157 of the pretreated rice straw, the production of caproic acid continuously accumulated to a  
158 high concentration of 8.49 g/L. It has been proved that butyric acid can convert to caproic

159 acid by some anaerobic bacteria, and the possible reactions are shown as the equations (1)  
160 and (2) (Agler et al., 2011; Spirito et al., 2014; X. Zhu et al., 2017). Therefore, the produced  
161 butyric acid was further converted to caproic acid by the microbes existed in consortium  
162 DCB, resulting in the low butyric acid production in the fed-batch process.



165 On the other hand, when the bioaugmentation of *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755 was  
166 evaluated by fed-batch mode of CBP, the production of acetic acid accumulated rapidly and  
167 reached the maximum of 8.21 g/L on the 6<sup>th</sup> day, during which no obvious butyric acid was  
168 observed (Fig. 2b). With the end of acetic acid production phase, butyric acid accumulated  
169 continually, and reached the maximum production rate of 3.32 g/L/d on the 7<sup>th</sup> day. The  
170 results indicated that the bioaugmentation with *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755 was a feasible  
171 approach for enhanced butyric acid production from rice straw. Due to the accumulation of  
172 rice straw residue and the deceleration of production rate of butyric acid, the supplement of  
173 pretreated rice straw was ceased on the 13<sup>th</sup> day, and subsequently the fermentation was  
174 ceased two days later.. By the end of the fermentation, around 51% (equal to 71.33 g/L) of  
175 the fed pretreated rice straw was consumed and the butyric acid concentration was  
176 significantly increased to 18.05 g/L with a high selectivity of 60.7% (Table 1). Furthermore,  
177 during the fermentation process no caproic acid was detected. The specific butyric acid yield  
178 of consumed rice straw was increased from 0.09 g/g of control fermentation to 0.26 g/g of  
179 bioaugmented fermentation, indicating that the designed consortium BDCB was more  
180 efficient in converting rice straw to butyric acid compared with previous consortium DCB  
181 study.

182 Considering the cost-efficiency of fermentative butyric acid production, renewable and

183 low-cost lignocellulosic substrates, including wheat straw, switchgrass (S. Liu et al., 2013),  
184 sugarcane bagasse (Wei et al., 2013) and corn fiber (Y. Zhu et al., 2002) have been applied in  
185 previous studies. However, due to the butyric acid-producing clostridia cannot utilize  
186 unhydrolyzed lignocellulose, SHF and SSF processes were conducted that involved  
187 cellulolytic enzymes to break down lignocellulosic biomass into fermentable  
188 monosaccharides. Although high butyric acid selectivity and less by-products were always  
189 investigated in the fermentation with lignocellulosic hydrolysate, the exogenous application  
190 of enzymes involved in hydrolysis almost counteracts the benefit from the cheap feedstocks  
191 (Jørgensen et al., 2007). Since the highly resistant to biological conversions, only few  
192 researches were investigated by CBP (Ai et al., 2013; Merklein et al., 2014). *Thermobifida*  
193 *fusca*, a cellulolytic butyric acid-producing actinobacterium once was introduced to butyric  
194 acid production from milled corn stover, whereas the low product concentration of 2.37 g/L  
195 was observed with three kinds of by-products (Merklein et al., 2014). Compared with the  
196 previous researches, the present fermentation strategy with consortium BDCB not only  
197 avoided the involvement of exogenous enzymes, but also obtained a high butyric acid  
198 production of 18.05 g/L.

199

### 200 3.2 Diversity of microbial community

201 It was reported that the addition of extra microbes into the bioreactor can lead to  
202 microbial community shifts which will further effect on the butyric acid production (Čater et  
203 al., 2015). We also further studied the reads and diversity indices of microbial community in  
204 the consortium DCB and BDCB of the control and bioaugmented fermentation, respectively.  
205 As shown in Table 2, the indices Chao1 and ACE of the DCB-3 were remarkably higher than  
206 that of the DCB-18, indicating that the species richness was seriously depressed by the  
207 degeneration which resulted in a poor butyric acid production (Table 1 and Fig. 2).

208 Meanwhile, Shannon index of the consortium DCB decreased from 2.98 on the 3<sup>rd</sup> day to  
209 2.44 on the 18<sup>th</sup> day, suggesting that the accumulation of carboxylate product suppressed the  
210 bacterial growth, which resulted in the lower diversity of microbial community and the  
211 degeneration of consortium DCB.

212 For the culture of CBP with bioaugmentation, the indices Chao1 and ACE reached 352  
213 and 373 in the BDCB-18, which similar to that of the DCB-3 (349 and 374, respectively).  
214 The higher species richness in consortium BDCB laid a foundation for the high butyric acid  
215 production. Whereas, Shannon diversity index of the BDCB-18 further decreased to 0.93,  
216 was much lower than that of the DCB-3 (2.98) and DCB-18 (2.44). Although, the enrichment  
217 of butyric acid-producing strain *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755 lowered the microbial  
218 community diversity, resulting in the enhanced butyric acid production in the bioaugmented  
219 fermentation (Table 1 and Fig. 2).

220

### 221 3.3 Microbial community structure

222 The results from all samples showed that the most predominant members of the  
223 community belonged to bacterial phyla Firmicutes (72%-92%) and Proteobacteria (8%-27%).  
224 The bacterial community profile obtained in the present study showing that the communities  
225 were dominated by the phyla comprising species involved in cellulose degradation (Nyonyo  
226 et al., 2014; Ozbayram et al., 2017). The enriched cellulose-degrading bacteria provided  
227 fermentable substrates (pentose and hexose) for the acid-producing bacteria, which laid a  
228 foundation for the high butyric acid production.

229 To reveal the biological mechanism of the influence by bioaugmentation in butyric acid  
230 production, further analysis of the microbial communities at the genus level was performed.  
231 As illustrated in Fig. 3, significant changes of microbial community structures along with the  
232 fermentation process were observed between DCB-3 and DCB-18. Average 12% in DCB-3

233 and 6% in DCB-18 of the total sequences were the unidentified bacteria at the genus level. As  
234 for the fed-batch fermentation with consortium DCB, the relative abundances of *Clostridium*  
235 IV, *Brevundimonas*, *Brucella*, *Soehngenia*, *Rummeliibacillus* and *Lysinibacillus* in DCB-18  
236 were much lower than those in DCB-3, while the proportions of *Hungatella*, *Clostridium*  
237 XIVa, *Anaerotruncus*, *Clostridium sensu stricto*, *Oscillibacter* and *Clostridium* XIVb were  
238 higher than those in DCB-3. The genus *Clostridium*, including a large number of  
239 hemicellulose- and cellulose-degrading anaerobic bacteria, was a core group of microbes with  
240 the proportion of 29% and 23% in the DCB-3 and DCB-18, respectively. Their high  
241 abundance in the culture ensure that the rice straw could degrade to fermentable sugars  
242 efficiently (Dürre, 2005). Some bacteria in the core group, including genera *Clostridium*  
243 clusters IV and XIVa are the most active butyric acid producer in the microbial consortium  
244 (Abbeele et al., 2013; Antharam et al., 2013; Hold et al., 2003). The proportion of  
245 *Clostridium* IV and XIVa decreased from 27% in DCB-3 to 16% in DCB-18, resulting in the  
246 low butyric acid production in the fed-batch fermentation (Table 1 and Fig. 2a). In contract,  
247 the proportions of genus *Oscillibacter* and *Clostridium sensu stricto* in DCB-18 (8%) were  
248 higher than those in DCB-3 (2%). Members of *Oscillibacter* and *Clostridium sensu stricto*  
249 can produce medium and long chain fatty acids (Gupta & Gao, 2009; Iino et al., 2007). The  
250 high abundance of these microbes might contribute to the high concentration of caproic acid  
251 in the fed-batch fermentation with consortium DCB (Table 1 and Fig. 2a). Members of  
252 *Hungatella* and *Anaerotruncus* harbor the ability to ferment carbohydrate to acetic acids  
253 (Lawson et al., 2004; Kaur et al., 2014) that might be related to the increased acetic acid  
254 production (Fig. 2).

255 There are many factors limiting the application of bioaugmentation, such as the  
256 adaptation of the inoculums, competition from indigenous microbial populations, the  
257 insufficiency of substrate and grazing by protozoa (Bouchez et al., 2000; Tan. et al., 2016).

258 The survival of bioaugmented strain, and the structure and function breakdown of the  
259 indigenous microbial community are the primary factors influence on the performance of  
260 bioaugmentation. In the present study, the bioaugmentation of *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC 25755  
261 into consortium DCB resulting in an indigenous community shift, that corresponded to  
262 changes in the microbial distribution. The genus *Clostridium* IV increased to 83%, suggesting  
263 that the strain had acclimated and colonized the indigenous community successfully. The  
264 proportion of butyric acid-producing clostridia in BDCB-18 (*Clostridium* IV and XIVa)  
265 increased to 89%, resulting in a much higher butyric acid production when compared with  
266 that in the control fermentation (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Whereas, the genus *Oscillibacter* and  
267 *Clostridium* sensu stricto in BDCB-18 were both undetectable, which might be related to the  
268 negligible caproic acid production in the bioaugmented fermentation (Fig. 2b).

269

### 270 3.4 Functional genes

271 Accompanying changes of the taxonomic, shotgun metagenomic analysis revealed clear  
272 differences in the functional gene composition across communities between control and  
273 bioaugmented fermentations. Genes within each sample were further classified by aligning  
274 them against the COG (Cluster of orthologous groups) database (Tatusov et al., 2001; Gill et  
275 al., 2006). The cellular function and the percentage distribution of genes within each sample  
276 among the different COG categories are shown in Fig. 4. BLAST comparisons of all  
277 sequences yielded 4793 unique COGs. DCB-3, DCB-18 and BDCB-18 showed similar  
278 patterns of enrichment for each COG involved in metabolism. However, comparing with  
279 DCB-3 and DCB-18, majority exhibited genes in BDCB-18 mainly involved in cellular  
280 functions, such as energy production and conversion (C), amino acid transport and  
281 metabolism (E), carbohydrate transport and metabolism (G), general function prediction only  
282 (R), function unknown (S) and signal transduction mechanisms (T).

283 Fermentation of rice straw requires cooperation of groups of microbes in the community.  
284 Primary process was the hydrolysis of cellulose and hemicellulose into hexose and pentose  
285 (mainly glucose and xylose), The released monosaccharides were further fermented to short  
286 chain fatty acids. The consortium DCB was enriched for genes involved in cellulose, xylan,  
287 glucose, xylose and galactose metabolism, whereas these genes were further enriched in  
288 consortium BDCB. It suggested that the consortia can utilize wide-ranging substrates as the  
289 principal energy source (Gill et al., 2006). COG analyses demonstrated enrichment of key  
290 genes involved in generating acetate and butyrate in the consortium DCB and BDCB. The  
291 genes related to acetate and butyrate kinases in BDCB-18 were much higher than that in  
292 DCB-3 and DCB-18. It was known that acetic acid production pathway was more favorable  
293 to the synthesis of adenosine 5' -triphosphate (ATP) for cell growth (Jo et al., 2008),  
294 therefore, the enrichment of gene related to acetate kinase ensured the ample energy for the  
295 fermentation process. Furthermore, the enrichment of gene related to butyrate kinase  
296 underscored the important commitment of the bioaugmented consortium (BDCB) to generate  
297 high concentration of butyric acid. The consortium DCB and BDCB were also enriched for a  
298 variety of COGs involved in amino acids metabolism, which might be contribute to the  
299 supplement of peptone during the fermentation.

300

#### 301 **4. Conclusion**

302 This study serves as the first report on bioaugmentation with *C. tyrobutyricum* ATCC  
303 25755 to improve butyric acid production in CBP process. A high butyric acid production of  
304 18.05 g/L was obtained in the augmented process with a selectivity of 60.7% from rice straw.  
305 The high butyric acid production was attributed to the introduction of *C. tyrobutyricum*  
306 ATCC 25755, which shift the indigenous bacterial community and enriched the genes related  
307 to glycoside hydrolase and butyrate kinase. The process with consortium BDCB should be

308 more effective in butyric acid production for future applications.

309

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315

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### Figure Captions

**Fig. 1** Concept diagram of experiment design

**Fig. 2** Performances of the control and bioaugmented fermentation by the consortium DCB and BDCB. (a) Fermentation by consortium DCB; (b) Fermentation by consortium BDCB.

**Fig. 3** Bacterial community structure at genus level of consortium DCB and BDCB

**Fig. 4** Functional distribution of differentially expressed genes

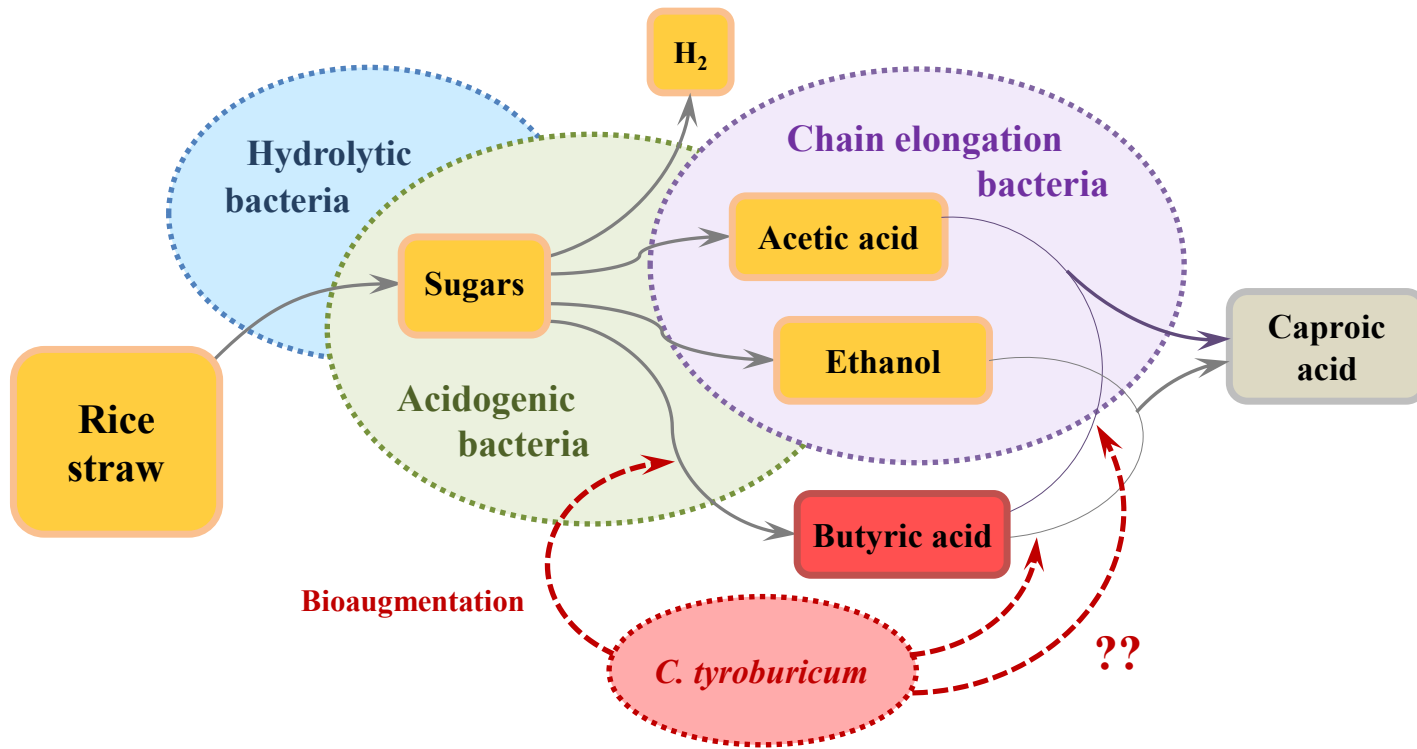
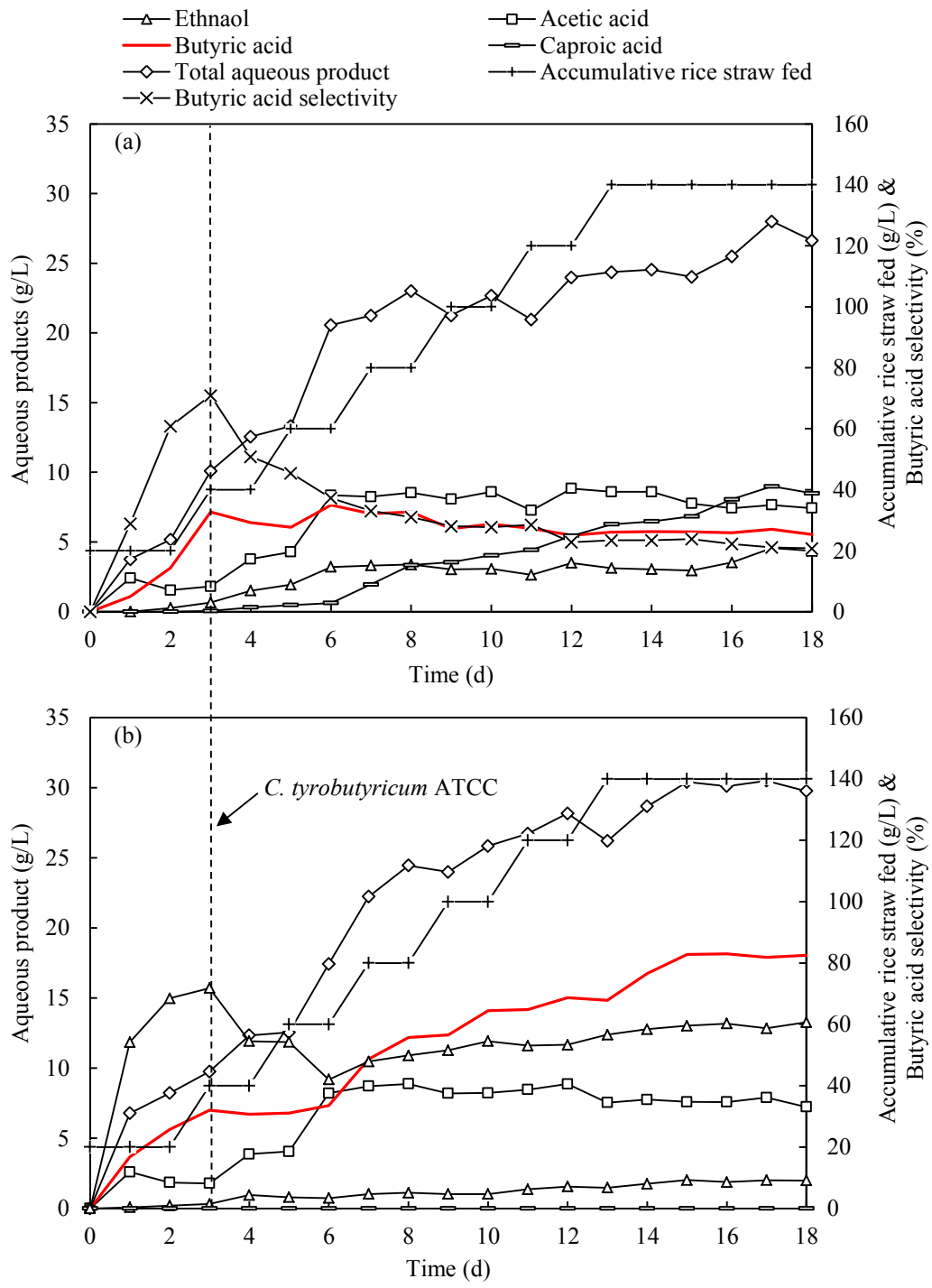


Fig. 1



**Fig. 2**

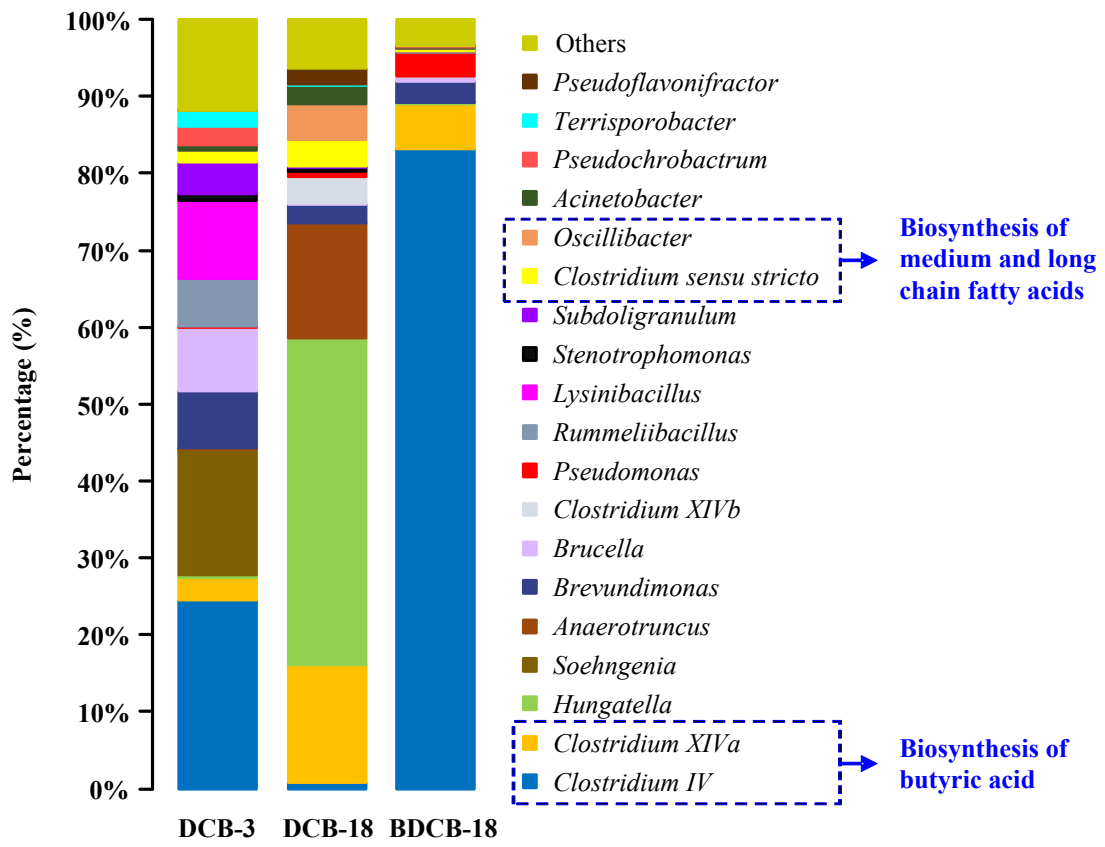
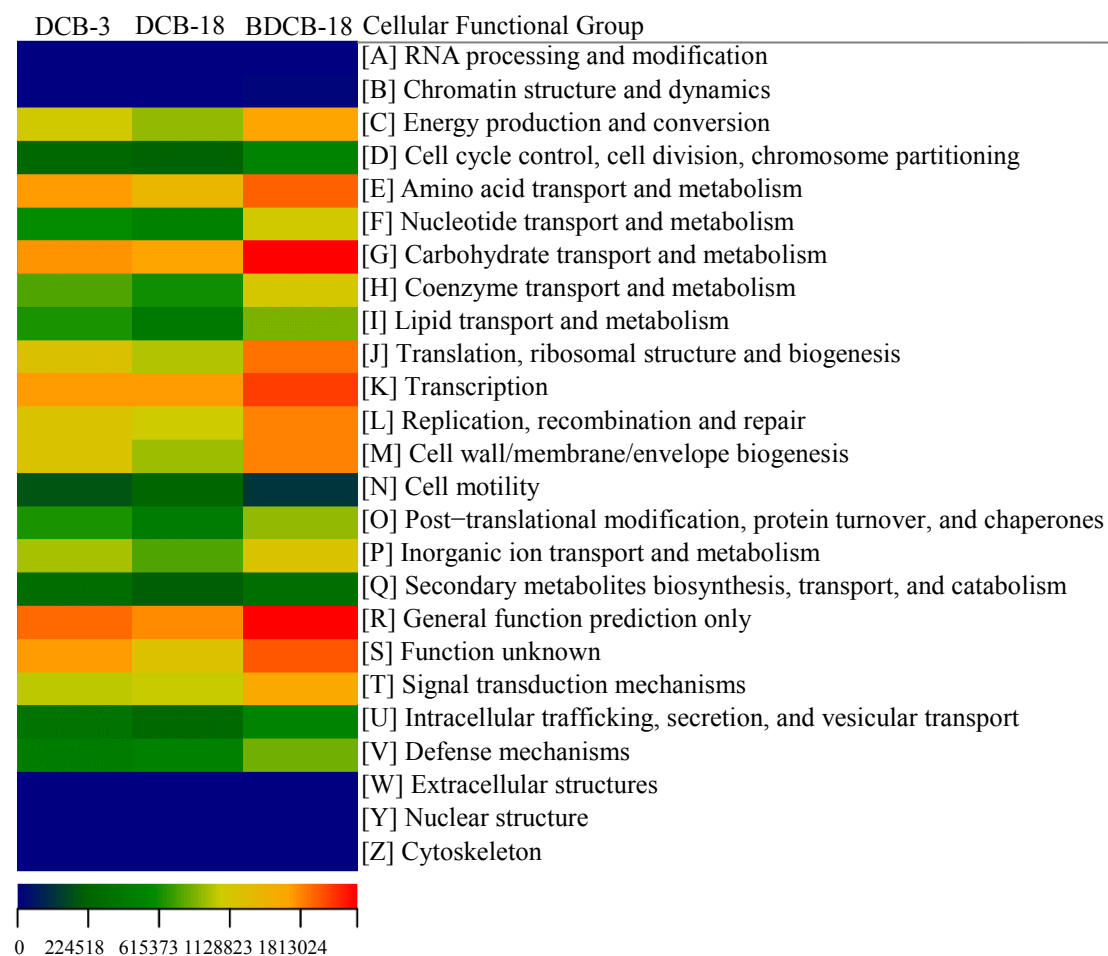


Fig. 3





**Fig. 4**

**Table 1.** Characteristics of consortium DCB and BDCB

	DCB		BDCB
	Batch mode <sup>a</sup>	Fed-batch mode	Fed-batch mode
Rice straw fed (g/L)	20	140	140
Rice straw consumption (g/L)	10.67	60.21	71.33
Ethanol (g/L)	0.00	4.36	1.99
Acetic acid (g/L)	1.35	7.43	7.23
Propionic acid (g/L)	0.24	0.19	1.32
Isobutyric acid (g/L)	0.09	0.11	0.37
Butyric acid (g/L)	6.01	5.53	18.05
Isovaleric acid (g/L)	0.12	0.17	0.46
Valeric acid (g/L)	0.05	0.35	0.32
Caproic acid (g/L)	0.05	8.49	0.00
Hydrogen (L/L)	0.56	3.73	1.90
Total aqueous products (g/L)	7.97	26.63	30.47
Product selectivity <sup>b</sup> (%)	75.4	20.8	60.7
Butyric acid yield (g/g consumed rice straw)	0.56	0.09	0.26
Total products yield (g/g consumed rice straw)	0.75	0.35	0.43
Accumulative hydrogen (L/L)	0.57	3.73	1.90

<sup>a</sup> Results of previous research

<sup>b</sup> Percent of butyric acid in total aqueous products

**Table 2.** Diversity of microbial community in consortium DCB and BDCB

Sample	Sequences	OTUs	ACE	Chao1 index	Shannon index	Simpson index	Good's coverage (%)
DCB-3	60065	307	374	349	2.98	0.09	97
DCB-18	54494	176	222	209	2.44	0.21	98
BDCB-18	74143	290	373	352	0.93	0.66	97

**Electronic Annex**

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