Open Access

Crescent Journal of Medical and Biological Sciences Vol. 8, No. 2, April 2021, 81–89 eISSN 2148-9696

Chemolithotroph Bacteria: From Biology to Application in Medical Sciences

Elham Kazemi¹⁰, Saiedeh Razi Soofiyani^{2,3}, Hossein Ahangari⁴, Shirin Eyvazi⁵, Mohammad Saeid Hejazi^{1,3}, Vahideh Tarhriz^{3*0}

Abstract

Chemolithotrophs are specific bacteria that utilize inorganic compounds as their energy source. These bacteria as the main source of organic molecules have more advantages in various sciences. Unlike phototrophic and organotrophic bacteria which generate their energy via the fascination of sunlight or oxidation of complex organic molecules, chemolithotrophic bacteria can exploit unconventional sources of energy, including various industrial wastes. Therefore, chemolithotroph bacteria play a key role in the remediation of micropollutants such as synthetic hormones, pharmaceutical residues, and sanitary wastes. In addition, secondary metabolites including organic acids, enzymes, and antibiotics derived from these bacteria can be used as pharmaceutical compounds. It seems that the discovery and study of the novel chemolithotrophic bacteria and investigation of their features can be helpful in medical and pharmaceutical sciences. Accordingly, it was attempted to present a comprehensive review on chemolithotrophic microbes, their energy sources, and their applications.

Keywords: Chemolithotroph bacteria, Secondary metabolites, Enzymes, Medical sciences

Introduction

Chemolithotrophic bacteria with the ability to use inorganic sources were discovered by Winograsky, one of the modern microbiology pioneers, in late 1880 (1). The litho is a word with a Greek root meaning stone, thus this group of bacteria is called stone eaters (2). Chemolithotrophy is defined as the oxidation of the inorganic substance for cell biosynthesis (3). The main characteristic of chemolithotrophic microorganisms is the ability to grow in an unfavorable environment, and these microorganisms are widespread in archaea and bacteria domains (4). Chemolithotrophic bacteria use inorganic compounds such as elemental sulfur, ammonia, and iron (II) as an electron donor and a source of energy for their growth and maintenance. These bacteria are classified into four main groups based on their electron donors and the carbon source (1,5). The first group is obligate chemolithotroph which uses only inorganic compounds as an energy source and carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a carbon source and cannot grow in organic media (6). Thiomicrospira and its several species are examples of obligate chemolithotroph bacteria (7). The second group is the facultative chemolithotroph or mixotroph, which can use both organic and inorganic compounds as an energy source and obtain carbon from CO₂ or other organic carbon sources. Several species of

thiobacilli, Thiosphaera pantotropha, and Paracoccus denitrificans belong to the facultative chemolithotroph group (8). The third group is chemolithoheterotrophs, which oxidize inorganic compounds to generate energy although they are unable to fix CO₂. Some species of Thiobacillus and Beggiatoa belong to this group (9). The fourth group is chemoorganoheterotrophs, which oxidize inorganic compounds while they obtain no energy from this reaction. Thiobacterium and Thiothrix are included in this group (10). This review study summarizes the details of chemolithotrophical bacteria and their ability to use various energy sources, especially industrial wastes. Moreover, the study focuses on useful compounds, which are produced by chemolithotrophic bacteria and their applications in medical and pharmaceutical industries and therapeutic applications.

Review Article

Obligate Chemolithotroph Bacteria

Obligate chemolithotroph bacteria obtain their energy from the oxidation of chemical inorganic elements such as sulfur or the reduction of elements such as ammonia, nitrite, iron, and ferrous iron. The stored energy in the chemical bonds of inorganic compounds is released during oxidation. The bacteria consume the obtained energy in addition to the CO_2 to make sugar and carbohydrate. They live in extreme conditions of pH, temperature, and

Received 3 May 2020, Accepted 11 August 2020, Available online 29 August 2020

¹Department of Pharmaceutical Biotechnology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran. ²Sina Educational, Research, and Treatment Center, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran. ³Molecular Medicine Research Center, Biomedicine Institute, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran. ⁴Department of Food Science and Technology, Faculty of Nutrition and Food Science, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran. ⁵Department of Biotechnology, School of Advanced Technologies in Medicine, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.



*Corresponding Author: Vahideh Tarhriz, Tel: +98(41) 33372256, Mobile: +98(914) 2575057, Email: t.tarhriz@yahoo.com

pressure similar to deep-sea vents in the ocean (11, 12). Low amounts of organic compounds such as sugar and amino acid inhibit the growth of obligate chemolithotroph completely or incompletely (13). Chemolithotrophs are more susceptible to inhibitors compared to heterotrophic bacteria. Definitely, the inhibitor concentration is different for each group of organisms. For example, the growth of Thiobacillus thiooxidans is inhibited by acetate and malate with a 0.1 Mm concentration while these organic compounds could inhibit Thiobacillus ferrooxidans growth with 10 Mm concentrations (14). Valine has an inhibitory effect on Escherichia coli K12 at a concentration of 4×10^{-5} Mm while it has an inhibitory effect on Thiobacillus thioparus at a concentration of 10-3 Mm (15). Evidence shows that some organic compounds, apart from the inhibitory effect, trigger the growth of other strains (16). Moreover, the inhibitory effect of organic compounds depends on the media and pH. For example, pyruvate with 10⁻³ M concentration inhibits the growth of Thiobacillus thiooxidans at the pH of 2-5 while it has no significant effect at pH 7. The toxicity degree of organic compounds on obligate chemolithotrophs relies on the electronegativity and the chain length of the compounds (16). Long-chain organic acids could be effective on the dissolving of the cellular envelope and releasing of cell components including DNA, RNA, and proteins (17).

Facultative Chemolithotroph Bacteria

Facultative chemolithotroph or mixotroph bacteria use inorganic and organic compounds as an energy source. Meanwhile, they use either CO_2 or organic carbon as the carbon source, implying that they have the ability to grow under heterotrophic and autotrophic conditions (18,19). Recent studies have shown that some groups of facultative chemolithotroph bacteria such as *Chlorella vulgaris* have more biomass and lipid productivities in heterotrophic conditions compared with autotrophic conditions (20, 21). The strain grows in a medium supplemented with carbohydrates, proteins, organic acid, and alcohol and under highly strong organic compound limitations. It could switch from chemoorgano-heterotrophic to chemolitho-heterotrophic metabolism and use molecular hydrogen as an energy source (22).

Sulfur-oxidizing Bacteria (SOBs)

Sulfur-oxidizing chemolithotrophs bacteria are found in environments which are rich in inorganic sulfur elements such as sulfide (HS⁻⁻), elemental sulfur (S⁰), thiosulfate and sulfite (HSO_3^2) . Sulfur-oxidizing $(HS_{2}O_{3}^{2}),$ chemolithotrophic bacteria are categorized in two types: photosynthetic SOBs and non-photosynthetic SOBs according to their sun light requirements. Photosynthetic SOBs are photo-pigment producers, and color bacteria generated in exposing to the light and non-photosynthetic SOBs are generally called colorless bacteria which are aerobic or facultative anaerobic (18). These bacterial strains commonly use oxygen as the final acceptor of electrons (Figure 1). In addition, some SOB strains use nitrate or nitrite as the final electron acceptors and can grow under anaerobic conditions (Figure 2). In this regard, Liang et al isolated a SOB that uses thiocyanate and thiosulfate as electron donors and nitrate as an electron acceptor (23). According to the pH range and the temperature of the living environment, SOBs are classified into archaebacterial and eubacteria types (17). SOB can live in environments with a wide pH range, and most known isolates are active at a neutral pH range but some of them such as Sulfolobus, Acidianus infernus, and Sulfurococous can grow at low pH values. On the other hand, Thioalkalimicrobium and Thioalkalivibrio can grow at pH ranges above 7.5 (24-26). Further, SOBs are able to grow in environments with temperature ranging



Figure 1. Photosynthetic Reactions and Final Products of Sulfur Oxidizing Bacteria Strains. Note. SOB: Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria.



Figure 2. Anaerobic Reactions and Final Products of SOB Strains. Note. SOB: Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria.

Table 1. Growth Conditions of Some Chemolithotrophic SOB Strains

Microorganism	рН	Temperature (°C)
Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans	0.5-5.5	10-37
Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans	1.3-4.5	10-37
Thiobacillus thioparus	4.5-7.8	28
Thiomicrospira denitrificans	7.0	22
Thiobacillus denitrificans	6.8-7.4	28-32
Thermothrix thiopara	6.0-8.5	73
Thermothrix azorensis	6.0-8.5	76-78

Note. SOB: Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria.

from 4°C to 95°C (20-22, 27). Table 1 summarizes the pH and temperature conditions of chemolithotrophic SOBs. Furthermore, SOBs were isolated from the soda lakes of different places with a pH value in the range of 9.0-11 and salt concentrations of 20-475 g/L. Sorokin et al used thiosulfate and nitrate as an electron donor and a nitrogen source, respectively, and isolated several strains of obligate lithoautotrophic SOB from different soda lakes with pH=10 in south-east Siberia (Russia) and Kenya (28). SOBs play an important role in the mineral cycle maintenance of nature. Among other chemolithotrophs, SOBs have a great chance to adapt to extreme conditions due to the high energy produced from thiosulfate oxidation to sulfate. Moreover, this group of bacteria has many applications in waste treatment, metals bioleaching, biomining, and agriculture (24). An increase in industrial wastewater, the amount of reduced sulfur compounds also increases in nature becoming a concern for public health (29). Sulfur compounds create environmental problems due to their toxicity and unpleasant odor (30). SOBs can oxidize reduced sulfur compounds in the wastewater to sulfur or sulfate which is discharged into the water (17). Bioleaching is the process through which insoluble metal sulfide changes to water-soluble metals by extremely SOB strains such as Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans, Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans, and Thiobacillus caldus, and in some cases, by several archaea such as Sulfolobus, Acidianus, Metallosphaera, and Sulfurisphaera (31,32). Another capability of SOB is oxidizing inorganic sulfur compounds to sulfate. By the oxidation of inorganic compounds, the pH of the soil decreases and acidic conditions facilitates the solubilization of nutrients similar to phosphate for plants (33).

Ammonium-oxidizing Bacteria (AOBs)

According to Wang et al (31), these bacteria are able to use ammonia and CO₂ as energy and carbon sources, respectively (Figure 3). Some characteristics of these strains are presented in Table 2. In these types of reactions, the charge of the nitrogen atom changes from -3 to +3 when the ammonia is oxidized to nitrite (34). AOBs are responsible for one of the nitrification steps (35). Several factors such as pH, ammonia limitation, oxygen, and nitrite affect the metabolism and activity of AOBs. The oxidation causes the acidity of the environment by these bacteria as the best pH range (0.8-8.5) for the growth of AOBs such as Nitrosomonas europaea (36). In a pH level below 5.8, the ammonia oxidation is stopped completely because the balance between NH₃ and NH₄ completely disappears and the concentration of NH₂, which is the substrate for AOB, reduces in the acidic pH (37). Although AOB is sensitive to pH. For example, the Nitrococcus genus isolated from a Japanese tea field could grow in a pH range between 3.5 and 7 and optimally at a pH of 5 (38). Despite ammonia oxidization, chemolithotrophs and some heterotrophic bacteria can convert ammonia (39) although this is beyond the scope of this review. In recent decades, nitrogenous wastes have been increased due to the ranching and increasing development of nitrogen-producing industries. Therefore, biological ammonia oxidation is one of the critical factors for reducing environmental nitrogen. Ammonia oxidation is useful for waste treatment and area decontamination from toxic ammonia salts (40). Moreover, AOBs are applied in biofilter systems. They consume ammonia, CO₂, and other compounds that are available in the sewage and attach to the biofilter. They are considered as the dominant microorganism in the ammonia oxidation process for removing nitrogen-containing pollutants in various types of wastewater. However, the over-oxidation of ammonia altered the environmental pH, damaging the existing trees and plants (41). Despite these advantages, this process has several disadvantages. The ammonia oxidation causes a change in the environmental pH (42) and has a damaging effect on tree health in the forests (43).

Nitrite-oxidizing Bacteria (NOBs)

Winograsky first isolated new strains of NOBs in 1982 (44).

Characterization	Nitrosomonas	Nitrococcus	Nitrospira
Phylogenetic group	Beta	Gamma	Beta
Morphologic	Short to long rods	Large cocci	Spiral
Motility	+	+	+
Gram-staining	-	-	-
DNA (mol G+C %)	45-53	49-50	54
Habitat	Soil, sewage, fresh water sediment, and marine	Fresh water and marine	Soil

 Table 2. Morphologic and Molecular Features of AOB Genera



Figure 3. Reactions of AOB in O, Limitation and Exchanging of Physical Distribution to O2. Note. AOB: Ammonium-oxidizing bacteria.



Figure 4. Converting Ammonia to Hydroxylamine by Ammonia mono Oxygenase Enzyme and Next Hydroxylamine Changing to NO₂⁻ by Hydroxylamine Reductase

Due to the severe growth of NOBs in laboratory conditions, the number of isolates from this group is extremely rare. Nitrite oxidizing bacteria carry out the second step of the nitrification process and use nitrite and CO₂ as energy and carbon sources, respectively (Figure 4). Generally, most NOBs are obligate lithoautotrophs although among them various groups (e.g., Nitrobacter) are heterotroph and use acetate (45) or pyruvate (46) as energy sources. The oxidation mechanism is different from autotrophic NOBs because they produce hydrogen peroxide by the oxidation of organic compounds (47). Although NOBs are often obligate aerobes, some of them use nitrate as an electron acceptor in oxygen inadequacy and grow in anaerobic environments such as the wastewater storage tank in the presence of sulfide (48). Different genera of NOBs are known, including Nitrobacter, Nitrococcus, Nitrospira, and Nitrospina that have various morphology and reproduction systems (49). Nitrospina and Nitrococcus obligated chemolithotrophs while Nitrobacter are and Nitrospira are facultative chemolithotrophs or heterotrophs. The difference between the four genera of nitrite-oxidizing bacteria is provided in Table 3 (50). Nitrite-oxidizing chemolithotroph can be successfully isolated from inorganic-rich media without any organic compounds. The growth of heterotrophs overcomes that of chemolithotroph bacteria in the presence of organic compounds.

Methane-oxidizing Bacteria (MOBs) or Methanotrophs These microorganisms oxidize methane and few other C_1 compounds as an electron supporter for energy conservation and sole carbon sources (51). Methane monooxygenase is the key enzyme, which catalyzes the reaction of methane to methanol. CH_4 is produced in anaerobic sites by methanogenic archaea (e.g., muds, marshes, rumen, and mammalian guts). It is highly stable and methanotrophs readily use it as an electron donor for energy production. Methanotrophs reside in environments where methane is produced, including wetlands, soils, marshes, rice paddies, and even aquatic

Table 3. Morphologic and Environmental Differences of NOB Strains

Characteristic	Nitrobacter	Nitrococcus	Nitrospina	Nitrospira
Phylogenetic	α-proteobacter	γ-proteobacter	δ-proteobacter	Phylum Nitrospirae
Morphology	Short rods	Coccoid	Straight rods	Rods to spiral
Size (µm)	0.5-0.9×1 ⁻²	1.5-1.8	0.3-0.5 ×1.7-6.6	0.2-0.4× 0.9-2.2
Motility	+	+	-	-
DNA (mol G+C %)	59.4-62	61.2	57.7	50-56
Habitats	Fresh water, soda lake, soil, waste water, and oceans	Oceans	Oceans	Oceans

Note. NOB: Nitrite-oxidizing bacteria.

systems while not residing in maritime environments with low methane. All methanotrophs are aerobic and have methane monooxygenase enzymes (52). They utilize reduced carbon substrates containing no carboncarbon bonds, including methane, methanol, and other methylated compounds. However, some nonmethanogenic methylotrophs can use carbon-carbon bond compounds such as sugars, acids, and ethanol (53,54).

Ferrous-oxidation Bacteria (FOBs)

These groups of bacteria can live in acidic and neutrophilic, as well as aerobic and anaerobic conditions (55). Some thiobacilli such as Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans oxidize ferrous to ferric to obtain energy (Figure 5). To oxidize the ferrous ion, it is necessary to be mixed with sulfate. In fact, sulfate is needed for ferrous oxidation (31). Hallberg et al isolated a novel iron-oxidizing bacteria (i.e., Acidithiobacillus ferrivorans) from metal-mine that was psychrotolerant and facultative anaerobe and could reduce iron. Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans as other FOBs can tolerate extreme acidity and high temperatures (growth occurs at up to 47 °C) in comparison with Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans. Thiobacillus prosperus is one example of iron-oxidizing bacteria that tolerate 0.6 M sodium chloride whereas most Acidithiobacillia disappear in concentrations of 1% w/v salt (32).

Hydrogen-oxidizing Bacteria (HOBs)

HOBs can utilize gaseous hydrogen as an electron donor, oxygen as an electron acceptor for all energy productions, and carbon dioxide as a sole carbon source to grow as chemolithoautotrophs (56). All hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria contain one or more hydrogenase enzyme(s) that bind H₂ and use it to produce adenosine triphosphate. Most HOBs are facultative chemolithotrophs (34). For instance, Aquifex pyrophilus was found as a new phylum of the bacteria characterized by its hyperthermophilic and chemolithoautotrophic metabolism, yielding energy from the oxidation of molecular hydrogen (57). Hydrogenobacter thermophiles (58) and Calderobacterium hydrogenophilum (59) are the other genera of thermophilic bacteria which are introduced as HOBs. Scientists have shown interest in the potential of HOBs in biotechnological processes. HOB cells can synthesize valuable products such as polyhydroxyalkanoate (degradable plastics), protein, and plant growth promoters (60). For example, Volova et al showed that polyhydroxyalkanoate constitutes 85% of Cupriavidus eutrophus dry cell weight in the pure culture

(61). Matassa et al reported that HOBs in the mixed culture can produce protein up to 71% of the dry cell weight (59). However, this issue requires further investigation.

Application of Chemolithotrophs Bacteria Neutralization of Pharmaceutical Residues

During the last decades, biological contaminations such as wastewater from pharmaceutical industries, detergents, and disinfectants have caused increasing damage to the environment (62). Many medicinal derivatives have been found in wastewater, and surface and underground water with different concentrations (63,64). Therefore, there is an urgent need to neutralize pharmaceutical residues using different methods as neutralization. The neutralization depends on the properties of pharmaceutical products (65). Biodegradation by AOBs is the main way for removing pharmaceutical residues (66). The bacteria use mono-oxygenase enzymes to convert aliphatic and aromatic compounds such as phenol and hydrocarbons to less hazardous compounds (67). Luo et al studied the wastewater treatment and removal of pharmaceutical compounds processing using bacteria and concluded that removal efficiency (%) differs in various medicine categories because the physicochemical properties of products are highly different. For example, removal efficiency in wastewater treatment for anti-inflammatories such as acetaminophen was 99% while it was 23% for tramadol and cefaclor, and 98% for cefaclor (68). However, there were no efficiencies for antibiotics groups such as spiramycin. Some studies (69,70) compared the rate of elimination in nitrification and non-nitrification methods and demonstrated that the elimination by the nitrification method was significantly higher compared to the non-nitrification method (Table 4). Layton et al showed that AOBs have a significant role in removing 17a-ethinylestradiol (EE2) from wastewater by nitrification. In an aerobic condition, NH₂ changes to NH,OH by ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) and the hydroxylamine oxidoreductase enzyme oxidizes NH₂OH to NO₂. The activated site of AMO contains metal ions such as CU⁺ which reacts with oxygen. Oxygen is able to convert CU+-CU+ to CU+-CU+ and attaches as the O₂⁻ to the ions, thus the oxygenated AMO can convert pharmaceuticals residues to oxidized products (71), the related data are illustrated in Figure 6.

Production of Secondary Metabolites

Chemolithotroph bacteria have the ability to produce different enzymes, organic acids, and other secondary



Figure 5. Second Step of the Nitrification Process of NOB and Nitrite Utilization as an Energy Source. Note. NOB: Nitrite-oxidizing bacteria.

Table	4.	The	Remov	val	Efficiencies	of	Pharmaceutical	Residues	With	and
Witho	ut l	Nitri	fication	D	uring Wastev	vate	er Treatment Proc	esses		

Pharmaceutical Residues	With Nitrification	Without Nitrification	
rnarmaceutical kesitutes	(%)	(%)	
Iopromide	61	0	
Trimethoprim	50	1	
Naproxen	60	35	
Gemfibrozil	41	9	
Diclofenac	21	1	
Bezafibrate	92	56	
Ketoprofen	63	10	
Fenoprofen	93.7	36	
Indomethacin	89	14	
Ketoprofen	90	38	
Gemfibrozil	87	37	
Naproxen	73	30	
Diclofenac	76	25	
Carbamazepine	38	12	
Propyphenazone	39	5	
Sulfamethoxazole	86	0	

Source. (66,69,70).

metabolites which can be used in pharmaceutical and medical industries (72,73). It has been shown that chemolithotrophic iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria including *Leptospirillum ferriphilum*, *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans*, and *Acidithiobacillus caldus* are the main sources in the production of glycolic acid which has a crucial role in the formulation of various skin-care products in pharmaceutical industries (74).

According to Sato and Kawaguti (75), organic acids are a key group among top platform chemicals that can be produced by microbial fermentation (Table 5). The microorganism-mediated production of the products is preferred over conventional methods due to high purity, selectivity, cost-effectiveness, and eco-friendly nature (76, 77). Organic acids are used in pharmaceutical, food, and chemical industries on a huge scale. For example, diverse salts of gluconic acid are used for the treatment of illnesses appeared by the deficiency of minerals such as zinc and iron (78) or acetic acid which is used as an effervescent in powders and tablets in combination with bicarbonates (79). Several chemolithotrophs, along with other bacteria are commonly used for the industrial production of different organic acids such as lactic, acetic, citric, succinic, and itaconic acids.

Antibiotics are the secondary metabolites of some microorganisms which help the immune system combat



Figure 6. Oxidizing Reaction of Ferrous to Ferric in *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* for Obtaining Energy.

pathogenic bacteria (80). Antibiotics are grouped as cytotoxic or cytostatic based on their effects on other microorganisms, including the inhibition of the synthesis of proteins and the destruction of DNA, RNA, and the cell membrane (80,81). During the last decades, excessive usage of antibiotics has led to the emergence of resistant pathogenic bacteria that have many consequences (82). Two classifications of resistant bacterial strains are extremely drug- and multidrug-resistant bacterial pathogens. The US Center for Disease Control and Prevention has considered antibiotic resistance as one of the world's most important public health problems and estimated that thousands of people annually die because of infections by antibiotic-resistant bacteria (83). Therefore, most biological studies have focused on the discovery of new species of microorganism-producing safe antibiotics for humans. Chemolithotroph bacteria can be suitable candidates among the newer species of antibiotic producers and have doubled the benefits because of producing active compounds using energy sources such as wastewater released into the environment and thus the declination of pollutants such as sulfide and nitrite (24). It seems that future biotechnology studies should focus on identifying and using new strains of chemolithotroph such as Thiobacillus spp. which can produce new antibiotics with low-cost energy sources on an industrial scale.

Conclusions

The specific characterization of chemolithotrophs such as producing organic carbon from atmospheric carbon

Table 5. Several Chemolithotrophs Along With Other Bacteria Commonly Used for the Industrial Production of Different Organic Acids

Pharmaceutical	Producer Organism	Application	Reference
Riboflavin	Eremothecium ashbyii	Treatment of vitamin B2 deficiency disease	(84)
Glutamic acid	Corynebacterium glutamicum	MSG production, ammonia detoxification	(85)
Cobalamin	Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans	Anti-anemia treatment	(86)
Vitamin C	Agrobacterium tumefaciens	Food, pharmaceutical industry	(48)
Pyridoxine	Azotobacter vinelandii	Synthesis of sphingomyelin deficiency disease	(87)
Methionine	Rhodopseudomonas faecalis	Copper poisoning treatment, angiogenesis	(88)

dioxide, utilizing iron (an electron acceptor or electron donor), reducing nitrogen gas to organic nitrogen (ammonium), and converting ammonium into nitrogen gas have caused enabled them for the bio-remediation of wastes and decreases in harmful agents in the environment, along with human and animal life. The isolation and identification of novel chemolithotrophic bacteria and the investigation of their secondary metabolics can be helpful for biotechnological researchers. In addition, the capability of chemolithotrophs in using low-cost energy sources, especially wastewater has double benefits in preferring them rather than other bacteria. Previous studies regarding chemolithotrophic bacteria are extremely limited and the knowledge of their metabolic mechanisms is poorly understood, therefore, comprehensive conclusions need more detailed studies on chemolithotrophs.

Authors' Contribution

The core idea of this study came from EK, VT and MSH. They also directed the other authors and analyzed the collected papers. SRS, HA, and SE wrote the manuscript in collaboration with MSH and VT. Final editing was done by VT.

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that they have no direct or indirect conflict of interests.

Ethical Issues

Not applicable.

Financial Support

This work was supported and funded by the Pharmaceutical Biotechnology Department, Faculty of Pharmacy, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences (Grand number: IR.TBZMED.VCR.REC.1396.1188).

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge Pharmaceutical Biotechnology Department, Faculty of Pharmacy, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences and Molecular Medicine Research Center, Bio-medicine Institute, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran.

References

- 1. Tang K, Baskaran V, Nemati M. Bacteria of the sulphur cycle: an overview of microbiology, biokinetics and their role in petroleum and mining industries. Biochem Eng J. 2009;44(1):73-94. doi:10.1016/j.bej.2008.12.011
- 2. Plewig G, Kligman AM. Acne and Rosacea. Springer Science & Business Media; 2012.
- 3. Kelly D. Energetics of Chemolithotrophs. San Diego: Academic Press; 2012.
- Aüllo T, Ranchou-Peyruse A, Ollivier B, Magot M. Desulfotomaculum spp. and related gram-positive sulfatereducing bacteria in deep subsurface environments. Front Microbiol. 2013;4:362. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2013.00362
- Kaksonen AH, Mudunuru BM, Hackl R. The role of microorganisms in gold processing and recovery-a review. Hydrometallurgy. 2014;142:70-83. doi:10.1016/j. hydromet.2013.11.008
- Beardall J, Raven JA. Carbon acquisition by microalgae. In: Borowitzka M, Beardall J, Raven J, eds. The Physiology of Microalgae. Cham: Springer; 2016:89-99. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-24945-2_4
- 7. Brinkhoff T, Kuever J, Muyzer G, Jannasch HW. Thiomicrospira.

In: Whitman WB, ed. Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 2015:1-10.

- Kumar M, Sundaram S, Gnansounou E, Larroche C, Thakur IS. Carbon dioxide capture, storage and production of biofuel and biomaterials by bacteria: a review. Bioresour Technol. 2018;247:1059-1068. doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2017.09.050
- Koch T, Dahl C. A novel bacterial sulfur oxidation pathway provides a new link between the cycles of organic and inorganic sulfur compounds. ISME J. 2018;12(10):2479-2491. doi:10.1038/s41396-018-0209-7
- da Costa C, Galembeck E. The evolution of the Krebs cycle: a promising subject for meaningful learning of biochemistry. Biochem Mol Biol Educ. 2016;44(3):288-296. doi:10.1002/ bmb.20946
- Yu J. Fixation of carbon dioxide by a hydrogen-oxidizing bacterium for value-added products. World J Microbiol Biotechnol. 2018;34(7):89. doi:10.1007/s11274-018-2473-0
- 12. Kuypers MM, Marchant HK, Kartal B. The microbial nitrogencycling network. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2018;16(5):263-276. doi:10.1038/nrmicro.2018.9
- Lu MC, Matin A, Rittenberg SC. Inhibition of growth of obligately chemolithotrophic *Thiobacilli* by amino acids. Arch Mikrobiol. 1971;79(4):354-366. doi:10.1007/bf00424911
- Osburn MR, LaRowe DE, Momper LM, Amend JP. Chemolithotrophy in the continental deep subsurface: Sanford Underground Research Facility (SURF), USA. Front Microbiol. 2014;5:610. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2014.00610
- Chiang YC, Huang KY, Tong S, Xu HW. Stringent response triggered by valine-induced amino acid starvation does not increase antibiotic tolerance in *Escherichia coli* cultures grown at low cell density. Journal of Experimental Microbiology and Immunology (JEMI). 2016;20:35-42.
- Masau RJ, Oh JK, Suzuki I. Mechanism of oxidation of inorganic sulfur compounds by thiosulfate-grown Thiobacillus thiooxidans. Can J Microbiol. 2001;47(4):348-358.
- 17. Birkett J, Lester J. Microbiology and Chemistry for Environmental Scientists and Engineers. CRC Press; 2018.
- Bayer EA, Shoham Y, Lamed R. The prokaryotes: ecophysiology and biochemistry. In: Dworkin M, Falkow S, Rosenberg E, Schleifer KH, Stackebrandt E, eds. The Prokaryotes. New York: Springer; 2006.
- Kelly DP. The chemolithotrophic prokaryotes. In: Balows A, Trüper HG, Dworkin M, Harder W, Schleifer KH, eds. The Prokaryotes: A Handbook on the Biology of Bacteria: Ecophysiology, Isolation, Identification, Applications. Vol. I. 2nd ed. New York: Springer-Verlag;1992:331-43.
- Liang Y, Sarkany N, Cui Y. Biomass and lipid productivities of *Chlorella vulgaris* under autotrophic, heterotrophic and mixotrophic growth conditions. Biotechnol Lett. 2009;31(7):1043-1049. doi:10.1007/s10529-009-9975-7
- 21. Abou-Shanab RA, Matter IA, Kim SN, Oh YK, Choi J, Jeon BH. Characterization and identification of lipid-producing microalgae species isolated from a freshwater lake. Biomass Bioenergy. 2011;35(7):3079-3085. doi:10.1016/j. biombioe.2011.04.021
- Miroshnichenko ML, L'Haridon S, Jeanthon C, et al. Oceanithermus profundus gen. nov., sp. nov., a thermophilic, microaerophilic, facultatively chemolithoheterotrophic bacterium from a deep-sea hydrothermal vent. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 2003;53(Pt 3):747-752. doi:10.1099/ijs.0.02367-0
- 23. Liang R, Grizzle RS, Duncan KE, McInerney MJ, Suflita JM. Roles of thermophilic thiosulfate-reducing bacteria and methanogenic archaea in the biocorrosion of oil pipelines. Front Microbiol. 2014;5:89. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2014.00089
- Pokorna D, Zabranska J. Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in environmental technology. Biotechnol Adv. 2015;33(6 Pt 2):1246-1259. doi:10.1016/j.biotechadv.2015.02.007

- Oshiki M, Satoh H, Okabe S. Ecology and physiology of anaerobic ammonium oxidizing bacteria. Environ Microbiol. 2016;18(9):2784-2796. doi:10.1111/1462-2920.13134
- Daims H, Lücker S, Wagner M. A new perspective on microbes formerly known as nitrite-oxidizing bacteria. Trends Microbiol. 2016;24(9):699-712. doi:10.1016/j.tim.2016.05.004
- Fenchel T, Blackburn H, King GM, Blackburn TH. Bacterial Biogeochemistry: The Ecophysiology of Mineral Cycling. London: Academic Press; 2012.
- Sorokin DY, Banciu H, Robertson LA, Kuenen JG. Haloalkaliphilic sulfur-oxidizing bacteria. In: Dworkin M, Falkow S, Rosenberg E, Schleifer KH, Stackebrandt E, eds. The Prokaryotes. New York: Springer; 2006:969-984. doi:10.1007/0-387-30742-7_30
- Cai J, Zheng P, Qaisar M, Zhang J. Elemental sulfur recovery of biological sulfide removal process from wastewater: a review. Crit Rev Environ Sci Technol. 2017;47(21):2079-2099. doi:10.1 080/10643389.2017.1394154
- Kuklińska K, Wolska L, Namieśnik J, Cieszynska M, Wolska L. Analytical and bioanalytical problems associated with the toxicity of elemental sulfur in the environment. TrAC Trends Anal Chem. 2013;48:14-21. doi:10.1016/j.trac.2013.03.006
- 31. Wang X, Li Q, Liao Q, et al. Arsenic(III) biotransformation to tooeleite associated with the oxidation of Fe(II) via *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans*. Chemosphere. 2020;248:126080. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.126080
- Hallberg KB, González-Toril E, Johnson DB. Acidithiobacillus ferrivorans, sp. nov.; facultatively anaerobic, psychrotolerant iron-, and sulfur-oxidizing acidophiles isolated from metal mine-impacted environments. Extremophiles. 2010;14(1):9-19. doi:10.1007/s00792-009-0282-y
- Yoneda Y, Kano SI, Yoshida T, et al. Detection of anaerobic carbon monoxide-oxidizing thermophiles in hydrothermal environments. FEMS Microbiol Ecol. 2015;91(9):fiv093. doi:10.1093/femsec/fiv093
- Dou J, Huang Y, Ren H, et al. Autotrophic, heterotrophic, and mixotrophic nitrogen assimilation for single-cell protein production by two hydrogen-oxidizing bacterial strains. Appl Biochem Biotechnol. 2019;187(1):338-351. doi:10.1007/ s12010-018-2824-1
- 35. Jiang Z, Li P, Van Nostrand JD, et al. Microbial communities and arsenic biogeochemistry at the outflow of an alkaline sulfiderich hot spring. Sci Rep. 2016;6:25262. doi:10.1038/srep25262
- 36. Kim BH, Gadd GM. Prokaryotic Metabolism and Physiology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2019.
- Sousa FL, Thiergart T, Landan G, et al. Early bioenergetic evolution. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2013;368(1622):20130088. doi:10.1098/rstb.2013.0088
- Fogel ML. 4. Intersection of geochemistry and ecology. Geochem Perspect. 2019;8(2):127-134.
- Lang E, Jagnow G. Fungi of a forest soil nitrifying at low pH values. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 1986;2(5):257-265. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6968.1986.tb01736.x
- 40. Painter HA. Nitrification in the treatment of sewage and wastewaters. Nitrification. 1986:185-211.
- 41. Yin Z, Bi X, Xu C. Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) play with ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) in nitrogen removal from wastewater. Archaea. 2018;2018:8429145. doi:10.1155/2018/8429145
- Biederbeck VO, Curtin D, Bouman OT, Campbell CA, Ukrainetz H. Soil microbial and biochemical properties after ten years of fertilization with urea and anhydrous ammonia. Can J Soil Sci. 1996;76(1):7-14. doi:10.4141/cjss96-002
- DeForest JL, Otuya RK. Soil nitrification increases with elevated phosphorus or soil pH in an acidic mixed mesophytic deciduous forest. Soil Biol Biochem. 2020;142:107716. doi:10.1016/j. soilbio.2020.107716
- 44. Winogradsky S. Recherches sur les organisms de la nitrification.

Ann Inst Pasteur. 1890;4:213-231.

- 45. Zheng Z, Huang S, Bian W, et al. Enhanced nitrogen removal of the simultaneous partial nitrification, anammox and denitrification (SNAD) biofilm reactor for treating mainstream wastewater under low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration. Bioresour Technol. 2019;283:213-220. doi:10.1016/j. biortech.2019.01.148
- Ilgrande C, Defoirdt T, Vlaeminck SE, Boon N, Clauwaert P. Media optimization, strain compatibility, and low-shear modeled microgravity exposure of synthetic microbial communities for urine nitrification in regenerative life-support systems. Astrobiology. 2019;19(11):1353-1362. doi:10.1089/ ast.2018.1981
- Popescu EM, Pantea O, Gologan D, Doukeh R. Hydrogen peroxide and peracetic acid oxidizing potential in the treatment of water. Rev Chim. 2019;70(6):2036-2039. doi:10.37358/ rc.19.6.7270
- Zhang Z, Guo H, Sun J, Wang H. Investigation of anaerobic phenanthrene biodegradation by a highly enriched co-culture, PheN9, with nitrate as an electron acceptor. J Hazard Mater. 2020;383:121191. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2019.121191
- 49. Yao Q, Peng DC. Nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) dominating in nitrifying community in full-scale biological nutrient removal wastewater treatment plants. AMB Express. 2017;7(1):25. doi:10.1186/s13568-017-0328-y
- Aguirre-Sierra A, Bacchetti-De Gregoris T, Salas JJ, de Deus A, Esteve-Núñez A. A new concept in constructed wetlands: assessment of aerobic electroconductive biofilters. Environ Sci Water Res Technol. 2020;6(5):1312-1323. doi:10.1039/ c9ew00696f
- 51. Murrell JC. The aerobic methane oxidizing bacteria (methanotrophs). In: Timmis KN, ed. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer; 2020: 1953-1966. doi:10.1007/978-3-540-77587-4_143
- Holmes AJ, Roslev P, McDonald IR, Iversen N, Henriksen K, Murrell JC. Characterization of methanotrophic bacterial populations in soils showing atmospheric methane uptake. Appl Environ Microbiol. 1999;65(8):3312-3318. doi:10.1128/ aem.65.8.3312-3318.1999
- Madigan MT, Martinko JM. Microorganisms and microbiology. In: Madigan MT, Martinko JM, Brock DT, eds. Brock Biology of Microorganisms. 11th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall; 2006:1-20.
- Chistoserdova L, Kalyuzhnaya MG, Lidstrom ME. The expanding world of methylotrophic metabolism. Annu Rev Microbiol. 2009;63:477-499. doi:10.1146/annurev.micro.091208.073600
- Morrison C, Heitmann E, Armiger W, Dodds D, Koffas M. Electrochemical bioreactor technology for biocatalysis and microbial electrosynthesis. Adv Appl Microbiol. 2018;105:51-86. doi:10.1016/bs.aambs.2018.07.001
- 56. Aragno M, Schlegel HG. The hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria. In: The Prokaryotes. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer; 1981:865-893.
- Huber R, Wilharm T, Huber D, et al. Aquifex pyrophilus gen. nov. sp. nov., represents a novel group of marine hyperthermophilic hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria. Syst Appl Microbiol. 1992;15(3):340-351. doi:10.1016/s0723-2020(11)80206-7
- Kawasumi T, Igarashi Y, Kodama T, Minoda Y. *Hydrogenobacter* thermophilus gen. nov., sp. nov., an extremely thermophilic, aerobic, hydrogen-oxidizing bacterium. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 1984;34(1):5-10. doi:10.1099/00207713-34-1-5
- 59. Matassa S, Verstraete W, Pikaar I, Boon N. Autotrophic nitrogen assimilation and carbon capture for microbial protein production by a novel enrichment of hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria. Water Res. 2016;101:137-146.
- Zhang W, Zhang F, Niu Y, et al. Power to hydrogen-oxidizing bacteria: Effect of current density on bacterial activity and community spectra. J Clean Prod. 2020;263:121596.

doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.121596

- 61. Volova TG, Kiselev EG, Shishatskaya EI, et al. Cell growth and accumulation of polyhydroxyalkanoates from CO2 and H2 of a hydrogen-oxidizing bacterium, *Cupriavidus eutrophus* B-10646. Bioresour Technol. 2013;146:215-222. doi:10.1016/j. biortech.2013.07.070
- Pilli S, Sellamuthu B, Pandey AK, Tyagi RD. Treatment of wastewater containing pharmaceuticals: biological treatment. In: Tyagi RD, Sellamuthu B, Tiwari B, et al, eds. Current Developments in Biotechnology and Bioengineering. Elsevier; 2020:463-520.
- 63. Verlicchi P, Al Aukidy M, Zambello E. Occurrence of pharmaceutical compounds in urban wastewater: removal, mass load and environmental risk after a secondary treatment--a review. Sci Total Environ. 2012;429:123-155. doi:10.1016/j. scitotenv.2012.04.028
- 64. Phillips PJ, Schubert C, Argue D, et al. Concentrations of hormones, pharmaceuticals and other micropollutants in groundwater affected by septic systems in New England and New York. Sci Total Environ. 2015;512-513:43-54. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2014.12.067
- Rivera-Utrilla J, Sánchez-Polo M, Ferro-García M, Prados-Joya G, Ocampo-Pérez R. Pharmaceuticals as emerging contaminants and their removal from water. A review. Chemosphere. 2013;93(7):1268-1287. doi:10.1016/j. chemosphere.2013.07.059
- Batt AL, Kim S, Aga DS. Enhanced biodegradation of iopromide and trimethoprim in nitrifying activated sludge. Environ Sci Technol. 2006;40(23):7367-7373. doi:10.1021/es060835v
- 67. Skotnicka-Pitak J, Khunjar WO, Love NG, Aga DS. Characterization of metabolites formed during the biotransformation of 17alpha-ethinylestradiol by *Nitrosomonas europaea* in batch and continuous flow bioreactors. Environ Sci Technol. 2009;43(10):3549-3555. doi:10.1021/es8026659
- Luo Y, Guo W, Ngo HH, et al. A review on the occurrence of micropollutants in the aquatic environment and their fate and removal during wastewater treatment. Sci Total Environ. 2014;473-474:619-641. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.12.065
- Maeng SK, Choi BG, Lee KT, Song KG. Influences of solid retention time, nitrification and microbial activity on the attenuation of pharmaceuticals and estrogens in membrane bioreactors. Water Res. 2013;47(9):3151-3162. doi:10.1016/j. watres.2013.03.014
- Tran NH, Urase T, Kusakabe O. The characteristics of enriched nitrifier culture in the degradation of selected pharmaceutically active compounds. J Hazard Mater. 2009;171(1-3):1051-1057. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2009.06.114
- 71. Yi T, Harper WF Jr. The link between nitrification and biotransformation of 17alpha-ethinylestradiol. Environ Sci Technol. 2007;41(12):4311-4316. doi:10.1021/es070102q
- 72. González-Garcinuño Á, Tabernero A, Domínguez Á, Galán MA, Martin del Valle EM. Levan and levansucrases: polymer, enzyme, micro-organisms and biomedical applications. Biocatal Biotransformation. 2018;36(3):233-244. doi:10.1080/ 10242422.2017.1314467
- 73. Shadi M, Heydari H, Elyasifar B, Dilmaghani A. Isolation and identification of hydrolytic enzymes generated by halophilic bacteria in center of Iran. Medical Journal of Tabriz University of Medical Sciences and Health Services. 2019;41(5):65-71. doi:10.34172/mj.2019.059

- Ñancucheo I, Johnson DB. Production of glycolic acid by chemolithotrophic iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria and its role in delineating and sustaining acidophilic sulfide mineraloxidizing consortia. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2010;76(2):461-467. doi:10.1128/aem.01832-09
- Sato HH, Kawaguti HY. Biotechnological Production of Organic Acids. In: Bicas JL, Maróstica MR Jr, Pastore GM. Biotechnological Production of Natural Ingredients for Food Industry. Bentham Science publishers; 2016:164-206. 10.2174/9781681082653116010007
- 76. Chen Y, Nielsen J. Biobased organic acids production by metabolically engineered microorganisms. Curr Opin Biotechnol. 2016;37:165-172. doi:10.1016/j. copbio.2015.11.004
- Alonso S, Rendueles M, Díaz M. Bio-production of lactobionic acid: current status, applications and future prospects. Biotechnol Adv. 2013;31(8):1275-1291. doi:10.1016/j. biotechadv.2013.04.010
- 78. Ramachandran S, Fontanille P, Pandey A, Larroche C. Gluconic acid: Properties, applications and microbial production. Food Technol Biotechnol. 2006;44(2):185-195.
- 79. Swain MR, Ray RC, Patra JK. Citric acid: microbial production and applications in food and pharmaceutical industries. In: Vargas DA, Medina JV, eds. Citric Acid: Synthesis, Properties and Applications. 1st ed. Nova Science Publisher; 2011:97-118.
- 80. Roberts MC. Antibiotic toxicity, interactions and resistance development. Periodontol 2000. 2002;28:280-297. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0757.2002.280112.x
- Elyasifar B, Jafari S, Hallaj-Nezhadi S, Chapeland-leclerc F, Ruprich-Robert G, Dilmaghani A. Isolation and identification of antibiotic-producing halophilic bacteria from Dagh Biarjmand and Haj Aligholi salt deserts, Iran. Pharm Sci. 2019;25(1):70-77. doi:10.15171/ps.2019.11
- 82. Davies J, Davies D. Origins and evolution of antibiotic resistance. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2010;74(3):417-433. doi:10.1128/mmbr.00016-10
- Banin E, Hughes D, Kuipers OP. Editorial: bacterial pathogens, antibiotics and antibiotic resistance. FEMS Microbiol Rev. 2017;41(3):450-452. doi:10.1093/femsre/fux016
- 84. Ge YY, Zhang JR, Corke H, Gan RY. Screening and spontaneous mutation of pickle-derived *Lactobacillus plantarum* with overproduction of riboflavin, related mechanism, and food application. Foods. 2020;9(1):88. doi:10.3390/foods9010088
- Shi T, Fan X, Wu Y, et al. Mutation of genes for cell membrane synthesis in *Corynebacterium glutamicum* causes temperaturesensitive trait and promotes L-glutamate excretion. Biotechnol Biotechnol Equip. 2020;34(1):38-47. doi:10.1080/13102818.2 019.1711186
- Garber AI, Nealson KH, Okamoto A, et al. FeGenie: a comprehensive tool for the identification of iron genes and iron gene neighborhoods in genome and metagenome assemblies. Front Microbiol. 2020;11:37. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2020.00037
- Kurdish IK. Interaction of microorganisms with nanomaterials as a basis for creation of high-efficiency biotechnological preparations. In: Prasad R, Kumar V, Kumar M, Choudhary D, eds. Nanobiotechnology in Bioformulations. Cham: Springer; 2019:259-287. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-17061-5_11
- Patthawaro S, Saejung C. Production of single cell protein from manure as animal feed by using photosynthetic bacteria. Microbiologyopen. 2019;8(12):e913. doi:10.1002/mbo3.913

Copyright © 2021 The Author(s); This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.