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Published in:
Biotechnology and Bioengineering

Link to article, DOI:
[10.1002/bit.25667](https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.25667)

Publication date:
2015

Document Version
Early version, also known as pre-print

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

Citation (APA):
Krujatz, F., Illing, R., Krautwer, T., Liao, J., Helbig, K., Goy, K., Opitz, J., Cuniberti, G., Bley, T., & Weber, J. (2015). Light-field-characterization in a continuous hydrogen-producing photobioreactor by optical simulation and computational fluid dynamics. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 112(12), 2439-2449. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bit.25667>

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1 **Research Article:**

2 **Light-field-characterization in a continuous hydrogen-producing photobioreactor by op-**
3 **tical simulation and computational fluid dynamics**

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27

1 **Abstract**

2 Externally illuminated photobioreactors (PBRs) are widely used in studies on the use of pho-
3 totrophic microorganisms as sources of bioenergy and other photobiotechnology research. In
4 this work, straightforward simulation techniques were used to describe effects of varying fluid
5 flow conditions in a continuous hydrogen-producing PBR on the rate of photofermentative
6 hydrogen production (rH₂) by *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* DSM 158. A ZEMAX optical ray
7 tracing simulation was performed to quantify the illumination intensity reaching the interior
8 of the cylindrical PBR vessel. 24.2 % of the emitted energy was lost through optical effects,
9 or did not reach the PBR surface. In a dense culture of continuously producing bacteria during
10 chemostatic cultivation, the illumination intensity became completely attenuated within the
11 first centimeter of the PBR radius as described by an empirical three-parametric model imple-
12 mented in Mathcad. The bacterial movement in chemostatic steady-state conditions was influ-
13 enced by varying the fluid Reynolds number. The “Computational Fluid Dynamics” and “Par-
14 ticle Tracing” tools of COMSOL Multiphysics were used to visualize the fluid flow pattern
15 and cellular trajectories through well-illuminated zones near the PBR periphery and dark
16 zones in the center of the PBR. A moderate turbulence (Reynolds number = 12,600) and fluc-
17 tuating illumination of 1.5 Hz were found to yield the highest continuous rH₂ by *R.*
18 *sphaeroides* DSM 158 (170.5 mL L⁻¹ h⁻¹).

19 **Keywords**

20 Photobioreactor, Optical ray tracing, Particle tracing, Computational Fluid Dynamics, Hydro-
21 gen

22

1 **Introduction**

2 Phototrophic microorganisms like algae, cyanobacteria and phototrophic bacteria have high
3 potential to sustainably produce proteins, biofuels, cosmetics and pharmaceutical drugs (de
4 Jesus Raposo et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2011). Especially, hydrogen has an undisputed future
5 importance as a secondary source of energy and raw material (Jones and Mayfield, 2012).

6 However, to meet growing demands for hydrogen, it is essential to develop sustainable pro-
7 cesses for its bioproduction. Anaerobic phototrophs, such as the purple non-sulfur bacteria
8 (PNS) *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* DSM 158, are promising candidates for the photobiotechno-
9 logical production of hydrogen (Adessi and de Philippis, 2014; Weber et al., 2014). PNS bac-
10 teria belong to the metabolically versatile group of α - or β -proteobacteria and primarily grow
11 photoheterotrophically under anaerobic conditions. Their hydrogen production is catalyzed by
12 light-driven nitrogenase activity during nitrogen-limited cultivation conditions.

13 PBRs are classified as open or closed systems (Pulz, 2001). Open systems include natural wa-
14 ters, such as lakes or lagoons, and artificial ponds like tanks, circular or raceway ponds in
15 which phototrophic microorganisms are exposed to natural solar radiation (sunlight). Pond
16 systems are relatively cheap, easy to construct, and have low production and operating costs
17 (Ugwu et al., 2008), but most open systems require large areas of land, and the cultivation
18 conditions they provide are dependent on the climatic conditions of the location. Open sys-
19 tems are also highly susceptible to contamination and considerable evaporation losses. Conse-
20 quently, closed PBR systems are preferable for process optimization, particularly at the labor-
21 atory scale, because critical factors (e.g. cell densities, the light regime, nutrient concentra-
22 tions, partial gas pressures, temperatures, volumes and contamination) can be readily moni-
23 tored and controlled.

1 Numerous lab-scale PBRs have been constructed with diverse geometries, mixing methods,
2 and light sources (Wang et al., 2012). Widely used types of systems include flat panels (inter-
3 nally or externally illuminated), columns (airlift or bubble), and tubular or stirred tank reac-
4 tors (Posten, 2009). Light energy for lab-scale PBRs is provided by various forms of artificial
5 light sources, such as halogen lamps, fluorescent lamps, and light emitting diodes. Unlike or-
6 ganic substrates, light cannot be stored, pumped or mixed. Instead it has to be continuously
7 supplied, typically from outside of the reactor, and ideally homogenously for each cell. To
8 monitor and evaluate photobiotechnological processes it is essential to **quantify the provided**
9 **illumination intensity with great accuracy**. However, to acquire reliable data for characterizing
10 the cells' light environment several parameters must be considered including light path(s)
11 from the source(s), its attenuation by self-shadowing of the cells and scattering within the cell
12 suspension, and the trajectories of cells within the reactor induced by the mixing of the fluid
13 phase. Hence, several recent studies have simulated the intensity of light emitted by artificial
14 light sources used in various PBR systems, including: bubble columns with external or inter-
15 nal illumination (Bergeroglu et al., 2007) and reactor systems equipped with optical fibers
16 (Csögör et al., 1999; Csögör et al., 2001; Xue et al., 2013), fluorescent lamps (Huang et al.,
17 2012; Kong and Virgil, 2014) or light emitting diodes (Farges et al., 2009; Lee, 1999).

18 Since the histories of individual cells' light exposure within a PBR are also influenced by the
19 fluid flow patterns, the combination of *Computational Fluid Dynamics* (CFD, which can sim-
20 ulate fluid flows induced by mixing) and optical simulation has high potential for improving
21 process understanding (Nauha and Alopaeus, 2013, Perner-Nochta and Posten, 2007; Sato et
22 al., 2012; Zhang, 2013). Generally, CFD refers to the formulation and solution of fundamental
23 transport equations in a three-dimensional system. Recent research on the application of CFD
24 for modeling and designing PBRs has primarily focused on optimal mixing in two-phased
25 systems (gas-fluid) to ensure constant temperature, pH profiles and gas transfer conditions

1 (Bitog et al., 2011; Seo et al., 2012). However, in pioneering work Perner-Nochta and Posten
2 (2007) demonstrated the potential value of combining CFD and optical simulations in an anal-
3 ysis of light/dark cycles for algal cells in a tubular PBR equipped with a static mixer.

4 Nevertheless, the description of light as the sole source of energy for photobiotechnological
5 processes has often been neglected. Here, we introduce an approach for simulating optical ray
6 traces to characterize in detail the intensity and distribution of illumination from the artificial
7 light sources used to illuminate a lab-scale PBR. A three-parametric empirical model was
8 used to simulate attenuation of illumination in a dense culture of continuously hydrogen-pro-
9 ducing *R. sphaeroides* DSM 158 in a cylindrical PBR vessel. In conjunction with CFD analy-
10 sis of the fluid flow pattern and particle tracing to define cellular trajectories in the PBR, the
11 results provide detailed indications of the cell-specific temporal patterns of available light en-
12 ergy.

13 **Materials and Methods**

14 **Medium and Inoculation**

15 *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* DSM 158 was purchased from the German Collection of Microor-
16 ganisms and Cell Cultures (DSMZ). 50 mL of preculture medium (PCM, in a 100 mL air-
17 tight-closed DURAN bottle), containing 3 g L⁻¹ glutamic acid (Merck kGaA) and 0.3 g L⁻¹ D/L
18 lactic acid (Fluka) as nitrogen and carbon source, respectively, was inoculated with cryo-conserved
19 bacterial stocks and incubated at 30 °C and 20 W m⁻² halogen illumination in a thermostati-
20 cally controlled water bath for 48 hours. Anaerobic conditions were achieved by flushing the
21 liquid phase with helium for 10 minutes at a volumetric flow rate of 1 L min⁻¹. The preculture
22 was sub-cultivated three times by transferring 5 mL of bacterial culture to 45 mL of fresh
23 PCM and subsequent incubation for 48 hours at 20 W m⁻² illumination intensity and anaerobic
24 conditions before cells of the late exponential growth phase were used to inoculate the PBR
25 containing the hydrogen production medium (HPM, 1.5 g L⁻¹ glutamic acid (Merck kGaA)

1 and 3.6 g L⁻¹ D/L lactic acid (Fluka)). The additional medium components of the HPM and
2 reactor inoculation procedure were as previously reported by Krujatz et al. (2015).

3 Batch and chemostatic operation of the PBR

4 The PBR consisted of a cylindrical, transparent, Applikon 1 L stirred tank reactor equipped
5 with an external illumination device and three six-bladed Rushton impellers for stirring, as il-
6 lustrated in Figure 1. The halogen light sources the illumination device was fitted with provide
7 light in the whole range of the photosynthetic active radiation needed by PNS bacteria including
8 radiation between 400 nm and 500 nm (carotenoids) and near-infrared radiation between 750
9 nm - 900 nm (bacteriochlorophyll a). A detailed description of the batch and chemostat setup
10 is given in Krujatz et al. (2015). In this study, the PBR was operated at constant average surface
11 illumination intensity (I_{ave}) of 2250 W m⁻² (Figure 1b). The initial batch cultivation conditions
12 were pH 7.3, 30 ± 0.5 °C, stirrer speed of 550 rpm and a bacterial load (dry weight) of 0.05 g
13 L⁻¹. In case of chemostatic operation, the peristaltic pumps were switched on after 18 hours of
14 batch operation to maintain a dilution rate of 0.1 h⁻¹. After reaching steady-state conditions in
15 chemostatic operation (ca. 80 hours), the effects of varying the stirrer speed (at 150, 300, 600
16 and 750 rpm) on the bacterial dry weight (c_{dw}) and rate of hydrogen production (rH_2) was in-
17 vestigated. The c_{dw} and rH_2 analytics were performed as previously described (Krujatz et al.,
18 2015).

19 Calculation of the stirrer Reynolds number

20 Assuming that the viscosity of the fluid is equal to that of water because of the low bacterial
21 density in the medium, the stirrer Reynolds number (Re) was calculated according to Noor-
22 man (2006):

$$23 \quad Re = \frac{\rho * N * D^2}{\eta} \quad (1)$$

1 Here, ρ and η are the density (995.65 Kg m^{-3}) and dynamic viscosity ($0.0008 \text{ Kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) of
2 water at $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, respectively. N represents the stirrer speeds according to table 1 (e.g. 2.5 s^{-1})
3 and D the stirrer diameter (0.045 m).

4 ZEMAX - optical ray tracing simulation

5 ZEMAX is an optical design program that allows the optimization of illumination systems by
6 ray tracing through optical elements such as lenses, mirrors or diffractive optical elements. It
7 was used here to simulate the distribution of the intensity of illumination by the light sources
8 (12 halogen spotlights), and to quantify the average illumination intensity (I_{ave}) available for
9 the cells, inside the PBR. The spotlights were modelled using the ZEMAX knowledge base
10 model (<http://kb-en.radiantZemax.com>). The electrical power consumption of each spotlight
11 was 50 W , yielding an optical power output of $7.1 \text{ W} \pm 0.1 \text{ W}$ (according to measurements
12 with a Maestro single channel energy meter, supplied by Gentec). In the simulation tool, this
13 optical power was equally distributed to two filaments, analogous to the used light sources.
14 The reactor geometry was defined as a glass tube. A hexacontatetragonal virtual detector was
15 placed at the inner reactor wall to represent the bacterial suspension (Figure 2). A million rays
16 per filament were virtually emitted towards the transparent PBR vessel. By recording the
17 amount and location of rays passing through the PBR wall and hitting the detector, the simu-
18 lated I_{ave} and local illumination intensity distribution could be defined. The simulated illumi-
19 nation intensity distribution at the inner surface of the transparent PBR vessel was experimen-
20 tally validated by measuring the intensity via an encapsulated pyranometer (Deka Sensor und
21 Technologie, Teltow, Germany) which is sensitive to wave lengths between 350 nm and 1100
22 nm matching the spectral emission range of the halogen light sources.

23 Empirical light modelling approach for a cylindrical vessel with a bacterial suspension

1 The incident illumination intensity entering the transparent PBR vessel towards the bacterial
 2 suspension was attenuated by absorption and scattering at the cells. Each biological system
 3 has unique attenuation properties based on pigment composition and morphological cell prop-
 4 erties (Murphy and Berberoglu, 2011). Approaches to analyze the influence of these individ-
 5 ual properties can be divided into two major groups: deterministic and empirical. Since deter-
 6 ministic models entail high computational costs (Pottier et al., 2005), empirical methods are
 7 more suitable for the development of simple simulation tools.

8 The Beer-Lambert absorbance law utilizes one empirical parameter, as it solely describes at-
 9 tenuation by absorption. Thus, it is not applicable for modelling light profiles at high cell den-
 10 sities because the influence of scattering effects is neglected. To improve the empirical char-
 11 acterization, several approaches using two or three empirical parameters have been developed
 12 (Cornet et al. 1992; Cornet et al., 1995). In this study, a three-parametric hyperbolic model,
 13 introduced by Suh and Lee (2003), considering the attenuation of illumination intensity as a
 14 function of the length of ray trajectories and cell-specific light attenuation, was used to simu-
 15 late illumination profiles within the bacterial suspension:

$$16 \frac{I}{I_0}(c_{dw}, l) = \frac{R_0}{R} \exp \left[\frac{\epsilon_m * l * c_{dw}}{(K_c + c_{dw})(K_l + l)} \right] \quad (2)$$

17 The hyperbolic equation includes the biomass dry weight concentration c_{dw} and the three em-
 18 pirical parameters ϵ_m, K_c, K_l , which have to be determined empirically at different ray trajec-
 19 tory lengths. The transparent PBR vessel is described by cylindrical coordinates r, φ, z . The
 20 light source coordinates Φ, Θ, R were translated to general coordinates assuming the position
 21 of the light source L to be r_L, φ_L, z_L :

$$r * \cos \varphi * \sin \theta = r_L * \cos \varphi_L * \sin \theta_L + R_L * \sin \Phi * \cos \Theta \quad (3)$$

$$r * \sin \varphi * \sin \theta = r_L * \sin \varphi_L * \sin \theta_L + R_L * \sin \Phi * \sin \Theta \quad (4)$$

$$r * \cos \theta = r_L * \cos \theta + R_L * \cos \theta \quad (5)$$

1
2 By solving equations (3), (4) and (5) the light path length between a point r, φ, z and the light
3 source r_L, φ_L, z_L , can be calculated. **Indeed, a local intensity distribution also appears along z-**
4 **axis. This point was simplified here by considering a distinct cross section of the reactor at the**
5 **position of the installed stirrers to get a characteristic profile of illumination intensity at this**
6 **position. To get a fully three-dimensional profile the simulation has to be performed either in**
7 **a z-stack or the local intensity distribution along z-axis has to be described by an appropriate**
8 **function $I(z)$. In the assumed case, R_L (the sum of R_{in} and R_{out} in Figure 3) becomes a function**
9 **of r and φ .**

$$R_L(r, \varphi) = \sqrt{r^2 + r_L^2 - 2r * r_L \cos(\varphi - \varphi_L)} \quad (6)$$

10 Because the illumination intensity I_0 is a function of φ_R it has to be determined for every an-
11 gle φ_R at the arched PBR surface (Figure 3). The intersection coordinates were calculated by
12 geometrical considerations for every light source L and every position r, φ yielding a **func-**
13 **tion $f_L(r, \varphi)$, which describes the fraction of $R_L(r, \varphi)$ inside and outside the PBR:**

$$f_L(r, \varphi) = \frac{R_{L,in}(r, \varphi)}{R_{L,out}(r, \varphi)} \quad (7)$$

14
15 By introducing $f_L(r, \varphi)$ into equation 2, the path length of rays inside the bacterial suspension
16 and the intersection with the PBR surface are defined:

$$I(c_{dw}, r, \varphi) = \frac{I_0(\varphi_R)}{f_L(r, \varphi) + 1} * \exp \left[\frac{\epsilon_m * c_{dw} * R(r, \varphi) * (f_L(r, \varphi)^{-1} + 1)^{-1}}{(K_c + c_{dw})(K_1 + [R(r, \varphi) * (f_L(r, \varphi)^{-1} + 1)^{-1}])} \right] \quad (8)$$

17
18 The total illumination intensity at a randomly chosen location r, φ is described as the sum of
19 the local illumination intensities of every light source L :

$$I(c_{dw}, r, \varphi) = \sum^L \frac{I_0(\varphi_R)}{f_L(r, \varphi) + 1} * \exp \left[\frac{\varepsilon_m * c_{dw} * R_L(r, \varphi) * (f_L(r, \varphi)^{-1} + 1)^{-1}}{(K_c + c_{dw})(K_l + [R_L(r, \varphi) * (f_L(r, \varphi)^{-1} + 1)^{-1}])} \right] \quad (9)$$

1 All visualizations of illumination intensity profiles within the bacterial suspension were per-
2 formed using Mathcad 15.

3 Determination of empirical attenuation parameters ε_m, K_c, K_l

4 By using a **converging** lens to determine the cell-specific attenuation parameters of *R.*
5 *sphaeroides* DSM 158 in a measurement chamber developed in-house (Figure 4a and 4b), the
6 model simplified:

$$\frac{I}{I_0}(c, l) = \exp \left[\frac{\varepsilon_m * l * c_{dw}}{(K_c + c_{dw})(K_l + l)} \right] \quad (10)$$

7 130 mL of bacterial suspension with dry weights ranging from 0.05 g L⁻¹ to 3.0 g L⁻¹ were
8 placed in the chamber. An adjustable slide (manufactured in-house), carrying **the above de-**
9 **scribed** encapsulated pyranometer was moved along the light path while monitoring the illu-
10 mination intensity, thereby acquiring high-resolution data. A blank measurement was ac-
11 quired to quantify the scattering caused by the side walls. The obtained data were used to cal-
12 culate the attenuation parameters using multiple, non-linear regression in MATLAB 2012.

13 Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD)

14 The fluid flow profiles and velocities induced by the three six-bladed Rushton stirrers were
15 simulated using the commercial software COMSOL Multiphysics.

16 The rotating machinery interface of COMSOL Multiphysics allows the user to formulate the
17 Navier-Stokes equations in a rotating coordinate system. A fluid flow simulation was per-
18 formed using a mesh technique where the flow domain is divided into an inner rotating area
19 and an outer stationary area coupled by a continuity condition **according to Zhang (2013)**. To

1 reduce computing time, the reactor model was simplified by designing a flat bottom and ne-
 2 glecting small reactor components like the aeration pipe, sampling pipe and PT100 pipe.
 3 Within the rotating area and at the installed baffles the grid size was set at 0.0015 m. In parts
 4 of the reactor where small changes of fluid properties were expected a grid size of 0.00388 m
 5 was selected, resulting in 298,914 volume elements to solve. Given the anaerobic cultivation
 6 conditions (without exposure to gas), a single-phased system consisting of the fluid phase
 7 (water) was assumed. The fluid properties were defined as non-compressible, $\rho=1000 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$
 8 and $\nu=0,001 \text{ Pas}$. The standard k- ϵ turbulence model was used to describe the fluid behavior.
 9 The two introduced parameters are k, the turbulent kinetic energy and ϵ , the turbulent dissipa-
 10 tion rate. The transport equations for a standard k- ϵ model are given by:

$$11 \quad \frac{\partial(\rho k)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho U_j k) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[\left(\mu + \frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_k} \right) \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} \right] + P_k - \rho \epsilon \quad (11)$$

$$12 \quad \frac{\partial(\rho \epsilon)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho U_j \epsilon) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[\left(\mu + \frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_k} \right) \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial x_j} \right] + \frac{\epsilon}{k} (C_{\epsilon 1} P_k - C_{\epsilon 2} \rho \epsilon) \quad (12)$$

13 The turbulence viscosity μ_t is modeled as:

$$14 \quad \mu_t = C_\mu \rho \frac{k^2}{\epsilon} \quad (13)$$

15 The values for C_μ , σ_k , σ_ϵ , $C_{\epsilon 1}$ and $C_{\epsilon 2}$ were (COMSOL standard settings):

$$16 \quad C_\mu = 0.09 \quad \sigma_k = 1.00 \quad \sigma_\epsilon = 1.30 \quad C_{\epsilon 1} = 1.44 \quad C_{\epsilon 2} = 1.92$$

17 Particle tracing

18 The “Particle Tracing Module” of COMSOL Multiphysics allows the computation of parti-
 19 cles’ trajectories in fluids and electromagnetic fields, including particle-particle, particle-field,
 20 and fluid-particle interactions. For fluid flow applications different forces are allowed to act
 21 on the particles: drag, gravity, dielectrophoretic and/or thermophoretic. The cells move under
 22 the influence of the fluid velocity field computed above through well-illuminated parts near

1 the reactor wall and slightly-illuminated zones in the center of the PBR, so each individual
2 cell has a characteristic light/dark history. A time-dependent simulation of five seconds was
3 run to analyze particle tracks within the fluid using different stirrer speeds.

4 The particle tracing equation in COMSOL is given as:

$$5 \frac{d}{dt}(m_p v_i) = m_p F_d (u_i - v_i) \quad (14)$$

6 where v_i describes the particle velocity and F_d the drag force. To calculate a spherical-equiva-
7 lent d_p ($\approx 1.02 \mu\text{m}$) microscopic bright field measurements (WF Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) were
8 performed to determine the length ($1.1 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{m}$) and radius ($0.4 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{m}$) of 20 cells. The
9 cellular density was assumed to 1.0 g cm^{-3} which is in accordance to measurements of Sharma
10 et al. (1993). The trajectories of 1000 particles induced by mixing were simulated assuming
11 stirrer speeds of 300 and 750 rpm. The particle positions were converted to a radius-time-pat-
12 tern and finally analyzed by Fast Fourier Transformation to obtain a typical illumination fre-
13 quency at the prevailing bacterial dry weight within the PBR. The transformations were car-
14 ried out using MATLAB 2012 according to Perner-Nochta and Posten (2007).

15 **Results and Discussion**

16 Effects of varying the stirrer Reynolds number on the rate of continuously produced hydrogen
17 ($r\text{H}_2$) and dry weight (c_{dw}) in a chemostatic PBR

18 Since the steady-state conditions in a chemostat ensure that the biomass concentration and
19 rate of product formation remain constant, the influence of various process parameters on
20 productivity can be readily investigated. Here, steady-state conditions were maintained with a
21 dilution rate of 0.1 h^{-1} and the stirrer Reynolds number (Re) was varied, by changing the
22 speed of the installed Rushton impellers, resulting in flows ranging from laminar to highly
23 turbulent, at a constant I_{ave} of 2250 W m^{-2} .

1 Figure 5 illustrates and Table 1 summarizes the results of varying the impeller speed on the
2 attained c_{dw} , rH_2 and specific rH_2 . The highest c_{dw} ($2.26 \pm 0.1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) was obtained at 150 rpm,
3 corresponding to a laminar fluid flow at $Re = 6,300$ (assuming a critical Re of 10,000). By in-
4 creasing Re up to 31,600, which is associated with the transition towards turbulent flow con-
5 ditions, the bacterial dry weight first slightly decreased but remained constant between $1.84 \pm$
6 0.02 g L^{-1} and $1.96 \pm 0.02 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ at increasing degrees of turbulence. The rate of product for-
7 mation, rH_2 , showed significant dependence on the prevailing Re . Doubling Re from 6,300 to
8 12,600 increased rH_2 by 17 % to $170.5 \pm 2.2 \text{ mL L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. The further increase towards higher
9 turbulence caused a reduction of rH_2 to 69 % of its maximum at a Re of 31,600. As Re was
10 varied, by modulating stirrer speed, at a steady chemostatic state, changes in the concentra-
11 tions of organic substrates could be excluded as reasons for the changes in rH_2 . The bacterial
12 dry weight changed only slightly with increasing turbulence, whereby it can be conclude that
13 these results were direct consequences of changes in cell-specific illumination patterns associ-
14 ated with the changes in fluid flow.

15 In general, bacteria are not susceptible to shear stress because their dimensions are much less
16 than the microscale of turbulence, especially in stirred tank reactors (Chisti 2009). To exclude
17 that shear effects were responsible for the decrease of rH_2 at increasing turbulence a number
18 of batch runs was performed at varying fluid flow conditions to investigate the influence on
19 the maximum specific growth rate $\mu_{max} [\text{h}^{-1}]$. The data provided in the supplementary files in-
20 dicated no negative effect of stirrer speeds up to 750 rpm ($Re = 31,600$) on $\mu_{max} [\text{h}^{-1}]$. In order
21 to describe and quantify the changes in illumination conditions and performance of the exter-
22 nally illuminated chemostat PBR, a toolbox of simulations was developed.

23 Optical ray tracing simulation

24 The illumination intensity distribution and its average value (I_{ave}) throughout the surface of
25 the PBR were analyzed by ZEMAX ray tracing simulation (Figure 2). To our knowledge, this

1 is the first application of ray tracing simulation for the optical characterization of an exter-
2 nally illuminated PBR. By simulating the ray trajectories of the illumination device, it was
3 found that 75.8 % of the rays emitted by the lamps passed through the transparent PBR wall
4 towards the bacterial suspension. Despite the small distance of only 5 cm between the light
5 sources and PBR surface, 24.2 % of the emitted rays either missed the PBR vessel or were re-
6 flected at the glass surface because their angle of incidence exceeded the critical angle. As-
7 suming that the 12 spotlights provided a total optical power of 85.2 W, a simulated I_{ave} of
8 1339 W m^{-2} for the inner surface of the cylindrical PBR was calculated by the simulation tool.
9 The simulated intensity values were validated by measuring the local illumination intensity
10 inside of the transparent PBR vessel at a reactor height of 80 mm (Figure 6). Due to the size
11 of the used pyranometer experimental data showed a significant lower resolution compared to
12 ray tracing simulation. However, there is an identical trend of simulated and experimental val-
13 ues whereas intermediate sections have been highly underestimated by the simulation tool.
14 Consequently, the simulated I_{ave} for the whole surface of the PBR (1339 W m^{-2}) and experi-
15 mental determined I_{ave} (2250 W m^{-2}) differed significantly. The deviation originates from dif-
16 ficulties in determining the geometry of the commercially available lamps, particularly the po-
17 sition of the tungsten filament in the bulb, and manufacturing variations among the individual
18 lamps that cannot be considered in the simulation. In addition to assessing I_{ave} , this simulation
19 tool was used to visualize the illumination intensity distribution at the virtual detector repre-
20 senting the bacterial suspension. As shown in Figure 6, there were distinct peak intensities at
21 the positions of the 12 light sources, in accordance with expectations due to the parabolic re-
22 flectors of the halogen spotlights. The lowest illumination intensity was just 10 % of the peak
23 intensity. This illustrates the importance of recognizing the intensity distribution, as cells are
24 exposed to widely varying illumination when moving both from self-shaded dark regions in
25 the center of the PBR to the well-illuminated PBR periphery, and even between well-lit and
26 relatively poorly lit positions close to the PBR wall.

1 In the only previous published study in which optical ray tracing simulation of a PBR system
2 was used, Zijffers et al. (2008) quantified the amount of captured sunlight in an outdoor opti-
3 cal fiber-equipped algal reactor. A key advantage is that the distribution of illumination inten-
4 sities can be visualized, thereby improving understanding of the process conditions to which
5 the microorganisms are exposed. The information about the “illumination yield”, i.e. how
6 much of emitted energy has reached the photosynthetic cells, can be further used for energy
7 balances. Concluding, though the ray tracing simulation cannot describe the optical setup
8 highly accurately, quantitative predictions of illumination intensities, and especially their dis-
9 tribution, can be estimated and visualized by optical ray tracing.

10 Empirical simulation of illumination intensity attenuation within bacterial suspensions

11 The empirical attenuation parameters ϵ_m , K_c and K_l were determined by fitting equation 10 to
12 experimental data (Figure 4c), using MATLAB 2012, with a R^2 of 99.54. The obtained pa-
13 rameters (0.05559, 1.21 g L⁻¹ and -51.51 m, respectively) were used to simulate the attenua-
14 tion of illumination intensity within the cylindrical PBR. Figure 7 illustrates the prevailing il-
15 lumination conditions at the beginning of the batch phase ($c_{dw} = 0.05$ g L⁻¹, Figure 7a). To
16 simulate the illumination distribution at steady-state a c_{dw} of 2.0 g L⁻¹ was assumed (Figure
17 7b). At a low cell density, the intensity of the light sources cumulates in the center of the reac-
18 tor, causing a local illumination intensity maximum. Due to the low self-shading, the cells are
19 provided with high illumination intensity across the entire cross-sectional area of the PBR. At
20 steady-state bacterial cell dry weight (Figure 7b), the illumination intensity becomes strongly
21 attenuated due to absorption, self-shadowing and scattering. The bacterial cells are only pro-
22 vided with sufficient illumination intensity within the first centimeter of the PBR periphery.
23 Consequently, to maintain the productivity of the process, bacterial cells have to be actively
24 transported to the reactor surface to absorb photosynthetic active radiation (PAR). The PAR
25 of PNS bacteria is composed of radiation between 400 nm – 500 nm (carotenoids) and 750

1 nm – 900 nm (bacteriochlorophyll a). 21.8 % of the total halogen emission spectrum is PAR.
2 Because no filter systems were used to reduce the illumination intensity to PAR the measured
3 whole spectrum data were used for the light profile simulations.

4 Since both light scattering and cell-specific attenuation of illumination intensity are accounted
5 for by the three-parametric hyperbolic equation, the distribution of illumination intensity
6 within the cylindrical PBR should have been reasonably realistically simulated. More com-
7 plex mathematical formulae can be used to improve the description of light profiles in PBRs.
8 For instance, Csögör et al. (2001) used a statistical-numerical (Monte-Carlo) simulation ap-
9 proach to calculate trajectories of photons through bacterial dispersions. However, a large
10 number of parameters have to be considered and experimentally validated for such numerical
11 approaches, e.g. absorption, refraction and scattering of photons at various surfaces, air bub-
12 bles and cells. Considering the complexity of the models and difficulty of acquiring suffi-
13 ciently high-resolution data for such approaches, the use of empirically-based models is rec-
14 ommended.

15 Characterization of fluid flow patterns by Computational Fluid Dynamics

16 Common PBR setups that use pneumatic power inputs for mixing (e.g. flat panel, bubble col-
17 umn and airlift reactors) would be inconvenient for cultivating facultative or obligate anaero-
18 bic phototrophic microorganisms since sparging of an inert gas would be required. Hence, an-
19 aerobic phototrophs are normally cultivated in externally illuminated laboratory bottles or test
20 tubes sealed with gaskets or a rubber-stopper (Wang and Wan, 2009), which prevents (or at
21 least severely hinders) monitoring and control of the process. Despite having a lower surface
22 to volume ratio than flat panel or tubular reactors, stirrer-mixed PBRs can provide reasonable
23 alternatives for preventing sedimentation of cells under anaerobic conditions. In addition, the
24 fluidal flow pattern can be directly influenced by the type of stirrer, and both the trajectories

1 of cells and their residence times in well-illuminated parts of the PBR can be actively influ-
2 enced. Thorough consideration of fluid dynamics and particle-fluid-interactions is essential
3 for understanding and optimizing the performance of a PBR.

4 Flow structures and fluid velocities

5 Due to the symmetry of cylindrical vessels the geometry of the STR was reduced to a two-di-
6 mensional simulation area, a method which is a common approach to reduce computing time
7 (Zhang 2013; Jenne and Reuss 1999). Lestinsky et al. (2012) found a good correlation be-
8 tween simulated and experimental fluid velocity data using a COMSOL Multiphysics gener-
9 ated mesh with grid sizes between 0.001 m and 0.007 m depending on the expected fluid ve-
10 locity gradients in an airlift reactor. In this study, we iteratively adapted the grid sizes for the
11 different parts of the STR until a sufficient convergence and computing time could be real-
12 ized. The final grid structure (grid size 0.0015 m – 0.0038 m) is available in the supplemen-
13 tary files.

14 The simulated flow patterns for the PBR setup used in this study are illustrated in Figure 8.
15 Three six-bladed Rushton stirrers provided a radial flow of the fluid towards the well-illumi-
16 nated PBR periphery. As might be expected, the fluid velocity was found to be maximal at the
17 stirrer blades. A stirrer speed of 150 rpm generated a maximum radial fluid velocity ($v_{\max r}$) of
18 0.3 m s^{-1} . This result for the fluid flow velocity is in accordance with simulated and experi-
19 mental validated data of Costes and Couderc (1988) who measured a $v_{\max r}$ of ca. 0.3 m s^{-1} at
20 165 rpm in a similar STR by laser doppler anemometry. At 150 rpm there were also poorly-
21 mixed zones ($v \leq 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) in upper and lower parts of the cylindrical vessel, as well as inter-
22 mediate zones between the stirrers. Increasing the stirrer speed to 300, 600 and 750 rpm in-
23 creased $v_{\max r}$ to 0.6 m s^{-1} , 1.3 m s^{-1} and 1.6 m s^{-1} , respectively. The fluid patterns simulated at
24 increasing stirrer speeds indicate a tangential movement to the top and bottom of the cylindri-
25 cal vessel, enhancing the degree of mixing. This also increased the fluid velocity in poorly-

1 mixed zones to $v \geq 0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. Similar fluid velocities have been reported; 0.477 m s^{-1} in a stir-
2 rer-mixed torus-shaped PBR (Pruvost et al., 2006; Pruvost et al., 2008) and 0.5 m s^{-1} in a bub-
3 ble column used for cultivating algae (Nauha and Alopaeus, 2013).

4 Due to the good agreement of simulated data in this work with experimental and simulated
5 data of the above mentioned studies we assess the COMSOL generated mesh with grid sizes
6 between 0.0015 m to 0.0038 m sufficient to get a reliable fluid velocity simulation within ac-
7 ceptable length of computing time (≈ 5 days). The standard k - ϵ turbulence model has been
8 successfully applied in a large number of studies, whereby also limitations in accuracy, espe-
9 cially for the description of recirculation loops and in comparison to experimental data have
10 been reported (Zhang 2013). Therefore, the k - ϵ model was extended or modified to improve
11 the accuracy of fluid flow simulations, e.g. Chen-Kim k - ϵ model or RNG k - ϵ model. How-
12 ever, the standard k - ϵ model is computational stable, can be applied for a wide variety of tur-
13 bulent flows and is implemented in the commonly used CFD software tools.

14 Data processing and particle tracing

15 Particle tracing was described by Ali et al. (2015) as a novel technique to estimate the behav-
16 ior of cells within a PBR by numerical computation. The rate of hydrogen production, r_{H_2} ,
17 was directly influenced by the prevailing fluid flow pattern. The trajectories of 1000 particles
18 (bacterial cells) and typical illumination frequencies were analyzed under the conditions
19 providing the highest (300 rpm) and lowest (750 rpm) productivity using the COMSOL “Par-
20 ticle tracing” module. Figure 9a and 9b illustrate the cyclic trajectories of the bacterial cells,
21 between the center and PBR periphery, induced by the rotating stirrers. The typical illumina-
22 tion frequency was determined, by Fast Fourier Transformation following Perner-Nochta and
23 Posten (2007), to 1.5 Hz and 5.5 Hz at 300 rpm and 750 rpm, respectively. ~~Contrary to expec-~~
24 ~~tations,~~ the productivity decreased at the higher average illumination frequency of 5.5 Hz (750
25 rpm). This result could be caused by two effects: First, at increasing turbulence the fluid flow

1 in the whole PBR volume became more undirected, i.e. the cells were less forced in distinct
2 trajectories across the PBR radius compared to a lower stirrer speed and Reynolds number
3 which could negatively affect the light supply of cells. Second, the high frequency of high in-
4 tensity illumination at 750 rpm probably caused photoinhibitory effects. This hypothesis is
5 substantiated by the slightly decrease of bacterial dry weight concentration at increasing tur-
6 bulence. A shear stress effect was excluded as indicated in the supplementary material. To
7 conclude, at high external illumination intensity the productivity of continuous hydrogen-pro-
8 ducing PNS bacteria was directly influenced by the fluid flow and subsequent frequency of
9 illumination. In this study, an average illumination frequency of 1.5 Hz at low turbulence (Re
10 = 12,600) induced by a radial fluid flow in a stirred PBR was identified as optimum condi-
11 tions for *R. sphaeroides* DSM 158 for this PBR setup.

12 **Conclusions**

13 An often neglected but permanently present challenge in PBR characterization are the highly
14 heterogeneous illumination conditions of photosynthetic cells during their trajectories across a
15 PBR due to the high mutual self-shading and complex optical effects. However, if the fluid
16 dynamics are addressed this phenomenon can be exploited to actively regulate the cell-spe-
17 cific illumination conditions. It is also important to obtain a thorough understanding of the
18 prevailing illumination conditions to accurately assess photobiotechnological processes. We
19 have demonstrated that considering all parameters (paths, distributions and cellular trajecto-
20 ries) influencing the “abiotic factor” light is valuable for optimizing continuous photohetero-
21 trophic hydrogen production in a stirred PBR, and by doing so we have obtained high rates of
22 hydrogen production using *R. sphaeroides* DSM 158.

23 **Acknowledgements**

1 The authors gratefully acknowledge financial support from the European Social Fund and the
2 Free State of Saxony in the context of the “Europa fördert Sachsen” initiative (Project num-
3 ber: 100098189). In addition, the authors would thank Marina Scholz for her laboratory sup-
4 port, especially preparing medium components and performing strain maintenance.

5 **Competing interests**

6 The authors declare that there are no competing interests.

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1 **Figure legends**

2 **Figure 1:** Laboratory photobioreactor setup. (A) The Applikon 1 L stirred tank reactor
3 equipped with three six-bladed Rushton impellers, (B) Laboratory setup: STR reactor with il-
4 lumination device containing 12 halogen spotlights.

5 **Figure 2:** ZEMAX optical ray tracing simulation. (A) Photobioreactor setup with cylindrical
6 transparent vessel and the hexacontatetragonal virtual detector (striped cylinder) representing
7 the bacterial suspension. (B) ZEMAX ray tracing simulation, showing eight rays per simu-
8 lated filament of the halogen light sources.

9 **Figure 3:** Schematic diagram of a horizontal section of the cylindrical photobioreactor vessel.
10 Light trajectory R from the external light source L to a random spot P within the reactor is the
11 sum of the light paths inside the bacterial suspension R_{in} and outside R_{out} . Incident intensity
12 I_0 is determined at the angle φ_R of the intersection between the bacterial suspension and light
13 trajectory.

14 **Figure 4: Determination** of empirical cell-specific light attenuation parameters of R .
15 *sphaeroides* DSM 158. (A) CAD-construction of the measurement chamber consisting of (1)
16 halogen light source, (2) **converging** lens, (3) movable silicon photodiode, (4) measuring
17 chamber containing bacterial suspension. (B) Experimental determination for different dry
18 weight concentrations of R . *sphaeroides* DSM 158 and light path lengths. (C) Experimental
19 results, black balls represent measurement points whereas the area plot is the result of multi-
20 ple non-linear regression to determine the cell-specific attenuation parameters using
21 MATLAB 2012.

22 **Figure 5:** Effects of varying the Reynolds number on the rate of hydrogen production and dry
23 weight. *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* DSM 158 was cultivated in an externally illuminated che-
24 mostatic PBR at steady-state conditions. Striped-line indicates the transition from laminar to

1 turbulent fluid flow (assumed critical Reynolds number of 10,000). Error bars are the result of
2 averaged values over 24 hours steady-state operation.

3 **Figure 6:** (A) Illumination intensity distribution at the virtual detector (representing the bacte-
4 rial suspension) visualized by ZEMAX optical ray tracing simulation for the PBR setup. (B)
5 comparison of simulated and experimental determined intensity data at a reactor height of 80
6 mm.

7 **Figure 7:** Simulated light profiles within the cylindrical PBR vessel at (A) 0.05 g L⁻¹ biomass at initial
8 batch conditions and (B) 2.0 g L⁻¹ biomass at chemostatic steady-state conditions.

9 **Figure 8:** CFD-simulation of fluid flow pattern, fluid velocities and flow directions. The simulations
10 were performed for varying stirrer speeds (150, 300, 600 and 750 rpm) of the three six-bladed
11 Rushton impellers.

12 **Figure 9:** Particle tracing simulation. Typical particle trajectories at stirrer speeds of (A) 300
13 rpm and (B) 750 rpm. The simulation was performed by COMSOL particle tracing. The dotted
14 line represents the boundary between well-illuminated (reactor periphery) and slightly-illumi-
15 nated zones at a steady-state c_{dw} of 2.0 g L⁻¹.

1 **Table 1:** Overview on experimental results during chemostat cultivation. Summary of attained bacterial dry weights, hydrogen production rates and specific
 2 hydrogen production rates of *R. sphaeroides* DSM 158 at the applied stirrer speeds during steady-state conditions. Error bars are the result of averaged values
 3 over 24 hours steady-state operation.

Commented [JW1]: Standard deviations?

Stirrer speed [rpm]	Reynolds number [-]	Max. radial fluid velocity [m s ⁻¹]	Bacterial dry weight [g L ⁻¹]	Hydrogen production rate [mL L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹]	Average specific hydrogen production rate [mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹]	Average molar specific hydrogen production rate [mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹]*
150	6,300	0.3	2.26 ± 0.10	142.0 ± 4.2	62.8	2.57
300	12,600	0.6	1.96 ± 0.01	170.5 ± 2.2	87.0	3.56
600	25,300	1.3	1.94 ± 0.04	146.6 ± 2.4	75.6	3.09
750	31,600	1.6	1.84 ± 0.02	117.5 ± 2.3	63.9	2.61

4 * assuming standard ambient temperature and pressure conditions (25°C, 1013 hPa)

5