

ResearchOnline@JCU

This is the **Accepted Version** of a paper published in the
journal *Engineering in Life Sciences*

Chidambarampadmavathy, Karthigeyan, Obulisamy, Kartik P., and
Heimann, Kirsten (2015) *Biopolymers made from methane in
bioreactors*. *Engineering in Life Sciences*, 15 (7). pp. 689-699.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/elsc.201400203>

Research Article

Biopolymers made from methane in bioreactors

Karthigeyan Chidambarampadmavathy^{1,2}

Obulisamy. P. Karthikeyan^{1,2}

Kirsten Heimann^{*1, 2, 3, 4}

¹ College of Marine and Environmental Science, James Cook University, Townsville 4811, Queensland, Australia

² Centre for Sustainable Fisheries and Aquaculture, James Cook University, Townsville 4811, Queensland, Australia

³ Centre for Biodiscovery and Molecular Development of Therapeutics, James Cook University, Townsville 4811, Queensland, Australia

⁴ Comparative Genomics Centre, James Cook University, Townsville 4811, Queensland, Australia

* **Correspondence:** Prof. Kirsten Heimann; kirsten.heimann@jcu.edu.au; College of Marine and Environmental Sciences, James Cook Drive, Douglas 4810, Townsville, Queensland, Australia
Phone: +61 07 4781 5795; Fax - +61 – 07 4725 1570.

Keywords: methanotrophs, bioreactor, polyhydroxyalkanoate, copper, iron

Abbreviations: **GHG**, greenhouse gas; **CH₄**, methane; **CO₂**, carbon dioxide; **PHB**, polyhydroxybutyrate; **PHA**, polyhydroxyalkanoate; **MOC**, methane oxidation capacity; **LB**, landfill biomass; **CB**, compost biomass; **CSTRs**, continuously stirred tank reactors; **FAMES**, fatty acid methyl esters; **pMMO**, particulate methane monooxygenase; **sMMO**, soluble methane monooxygenase; **DW**, dry weight; **OD**, optical density; **NMS**, nitrate mineral salt; **DNMS**, diluted nitrate mineral salt; **GC**, gas chromatography; **TCD**, thermal conductivity detector; **FID**, flame ionization detector;

Received: 01-Oct-2014; Revised: 19-Feb-2015; Accepted: 09-Mar-2015

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1002/elsc.201400203.

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

Accepted Article

Practical application

A feasibility study for the production of bio-polymers (mainly polyhydroxybutyrate-PHB) from CH₄ in bioreactors was conducted. The project targeted major CH₄-emitting industries such as landfills, coal mine and anaerobic digestion units where CH₄ is collected-flared/simplely oxidized. The PHB-accumulating, bacterial methanotroph consortia were enriched independently from landfill top-cover and compost soils and tested in continuously operating bioreactors. The project is expected to provide a common solution for three different environmental issues upon successful implementation/demonstration, i.e. (i) a potential carbon sequestration method to reduce GHGs emissions; (ii) bio-polymers production from CH₄ for the potential reduction of usage of conventional plastic and fossil resources; and (iii) reduced usage of organic carbon sources for bio-polymer production.

Abstract

Methane (CH₄) is a potent greenhouse gas (GHG) and mitigation is important to reduce the global warming impacts. In this study, we aimed to convert CH₄ to polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB; a biopolymer) by enrichment of methanotrophic consortia in bioreactors. Two different methanotrophic consortia were established from landfill top-cover (landfill biomass [LB]) and compost soils (compost biomass [CB]), through cultivation under CH₄:CO₂:air (30:10:60) in batch systems. The established cultures were then used as inoculi (0.5 g LB or CB.L⁻¹) in continuous stirred tank reactors aerated with CH₄:CO₂:air at 0.25 L.min⁻¹. Under stable CSTRs operating conditions, the effect of spiking with 1:1 copper:iron (final concentrations of 5μM) was tested. Methane oxidation capacity (MOC), biomass dry-weight (DW_{biomass}), PHB and fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) contents were used as effect parameters. A maximum MOC of 481.9±8.9 and 279.6±11.3 mg CH₄.g⁻¹ DW_{biomass}.h⁻¹ was recorded in LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR, respectively, but PHB production was similar for both systems i.e., 37.7 mg.g⁻¹ DW_{biomass}. Treatment with copper and iron improved PHB production (22.5 % of DW_{biomass}) in LB-CSTR, but a reduction of 13.6 % was observed in CB-CSTR. The results indicated that CH₄ to PHB conversion is feasible using LB-CSTRs and addition of copper and iron is beneficial.

1 Introduction

Polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) is a biopolymer and was the first characterized monomer of the polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) members [1-4]. It is a short chain length biopolymer containing four carbon atoms and a methyl-R functional group [3, 5, 6], with physical properties very similar to conventional plastics but completely biodegradable and biocompatible [2, 4, 7]. Therefore, it is widely used in industries for the production of bioplastics, biofuels and fine chemicals and in medical fields as implant materials and for drug deliveries, such as antibiotics [2, 3, 5, 6, 8-11].

PHB/PHA monomers are accumulated in number of bacteria, microalgae, cyanobacteria and yeasts derived from variety of carbon sources such as simple sugars, fatty acids and plant oils [1, 12-14]. However, the availability of carbon sources as feed-stock and provisions for the PHB/PHA producing microbes are limiting and cost-prohibitive for industrial mass production, i.e. 30 to 50% of the production cost is attributed to feed-stocks [15]. Therefore, recent research studies explored a number of unexploited carbon-based wasted resources, such as organic-rich domestic/industrial wastewaters, hydrolyzed solid wastes and industrial gases including methane (CH₄) and carbon-di-oxide (CO₂), as potential feed-stocks [16-25].

CH₄ is a prevailing greenhouse gas with global warming potential of 25 times higher than that of CO₂; contributing to 18 % (i.e. 0.509 W.m⁻²) of the total atmospheric radiative forcing; and has an extended life span of 7 to 12 years in the atmosphere [7, 26-31]. According to a report by the Global Methane Initiative [32], anthropogenic CH₄ emissions were projected to reach 7,904 MMT-CO_{2eq} by 2020, which is 15 % higher than recorded 2010 emissions (6,875 MMT-CO_{2eq}). Therefore, it is vital to mitigate CH₄ emissions to combat global climate change. Mitigation could potentially be coupled with PHB/PHA production using methanotrophic bacteria [7, 22, 24], which would provide an economic incentive under the right environmental legislations.

Methanotrophs are gram-negative proteobacteria that utilize CH₄ as a sole carbon source for their growth/metabolism and convert it to the less potent GHG CO₂ [7, 33-35]. Among the three different methanotroph types classified, type II species can assimilate atmospheric nitrogen and are most widely reported to accumulate PHB/PHA (under nutrient stress) with lower CO₂ emissions (~30-50 %) compared to type I or type X strains [7, 10, 18, 20, 25, 36-39]. In addition, fatty acids with a

chain length of 18 carbons (C₁₈) were reported as signature fatty acids for type II methanotrophs, while C₁₆ dominance is characteristic for type I [39-42]. Type II methanotrophs generally rely on particulate – (pMMO) and soluble methane-monoxygenase (sMMO) for converting CH₄ to methanol in the first step of oxidation, which is a critical, highly energy-intensive step in the process [7, 35]. These two enzymes contain copper and iron centres, respectively, and it should therefore be possible to up-regulated their expression/activity through adequate provision of these two trace elements [43-46].

In addition, there are number of other factors, i.e. macro nutrients, other trace metals and environmental conditions which regulate CH₄ to PHB/PHA conversion (as detailed in [7]). Very few type II methanotrphos have been tested for PHB/PHA accumulation efficiencies as pure cultures [18] and results are variable for different species. Moreover, in an industrial setting, mono-culture systems are subjected to failure/contamination negatively affecting predictability of performance and yields [8, 24, 39, 47]. A few recent studies applied lab-scale bioreactors/biofilters (i.e. continuously stirred tank reactors, bubble columns, pressure bioreactors and fluidized packed beds), enriched with mixed methanotrophic consortia and tested for CH₄ to PHB/PHA conversion efficiencies [20, 22, 24, 25, 39, 48-52]. PHB/PHA accumulation potential by mixed methanotrophic consortium achieved in bioreactors under different nutrient-deplete/-replete conditions is detailed in Table 1. These studies, suggest that mixed-methanotrophic consortia are beneficial, (i) as the co-inhabiting bacteria improves physiological growth conditions of methanotrophic bacteria through removal of toxic and overproduced metabolites (e.g. methanol); (ii) essential vitamins and growth supplements are supplied by the excretion of accompanying bacteria; (iii) consortia remains stable for long period even in non-sterile conditions and (iv) higher PHB/PHA accumulations were achieved [8, 39, 47, 51]. However, there are number of unknowns and conflicting information exist in this budding research as detailed in our recent publication [7].

The present study aimed to enrich and test two different cultured methanotrophic consortia from two different soil sources (compost and landfill cover soil) to evaluate CH₄ to PHB/PHA conversion efficiencies in bioreactors. Both, compost and landfill top cover soils are reported to harbour active methanotrophic communities [53-58] and were therefore used in this study. First, cultures were

enriched for both type I and II methanotrophs under nutrient-sufficient conditions with 20-25% CH₄ atmosphere. To enrich the mixed consortia for type II methanotrophs and to reduce the cost of cultivation and CH₄ to PHB/PHA production, nitrate was sequentially limited once every 5 days over 20 days, as type II methanotrophs have been reported to fix atmospheric nitrogen, and high CH₄ concentrations (30%) were used. The enriched cultures were used in bioreactors for continuous PHB/PHA production under nutrient limited conditions and continuous flow of CH₄ supplied at 0.25 L.min⁻¹. Cultures were then subjected to conditions that activate pMMO and/or sMMO activity (copper and iron (at 1:1 ratio; 5 μM final concentration) to improve CH₄ removal rates and PHB/PHA accumulation. In order to investigate the potential for an economic incentive for biological CH₄ remediation, the effect on PHB/PHA accumulation under stable operating conditions are discussed.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Preparation of methanotroph-enriched inoculi

Top cover soil of a 7 year-old landfill facility located in South Townsville, Queensland, Australia (lat. 19°15'0"S / long. 146°48'0"E), were auger drilled and samples were collected in an airtight pouch. Around 6 week-old compost was collected from a pile at McCahills landscaping supplies, Townsville. Slurries of 10 g soil with 200 mL of nitrate minimal salt medium (NMS [36]) were prepared in mini-bench top reactors (gas-wash bottle from Schott-Duran[®], Germany) and purged with 20-25 % CH₄ using calibrated mass flow regulators in BioFlo[®]310 fermenter (New Brunswick, USA). The reactor bottles were incubated under 25°C and continuously stirred at 200 rpm by magnetic stirrer. Head space CH₄ was sampled after 24 h and concentrations were measured using gas chromatography equipped with thermal conductivity and flame ionization detectors (GC-TCD-FID, Varian-CP 3800, detailed in sub-section 2.4). Head space CH₄ was replenished every 24 h during the 20 days cultivation. CH₄ removal efficiencies ($[\text{CH}_{4\text{in}} - \text{CH}_{4\text{out}} / \text{CH}_{4\text{in}}] * 100$) and biomass growth (OD₆₀₀; optical density at 600nm) were used for confirming activity of the mixed methanotroph consortia. After 20 days, a 10 mL inoculum was transferred into fresh NMS medium and cultivated under above growth conditions for further enrichment and the cycle was repeated for at least 4 sequential transfers to obtain healthy inoculi (these cultures are termed mother culture). Mother cultures were labelled as

LB and CB to designate the soil type from which they were established from; LB: landfill top cover soil-derived biomass and CB: compost soil-derived biomass, respectively. Enriched methanotrophic communities from landfill and compost soil were characterized, by amplifying the V4 region of the 16S rDNA gene using the 515f and 806r primers (total read length ~ 300 bp) and sequenced using the Illumina Miseq platform (Karthikeyan et al. Chemosphere in review).

2.2 Nutrient stress and methane oxidation

After the above transfers and methanotroph enrichment cultivation of mother cultures, the LB and CB were subjected to nutrient stress. 50 mL of NMS medium was diluted with 50 mL of sterile de-ionized water every 5th day of the cultivation cycle to induce nutrient depletion until day 20th. For these cultures, the head space of the mini-bench-top reactors were purged with 30:10:60 of CH₄:CO₂:air every 24 h. This biomass was then used to seed cultures for continuous PHB/PHA production in bioreactors. All experiments were carried out in triplicate and samples were treated separately for analysis of dry weight (DW_{biomass}) and fatty acid methyl ester-FAMES (detailed in sub-section 2.4). Negative controls without the inoculum were maintained to calculate the dissolution rate of gases in the NMS medium, which was found to be negligible.

2.3 Continuous PHB/PHA production from CH₄ in bioreactors

Two 15 L continuous stirred tank reactors (CSTR; BioFlo[®]310, New Brunswick, USA, Fig. 1) were used for PHB/PHA production from CH₄. 10 L diluted NMS medium (1:5 dilution with sterile de-ionised water (DNMS)) adjusted to pH 5.5 were inoculated with 0.5g DW_{biomass} of methanotroph consortia cultures of LB and CB. Cultures were continuously aerated with CH₄:CO₂:air of 30:10:60 at 0.25 L.min⁻¹ and the outlet of the CSTRs were connected to an on-line quadrupole mass spectrometer (Cirrus-2, MKS instruments, Singapore), calibrated before the start of with the experiments using pure gases and mixtures.

Cultures in the CSTRs were grown at a constant temperature of 25 °C and agitation of 200 rpm for 10 days. CH₄ removal was calculated ($[\text{CH}_{4\text{in}} - \text{CH}_{4\text{out}} / \text{CH}_{4\text{in}}] * 100$) in percentile and biomass growth (OD_{600}) was measured every hour by the inline monitoring system. After 5 days, 2 L of cultures were harvested for PHB/PHA extraction (detailed in sub-section 2.4) and replenished with fresh DNMS followed by spiking with 1:1 copper:iron ratio (5 μM final concentration). The CSTRs were

monitored for the next 5 days for CH₄ removal and final metal concentrations were measured at the end using inductively coupled plasma - optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES, Varian Liberty Series II; detailed in sub-section 2.4). Culture sub-samples taken on day 1, 5 and 10 from CSTRs were stored (-80°C) and analysed for DW_{biomass}, protein and lipid contents, as well as FAMES profiles (detailed in sub-section 2.4) for sub-samples collected.

2.4 Analytical methods

2.4.1 Physico-chemical characterization of soil and biomass

Triplicate soil samples were characterized for total and volatile solids, pH (WP-81, German), carbon (total organic carbon analyzer, LECO, Germany) and nitrogen (APHA, [59]). The DW_{biomass} were analyzed gravimetrically for both batches - (on days 1, 5, 10 and 15) and CSTR cultures (on days 1, 5, and 10). Biomass growth was monitored spectrophotometrically every day by measuring OD₆₀₀ of the cultures (Enspire – 2300, PerkinElmer). Biomass protein was measured every two days using the Lowry method (TP0300, Sigma Aldrich).

2.4.2 Gas chromatographic (GC) analysis of CH₄

CH₄ was measured using a GC-TCD-FID fitted with a fused silica column (BR-Q PLOT; 30 m x 0.53 mm x 20 µm (Bruker Pty., Ltd., Australia) and helium at a flow rate of 1mL.min⁻¹ was used as the carrier and make up gas. Column temperature was programmed 50 °C for 1 minute, followed by ramping to 250 °C at a rate of 20 °C.min⁻¹ every five minutes. Injector temperature was set to 200 °C with a split ratio of 15. The GC was calibrated using standard CH₄ gas (10-50%) and a regression factor was calculated. The sample gas volume was 1000 µL, which was injected by an auto-sampler (Bruker, Australia).

2.4.3 CH₄ Oxidation potential

LB and CB, CH₄ oxidation capacities of both batch - and CSTR cultures were calculated using equation1 (eq. 1):

$$MOC = \frac{dCH_4}{dt} \times \frac{V_{system} \times MM_{CH_4} \times 10}{V_{molar\ gas} \times DW_{soil\ biomass} \times 24} \quad (eq. 1)$$

Where, MOC = CH_4 oxidation capacity ($\mu\text{g } CH_4 \cdot \text{g}_{\text{soil}}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$);

$\frac{dCH_4}{dt}$ = slope of change in CH_4 concentration (vol. %) per day

V_{system} = Culture system gas volume (L)

MM_{CH_4} = Molar Mass of CH_4 = $16 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$

$V_{\text{molar gas}}$ = molar gas volume at given temperature (L)

DW_{biomass} = dry weight of soil (g)

2.4.4 PHB/PHA and FAMEs extraction and quantification

Sub-samples of 100 mL biomasses were aseptically collected and centrifuged (5810 R, Eppendorf AG, Germany) at $3220 \times g$ for 20 mins at 24°C . The supernatants were discarded and the biomass pellets were frozen at -80°C and freeze-dried for PHB/PHA extraction (as detailed in [60]). In brief, 10 mg of freeze-dried biomass was weighed into clean screw cap extraction vials and extracted with 2 mL of acidified methanol (3% v/v of sulphuric acid) containing $1 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ of benzoic acid and $2 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ of chloroform. The vials were agitated gently and extracted at 100°C for 3.5 h. After cooling at room temperature, 1 mL of triple-distilled deionized water was added to each vial. The vials were vortexed for 30-60 s and allowed to stand for phase separation. The organic phase was collected (100 μL) and filtered (through $0.2 \mu\text{m}$, PTFE membrane, Agilent) for gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS, Agilent 7890). For trans-esterification of fatty acids, biomass was solvent-extracted as above and transesterified following von Alvensleben [61].

The GC-MS (Agilent 7890GC – 5975MS, Australia Pty Ltd.) was fitted with a DB-23 capillary column ($0.15 \mu\text{m}$ cyanopropyl stationary phase, inner diameter - $60 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm ID}$) and equipped with a flame ionisation detector (FID). The split ratio was 1/50 and helium was used as the carrier gas. Injector, FID inlet and GC column temperatures were programmed following David, Sandra [62]. For PHB/PHA analysis (Figure S1), a standard curve was prepared (range 0.1 - 6 mg) using pure PHB standards (Sigma-Aldrich, Australia). Fatty acids were quantified by comparison of peak areas of authentic standards (Sigma Aldrich, Australia). Benzoic acid and C19:0 was used as the internal standards for PHB/PHA and FAME analyses to correct for recovery and results were expressed in $\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} DW_{\text{biomass}}$.

2.4.5 Metal analysis using ICP-AES

The samples were pre-filtered using 0.2 μM PTFE membrane filter (Agilent) and diluted 10-fold with deionized water. The samples were acidified (2% nitric acid final concentration) and used in ICP-AES. 50 ppb concentration of high purity mixed standard (ICP-MS-CS-M, Choice Analytical, Australia) were used for point calibration of the instrument.

2.5 Gas bottles and reagents

Gasses for calibrations (99.9% pure CH_4 , 10-50 % CH_4 with air, CO_2 1-30 %) and compressed air (N_2 -78.08 %; O_2 -20.94 %) were supplied by BOC a member of the Linde group, Townsville and all were ISO certified. All chemicals and solvents were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Australia.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Physico-chemical characteristics of soil

pH of the landfill top-cover and compost soil samples were circum-neutral (7.4-7.8) with a similar moisture content of 16 ± 0.9 and 18 ± 0.2 %, respectively. Compost soil had a higher percentage of volatile solids and corresponding carbon of 41 ± 2.6 % and 25.8 ± 0.7 % compared to 5.7 ± 0.2 % and 20 ± 0.6 % of landfill top cover soil, respectively. Total nitrogen was also higher in compost soil than in landfill top-cover soil (10.60 ± 0.28 vs 5.97 ± 0.12 mg $\text{N}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ soil, respectively). High volatile total solids, carbon and nitrogen indicates that the compost soil was not completely stabilized [63].

3.2 Methane oxidation capacities of soil and methanotrophic-enriched consortia

CH_4 removal efficiencies of both soil slurries reached a maximum after 24 h of incubation fluctuating between 40 and 70 % for the 20 day-enrichment period (data not shown). Similar CH_4 removal efficiencies have been reported for other soil types, where CH_4 removal efficiencies improved after an initial lag phase of 48 h [64, 65]. At the end of 20 day-enrichment period, the average (avg.) CH_4 removal efficiency for landfill top-cover soil was $\approx 60\pm 1.2$ % being slightly higher than for compost soil (i.e., $\approx 55\pm 0.8$ %). The average MOCs were also similar for the methanotroph-enriched consortia (i.e., 194.54 ± 17 and 175.35 ± 17 $\mu\text{g CH}_4\cdot\text{g}_{\text{soil type}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively) and stabilized over the 20 days. Achieved MOCs reported here was higher than published values, which had a minimum of < 20 $\mu\text{g CH}_4\cdot\text{g}_{\text{sandy loam soil}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ for sandy loam soils and a maximum of 128 $\mu\text{g CH}_4\cdot\text{g}_{\text{bio-waste compost soil}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (maximum) for organic-rich soil types [66-68]. The improved removal efficiencies and stable MOCs

in this study could be due to maintenance of optimal temperature for methanotrophs (25 °C) [43, 64, 69] and/or improved CH₄ gas exchange due to continuous mixing of slurries [70]. Our result suggest that healthy methanotroph-enriched consortia established in mini-bench top reactors from the two different soil types at the end of the 20 day-enrichment period.

Next generation sequencing of enriched methanotrophic consortia from LB and CB showed similar community profiles. *Methylobacterium* (96%) was dominant in LB and a presence of *Methylomarinum* (2%), *Methylomonas* (1%), *Methylobacter* (<1%), *Methylosinus* (<1%) and *Methylosarcina* (<1%) at much lower abundances were recorded. *Methylobacterium* (88%) were also dominant in CB, and low abundances of *Methylomonas* (9%), *Methylomarinum* (1%), *Methylosarcina* (1%) and *Methylosinus* (1%) were also demonstrated. Apart from methanotrophs, methylophages such as *Methylophaga* and *Methylobacterium* along with heterotrophs (*Pseudomonas* and *Pseudoxanthomonas*) were present in high abundances in both LB and CB. Of the genera recorded *Methylosinus* sp., *Methylobacterium* sp., and *Pseudomonas* sp., has been shown to accumulate PHA/PHB [5, 18, 21, 25]. Enrichment of mother cultures under nutrient-deplete condition were expected to favour methanotrophic community shifts in LB and CB. FAME profiles (from Day 5 to Day 20; data not shown) changed to a dominance of C₁₆ and C₁₈, indicative of community shifts changes to type II enrichment under nutrient-deplete conditions. However, the precise consortia composition requires further molecular characterization which is ongoing.

MOCs were 10-12 times higher in methanotroph-enriched cultures under nutrient-replete conditions than respective soil slurries (Fig. 2). MOCs of mother cultures further increased 2-2.5 times under nutrient-deplete conditions (Fig. 2). With regards to soil-specific methanotroph enrichment, CB had higher MOCs (2.10±0.48 and 5.76±0.54 mg CH₄.g⁻¹ DW_{biomass}.h⁻¹ for mother cultures under nutrient-replete and -deplete conditions, respectively) than LB (1.83±0.46 and 3.85±0.24 mg CH₄.g⁻¹ DW_{biomass}.h⁻¹). In line with published data, repeated sub-culturing under CH₄-rich conditions supported the selective growth of high-capacity, low-CH₄ affinity obligate methanotrophs [71, 72]. The observed differences in MOCs of LB and CB under nutrient-replete and -deplete conditions could be due to the differences in CH₄ concentrations (20 % vs 30 % CH₄, respectively) and/or

community compositional shifts within the enriched consortia. Increasing CH₄ concentrations, as well as nutrient (e.g. nitrate)-induced community shifts have been reported to increase MOCs, the latter due to an increase in the ratio of type II/type I methanotrophs by 10-fold within 100 h [50, 71, 73, 74]. Changes in C₁₆:C₁₈ ratios provide evidence of nutrient depletion- and CH₄ concentration-induced community shifts in LB and CB cultures. This was also observed by Bull et al. [41] and Helm et al. [39]. During the first 10 days, LB contained more of C₁₆ than CB, indicating that the consortia were dominated by type I methanotrophs (Fig. 3). In contrast, CB contained C₁₆ and C₁₈ fatty acids (Fig. 3) indicating that both type I and type II methanotrophs were present in high abundances from the start of the enrichment period supporting the observed higher MOCs (Fig. 2).

3.3 PHB/PHA production in CSTRs

CH₄ removal efficiencies ranged from 3 to 21 % in both CSTRs under continuous operational mode. With addition of 5 µm of copper and iron on day 5, CH₄ removal peaked at 21 % on day 7 in both CSTRs. Although CH₄ removal efficiencies increased over time, no increase in biomass concentrations was recorded from day 5 to day 10 i.e., 0.40 to 0.43 g/L and 0.46 to 0.43 g/L measured in LB- and CB-CSTRs, respectively. Lower removal rates compared to other published data on mixed methanotrophic consortia could be due to high gas flow rates, which may have also affected biomass yields. Listenwnik [8] reported 25g/L biomass under non-sterile operation, however, operating conditions (high nutrients, pressurised bioreactors and 90% *Methylocystis* dominance) were chosen to favour biomass yields and CH₄ removal. In a natural setting, however, enriched consortia not derived from the soils present may not retain these set dominance profiles. As such, while natural consortia may not yield the same dominance profiles initially, they offer the opportunity to fine operational parameters to favour existing type II methanotrophs. We therefore believe that the data obtained in this study may provide more realistic performance data for unoptimised scale-up.

3.3.1 MOCs and PHB/PHA production without copper and iron

Despite standardised initial biomass ($0.5 \text{ g DW} \cdot 10 \text{ L}^{-1}$; OD_{600} - 0.036 and 0.043; Day 1), the MOCs were higher in the LB-CSTR than in the CB-CSTR (260.09 ± 25 and $165.35 \pm 15 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{DW}_{\text{biomass}} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively) as were protein content (10.11 ± 0.8 vs $7.38 \pm 0.4 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$) (Table 2). After 5 days of nutrient limitation, LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR biomass - (OD_{600} 0.27-0.28, respectively) and protein contents (100.8 ± 2.2 and $112.3 \pm 1.8 \text{ } \mu\text{g protein} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$, respectively) and increases in MOCs were similar (46 % vs 40 %, respectively) (Table 2). Yet, MOCs of LB-CSTR was almost 2-fold higher (481.95 ± 22 vs $279.64 \pm 32 \text{ mg CH}_4 \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{DW}_{\text{biomass}} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) than for CB-CSTR, respectively (Table 2). Protein is reported to be a measure of active biomass in the system [75]. As the CB-CSTR contained more protein from day 1 and CB batch cultures showed better MOCs than LB systems, a higher MOC was expected for this system. The better MOCs of the LB-CSTR can be explained by a dominance of type I methanotrophs, as the ratio $\text{C}_{16}:\text{C}_{18}$ (~ 11.88 , Table 2) can be used as an indicator of type I/type II ratios within the methanotroph consortium. Reports that pMMO expressing cells (type I and type II) achieve steady state conditions and higher CH_4 removal rates ($\sim 30\%$) compared to sMMO expressing cells (type II) [43, 76] support our conclusion.

Detailed FAME profiles analyses for the LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR (Fig. 4a) also support the conclusion that the LB-CSTR was dominated by type I methanotrophs. Day 5-LB-CSTR was characterized by $\sim 92\%$ of C_{16} methyl esters ($67.73 \pm 3.1 \text{ mgFAME} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{DW}_{\text{biomass}}$; sum of $\text{C}_{16:0}$, $\text{C}_{16:1}$ cis- Δ^7 , $\text{C}_{16:1}$ cis- Δ^9) and $\sim 8\%$ of C_{18} esters ($\text{C}_{18:1}$ cis- Δ^9 and $\text{C}_{18:1}$ trans- Δ^{11}). In contrast, C_{16} and C_{18} contents were 78 % and 22 %, respectively in the CB-CSTR. For both consortia, $\text{C}_{16:1}$ cis- Δ^9 was the dominant FAME species, whereas $\text{C}_{18:1}$ cis- Δ^9 was not detected in biomass from LB-CSTR and the CB-CSTR biomass contained both $\text{C}_{18:1}$ cis- Δ^9 and $\text{C}_{18:1}$ trans- Δ^{11} (Fig. 4a).

Lower MOCs also resulted in lower PHB/PHA content for the CB-CSTR (Table 2). Total PHB/PHA content on day-5 was 37.03 ± 2.3 and $25.28 \pm 1.4 \text{ mg PHB} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{DW}_{\text{biomass}}$ in LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR, respectively. Reported MOCs and PHB/PHA accumulation of mixed methanotrophic consortia were lower ($\sim 11\%$) than for pure cultures [25]. For example, pure cultures of the type II methanotroph *Methylocystis hirsute* had PHB/PHA contents ranging from 85 to 425 $\text{mg PHB} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{DW}_{\text{biomass}}$ (8.5 to 42.5 w%) in treatments with 20-80 % CH_4 in vertical loop bioreactors, with nitrogen limitation not

leading to the expected improved accumulation ($\sim 135 \text{ mg PHB.g}^{-1} \text{ DW}_{\text{biomass}}$) [20]. However Wendlandt [24] reported 51.3% PHB content in mixed methanotrophic consortia under nitrate-deplete condition. Apart from nitrate, Wendlandt [24] and Helm [22] studied the effect of phosphorus (P)-, potassium (K)-, sulfur (S)-, iron (Fe)- and magnesium (Mg)-limitation on PHB accumulation in a mixed consortium with dominance of *Methylocystis* sp. GB 25 DSM 7674 (86 to 90%) reared in 7 and 70 L pressure bioreactors under high pressure of methane ($p \leq 0.6 \text{ MPa}$ 20 to 25% CH_4) with a flow rate of 50-100 L.min^{-1} , and reported PHB contents of 46.8, 33.6, 32.6, 10.4 and 28.3% after 24 h of nutrient-deprivation, respectively. The high PHB content reported is likely due to dominance of *Methylocystis* species. Nitrate depletion should have resulted in high PHB contents, however, the low amount of PHB/PHA (3.7%) in our study could be due to the addition of CO_2 which increased the pH of the system at Day 5 (data not shown), favoring dominance of Type I methanotrophs which typically do not excel in PHB/PHA accumulation. Similar results were obtained by Lopez [23], when culture conditions were chosen to favour dominance of type I methanotrophs (PHB/PHA content of inoculum 12.6 % compared to biomass PHB/PHA content in biomass raised at 20 g $\text{CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-3}$ (0.002% CH_4 and nitrogen limiting conditions). In addition to strain-specific differences in PHB/PHA accumulation, cultivation system differences affecting gas residence time could also explain the higher PHB/PHA accumulation as vertical loop reactors, pressurised bioreactors, fluidised bioreactors dissolve CH_4 better than CSTRs [20, 24, 25, 50].

3.3.2 MOCs and PHB/PHA production with copper and iron

5 μM of copper and of iron was spiked on day-5 and monitored until day 10 (Table 2). Both copper and iron have been reported to regulate/improve pMMO and sMMO activities in methanotrophs thereby improving CH_4 removal [18, 22, 44, 46, 77-79]. As expected MOCs for the CB-CSTR increased by $\sim 72\%$ following trace metal addition, while only a $\sim 3\%$ increase was recorded for the LB-CSTR (Table 2). Differences in LB- and CB-CSTR biomass (OD_{600}) and protein content (Table 2) could explain the large increase in MOCs. However, the LB-CSTR had a slightly higher MOC compared to the CB-CSTR possibly due to community differences (based on $\text{C}_{16}:\text{C}_{18}$ ratios, Table 2). Addition of copper has been reported to alter CH_4 affinity due to changes in species composition [43, 77]; 2-55-fold increases in MOC have been reported for pure and mixed cultures [43, 80]. For

example, 1 μM of copper was reported to completely inhibit sMMO activity in pure isolates [81-83] and inducing pMMO expression [79]. Thus pMMO expressing methanotrophs show better MOCs and higher biomass yields [84]. As evident from the $\text{C}_{16}:\text{C}_{18}$ ratio (Table 2), addition of 5 μM each of copper and iron did not shift the consortium composition of the CB-CSTR, thus the observed strong increase in MOC for the CB biomass could be interpreted as upregulation of pMMO. In contrast, copper and iron addition led to a strong shift in the $\text{C}_{16}:\text{C}_{18}$ ratio of the LB-CSTR, i.e. the dominance of type I methanotrophs was abolished. These conclusions are supported by the shifts in FAME profiles in response to trace metal addition for both the CB- and LB-CSTRs (for details see below).

Previous studies have focused mainly on the individual effects of copper or iron [18, 22, 85]. Here, we investigated the combined effect of copper and iron under nitrate-deplete condition, the interactive effects of which may explain the shift in methanotroph type composition of the consortia. The 5-day copper uptake varied between LB-CSTR (36 %) and CB-CSTR (50 %), while the amount of iron uptake was the same for both cultures (~85 %) (data not shown). Iron, being a known cofactor for number of redox- reactions, plays a vital role in the regulation of cellular metabolism, and has been reported to increase sMMO activity [76, 81, 83, 86]. Based on this and the observed >2-fold increase in MOC in the CB-CSTR, we propose iron positively influenced sMMO activity (in parallel with copper influencing pMMO activity), and alleviated the inhibitory effect of copper on this enzyme.

sMMO activity requires high energy and reducing equivalents [87]. As CSTR cultures were grown under nutrient-limiting conditions, energy requirements to support MMO activities could have been met through oxidizing stored fatty acids and stored PHB/PHA [60, 79]. Pieja [18] also found that the addition of copper improved the PHB/PHA content by 25 % in pure cultures, which is comparable with our results for the LB-CSTR (23 %). In contrast, PHB/PHA content decreased by 13 % in the CB-CSTR, suggesting that PHB/PHA was oxidized to support MOC (Table 2), as has been reported for pure type II cultures [60, 79]. In contrast to CB-CSTR cultures, required reducing equivalents and energy needs for MOC were not fueled by PHB/PHA oxidation in the LB-CSTR. This is supported by a study where the addition of 30 μM copper increased PHB/PHA accumulation by 8.3 % [79].

Total FAME contents (Σ FAMES) were reduced by 62 % and 25% after addition of copper and iron for the LB- and CB-CSTRs, respectively, whilst MOCs were not affected (Table 2), supporting the conclusion that energy and redox equivalent demands for sustaining MOCs were met by hydrolyzing fatty acids in both systems and additionally by PHB/PHA oxidation in the CB-CSTR. This conclusion is further supported when comparing FAME profiles before (Fig. 4a) and after copper and iron addition (Fig. 4b). 5-days after trace metal addition (day 10), the biomass of both CSTRs contained less C_{16} fatty acids, whilst C_{18} contents were unaffected. Whilst $C_{18:1}$ trans- Δ^{11} was absent in biomass from both CSTRs after trace metal addition, $C_{18:1}$ cis- Δ^9 was present in high amounts (Fig. 4b). The appearance of type II-characteristic C_{18} -fatty acids supports the conclusion that copper addition ($5\mu\text{M}$) led to type II dominance, which is in agreement with other published data [18].

This could also suggest that copper and iron addition led to type II methanotroph-derived MOCs in both CSTRs. But the above hypothesis must be tested in future work through molecular analysis of consortia profiles, as a few type I and X methanotrophs have also been reported to contain sMMO [82, 88-91].

4 Concluding remarks

MOCs of nutrient-replete, enriched mother cultures were found to be 10-12 folds higher than in the unenriched respective indigenous soils, i.e. landfill top-cover and compost. Nutrient limitation further improved the MOCs due to selective enrichment of fast growing methanotrophic consortia. These enriched cultures were robust and accumulated C_{16} and C_{18} as the major FAMES which can be of interest for biofuel factories. MOCs were lower in batch cultures than in continuous operating systems for both the biomasses (LB and CB), suggesting that for techno-economic analyses data obtained from batch culture systems should not be used.

From the bioreactor studies, the LB-CSTR was more robust in terms of MOCs, Σ FAMES and PHB/PHA accumulation than the CB-CSTR. Based on C_{16} and C_{18} contents, community differences between LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR could be the key to the differences in performance, however, detailed molecular analyses are required to unequivocally demonstrate this (work in progress). Further addition of copper and iron at $5\mu\text{M}$ each increased MOCs 2-fold in the CB-CSTR, but the Σ FAMES and PHB/PHA accumulation were reduced. These results can be explained in two ways: (i)

iron improved sMMO activity potentially by alleviating copper inhibition; and/or (ii) the stored PHB/PHA and FAMEs were used for delivering reducing equivalents for sMMO to accelerate CH₄ oxidation. Nonetheless the outcome suggests that continuous production of PHB/PHA under nutrient-limiting and high copper conditions is not feasible using compost biomass. On the other hand, sustained MOC and the 23 % increase in PHB/PHA content of the LB-CSTR under nutrient-limiting and high copper conditions suggests that landfill top cover soil-derived methanotroph consortia are suitable for continuous PHA/PHB production from waste CH₄ gas. However, compared to published data, the achieved PHB/PHA contents were low possibly due to low CH₄ residence time and nutrient-limiting conditions maintained in CSTRs, suggesting that further research should aim to improve PHB/PHA accumulation potential through improved system – and fertilisation regime designs.

Acknowledgement

The project is supported by the Advanced Manufacturing Cooperative Research Centre (AMCRC), funded through the Australian Government's Cooperative Research Centre Scheme, grant number 2.3.4. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis or preparation of the manuscript and have provided permission to publish. This research is part of the MBD Energy Research and Development program for Biological Carbon Capture and Storage. C.P. Karthigeyan was supported by an AMCRC PhD fellowship at James Cook University. The authors appreciate the technical support in the Cirrus 2 operation by the research assistant, Mr. N. Saravanan.

The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

5 References

- [1] Tokiwa Y, Ugwu CU. Biotechnological production of (R)-3-hydroxybutyric acid monomer. *J Biotechnol.* 2007;132:264-72.
- [2] Chanprateep S. Current trends in biodegradable polyhydroxyalkanoates. *J Biosci Bioeng.* 2010;110:621-32.
- [3] Chen G-Q. Plastics completely synthesized by bacteria: Polyhydroxyalkanoates. In: Chen GQ, editor. *Plastics from Bacteria: Natural Functions and Applications.* Verlag Berlin Heidelberg: Springer 2010. p. 17-37.
- [4] Laycock B, Halley P, Pratt S, Werker A, Lant P. The chemomechanical properties of microbial polyhydroxyalkanoates. *Progr Polymer Sci.* 2013;38:536-83.
- [5] Gao X, Chen J-C, Wu Q, Chen G-Q. Polyhydroxyalkanoates as a source of chemicals, polymers, and biofuels. *Curr Opin Biotechnol.* 2011;22:768-74.
- [6] Tan G-YA, Chen C-L, Li L, Ge L, Wang L, Razaad IMN, et al. Start a research on biopolymer polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA): a review. *Polymers.* 2014;6:706-54.
- [7] Karthikeyan OP, Karthigeyan CP, Cirés S, Heimann K. Review of sustainable methane mitigation and bio-polymer production. *Criti Rev Environ Sci Technol.* 2014.
- [8] Listewnik HF, Wendlandt KD, Jechorek M, Mirschel G. Process design for the microbial synthesis of poly- β -hydroxybutyrate (PHB) from natural gas. *Eng Life Sci.* 2007;7:278-82.
- [9] Du C, Sabirova J, Soetaert W, Ki Carol Lin S. Polyhydroxyalkanoates production from low-cost sustainable raw materials. *CurrChem Biol.* 2012;6:14-25.
- [10] Rostkowski KH, Criddle CS, Lepech MD. Cradle-to-gate life cycle assessment for a cradle-to-cradle cycle: biogas-to-bioplactic (and back). *Environ Sci Technol.* 2012;46:9822-9.
- [11] Khosravi-Darani K, Mokhtari Z-B, Amai T, Tanaka K. Microbial production of poly (hydroxybutyrate) from C1 carbon sources. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2013;97:1407-24.
- [12] Bhati R, Samantaray S, Sharma L, Mallick N. Poly- β -hydroxybutyrate accumulation in cyanobacteria under photoautotrophy. *Biotechnol J.* 2010;5:1181-5.
- [13] Hempel F, Bozarth AS, Lindenkamp N, Klingl A, Zauner S, Linne U, et al. Microalgae as bioreactors for bioplactic production. *Microbial Cell Factory.* 2011;10:81.

- [14] Kocharin K, Siewers V, Nielsen J. Improved polyhydroxybutyrate production by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* through the use of the phosphoketolase pathway. *Biotechnol Bioeng.* 2013;110:2216-24.
- [15] Shen L, Haufe J, Patel MK. Product overview and market projection of emerging bio-based plastics PRO-BIP 2009. Report for European Polysaccharide Network of Excellence (EPNOE) and European Bioplastics. 2009;243.
- [16] Khardenavis AA, Suresh Kumar M, Mudliar SN, Chakrabarti T. Biotechnological conversion of agro-industrial wastewaters into biodegradable plastic, poly β -hydroxybutyrate. *Bioresour Technol.* 2007;98:3579-84.
- [17] Ntaikou I, Kourmentza C, Koutrouli E, Stamatelatos K, Zampraka A, Kornaros M, et al. Exploitation of olive oil mill wastewater for combined biohydrogen and biopolymers production. *Bioresour Technol.* 2009;100:3724-30.
- [18] Pieja AJ, Rostkowski KH, Criddle CS. Distribution and selection of poly-3-hydroxybutyrate production capacity in methanotrophic proteobacteria. *Microb Ecol.* 2011;62:564-73.
- [19] Krueger CL, Radetski CM, Bendia AG, Oliveira IM, Castro-Silva MA, Rambo CR, et al. Bioconversion of cassava starch by-product into *Bacillus* and related bacteria polyhydroxyalkanoates. *E J Biotechnol.* 2012;15:8-.
- [20] Rahnema F, Vasheghani-Farahani E, Yazdian F, Shojaosadati SA. PHB production by *Methylocystis hirsuta* from natural gas in a bubble column and a vertical loop bioreactor. *Biochem Eng J.* 2012;65:51-6.
- [21] Rostkowski KH, Pfluger AR, Criddle CS. Stoichiometry and kinetics of the PHB-producing Type II methanotrophs *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b and *Methylocystis parvus* OBBP. *Bioresour Technol.* 2013;132:71-7.
- [22] Helm J, Wendlandt KD, Jechorek M, Stottmeister U. Potassium deficiency results in accumulation of ultra-high molecular weight poly- β -hydroxybutyrate in a methane-utilizing mixed culture. *J Appl Microbiol.* 2008;105:1054-61.
- [23] López JC, Quijano G, Pérez R, Muñoz R. Assessing the influence of CH₄ concentration during culture enrichment on the biodegradation kinetics and population structure. *J Environ Manag.* 2014;146:116-23.

- [24] Wendlandt KD, Jechorek M, Helm J, Stottmeister U. Producing poly-3-hydroxybutyrate with a high molecular mass from methane. *J Biotechnol.* 2001;86:127-33.
- [25] Zuniga C, Morales M, Le Borgne S, Revah S. Production of poly- β -hydroxybutyrate (PHB) by *Methylobacterium organophilum* isolated from a methanotrophic consortium in a two-phase partition bioreactor. *J Hazard Mat.* 2011;190:876-82.
- [26] Torres-Alvarado R, Ramírez-Vives F, Fernandez FJ, Sosa IB. Methanogenesis and methane oxidation in wetlands. Implications in the global carbon cycle *Hydrobiologica.* 2005;15:327-49.
- [27] Nikiema J, Brzezinski R, Heitz M. Elimination of methane generated from landfills by biofiltration: a review. *Rev Environ Sci Biotechnol.* 2007;6:261-84.
- [28] Dunfield PF, Yuryev A, Senin P, Smirnova AV, Stott MB, Hou S, et al. Methane oxidation by an extremely acidophilic bacterium of the phylum Verrucomicrobia. *Nature.* 2007;450:879-82.
- [29] Scheutz C, Kjeldsen P, Gentil E. Greenhouse gases, radiative forcing, global warming potential and waste management—an introduction. *Waste Managem Res.* 2009;27:716-23.
- [30] Lee E-H, Park H, Cho K-S. Characterization of methane, benzene and toluene-oxidizing consortia enriched from landfill and riparian wetland soils. *J Hazard Mat.* 2010;184:313-20.
- [31] Kabir KB, Halim SZ. Anthropogenic methane: emission sources and mitigation options. *Chem Eng Thoughts.* 2011;2:16-22.
- [32] Initiative GM. Global methane emissions and mitigation opportunities. Global Methane Initiative, Washington 2011. Report available online at https://www.globalmethane.org/documents/analysis_fs_en.pdf.
- [33] Hanson RS, Hanson TE. Methanotrophic bacteria. *Microbiol Rev.* 1996;60:439-71.
- [34] Smith TJ, Murrell JC. Methanotrophs. In: Flickenger MC, editor. *Encyclopedia of Industrial Biotechnology*: John Wiley and Sons; 2008. p. 1-13
- [35] Trotsenko YA, Murrell JC. Metabolic Aspects of Aerobic Obligate Methanotrophy. *Adv Appl Microbiol.* 2008;63:183-230.
- [36] Whittenbury R, Phillips K, Wilkinson J. Enrichment, isolation and some properties of methane-utilizing bacteria. *J Gen Microbiol.* 1970;61:205-18.

- [37] Asenjo JA, Suk JS. Microbial conversion of methane into poly- β -hydroxybutyrate (PHB): growth and intracellular product accumulation in a type II methanotroph. *J Ferment Technol.* 1986;64:271-8.
- [38] Zhang Y, Xin J, Chen L, Song H, Xia C. Biosynthesis of poly-3-hydroxybutyrate with a high molecular weight by methanotroph from methane and methanol. *J Nat Gas Chem.* 2008;17:103-9.
- [39] Helm J, Wendlandt KD, Rogge G, Kappelmeyer U. Characterizing a stable methane-utilizing mixed culture used in the synthesis of a high-quality biopolymer in an open system. *J Appl Microbiol.* 2006;101:387-95.
- [40] Bowman JP, Skerratt JH, Nichols PD, Sly LI. Phospholipid fatty acid and lipopolysaccharide fatty acid signature lipids in methane-utilizing bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol Lett.* 1991;85:15-21.
- [41] Bull ID, Parekh NR, Hall GH, Ineson P, Evershed RP. Detection and classification of atmospheric methane oxidizing bacteria in soil. *Nature.* 2000;405:175-8.
- [42] Bodelier PL, Gillisen M-JB, Hordijk K, Damsté JSS, Rijpstra WIC, Geenevasen JA, et al. A reanalysis of phospholipid fatty acids as ecological biomarkers for methanotrophic bacteria. *ISME.* 2009;3:606-17.
- [43] Semrau JD, DiSpirito AA, Yoon S. Methanotrophs and copper. *FEMS Microbiol Rev.* 2010;34:496-531.
- [44] Balasubramanian R, Smith SM, Rawat S, Yatsunyk LA, Stemmler TL, Rosenzweig AC. Oxidation of methane by a biological dicopper centre. *Nature.* 2010;465:115-9.
- [45] Glass JB, Orphan VJ. Trace metal requirements for microbial enzymes involved in the production and consumption of methane and nitrous oxide. *Front Microbiol.* 2012;3.
- [46] Austin RN, Kenney GE, Rosenzweig AC. Perspective: what is known, and not known, about the connections between alkane oxidation and metal uptake in alkanotrophs in the marine environment. *Metallomics : integrated biometal science.* 2014;6:1121-5.
- [47] Wendlandt KD, Stottmeister U, Helm J, Soltmann B, Jechorek M, Beck M. The potential of methane-oxidizing bacteria for applications in environmental biotechnology. *Eng Life Sci.* 2010;10:87-102.
- [48] Wendlandt K-D, Geyer W, Mirschel G, Hemidi F. Possibilities for controlling a PHB accumulation process using various analytical methods. *J Biotechnol.* 2005;117:119-29.

- [49] Han B, Chen Y, Abell G, Jiang H, Bodrossy L, Zhao J, et al. Diversity and activity of methanotrophs in alkaline soil from a Chinese coal mine. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol.* 2009;70:196-207.
- [50] Pfluger AR, Wu W-M, Pieja AJ, Wan J, Rostkowski KH, Criddle CS. Selection of Type I and Type II methanotrophic proteobacteria in a fluidized bed reactor under non-sterile conditions. *Bioresour Technol.* 2011;102:9919-26.
- [51] Pieja AJ, Sundstrom ER, Criddle CS. Cyclic, alternating methane and nitrogen limitation increases PHB production in a methanotrophic community. *Bioresour Technol.* 2012;107:385-92.
- [52] van der Ha D, Nachtergaele L, Kerckhof F-M, Rameiyanti D, Bossier P, Verstraete W, et al. Conversion of biogas to bioproducts by algae and methane oxidizing bacteria. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2012;46:13425-31.
- [53] Halet D, Boon N, Verstraete W. Community dynamics of methanotrophic bacteria during composting of organic matter. *J Biosci Bioeng.* 2006;101:297-302.
- [54] Lu W-J, Chi Z-F, Mou Z-S, Long Y-Y, Wang H-T, Zhu Y. Can a breathing biocover system enhance methane emission reduction from landfill? *J Hazard Mat.* 2011;191:228-33.
- [55] Pariatamby A, Cheah WY, Shrizal R, Thamlarson N, Lim BT, Barasarathi J. Enhancement of landfill methane oxidation using different types of organic wastes. *Environ Earth Sci.* 2014:1-8.
- [56] Scheutz C, Pedersen RB, Petersen PH, Jørgensen J, Ucendo I, Mønster JG, et al. Mitigation of methane emission from an old unlined landfill in Klintholm, Denmark using a passive biocover system. *Waste Manag.* 2014;34:1179-90.
- [57] Spokas KA, Bogner JE. Limits and dynamics of methane oxidation in landfill cover soils. *Waste Manag.* 2011;31:823-32.
- [58] Tanthachoon N, Chiemchaisri C, Chiemchaisri W, Tudsri S, Kumar S. Methane oxidation in compost-based landfill cover with vegetation during wet and dry conditions in the tropics. *J Air Waste Manag Ass.* 2008;58:603-12.
- [59] Association A-APH. Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater APHA. Washington DC; 1995.
- [60] Pieja AJ, Sundstrom ER, Criddle CS. Poly-3-hydroxybutyrate metabolism in the type II methanotroph *Methylocystis parvus* OBBP. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2011;77:6012-9.

- [61] von Alvensleben N, Stookey K, Magnusson M, Heimann K. Salinity tolerance of *Picochlorum atomus* and the use of salinity for contamination control by the freshwater cyanobacterium *Pseudanabaena limnetica*. *Plos One*. 2013;8.
- [62] David F, Sandra P, Wylie PL. Improving the analysis of fatty acid methyl esters using retention time locked methods and retention time databases. Agilent Technologies-Application Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA. 2002.
- [63] Baffi C, Dell'Abate MT, Nassisi A, Silva S, Benedetti A, Genevini PL, et al. Determination of biological stability in compost: a comparison of methodologies. *Soil Biol Biochem*. 2007;39:1284-93.
- [64] Mohanty SR, Bodelier PL, Conrad R. Effect of temperature on composition of the methanotrophic community in rice field and forest soil. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2007;62:24-31.
- [65] Walkiewicz A, Bulak P, Brzezińska M, Włodarczyk T, Polakowski C. Kinetics of methane oxidation in selected mineral soils. *Int Agrophys*. 2012;26:401-6.
- [66] Figueroa R. Methane oxidation in landfill top soils. In: Christensen TH, Cossu R, Stegmann R, editors. Sardinia Fourth International Landfill Symposium. St. Margherita di Pula, Cagliari, Italy: CISA; 1993. p. 701-13.
- [67] Borjesson G, Sundh I, Svensson B. Microbial oxidation of CH₄ at different temperatures in landfill cover soils. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2004;48:305-12.
- [68] Einola J-KM, Kettunen RH, Rintala JA. Responses of methane oxidation to temperature and water content in cover soil of a boreal landfill. *Soil Biol Biochem*. 2007;39:1156-64.
- [69] van der Ha D, Hoefman S, Boeckx P, Verstraete W, Boon N. Copper enhances the activity and salt resistance of mixed methane-oxidizing communities. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2010;87:2355-63.
- [70] Smith K, Ball T, Conen F, Dobbie K, Massheder J, Rey A. Exchange of greenhouse gases between soil and atmosphere: interactions of soil physical factors and biological processes. *Eur J Soil Sci*. 2003;54:779-91.
- [71] Benstead J, King GM. Response of methanotrophic activity in forest soil to methane availability. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 1997;23:333-40.

- [72] Kightley D, Nedwell DB, Cooper M. Capacity for methane oxidation in landfill cover soils measured in laboratory-scale soil microcosms. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1995;61:592-601.
- [73] Graham DW, Chaudhary JA, Hanson RS, Arnold RG. Factors affecting competition between type I and type II methanotrophs in two-organism, continuous-flow reactors. *Microb Ecol.* 1993;25:1-17.
- [74] Li H, Chi Z, Lu W, Wang H. Sensitivity of methanotrophic community structure, abundance, and gene expression to CH₄ and O₂ in simulated landfill biocover soil. *Environmental pollution (Barking, Essex : 1987).* 2014;184:347-53.
- [75] Yücesoy E, Lüdemann N, Lucas H, Tan J, Denecke M. Protein analysis as a measure of active biomass in activated sludge. *Water Sci Technol.* 2012;65:1483-9.
- [76] Yoon S, Carey JN, Semrau JD. Feasibility of atmospheric methane removal using methanotrophic biotrickling filters. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2009;83:949-56.
- [77] Choi D-W, Kunz RC, Boyd ES, Semrau JD, Antholine WE, Han J-I, et al. The membrane-associated methane monooxygenase (pMMO) and pMMO-NADH: quinone oxidoreductase complex from *Methylococcus capsulatus* Bath. *J Bacteriol.* 2003;185:5755-64.
- [78] Takeguchi M, Miyakawa K, Okura I. The role of copper in particulate methane monooxygenase from *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. *J Mol Catalysis A: Chem.* 1999;137:161-8.
- [79] Dong J. The role of copper in the growth of *Methylosinus trichosporium* IMV 3011 and poly-β-hydroxybutyrate biosynthesis. *Appl Mechan Mat.* 2013;268:221-4.
- [80] Lontoh S, DiSpirito AA, Crema CL, Whittaker MR, Hooper AB, Semrau JD. Differential inhibition in vivo of ammonia monooxygenase, soluble methane monooxygenase and membrane-associated methane monooxygenase by phenylacetylene. *Environ Microbiol.* 2000;2:485-94.
- [81] Park S, Hanna L, Taylor RT, Droege MW. Batch cultivation of *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. I: Production of soluble methane monooxygenase. *Biotechnol Bioeng.* 1991;38:423-33.
- [82] Koh S-C, Bowman JP, Sayler GS. Soluble methane monooxygenase production and trichloroethylene degradation by a type I methanotroph, *Methylomonas methanica* 68-1. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1993;59:960-7.

- [83] Begonja A, Hrsak D. Effect of growth conditions on the expression of soluble methane monooxygenase. *Food Technol Biotechnol*. 2001;39:29-36.
- [84] Crossman ZM, Abraham F, Evershed RP. Stable isotope pulse-chasing and compound specific stable carbon isotope analysis of phospholipid fatty acids to assess methane oxidizing bacterial populations in landfill cover soils. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2004;38:1359-67.
- [85] Dong J. The role of copper in the growth of *Methylosinus trichosporium* IMV 3011 and poly- β -hydroxybutyrate biosynthesis. *Appl Mech Materials*. 2013;268:221-4.
- [86] Jahng D, Kim CS, Hanson RS, Wood TK. Optimization of trichloroethylene degradation using soluble methane monooxygenase of *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b expressed in recombinant bacteria. *Biotechnol Bioeng*. 1996;51:349-59.
- [87] Takeguchi M, Okura I. Role of iron and copper in particulate methane monooxygenase of *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b. *Catalysis Surveys from Japan*. 2000;4:51-63.
- [88] Bodrossy L, Holmes EM, Holmes AJ, Kovács KL, Murrell JC. Analysis of 16S rRNA and methane monooxygenase gene sequences reveals a novel group of thermotolerant and thermophilic methanotrophs, *Methylocaldum* gen. nov. *Arch Microbiol*. 1997;168:493-503.
- [89] Murrell JC, Gilbert B, McDonald IR. Molecular biology and regulation of methane monooxygenase. *Arch Microbiol*. 2000;173:325-32.
- [90] Iguchi H, Yurimoto H, Sakai Y. *Methylovulum miyakonense* gen. nov., sp. nov., a type I methanotroph isolated from forest soil. *Int J System Evol Microbiol*. 2011;61:810-5.
- [91] Lidstrom ME. Aerobic methylotrophic prokaryotes. In: Stackebrandt E, editor. *The Prokaryotes*. New York: Springer-Verlag; 2006. p. 618-34.

Table 1. Comparison of PHB/PHA content accumulation in biomass with different reactors

Seed culture/consortia	CH ₄ Concentration and flow rate	Reactor volume	Conditions	PHB (%)	Reference
Methane-utilizing mixed culture (dominant species <i>Methylocystis</i> sp. GB 25 DSM 7674, >86% by biomass)	20% CH ₄ , 50–100 L.min ⁻¹	70 L (Pressure bioreactor)	Nitrogen depletion	51.3	[24]
			Phosphorus depletion	46.3	
			Magnesium depletion	28.3	
Methane-utilizing mixed culture (dominant species <i>Methylocystis</i> sp. GB 25 DSM 7674, >86% by biomass)	25% CH ₄ , 50–100 L.min ⁻¹	70 L (Pressure bioreactor)	Sulphur depletion	32.6	[22]
			Potassium depletion	33.6	
			Iron depletion	10.4	
Methane-utilizing mixed culture (dominant species <i>Methylocystis</i> sp. GB 25 DSM 7674)	107 Kg Natural gas.h ⁻¹	40 m ³ (deep-jet fermenter)	-	70%	[8]
<i>Methylocystis parvus</i> & <i>Methylosinus trichosporium</i> OB3b	9–10 mg.L ⁻¹ ,	15.2 L (Fluidised Bed Reactor)	N ₂ as the N-source, and low influent DO (2.0 mg/L)	6–10	[50]
Mixed consortium	2 and 20 gCH ₄ m ⁻³ 400 mL.min ⁻¹	500 mL (Jacketed stirred tank reactors)	Nitrogen	12.6 and 1	[23]
Mixed consortium (Type I and type II)	30% CH ₄ 250 mL.min ⁻¹	10 L (Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor)	Copper and Iron addition and Nitrogen deficiency	4.7 (LB) 2.1 (CB)	This study

Table 2. Performance of LB-CSTR and CB-CSTR with and without copper and iron

Parameters	Unit	LB-CSTR			CB-CSTR		
		Day 1	Day 5*	Day 10	Day 1	Day 5*	Day 10
MOCs	mg CH ₄ .g ⁻¹ DW _{biomass} .h ⁻¹	260.09±25	481.95±15	495.02±18	165.34±1515	279.64±32	480.27±20
Biomass protein	μg.mL ⁻¹	7.35±0.4	100.81±2.2	138.74±2.1	10.11±0.8	112.3±1.8	159.19±3.3
Biomass growth	OD ₆₀₀	0.036	0.285	0.316	0.04	0.27	0.41
ΣFAME	mg FAME.g ⁻¹ DW _{biomass}	-	78±5.3	30±2.2	-	65±3.3	50±3.1
ratio of C16:C18 _{FAME}	-	-	11.88	3.58	-	2.98	2.26
PHB/PHA content	mg.g ⁻¹ DW _{biomass}	-	37.03±2.3	47.88±3.3	-	25.28±1.4	21.84±3.3

Note: MOC - Methane Oxidation capacity, FAME- Fatty acid methyl esters, PHB/PHA - Polyhydroxybutyrate/Polyhydroxyalkanoate. *5 μM of copper and iron (at 1:1 ratio) was spiked on day-5 and FAME profile, PHB/PHA content was measured on Day 10.

Figure 2 MOCs of soil, mother culture under nutrient-replete and nutrient-deplete conditions for consortia cultured from landfill top cover soil and compost soil. *Note;* soil and mother cultures were enriched with 20:80 % CH₄:air gas mixture, while nutrient-deplete cultures received a gas mixture of 30:10:60 % CH₄:CO₂:air.

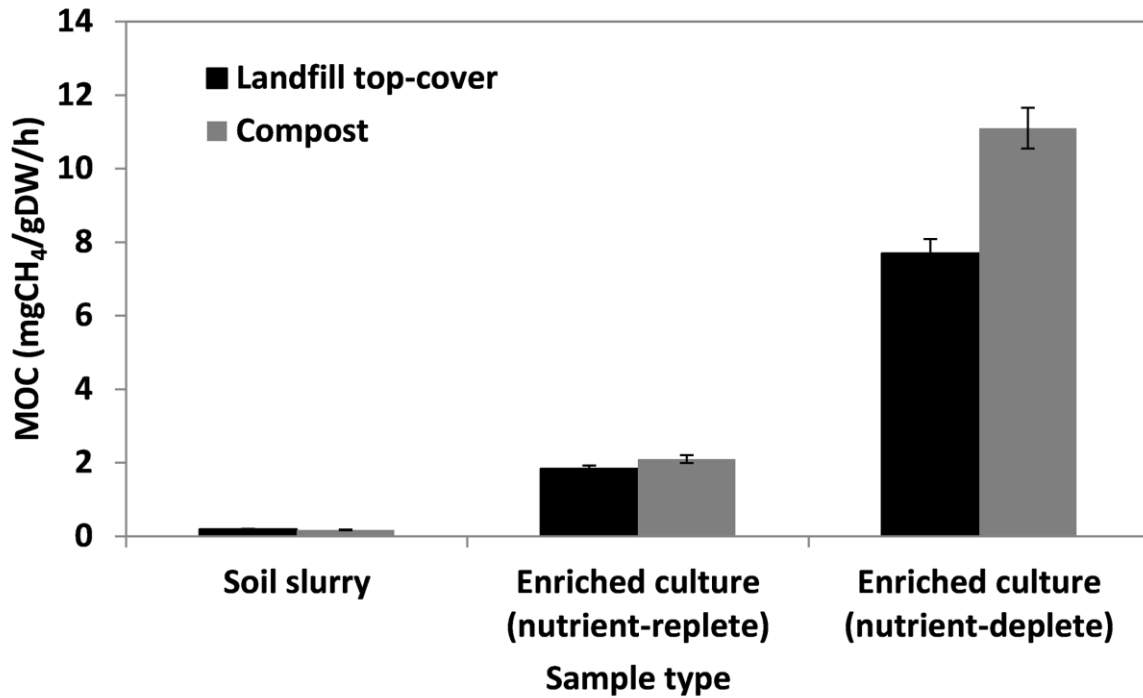


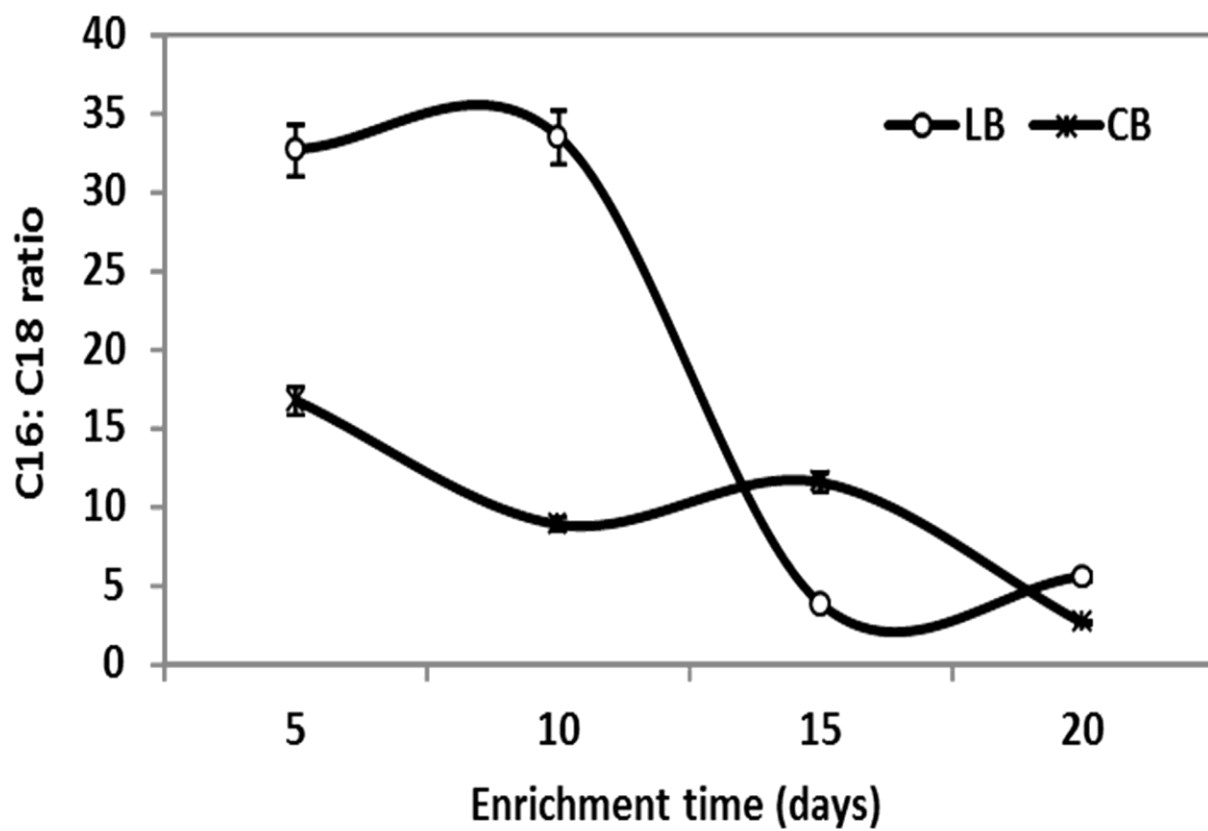
Figure 3 C16:C18 profiles during enrichment of LB and CB under nutrient-deplete conditions.

Figure 4 FAME profiles of biomass from LB- and CB-CSTRs (A) without copper and iron addition (day 5) and (B) with copper and iron spiking (day 10).

