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## Response of mixed methanotrophic consortia to different methane to oxygen ratios

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### ABSTRACT

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and oxygen (air) concentrations affect the CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation capacity (MOC) and mixed methanotrophic community structures in compost (fresh) and landfill (age old) top cover soils. A change in the mixed methanotrophic community structure in response has implications for landfill CH<sub>4</sub> bio-filter remediation and possible bio-product outcomes (i.e., fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) content and profiles and polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) contents). Therefore the study aimed to evaluate the effect of variable CH<sub>4</sub> to oxygen ratios (10–50% CH<sub>4</sub> in air) on mixed methanotrophic community structures enriched from landfill top cover (LB) and compost soils (CB) and to quantify flow on impacts on MOC, total FAME contents and profiles, and PHB accumulation. A stable consortium developed achieving average MOCs of 3.0 ± 0.12, 4.1 ± 0.26, 6.9 ± 0.7, 7.6 ± 1.3 and 9.2 ± 1.2 mg CH<sub>4</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> DW<sub>biomass</sub> h<sup>-1</sup> in LB and 2.9 ± 0.04, 5.05 ± 0.32, 6.7 ± 0.31, 7.9 ± 0.61 and 8.6 ± 0.48 mg CH<sub>4</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> DW<sub>biomass</sub> h<sup>-1</sup> in CB for a 20 day cultivation period at 10, 20, 30, 40 and 50% CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively. CB at 10% CH<sub>4</sub> had a maximal FAME content of 40.5 ± 0.8 mg FAME g<sup>-1</sup> DW<sub>biomass</sub>, while maximal PHB contents (25 mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW<sub>biomass</sub>) was observed at 40% CH<sub>4</sub> in LB. Despite variable CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratios, the mixed methanotrophic community structures in both LB and CB were relatively stable, dominated by *Methylosarcina* sp., and *Chryseobacterium*, suggesting that a resilient consortium had formed which can now be tested in bio-filter operations for CH<sub>4</sub> mitigations in landfills.

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### 1. Introduction

Contributing to ~20% of the worldwide greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is considered a potent GHG together with carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) (IPCC, 2007, 2013). The atmospheric concentration of CH<sub>4</sub> has increased considerably from a pre-industrial level of ~715 to ~1840 ppb in 2015 (Butler and Montzka, 2016; EEA, 2016; IPCC, 2013). Both natural and anthropogenic sources contribute to CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, while anthropogenic activities alone contribute to 50–65% of total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, causing a sharp rise in GHG emissions (GMI, 2010; Karthikeyan et al.,

2015a). Landfill is the third largest anthropogenic source of CH<sub>4</sub>, contributing ~600 million metric tons of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents (MMTCO<sub>2eq</sub>) as of 2010, which is projected to increase by 10% by 2020 (GMI, 2010). Biogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from landfills occur due to microbial anaerobic degradation of organic matter and varies at different time intervals with respect to landfill age (Scheutz et al., 2009). Landfill soil covers naturally act as sinks for CH<sub>4</sub> (Henneberger et al., 2012; Scheutz et al., 2009; Staley and Barlaz, 2009). In addition, various types of compost/mulch materials are being used as landfill cover soil for enhancing CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation (Humer and Lechner, 1999).

In addition to methane emission mitigations, the deposition of fossil fuel-derived non-biodegradable plastics into landfills also causes landfill management issues. Despite all recycling efforts for non-biodegradable plastics, approximately 20% (w/v) are deposited in landfills (Staley and Barlaz, 2009), posing a threat to

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adjacent environments, impeding environmentally sustainable landfill management practices. Therefore, reducing deposition of non-biodegradable plastics is of equal importance to developing GHG mitigation strategies. As a cradle-to-grave/cradle approach, the emanated CH<sub>4</sub> from landfill could potentially be re-routed for bio-plastic production using methanotrophs (Karthikeyan et al., 2015a; Rostkowski et al., 2012). Methanotrophs, a group of Gram-negative bacteria utilize landfill CH<sub>4</sub> as a carbon source and can store the CH<sub>4</sub>-carbon in form of polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB), a key ingredient for the production of biodegradable plastics (Hanson and Hanson, 1996; López et al., 2014; Pieja et al., 2011a). To date, two major groups of methanotrophs have been identified: type-I methanotrophs belonging to the gamma proteobacteria (includes sub types-Ia and -Ib, family Methylococcaceae; 14 genera), and type-II methanotrophs belonging to the alpha proteobacteria group (family Methylocystaceae; 4 genera) (Bowman, 2014; Chidambarampadmavathy et al., 2015b; Hanson and Hanson, 1996; Semrau, 2011). Compared to type-I methanotrophs, type-II are capable of fixing atmospheric nitrogen, utilize CO<sub>2</sub>, produce C18 as dominant fatty acids and are capable of storing carbon as PHB. Type-II methanotrophs are therefore beneficial for industrial bio-product development (Pieja et al., 2011a; Rostkowski et al., 2012; Strong et al., 2015; Wendlandt et al., 2010). Other than these, some methanotrophs are also grouped under Verrucomicrobia and NC10 phylum, with the latter reported to perform CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation coupled with denitrification process (Op den Camp et al., 2009; van Teeseling et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2011).

Studies on CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation capacity (MOC) and production of PHB have been previously carried out with pure cultures of methanotrophs, but research utilizing mixed microbial communities are rare (Helm et al., 2006; Karthikeyan et al., 2015b; López et al., 2014). Furthermore, complex interactions occur within the mixed microbial communities, whereby the co-habiting bacteria consume toxic and over-produced metabolites of methanotrophs such as methanol and formaldehyde, thereby potentially improving methanotrophic activity and PHB accumulation (Ho et al., 2014; Hršak and Begonja, 2000; Wendlandt et al., 2010). Provision of methanol and formaldehyde to heterotrophs could prove beneficial for methanotrophs in terms of supply with vitamins in exchange. Such a scenario is possible given the evidence that heterotrophs provide cobalamin to methanotrophs (Ho et al., 2014). To achieve these beneficial outcomes, sufficient supply of oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) is vital for supporting CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation and heterotrophic growth.

Theoretically, methanotrophs require 2 mol of O<sub>2</sub> to oxidize 1 mol of CH<sub>4</sub>. Generally type-I methanotrophs dominate in niches where CH<sub>4</sub> levels are low and O<sub>2</sub> levels are high, with the opposite being the case for type-II methanotrophs (López et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2015). Low O<sub>2</sub> concentrations favor type-II, as the nitrogenase complex responsible for N<sub>2</sub>-fixation is sensitive to O<sub>2</sub> (Whittenbury and Dalton, 1981). Another reason may be the formation of exopolysaccharides/extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) by type I methanotrophs, which, in mixed natural samples, may limit supply of O<sub>2</sub>, thereby favoring the growth of type-II (Whittenbury and Dalton, 1981). Therefore, it is critically important to consider CH<sub>4</sub> to air (hereafter CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>) ratios, as the responses of methanotrophs may vary, potentially affecting MOC in-turn, depending on the type enriched. Understanding CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratio-induced microbial community shifts is also important for developing/customizing bio-filters that work economically well for CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation in the varying CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratio fluxes, as experienced in landfills.

In this context, the present study aimed to evaluate the impact of variable CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratios during the enrichment of mixed methanotrophic consortia from landfill top cover (aged) and compost soil (fresh) and on MOC, FAME and PHB content. Specifically, we examined the community composition of methanotrophs and associated

heterotrophs using 16s rRNA gene sequencing, generating community structure and biochemical profile results that are directly applicable to continuous landfill bio-filter operations and for evaluating bio-product development potential.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Inoculum-enrichment conditions

Inoculum-enrichment was carried out using a top cover soil taken from a 7 year-old landfill (aged) and a 6-week-old compost soil (fresh land cover soil) collected from McCahills landscaping supplies, Townsville, Australia (latitude 19°15'0"S/longitude 146°48'0"E). Both soil types shared similar characteristics, predominantly containing a mixture of bio-solids and woodchips. The soils were equally rich in organic content (20% and 25.8% TOC), but compost soil had high concentrations of total nitrogen (10,600 ± 280 mg kg<sub>dry</sub><sup>-1</sup> weight) and copper (166 ± 0.8 mg kg<sub>dry</sub><sup>-1</sup> weight). Microbial communities of the collected soils were continuously enriched in nitrate mineral salts medium (NMS) for 20 days at 20% (v/v) CH<sub>4</sub> concentration in the reactor headspace. The inoculi obtained were transferred into fresh NMS medium every 20 days for four sequential transfers to obtain obligate mixed methanotrophic consortia. Mother cultures obtained after enrichment were labeled as LB and CB to designate the soil type from which they were established; LB: landfill top cover soil-derived biomass and CB: compost soil-derived biomass. The physiochemical characteristics of seed soil and enrichment conditions of the consortia are detailed in (Chidambarampadmavathy et al., 2015a; Karthikeyan et al., 2016).

### 2.2. Influence of CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratio

To study the effect of CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratios, 20 × 500 ml mini-bench top reactors (Schott-Duran® gas-wash bottle, VWR International, QLD, Australia) were used for establishing microbial cultures. Of the 20 reactors, 15 reactors were used to set up triplicate cultures to study the effects of five CH<sub>4</sub> to air ratio (10:90, 20:80, 30:70, 40:60 and 50:50%) in a working volume of 200 ml NMS, inoculated with 5 mL of each mother culture, yielding a biomass concentration of 0.090 ± 0.015 and 0.110 ± 0.009 (OD<sub>600</sub>) with a protein content of 37.93 ± 0.06 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> and 40.69 ± 0.08 (Lowry method, TP0300, Sigma-Aldrich, NSW, Australia) for LB and CB, respectively. The other five reactors served as CH<sub>4</sub> dissolution controls. The bench top reactors head space (~300 mL) was purged with 10:90, 20:80, 30:70, 40:60 and 50:50% of CH<sub>4</sub> to O<sub>2</sub> (i.e., 0.20–1.6 CH<sub>4</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratios) every 24 h for 20 days.

Biomass growth (OD<sub>600</sub>) was monitored spectrophotometrically (Enspire-2300, PerkinElmer, USA) every two days and biomass protein was measured every five days using the Lowry method (TP0300, Sigma-Aldrich, Castle Hill, NSW, Australia). Dry-weight (DW) was measured every 5th (5, 10, 15 and 20) day by harvesting 10 mL of culture sample and sample loss was compensated for by adding fresh NMS medium. Head space CH<sub>4</sub> samples were collected in vacuumed screw cap GC vials using an air tight syringe (Hamilton; 100 µL, Model 1710 RN, Grace Davison Discovery Science, Vic., Australia) and analysed by gas-chromatography equipped with thermal conductivity and flame ionization detectors (GC-TCD-FID; Varian-CP 3800, Vic., Australia). Methane removal efficiencies were calculated based on  $[\text{CH}_{4\text{in}} - \text{CH}_{4\text{out}}/\text{CH}_{4\text{in}}] * 100$ . MOC, fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) and PHB contents of the biomass was measured at 5, 10, 15 and 20 day as detailed in Section 2.4. All results are expressed in mg g<sup>-1</sup>DW<sub>biomass</sub>.

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