

The effect of temperature during culture enrichment on methanotrophic polyhydroxyalkanoate production

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11 **Abstract**

12 Climate change and plastic pollution are likely the most relevant environmental problems
13 of the 21st Century. Thus, one of the most promising solutions to remedy both
14 environmental problems simultaneously is the bioconversion of greenhouse gases, such as
15 methane (CH₄), into bioplastics (PHAs). However, the optimization of this bioconversion
16 platform is still required to turn CH₄ biotransformation into a cost-effective and cost-
17 competitive process. In this context, the research presented here aimed at elucidating the
18 best temperature culture conditions to enhance both PHA accumulation and methane
19 degradation. Six different enrichments were carried out at 25, 30 and 37°C using different
20 inocula and methane as the only energy and carbon source. CH₄ biodegradation rates,
21 specific growth rates, PHA accumulations and the community structure were characterized.
22 Higher temperatures (30 and 37°C) increased the PHAs accumulation up to 30% regardless
23 of the inoculum. Moreover, Methylocystis became the dominant genus (~ 30% of the total
24 population) regardless of the temperature and inoculum used. This research demonstrated
25 for the first time the fundamental role of temperature in increasing both the accumulation of
26 PHAs and methane abatement during the enrichment of PHA cell-factories from methane,
27 thus enhancing the cost-effectiveness of the process.

28 **Keywords:**

29 Bioplastics, Greenhouse Gas Abatement, Methanotrophs, PHA, methane.

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Nowadays, the two most important environmental issues that our society is facing are
33 Climate Change and Plastic Pollution. In this sense, novel industrial strategies are
34 necessary to abate toxic greenhouse gasses (GHG) and to substitute current used plastic
35 materials without compromising present economic and industrial development.

36 Methane (CH₄) is currently the second most important GHG (Desai and Harvey, 2010) and
37 its atmospheric concentration continues to rise at a yearly rate of 0.2 to 1% mainly due to
38 anthropogenic activities (agriculture, livestock, waste management and energy production)
39 which has caused growing interest, from a political and a scientific point of view, in
40 greenhouse gas abatement ((EPA), 2017). On the other hand, the massive usage of plastic
41 products and poor management of waste disposal has resulted in microplastic
42 contamination of bodies of water, which injures wildlife through entanglement or ingestion
43 of plastics and through the toxic and carcinogenic effect of some polymers. Additionally, it
44 has been demonstrated that plastics can make their way up the food chain, causing similar
45 health threats to humans. This situation has encouraged an intensive research to find and
46 produce biodegradable and non-toxic plastics or biopolymers, such as
47 polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) which could definitively substitute and end the use of
48 pollutant plastics (Löhr et al., 2017; Pieja et al., 2017; Sigler, 2014).

49 The PHAs are synthesized under nutrient-limited and carbon-excess conditions by different
50 microorganisms (Pieja et al., 2017). The most common feedstock used for production of
51 PHAs are glucose and fructose, but those carbon sources have a high price, due the market
52 price of PHAs is higher (4-20 € KgPHA⁻¹) (Koller et al., 2017). PHAs are currently
53 industrially produced by nearly thirty corporations (Cantera et al., 2019). An innovative
54 feasible alternative to enhance the economic sustainability of the degradation and

55 valorization of CH₄ combined to the concomitant replacement of common plastics is the co-
56 production of polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) combined with the treatment of methane
57 emissions (Cal et al., 2016; Pieja et al., 2017; Strong et al., 2016). Indeed, several studies
58 have demonstrated that methanotrophs are a potential source of bioplastics, achieving PHA
59 contents ranging from 20 to 60 % (wt) using methane as feedstock (Cantera et al., 2019;
60 Pieja et al., 2017). Methanotrophs are divided into two different groups according to the
61 pathway for carbon assimilation a) type I (γ -proteobacteria) use the ribulose
62 monophosphate (RuMP) pathway or b) type II (α -proteobacteria) use of the serine
63 pathway. Most of the studies reporting PHAs production using methanotrophic bacteria
64 have been conducted with α -proteobacterial methanotrophs, since PHAs synthesis supposed
65 to be linked with the serine cycle. Thus, acetyl-CoA molecules produced in the serine cycle
66 are transformed into PHAs via reactions catalyzed by the enzymes β -ketothiolase
67 (phaA), acetoacetyl-CoA reductase (phaB), and PHAs synthase (phaC) (Cantera et al.,
68 2019). Overall, type II methanotrophic bacteria such as *Methylocystis*, *Methylosinus* and
69 *Methylocella* have been considered the main methanotrophic PHA producing genera under
70 nutrient-limited conditions (i.e N-, P- or Mg-limitation) (García-Pérez et al., 2018; Helm et
71 al., 2008; Myung et al., 2017; Rostkowski et al., 2013; Sundstrom and Criddle, 2015;
72 Wendlandt et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2017).

73 However, the cost-effective implementation of current biotechnologies for the
74 biotransformation of CH₄ into bioplastics is still limited by the limited understanding of
75 those factors that determine the selective enrichment of high-performance PHA producing
76 methanotrophs. In this sense, different operational parameters such as pH, CH₄/O₂ ratio, or
77 the concentration of sodium, copper or citrate have been reported as key strategies for the

78 enrichment of type II methanotrophs with the ability to synthesize PHA (Pieja et al., 2011;
79 Scheutz et al., 2009; Semrau et al., 2013). However, there is still a need for studies
80 assessing the effect of environmental factors during culture enrichment of PHA producing
81 methanotrophs. The use of an optimal temperature and the inoculum source have been
82 reported as key strategies for the enrichment of microorganisms with the ability to
83 synthesize PHAs using waste water and sugars as carbon sources (De Grazia et al., 2017).
84 Thus, those inocula that favor the enrichment of type II methanotrophs, as well as the set
85 temperature during enrichment could enhance this innovative biotechnology based on the
86 transformation of methane into bioplastics. In this sense, *Sphagnum* mosses, which occur
87 mainly in peat bogs, conifer forests and moist tundra areas, are described as the bryophytes
88 with the highest richness of type II methanotrophs (Kip et al., 2011; Stępniewska and
89 Kuźniar, 2014). Indeed, the extremophile environments that *Sphagnum* mosses inhabit,
90 combined with the inherent presence of type II methanotrophs in their outer cortex,
91 suggests their potential as a novel source of effective PHA-accumulating microorganisms
92 (Kadouri et al., 2003; Ruiz et al., 2001; Zhao et al., 2007). Similarly, the stress caused on
93 the metabolism of type II methanotrophs by an exposure to high temperatures might
94 mediate an increase in PHA synthesis.

95 The study presented here aimed at systematically elucidating the influence of temperature
96 (25°C, 30°C, 37°C and 45°C) during culture enrichment on the PHA synthesizing capacity,
97 kinetics and stoichiometric characteristics, and population structure of microbial
98 communities enriched using *Sphagnum* peat moss and a mixture of *Sphagnum* and
99 activated sludge as inoculum.

100 **2. Materials and Methods**

101 *2.1. Mineral salt medium and inoculum*

102 The MSM (a modified NMS medium Whittenbury et al., (1970)) was composed of (g L^{-1}):
103 2.25 NaNO_3 , 0.1 $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.02 $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.68 KH_2PO_4 , 6.14 $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$,
104 1.3×10^{-3} $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 3.5×10^{-3} $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 1.5×10^{-3} $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.04×10^{-3}
105 $\text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.04×10^{-3} $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.32×10^{-3} CoCl_2 , and 0.2×10^{-3} H_3BO_3 .
106 Moreover, vitamins (biotin, nicotinamid, p.aminobenzoic acid and panthotenic acid) were
107 added to stimulate those methanotrophs that have problems to grow. All chemicals needed
108 for MSM preparation were purchased from PANREAC (Barcelona, Spain), while CH_4 (\geq
109 99.5%) and O_2 (\geq 99.0%) were obtained from Abelló Linde S.A. (Barcelona, Spain). Poly
110 [(R)-3-hydroxybutyric acid-co-(R)-3-hydroxyvaleric acid] (molar ratio 88/12, \geq 99.99%)
111 was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich® (St. Louis, MO, USA).

112 Fresh activated sludge from a denitrification-nitrification wastewater treatment plant
113 (Valladolid, Spain) (López et al., 2018b) and *Sphagnum* peat moss from *Plantas*
114 *Carnívoras*, (Madrid, Spain) were used as inocula for the enrichment of microorganisms
115 able to degrade CH_4 and accumulate PHA. The *Sphagnum* peat moss was diluted 10 times
116 in MSM prior inoculation.

117

118 2.2. Culture enrichment at different temperatures

119 A preliminary enrichment was performed batch-wise for 19 days at 25°C in 1250 mL gas-
120 tight bottles initially containing 190 mL of MSM and 20 ml of diluted *Sphagnum* inoculum
121 (from now on referred as S) or 190 mL of MSM and 20 ml of diluted *Sphagnum* + activated
122 sludge (50%/50%) (from now on referred as M). The initial mass of inoculum in each pre-
123 enrichment was 50g/L. The bottles were closed with butyl septa and plastic caps, and the
124 headspace was flushed with pure O_2 for 15 min in order to eliminate the previous air
125 atmosphere. CH_4 was then supplied at an initial headspace concentration of $195 \pm 7 \text{ g m}^{-3}$

126 and the bottles were incubated in an orbital shaker MaxQ 4000 from Thermo Scientific, at
127 200 rpm. Aliquots of 10 ml of the final enrichments S and M at 25°C were transferred to
128 1250 mL gas-tight bottles prepared in duplicate as above described. Five enrichment cycles
129 at 25, 30, 37 and 45°C (each cycle involving a total CH₄ consumption and a complete
130 headspace renewal) were carried out under orbital shaking at 200 rpm in duplicate. The
131 temperature range of these experiments was chosen according to the optimum growth
132 temperature of methanotrophic bacteria that are in general mesophile (Hanson and Hanson,
133 1996). No replacement of the MSM was conducted along the cycles, which entailed that the
134 fifth cycle occurred under nitrogen limiting conditions. This procedure was designed to
135 carry out an enrichment process under high biomass concentrations and low CH₄ aqueous
136 concentrations (30 times lower than in the headspace according to the Henry's law constant
137 for CH₄ of 30 at 25°C (Sander, 2014)) in order to favor the growth of methanotrophs with
138 low apparent K_m values. In addition, a second enrichment in fresh MSM inoculated with 20
139 ml of the final cultivation broth resulting from the 5th-cycle enrichment was conducted in
140 duplicate at the different temperatures tested. The concentrations of CH₄, O₂ and CO₂ in the
141 headspace and of TSS in the cultivation broth were periodically monitored in all
142 enrichment experiments.

143

144 *2.3. Influence of the temperature on CH₄ biodegradation kinetics*

145 The kinetics study was performed in duplicate, batch-wise in gas-tight bottles (1250 mL)
146 initially containing 200 mL of MSM and 7.3 mg of fresh biomass (obtained in the late
147 exponential growth phase from a further culture inoculated with the final culture resulting
148 from the second enrichments conducted in section 2.2). The serum bottles were
149 hermetically closed, and the headspace was saturated with oxygen by flushing pure O₂ for

150 15 min. CH₄ was added to the headspace with gas tight syringes up to a final concentration
151 of $194 \pm 7 \text{ g m}^{-3}$. The serum bottles were then incubated in an orbital shaker at 25°C, 30°C
152 or 37°C and 200 rpm until methane degradation. CH₄, O₂ and CO₂ concentrations were
153 periodically determined using a GC-TCD. In the case of the cell biomass it was measured
154 as TSS drawing 3 ml from the cultivation broth. The specific growth rate (μ) was calculated
155 from the slope of the logarithm of the biomass concentration vs. time. The specific CH₄
156 biodegradation rates were estimated from the ratio of the specific growth rates and the
157 observed biomass yields in each experiment. The concentration of total nitrogen (TN) in the
158 cultivation broth was also recorded. Neither significant CH₄ biodegradation nor biomass
159 growth was recorded at 45°C.

160

161 *2.4. Influence of the temperature on PHAs accumulation under N-limiting conditions*

162 The study was performed in duplicate batch-wise in 1250 mL gas-tight bottles initially
163 containing 200 mL of N-free MSM and fresh biomass from the kinetics test (previously
164 centrifuged and resuspended in N-free MSM). The bottles were closed with butyl septa and
165 plastic caps, flushed with O₂ for 15 min and CH₄ was then supplied at an initial headspace
166 concentration of $177 \pm 7 \text{ g m}^{-3}$. The bottles were incubated in an orbital shaker) at 25°C,
167 30°C or 37°C and 200 rpm until complete CH₄ depletion. In addition, fresh biomass
168 enriched at 25 °C was cultivated under nitrogen starvation conditions at 25, 30 and 37°C,
169 respectively, to elucidate the role of temperature during the accumulation phase. In this test
170 series, the headspace concentrations of CH₄, O₂ and CO₂, biomass concentration (measured
171 as TSS) in the cultivation broth and the PHB content of the biomass were periodically
172 monitored.

173

174 *2.5. Analytical procedures*

175 CH₄, O₂ and CO₂ gas concentrations were determined using a Bruker 430 GC-TCD (Palo
176 Alto, USA) endowed with a CP-Molsieve 5A column (15 m × 0.53 μm × 15 μm) and a CP-
177 PoraBOND Q column (25 m × 0.53 μm × 10 μm). The oven, injector and detector
178 temperatures were 45 °C, 150 °C and 200 °C, respectively. Helium was the gas carrier at a
179 flow rate of 13.7 mL min⁻¹. Cell growth was measured as Total Suspended Solids (TSS)
180 according to Standards Methods (American Public Health Association (APHA) et al.,
181 2005). TN concentration was determined following sample filtration (0.45 μm) in a TOC-
182 VCSH attached to a TNM-1 module (Shimadzu, Japan). The bacterial PHB content was
183 measured using a GC-MS (GC System 7820A MSD 5977E, Agilent Technologies, Santa
184 Clara, USA) equipped with a DB-wax column (30 m × 250 μm × 0.25 μm) according to
185 (Frutos et al., 2017).

186

187 *2.6-DNA extraction, Illumina library preparation and 16S rRNA gene sequencing*

188 Amplicon sequencing was developed targeting the 16S V3 and V4 regions (464bp,
189 *Escherichia coli* based coordinates) with the bacterial primers S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-17 and
190 S-D-Bact-0785-a- A-21, forward and reverse, respectively according to (Klindworth et al.,
191 2013). *Universal primers were used instead of specific primers for methanotrophic bacteria*
192 *with the aim of having a broad view of the bacterial population that could be implied in*
193 *PHA production.* Illumina adapter overhang nucleotide sequences were added to the gene-
194 specific sequences according to (López et al., 2018b). Library construction was carried out
195 using the Nextera XT DNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Libraries
196 were then normalized and pooled prior to sequencing. Non-indexed PhiX library (Illumina,

197 San Diego, CA) was used as performance control. Samples containing indexed amplicons
198 were loaded onto the MiSeq reagent cartridge for automated cluster generation paired-end
199 sequencing with a 2x300pb paired-end run (MiSeq Reagent kit v3 (MS-102-3001))
200 according to manufacturer's instructions (Illumina). The [amplicon sequencing analysis](#) was
201 carried by the Foundation for the Promotion of Health and Biomedical Research of
202 Valencia Region (FISABIO, Spain).

203

204 *2.7-16S rDNA-based taxonomic analysis*

205 Only reads with quality value scores ≥ 20 in more than 99% of the sequence after
206 demultiplexing and without ambiguous base calls were further analyzed. Quality analyses,
207 paired-end reads junction and chimera search were carried out using the prinseq-lite
208 program (Schmieder and Edwards, 2011), the FLASH program (Magoc and Salzberg,
209 2011) and the [USEARCH program](#) (Edgar, 2010). Taxonomic assignments were then
210 conducted using the RDP- Classifier from the Ribosomal Database Project (Cole et al.,
211 2009; Wang et al., 2007). Simpson and Shannon [indices](#) were determined using the Vegan
212 library version 2.3e1 (Oksanen et al., 2015). The Krona tool was used to represent relative
213 abundances and confidences within the complex hierarchies of metagenomics
214 classifications (Ondov et al., 2011). Nucleotide sequence dataset obtained in this study has
215 been submitted to NCBI Sequence Read Archive with the bioproject accession
216 PRJNA521405 (<https://trace.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/study/?acc=PRJNA521405&go=go>).

217

218 2.8-Statistical Analyses

219 All analyses were performed using biomass obtained from two biological replicas for each
220 condition. The specific growth rates, biomass yields, specific CH₄ biodegradation rates,
221 PHAs contents and PHAs produced per unit of CH₄ consumed, were compared pairwise
222 using a single cued t-test assuming equal variance. The differences were considered
223 statistically significant for p-values below 0.05. The symbols “*”, “**” and “***” were
224 used to indicate values below 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively, in the figures. In the
225 particular cases where two conditions were not significantly different from each other, their
226 values were grouped and a t-test was performed compared to a third condition. Vegan
227 (Oksanen et al., 2015) and stats packages in R (Sasaki et al., 2005) were used for the
228 statistical analyses of the metagenomics data.

229

230 3. Theoretical Framework

231 3.1. Stoichiometry of PHA production

232 PHA production using methane as the sole carbon and energy source requires a biomass
233 formation step under nitrogen excess conditions followed by a PHA accumulation step
234 under nitrogen limiting conditions. This two-stage process can be implemented in two
235 separate units (Figure S1). The CH₄ and nitrogen required to produce a unit of PHA
236 (disregarding CH₄ maintenance consumption, which is small compared to its consumption
237 associated biomass and PHA formation) will depend on the biomass yield on CH₄ (Y_{X/CH_4}),
238 the potential PHA content accumulated per unit of biomass ($F_{PHA}=m_{PHA}/X$; X being the
239 initial biomass without PHA accumulation), the PHA yield on CH₄ (Y_{PHA/CH_4}) and the
240 fraction of nitrogen contained in the biomass before PHA accumulation (F_N). Thus, the
241 production of one unit of PHA requires the previous formation of an amount of biomass X

242 equal to $1/F_{PHA}$, which itself requires a CH_4 supply equal to $X/Y_{X/CH_4}$ in the first unit (under
 243 nitrogen excess). On the other hand, the amount of CH_4 to be supplied to the second unit
 244 (under nitrogen limiting conditions) could be estimated as $1/Y_{PHA/CH_4}$. Therefore, the total
 245 methane supplies necessary to obtain a mass unit of PHA (m_{CH_4}) can be calculated as
 246 $1/(F_{PHA}Y_{X/CH_4}) + 1/Y_{PHA/CH_4}$. Likewise, the nitrogen required per unit of PHA m_N is equal to
 247 $F_N/(F_{PHA})$.

248 3.2. Biodegradation kinetics and gas-liquid CH_4 transfer

249 Both the biomass formation and PHA accumulation units require the transfer of CH_4 (and
 250 oxygen) from the gas emission to the methanotrophic cultivation broth. Under steady state
 251 operation, the rate of CH_4 and O_2 mass transfer per unit of reactor volume will be equal to
 252 the volumetric rate of microbial consumption of these substrates. The rate of CH_4 mass
 253 transport per volume of reactor (R_{CH_4}) can be described by the following equation (Bordel
 254 et al., 2008) (Eq. [1]):

$$255 R_{CH_4} = \frac{Q_g}{V} \beta_{CH_4} (C_{g_{in}} - H_{CH_4} C_L) \quad [1]$$

256 Where $C_{g_{in}}$ and H_{CH_4} stand for the inlet concentration and Henry's law constant of CH_4 , V
 257 the bioreactor volume, Q_g the gas flow rate and C_L the CH_4 aqueous concentration in the
 258 cultivation broth. The parameter β_{CH_4} ranges between 0 and 1, and depends mainly on the
 259 gas-liquid interface area in the reactor as well as the transport properties of the system
 260 (Bordel et al., 2008) (Eq. [2]).

$$261 \beta_{CH_4} = 1 - \exp\left(\frac{-k_L a V}{H_{CH_4} Q_g}\right) \quad [2]$$

262 Where $k_L a$ represents the volumetric mass transfer coefficient of CH_4 in the bioreactor. The
 263 value of the parameter β_{CH_4} is equal to the maximum fraction of CH_4 transferrable from the
 264 gas emission to the cultivation broth within the reactor. This parameter is independent from

265 the biological parameters of the microbial community present in the cultivation broth.
266 Therefore, it is desirable to operate with β_{CH_4} values close to 1. However, low β_{CH_4} values
267 are typically recorded for gas substrates with a low aqueous solubility such as CH₄ (e.g the
268 dimensionless Henry constant H_{CH_4} is equal to 33.5 at 30 °C (Duan et al., 1992)), which
269 would ultimately limit the performance of PHA production based on CH₄. In this context,
270 several high mass transfer performance bioreactors such as two-phase partitioning, Taylor
271 flow or internal gas recycling bioreactors have been engineered to overcome these
272 limitations (Bordel et al., 2010; García-Pérez et al., 2018; Hernández et al., 2011).
273 However, the kinetic parameters of the methanotrophic community influence the CH₄ mass
274 transport rate since microbial kinetics ultimately determine the steady state liquid
275 concentration (C_L). The specific biomass growth rate of methanotrophs (μ) can be
276 accurately described using the Monod's equation (Eq. [3]):

$$277 \quad \mu = \mu_{max} \frac{C_L}{C_L + K} \quad [3]$$

278 Where μ_{max} stands for the maximum specific growth rate and K the Monod half-saturation
279 constant. The specific biomass growth rate in the biomass formation unit under steady state
280 is equal to the dilution rate D (= volumetric liquid flow rate supplied to the reactor divided
281 by the reactor volume). Hence, the CH₄ aqueous concentration, C_L , can be determined as a
282 function of the dilution rate (Eq. [4]).

$$283 \quad C_L = \frac{DK}{\mu^{max} - D} \quad [4]$$

284 The Monod constant K is equal to the concentration at which the cell growth rate is equal to
285 half its maximum value (μ_{max}). The value of K in methanotrophic cultures typically ranges
286 between 2 and 12 μ M. On the other hand, the maximum specific growth rate sets a
287 threshold to the dilution rate of the bioreactor. Thus, the dilution rate should be at least an

288 order of magnitude lower than this critical dilution rate in order to cope with increases in
289 the necessary liquid flow to be processed and to avoid biomass wash-out. Based on
290 equation [1], the fraction (F_{CH_4}) of CH₄ in the gas emission transferred to the cultivation
291 broth can be estimated as follows (Eq. [5]):

$$292 \quad F_{CH_4} = \beta_{CH_4} \frac{C_{gin} - H_{CH_4} C_L}{C_{gin}} \quad [5]$$

293 In this context, while the parameter β_{CH_4} depends only on the gas-liquid mass transfer
294 capacity of the bioreactor, C_L is governed by the liquid dilution rate and the kinetics
295 parameters of the microbial community. Therefore, the fraction F_{CH_4} can be regarded as the
296 product of a transport limited term and a biologically limited fraction. This biologically
297 limited term is close to 1 for the typical kinetics and operating parameters prevailing in CH₄
298 abatement bioreactors, which entails that the impact of the maximum specific biomass
299 growth rate on the overall process performance is small.

300

301 **4. Results**

302 *4.1. Influence of the enrichment temperature on the specific growth rates*

303 A decrease in the specific growth rate of the microbial communities was observed when
304 increasing the selected temperature in the enrichments derived from *Sphagnum* alone at a
305 significant level of $p \leq 0.05$ (Figure 1). Thus, average specific growth rates of 0.05 ± 0.001
306 h^{-1} , $0.04 \pm 0.004 \text{ h}^{-1}$ and $0.02 \pm 0.004 \text{ h}^{-1}$ were observed at 25, 30 and 37°C, respectively, in S
307 enrichments. However, the specific growth rates of the microbial communities enriched
308 from the mixed inoculum (M) increased from $0.02 \pm 0.002 \text{ h}^{-1}$ at 25°C to $0.033 \pm 0.0009 \text{ h}^{-1}$ at
309 37°C. Interestingly, the specific growth rates of the two M biological replicates enriched at

310 30°C differed strongly (0.022 and 0.042 h⁻¹), resulting in no statistical differences with the
311 M enrichments at 25 and 37°C.

312 < Figure 1 >

313 4.2. Influence of the enrichment temperature on the specific CH₄ degradation rate

314 No significant difference was observed between the specific CH₄ biodegradation rates of
315 the biomass enriched from *Sphagnum* at 25 and 30 °C (65.3 ±5.1, 79.5 ±7.9 mg-CH₄ h⁻¹ g-
316 biomass⁻¹, respectively; error intervals are standard errors with 2 samples) (Figure 2).
317 However, a significantly lower specific CH₄ biodegradation rate was observed at 37°C
318 (49.7 ±3.7 mg-CH₄ h⁻¹ g-biomass⁻¹), which correlated with the lower μ recorded at this
319 temperature. On the other hand, the biomass enriched from the mixed inoculum (M)
320 exhibited lower specific CH₄ biodegradation rates at 25 and 30°C (48.2 ±2.5 and 51.7 ±1.9
321 mg-CH₄ h⁻¹ g-biomass⁻¹, respectively) than at 37°C (78.9 ±5.6 mg CH₄ h⁻¹ g biomass⁻¹). The
322 differences obtained between the specific CH₄ biodegradation rates of S and M confirmed
323 that the experiments were conducted under non-mass transfer limiting conditions.

324 <Figure 2>

325

326 4.3. Influence of the enrichment temperature on PHAs content

327 The content of biopolymers accumulated by the microorganisms of both inocula increased
328 with temperature. Polyhydroxybutyrate was the dominant PHA in all the samples analysed.
329 The biomass enriched at 30 and 37°C was able to accumulate over 30% of PHA **inside the**
330 **cells** (35.1 ± 0.4% and 33.1± 1.3% in S at 30°C and 37°C, respectively, and 28.4 ± 1.1%
331 and 34.1± 1.3% in M at 30°C and 37°C, respectively) under nitrogen limiting conditions,
332 compared to the PHA contents of 15.7 ± 2.4% and 21.2± 2.0% in S and M biomass,

333 respectively, at 25°C (Figure 3). The mass of PHA per unit of CH₄ consumed was also
334 obtained from experiments conducted under N limiting conditions. Interestingly, no
335 significant difference was observed among the 6 microbial communities enriched, with
336 average values of 0.22 ± 0.05 g-PHA (g-CH₄)⁻¹. In this context, this value has been
337 previously reported to be 0.57 g-PHA (g-CH₄)⁻¹ for pure cultures of *Methylocystis hirsuta* ,
338 which is a high-performance PHA accumulating methanotrophic strain (López et al.,
339 2018a). Similarly, Chidambarampadmavathy et al. (2017) , using a consortium enriched
340 from landfill soil and dominated by *Methylosarcina sp.*, obtained maximal PHB contents of
341 25 mg g biomass⁻¹ at 40% of CH₄ in air. Zhang et al., 2018 reported accumulations of
342 ~45% of PHB in a mixed culture enriched from sewage sludge under N limitation and with
343 Cu, whereas the absence of Cu diminished PHB synthesis (12%–18%).”

344

345

<Figure 3>

346 4.4 Influence of the enrichment temperature on biomass yield

347 The biomass enriched from *Sphagnum* at 25°C showed a yield on CH₄ almost twice as high
348 as the biomass enriched from this inoculum source at the two other temperatures (Figure 4).
349 This higher yield was also correlated to the higher specific growth rate observed at this
350 temperature. As discussed later, this higher yield might be somehow related to the higher
351 population diversity observed in this sample. The biomass derived from the mixed
352 inoculum at 25°C did not show yields higher than that enriched at 30 and 37°C. In contrast,
353 the higher yield on CH₄ was recorded in the biomass enriched at 30°C.

354

<Figure 4>

355

356 *4.5. Selection of optimal enrichment conditions for PHA accumulation*

357 From an industrial perspective, this study aimed at elucidating the optimal enrichment
358 temperature and inoculum source that potentially result in the most effective usage of raw
359 materials (in this case CH₄ and N). Table 1 depicts the CH₄ and nitrogen required to
360 produce a unit of PHA as a function of the enrichment temperature and inoculum source.
361 The most cost-effective biomass for optimal PHA production would be the enrichment
362 from *Sphagnum* at 30°C. This biomass required the lowest CH₄ input (10.5±1.4 g CH₄ g
363 PHA⁻¹; equal to that required by the biomass obtained at 30°C from the mixed inoculum)
364 and also the lowest nitrogen input (0.2 g N g PHA⁻¹).

365 <Table 1>

366

367 *4.6. Influence of the temperature during the accumulation phase on PHA content*

368 The results herein obtained showed that, independently of the inoculum source, the biomass
369 enriched at 30 and 37°C led to the highest PHA yields. In the previous experiments in
370 literature, biomass enrichment and PHA synthesis (under nitrogen limitation) were carried
371 out at a constant temperature (García-Pérez et al., 2018; López et al., 2018a, 2018b; Myung
372 et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017). In order to elucidate whether these higher PHA yields were
373 the result of the temperature during the enrichment or accumulation phase, the biomass
374 enriched at 25°C was supplied with CH₄ under nitrogen starvation conditions at 25, 30 and
375 37°C. No increase in the PHA content of the biomass enriched at 25°C was observed at the
376 two highest temperatures. Indeed, a slight decrease (no statistically significant) was found
377 at 30 and 37°C (Figure 5).

378 <Figure 5>

379

380 4.7. Influence of the enrichment temperature on the structure of the microbial communities

381 The enrichment process (pre-enrichment + 5 growth stages till complete N depletion + 2
382 growth stages + 1 PHA accumulation stage) resulted in the dominance of the genus
383 *Methylocystis* (with percentages close to 30%, Figure S2) in the enriched communities
384 regardless of the inoculum source and temperatures. Members of this genus, which was
385 almost absent in the initial inocula, are capable of synthesizing PHA under nitrogen
386 deprivation conditions (López et al., 2018a). The biomass enriched from *Sphagnum*
387 contained a low number of other methanotrophs and methylotrophs (~1% of
388 *Methylobacterium* at 30 and 37°C, and 2% of *Methylophilus* at 25°C). On the other hand,
389 the biomass enriched from the mixed *Sphagnum* and activated sludge inoculum contained
390 significant amounts of methylotrophs such as *Methylophilus* (17% of the community
391 enriched at 25°C), *Methylobacterium* (5% of the community enriched at 30°C) and
392 methanotrophs such as *Methyloparacoccus* (9% of the community enriched at 30°C). These
393 methanotrophs and methylotrophs different from the genus *Methylocystis* were less
394 abundant in the community enriched at 37°C (1% of *Methylobacterium*). The results here
395 obtained revealed that temperature was a strong selective pressure for the enrichment of
396 PHA accumulating bacteria regardless of the inoculum.

397 None of the characteristics of the microbial communities enriched (specific growth rate,
398 PHA accumulation etc.) seemed to be explained by changes in the overall microbial
399 composition. For example, the enrichments conducted at 30 and 37°C, which resulted in
400 higher PHA accumulations, did not contain a higher percentage of *Methylocystis* than those
401 conducted at 25°C.

402 **5. Discussion**

403 *5.1. Effect of the enrichment conditions on the microbial community profile*

404 This study aimed at assessing both the feasibility of enriching PHA accumulating
405 methanotrophic consortia from *Sphagnum* mosses-based inocula (based on their high
406 inherent abundance in type II methanotrophs) and the influence of the temperature on the
407 characteristics of the communities enriched. The prolonged exposure of the inocula to
408 methane as the only carbon and energy source (following the described enrichment
409 protocol) allowed to enrich microbial consortia where the genus *Methylocystis* was the most
410 abundant (which represented approx. 30% of the total microbial population) regardless of
411 the enrichment temperature. *Methylocystis* are known to accumulate PHA, however no
412 selective pressure aiming to favour PHA accumulating organisms (such as alternate cycles
413 of nitrogen starvation) was specifically imposed during the enrichment process. The
414 specific growth rates of the consortia enriched were up to two folds higher than those
415 previously reported for pure cultures of *Methylocystis hirsuta* (López et al., 2018a) (0.021
416 h^{-1}), likely due to the symbiotic effects with other microbial populations. In this context, the
417 purer a culture is, the higher are the restrictions to grow under environmental stress factors,
418 while a higher population richness and diversity promotes higher resilience and therefore,
419 better bio-product recovery (Cabrol et al., 2012). Moreover, adaptive laboratory evolution
420 could be also carried out to gain insights into the adaptive changes that experience
421 microbial populations during long-term selection: better PHA productivity and higher
422 methane degradation rates (Dragosits and Mattanovich, 2013).

423

424 *5.2. Specific growth rate and microbial CH₄ bioconversion*

425 In addition, the theoretical framework developed in section 3 reveals that a microbial
426 community with a maximum specific growth rate of 0.02 h^{-1} (the minimum recorded in this

427 study) treating a gas emissions with typical CH₄ inlet concentration of 6% (equivalent to an
428 equilibrium concentration of 0.0024 M in the aqueous phase) will eventually support a CH₄
429 removal of 99.2% in the bioreactor (under no mass transfer limitations), while a biomass
430 with a maximum specific growth rate of 0.05 h⁻¹ (the maximum recorded in this study) will
431 support a potential CH₄ removal of 99.7%. These estimations clearly show that the
432 maximum specific growth rate of the microbial community enriched does not represent a
433 key parameter in suspended-growth CH₄ bioconversion processes operated under
434 continuous mode. The scenario would be different if the process was performed batch-wise,
435 where higher maximum specific growth rates would result in shorter production times.
436 The biomass yields on methane here recorded were of the same order as those of pure
437 cultures of *Methylocystis*, with the exception of the consortium enriched from the inoculum
438 S at 25°C, which showed a biomass yield almost twice as large as that of a pure
439 *Methylocystis hirsuta* cultures. It can be hypothesized that this unusually high yield
440 (YX/CH₄ =0.8) was supported by the high microbial diversity of this particular enrichment
441 (H = 2.84). A weak correlation between the biomass yield and the microbial diversity was
442 also observed (R=0.764 and a p-value=0.109), which has been previously described in
443 literature (Louis et al., 2016).

444

445 5.3 Effect of temperature on the enrichment conditions and on PHA accumulation

446 Since temperature has been determined as an important factor that modifies PHA
447 accumulation in other heterotrophic bacteria (Myshkina et al., 2008), this study aimed to
448 assess the optimal temperature conditions to increase the production of PHA using type II
449 methanotrophs. Culture enrichment at 30 and 37°C resulted in consortia able to accumulate

450 significantly higher amounts of PHA under nitrogen starvation (30% of the total microbial
451 biomass) than those enriched at 25°C. These values were low in comparison to the PHA
452 contents of 40-47% (wt) reported by Zhang et al. 2018. This result was probably due to the
453 high copper concentration used for enrichment by Zhang et al. 2018 which increased PHA
454 accumulation by a factor of 2.5. Concentrations of copper characteristic of urban waste
455 water treatment plants were used in this study to avoid the effect of additional variables on
456 the results obtained not related to temperature (Zhang et., 2018). Nevertheless, the fact that
457 only 30% of the DNA of the enriched consortia corresponded to bacteria of the genus
458 *Methylocystis* (the only described PHA accumulating organism identified in these
459 consortia) suggested that the strains of this genus in these specific enrichments could
460 eventually contain up to 70% of PHA. In this regard, under nutrient-limited conditions
461 *Methylocystis*, *Methylosinus* and *Methylocella*, which are considered the main
462 methanotrophic PHA producers to date, are able to achieve PHA accumulations ranging
463 from 20 to 50% (wt) (García-Pérez et al., 2018; Pieja et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2017)
464 values that are lower than the ones suggest by previous research.

465 The fact that the results obtained for the PHA content of the microbial communities
466 enriched at different temperatures were just due to the temperature prevailing during the
467 accumulation phase was discarded by performing PHA accumulation experiments at 25, 30
468 and 37°C with biomass enriched from *Sphagnum* at 25°C. No enhancement in PHA
469 accumulation was observed at 30 and 37°C, which confirmed that culture enrichment at
470 higher temperatures plays a key role on the selection of more efficient PHA accumulators.
471 However, the mechanisms underlying the superior accumulation of PHA in communities
472 enriched at higher temperatures remains unknown. In this context, it has been speculated
473 that temperature acts as an environmental stress analogous to nitrogen depletion and

474 triggers PHA accumulation. However, only trace levels of PHA were observed at 30 or
475 37°C in cultures grown under nitrogen sufficient conditions and there was not a direct
476 influence of temperature on PHA accumulation under nitrogen limiting conditions during
477 the accumulation phase. At this point it can be speculated that some molecular mechanisms
478 involved in heat shock resistance might also enable methanotrophs to accumulate higher
479 PHA contents. Finally, it should be highlighted that lower temperatures increase CH₄ mass
480 transfer from the gas to the microbial community as a result of a decrease in the Henry's
481 law constant, which directly impact on the gas-liquid concentration gradient and could
482 influence the specific growth rates and PHA content of the biomass. However, the
483 theoretically enhanced CH₄ mass transfer at lower temperatures did not increase the PHA
484 content of the microbial communities enriched.

485

486 **6. Conclusions**

487 This study confirmed the key role that the enrichment temperature plays on microbial PHA
488 production from CH₄, culture enrichment at high temperatures (30 and 37°C) resulted in a
489 superior PHA accumulation compared to the biomass enriched at 25°C. This finding
490 suggests that temperature has an important in PHA accumulation and could enhance the
491 implementation of PHA cell factories.

492

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499

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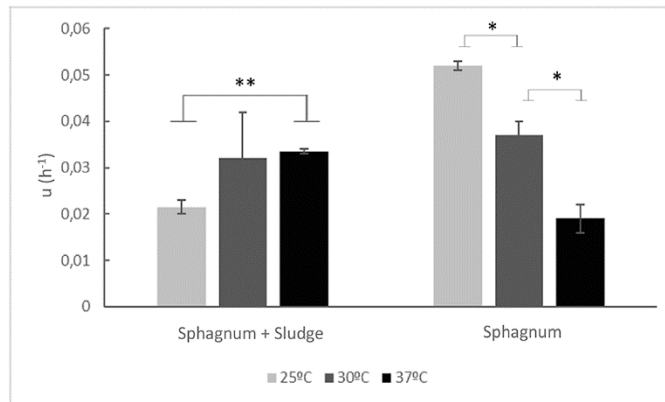
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Table 1. Methane and nitrogen requirements and biomass production per gram of PHA produced.

	Sphagnum			Sphagnum + Activated sludge		
	25 °C	30 °C	37 °C	25 °C	30 °C	37 °C
Biomass per gram of PHA (g)	6.3±0.6	2.8±0.04	3±0.05	4.7±0.2	3.5±0.2	2.9±0.1
CH₄ growth phase (g)	4.5±1	4.5±1	4.5±1	4.5±1	4.5±1	4.5±1
CH₄ accumulation phase (g)	7.9±2.4	6±0.4	7±1.3	10.5±2	5.8±1	6.8±1.4
Total CH₄ per gram of PHA (g)	12.5±3.4	10.5±1.4	11.6±2.3	15±3	10.3±2	11.4±2.4
Nitrogen per gram of PHA (g)	0.5±0.1	0.2±0.0	0.2±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.2±0.0

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718 **Figure 1.** Influence of the enrichment temperature on the specific growth rates for the
719 communities enriched from *Sphagnum* and *Sphagnum* + activated sludge. For the mixed
720 *Sphagnum* and activated sludge inoculum, error bars show standard errors (n=2), and the
721 specific growth rate of the biomass enriched at 37 °C was significantly higher than the

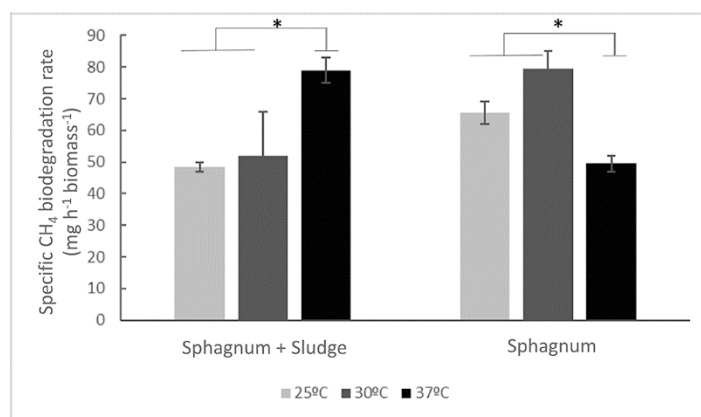
722 growth rate at 25 °C (p-value 0.008, n=2). For *Sphagnum* inoculum, the opposite trend was
723 observed, with decreasing specific growth rates at higher temperatures (p-values of 0.02
724 between 25 and 30 °C and 0.03 between 30 and 37 °C, n=2).

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730 **Figure 2.** Influence of the enrichment temperature on the specific CH₄ biodegradation rate
731 for the communities enriched from *Sphagnum* and *Sphagnum* + activated sludge. Error bars
732 are standard errors (n=2). In both cases, no significant difference is observed between the
733 enrichment at 25 and 30 °C. The biomass enriched at 37 °C showed a significant increase
734 (p-value 0.017; t-test for samples of different sizes n=2, m=4) for the mixture of *Sphagnum*
735 and activated sludge and a significant decrease (p-value 0.018; t-test for samples of
736 different sizes n=2, m=4) for *Sphagnum* alone.

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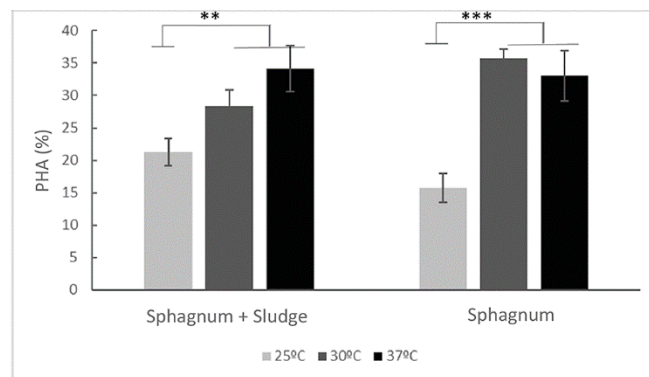
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748 **Figure 3.** Influence of the enrichment temperature on the PHA content of the biomass
749 enriched from *Sphagnum* and *Sphagnum* + activated sludge. Error bars represent standard
750 errors (n=2). The same trend was observed for the mixture of *Sphagnum* and activated
751 sludge and *Sphagnum* alone. Significantly higher PHA contents were observed at 30 and 37
752 °C compared to 25 °C (p-values of 0.00015 for *Sphagnum* and 0.005 for the mixture; t-test
753 for samples of different sizes n=2, m=4). The differences between 30 and 37 °C were not
754 statistically significant.

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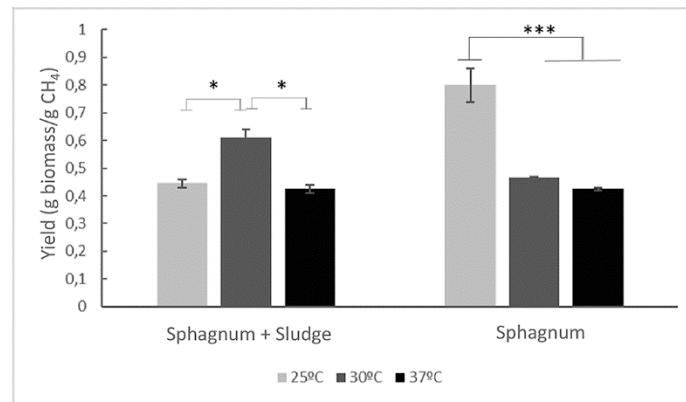
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766 **Figure 4.** Influence of the enrichment temperature on the biomass yield on CH₄ from
767 *Sphagnum* and *Sphagnum* + activated sludge. Error bars represent standard errors (n=2).

768 For the mixture of *Sphagnum* and activated sludge, the biomass enriched at 30 °C showed a
769 significantly higher yield (p-value 0.012; t-test for samples of different sizes n=2, m=4)
770 compared to the biomass enriched at 25 and 37 °C. For the *Sphagnum* alone a very
771 significant increased yield was observed for the biomass enriched at 25 °C (p-value
772 0.00097; t-test for samples of different sizes n=2, m=4).

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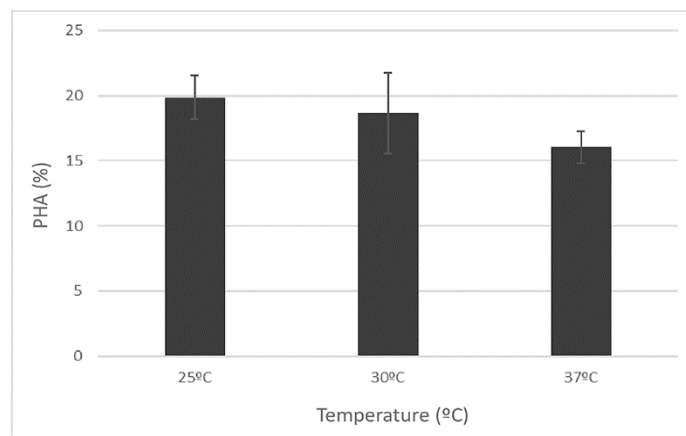
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784 **Figure 5.** Influence of the temperature during the accumulation phase on the PHB content
785 of the biomass enriched from *Sphagnum* at 25 °C under nitrogen starvation at 25, 30 and 37
786 °C, respectively. Error bars are standard errors (n=2).