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# Technologies for the bioconversion of methane into more valuable products

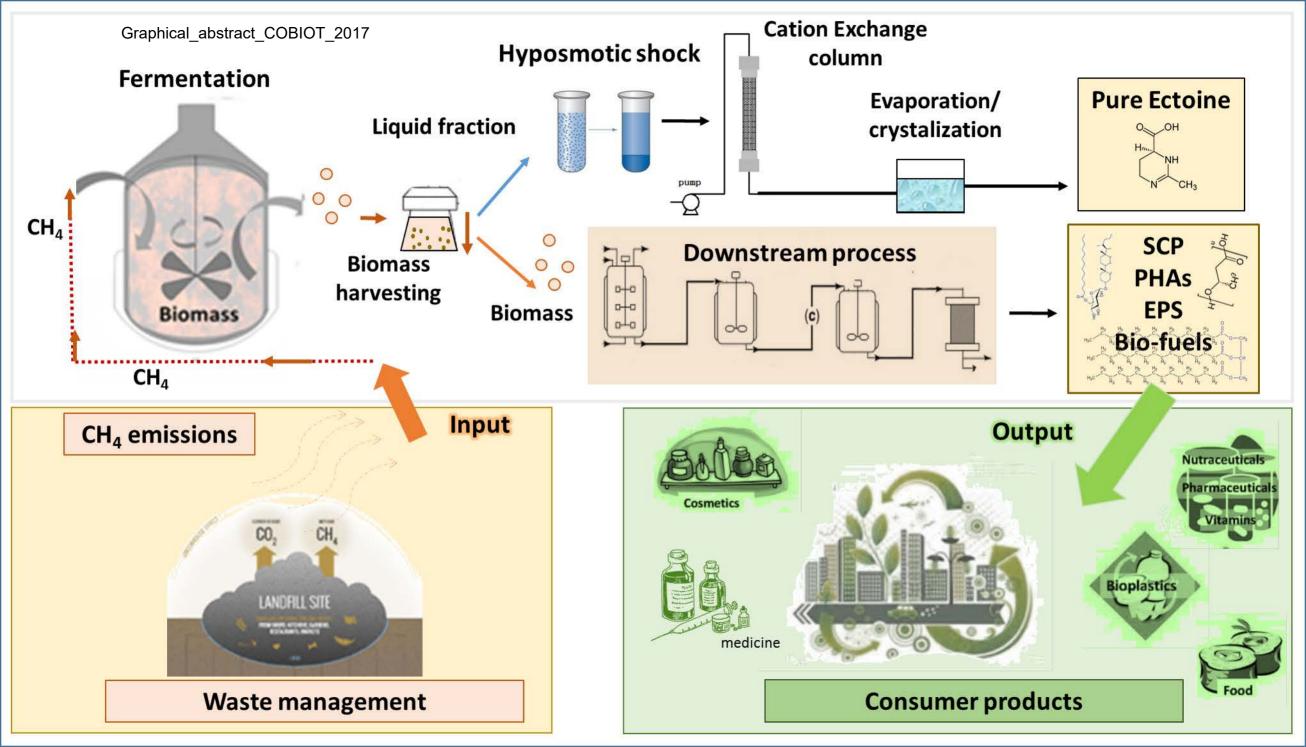
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#### Abstract

Methane, with a global warming potential twenty five times higher than that of  $CO_2$  is the second most important greenhouse gas emitted nowadays. Its bioconversion into microbial molecules with a high retail value in the industry offers a potential cost-efficient and environmentally friendly solution for mitigating anthropogenic diluted CH<sub>4</sub>-laden streams. Methane bio-refinery for the production of different compounds such as ectoine, feed proteins, biofuels, bioplastics and polysaccharides, apart from new bioproducts characteristic of methanotrophic bacteria, has been recently tested in discontinuous and continuous bioreactors with promising results. This review constitutes a critical discussion about the state-of-the-art of the potential and research niches of biotechnologies applied in a CH<sub>4</sub> biorefinery approach.

Keywords: CH<sub>4</sub> bio-refinery, methane treatment, bio-products, industrial approach



- Methanotrophs as a competitive platform for the generation of valuable products
- CH<sub>4</sub> emissions used as a feedstock in biorefinery reduces GHGs environmental impact
- Current biotechnological limitations and potential improvements are reviewed
- Environmental and economic analysis supports the feasibility of CH<sub>4</sub> revalorization

## Technologies for the bioconversion of methane into more valuable products

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Methane, with a global warming potential twenty five times higher than that of  $CO_2$  is the second most important greenhouse gas emitted nowadays. Its bioconversion into microbial molecules with a high retail value in the industry offers a potential cost-efficient and environmentally friendly solution for mitigating anthropogenic diluted CH<sub>4</sub>-laden streams. Methane bio-refinery for the production of different compounds such as ectoine, feed proteins, biofuels, bioplastics and polysaccharides, apart from new bioproducts characteristic of methanotrophic bacteria, has been recently tested in discontinuous and continuous bioreactors with promising results. This review constitutes a critical discussion about the state-of-the-art of the potential and research niches of biotechnologies applied in a CH<sub>4</sub> biorefinery approach.

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#### 1. Introduction

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), with a global warming potential 25 times higher than that of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), is the second most important greenhouse gas (GHG) worldwide, currently representing 18 % of the total EU-28 GHG emissions. This current scenario has increased concern about global warming, has encouraged the development of political initiatives for GHGs abatement and has promoted intensive research on novel biotechnological strategies for CH<sub>4</sub> treatment.

Current biotechnological processes could be the best solution for methane abatement due to their cost-effectiveness and their low environmental impact; however the implementation of bio-reactors for CH<sub>4</sub> treatment is still limited. This limitation is mainly based on the low water solubility of CH<sub>4</sub>, which hampers the transport of this GHG to the microbial community and increases the cost of CH<sub>4</sub> treatment biotechnologies [1]. In this context, the development of a CH<sub>4</sub> biorefinery based on using CH<sub>4</sub>-laden emissions as raw materials to bio-synthesize high added value products represents a cost-effective solution for the mitigation of this GHG [2–6]. Although optimization from a micro and macroscopic perspective is still required to enhance microbial CH<sub>4</sub> bioconversion, this innovative CH<sub>4</sub> biorefiney can turn GHG abatement into a sustainable, profitable and competitive process.

This review will critically discuss the state-of-the-art of innovative CH<sub>4</sub> treatment biotechnologies adapted to the production of key added value products. The main current biotechnological limitations and potential improvements will also be reviewed together with an environmental and economic analysis of this novel CH<sub>4</sub> biorefinery.

#### 2. Microbiology of CH<sub>4</sub> treatment

Biotechnologies for the treatment of CH<sub>4</sub> are based on the biocatalytic action of microorganisms, mainly aerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria called methanotrophs, which transform methane into carbon dioxide and water using oxygen as electron acceptor. Methanotrophs belong to the methylotrophic bacterial group, which consists on organisms that utilize reduced one-carbon substrates for their metabolism. Within this physiological group, methanotrophs were classified and considered the only group able to use CH<sub>4</sub> as their single energy and carbon source [7]. However, recent findings demonstrated that some methanotrophs are also able to utilize multicarbon compounds as their carbon source in some environments [8]. The current classification of known aerobic methanotrophic genera based

on 16S rRNA gene encloses a wide phylogenetic distribution within the three general groups: Alphaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria and Verrucomicrobia [9,10]. The alphaproteobacterial methanotrophs can be further divided into the Beijerinckiaceae and Methylocystaceae families, while the gamma-proteobacterial methanotrophs belong to the Methylococcaceae family and the verrucomicrobial methanotrophs to the family Methylacidiphilacecae[11]. Furthermore, even if aerobic oxidation is the main implemented process in biotechnologies treating methane, recent findings have demonstrated that some anaerobic archaea and bacteria are responsible for 7-25% of the total methane oxidation worldwide[12]. The anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) is carried out by bacteria belonging to NC10 phylum (Candidatus "Methylomirabilis oxyfera") which couple methane oxidation with denitrification and three groups of archaea: ANME-1 (distantly related to the Methanosarcinales and Methanomicrobiales spp.), ANME-2 (within the Methanosarcinales sp.), and ANME-3 (closely related to the *Methanococcoides* sp.) [13]. ANME-1 and ANME-2a, 2b and 2c oxidize methane with sulfate as electron acceptor, forming consortia with sulfate reducing bacteria, while some ANME-2 (ANME-2d) belong to a cluster that couples AOM to nitrate reduction through the archaea of the order Methanosarcinales, related to 'Ca. Methanoperedens nitroreducens'. Moreover, some ANME-2 are able to oxidize methane with metals as iron or humic acids as acceptor, also without a syntrophic partner. In the particular case of ANME-3, little is known about its metabolism [14-16]. On the other hand, some fungal genera such as Graphium have been reported as methane oxidizers [17]. However, knowledge on both fields is still scarce and further research is necessary to understand these processes before their implementation as methane treatment technologies [18].

#### 3. CH<sub>4</sub> based commercial bio-products

During the last 20 years, a wide range of high added value compounds produced by methanotrophic bacteria has been described (Table 1).

#### Ectoine

Ectoine is a cyclic imino acid that provides osmotic balance to a wide number of halotolerant bacteria [5,19,20]. Due to its high effectiveness as stabilizer of enzymes, DNA-protein complexes and nucleic acids, ectoine is used in medicine, cosmetology, dermatology and nutrition [21]. In this regard, this osmolyte is probably one of the most valuable products synthesized by microorganisms, retailing in the pharmaceutical industry at approximately

US\$1000 kg<sup>-1</sup> (global consumption of 15000 tones year<sup>-1</sup>) [5]. Despite its potential, ectoine is only currently biotechnologically produced by *Halomonas elongate* through a long fed-batch fermentation process called *biomilking* (total duration  $\sim 120$  h), which consists of sequential hypo and hyper osmotic shocks [22]. However, this process is costly due to the high quality substrates required, besides entailing a complex and expensive downstream processing [19,20,23]. Current investigations [24–26] have shown that halotolerant methanotrophs belonging to the genera Methylomicrobium, Methylobacter and Methylohalobius are able to produce ectoine in batch and in continuous bioreactors reaching contents of 3-10 % (g/g) depending on the concentration of methane and NaCl. To date, the feasibility of the ectoine production in continuous bioreactors has been tested at laboratory scale. In 2016 a study demonstrated for the first time the continuous production of ectoine by M. alcaliphilum 20Z with average contents of 37.4 mg ectoine (g biomass)<sup>-1</sup>)[27], while in 2017 a CH<sub>4</sub>-based *biomilking* process resulted in extracellular concentrations of 253.4  $\pm$  55.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to a recovery of ~ 70 % of the total intra-cellular ectoine accumulated [28]. Although the productivities achieved by *M. alcaliphilum* are still lower than those reported in literature by other organisms using sugars as a carbon source, M. alcaliphilum 20Z exhibits a superior environmental performance (associated to climate change mitigation) based on its ability to produce ectoine from dilute CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

#### **Bioplastics (PHAs)**

PHAs such as poly-3-hydroxybutyrate (PHB) and the copolymer poly (3-hydroxybutyrate-*co*-3-hydroxyvalerate) (PHBV) are intracellular biopolyesters produced under nutrient-limiting and carbon-excess conditions by a wide range of microorganisms as carbon and energy storage resources [29]. Their outstanding mechanical properties, similar to those of polypropylene and polyethylene, along with their biodegradability and biocompatibility make PHAs an attractive and potential alternative to oil-based plastics [30,31]. As a result, PHAs are manufactured nowadays by nearly 30 companies, with Meredian Inc. (annual production of 300 kt) and Bio-On (annual production ~10 kt) being the leading manufacturers in U.S. and Europe, respectively[30]. *Ralstonia eutropha, Bacillus megaterium* and *Alcaligenes latus* are the main industrial PHA-producing heterotrophic organisms, with the most common feedstocks utilized being glucose and fructose. Nevertheless, the high cost of these carbon sources, which accounts for 30-40% of the total production costs, still hinders PHAs

commercialization due to their uncompetitive market price  $(4-20 \in kg_{PHA}^{-1})[32,33]$ . In this context, the methane contained in diluted industrial gas emissions ( $\leq 5 \% v/v$ ) has recently emerged as a potential feedstock for PHA production. The use of residual methane as a carbon source will significantly decrease PHAs production costs, while reducing the environmental impacts of GHG emissions [31,34]. Under nutrient-limited conditions (i.e N-, P- or Mg-limitation), *Methylocystis, Methylosinus and Methylocella* are considered the main methanotrophic PHA producer genera, achieving PHBVs contents ranging from 20 to 51 % (wt) under batch [35,36] and continuous operation in suspended growth reactors [37–40]. In this regard, Mango Materials and Newlight Technologies (U.S.) are the pioneering companies in the development of methanotrophic-based technologies devoted to PHB production using CH<sub>4</sub> emissions [11].

#### Single cell protein (SCP)

Microbial protein is generally referred to as a single cell protein. Although microbial protein provides a relatively small proportion of current human nutrition, the growing global demand for protein is likely to make SCP increasingly important. Bacterial SCP generally contains 50-80% protein on a dry weight basis and the essential amino acid content is expected to be comparable to or higher than the FAO recommendations[4,41]. Imperial Chemical Industries produced SCP (Pruteen) for animal feed from methanol. However, they could not compete with cheaper animal feeds that were available at the end of the 1970s and production was discontinued. Nevertheless, methane is now gaining interest as a substrate for SCP. UniBio A/S and Calysta Inc. have both developed fermentation technologies to convert natural gas to animal feed protein by using methanotrophic bacteria [5,42]. UniBio A/S uses a U-loop fermenter to achieve a productivity of 4 kg biomass  $m^{-3} h^{-1}$  with ~ 70% protein (approved as animal feed). In 2017, Calysta Inc. started to distribute commercial samples of its CH<sub>4</sub>-based protein, FeedKind®, for animal feed. Calysta plans to open a larger facility with Cargill Inc. in the U.S.A [41,43]. Additionally, due to the increased interest in methane mitigation in recent years, new companies such as VTT Ltd. are investigating new reactor designs to use the methane produced from cattle and pig farming (considered dilute CH<sub>4</sub> emissions) for SCP production for animal nutrition.

#### **Biofuels**

Nonpolar lipids are mainly in the form of triacylglycerides and can be transesterified to produce biodiesel. In methanotrophs, these lipids represent an important fraction because they host methane monooxygenase (the microbial lipid fraction in the biomass can be more than 20%). Moreover, the conversion of methane into other liquid biofuels, such as ethanol or 1-butanol, is thermodynamically favourable and can be accomplished through chemical or biological methods. Currently, the biotechnological production of fuels depends mainly on costly sugars, such as glucose, the cost of which is estimated to be about 50% of the final products. Therefore, considerable efforts to identify alternative carbon sources in order to minimize the production cost of fuels are currently under way. In 2012, a \$4 million Advanced Research Projects Agency — Energy (ARPA-E) grant was awarded to a group from the University of Washington (UW, Seattle, WA, USA) to develop microbes capable of converting methane into liquid diesel fuel for transportation. Moreover, the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL, Golden, CO, USA), the biofuel company LanzaTech, Inc. (Chicago, IL, USA) and the chemical company Johnson Matthey (London, UK) have joined with UW to develop a more efficient bioconversion process for liquid fuel production. Additionally, the company Oberon has recently started to convert methane and carbon dioxide from various methane feedstocks to Dimethyl ether.

#### Extracellular polysaccharides (EPS)

EPS are biopolymers in which biofilms are embedded and comprise a wide variety of proteins, glycoproteins, glycolipids and polysaccharides [44]. EPSs provide the microorganisms an effective protection against high or low temperature, salinity and predators [2, 37]. These bioproducts are of interest due to their colloidal and adhesive properties and their effects on liquid rheology in the food, pharmaceutical, textile and oil industries[45]. CPKelco, Merck, Pfizer and Prasinotech Ltd are companies currently focused on producing polysaccharides such as xanthan (4-13 &kg<sup>-1</sup>) using *Xanthomonas campestris* and dextran using *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* and *Streptococcus mutans* (30-50 & kg<sup>-1</sup>), though productivities and costs derived from the supplementation of the carbon source and the down streaming still hamper their industrial production [46]. In this sense, CH4 represents an alternative feedstock to reduce costs, since EPS productions of 300-430 mg g biomass<sup>-1</sup> in type I methanotrophs (*Methylobacter, Methylomonas*) have been reported [47]. Overall, extreme conditions of salinity is one of the best strategies to promote EPS formation [48]. In this context, an study carried out recently in our lab (data non published) showed that under a

high alkalinity and salinity medium (pH=9 and 6 % NaCl) EPS reached concentrations of  $1833 \pm 87.0$  mg EPS g biomass<sup>-1</sup> using *M. alcaliphilum* in bubble column bioreactors treating diluted methane emissions, which allowed coupling ectoine generation with high rate EPS production.

#### New bio-products

Recent studies have focused on alternative bio-products that can be naturally generated by methanotrophs and are of interest in the chemical, food, pharmaceutical and environmental industries [5,6]. Two products that are receiving special attention are the bacterial Surface-Layers and methanobactins, both proper of methanotrophic bacteria. These compounds are copper-binding extracellular proteins that can be applied in environmental remediation (as a metal chelator or reducing agent for metal recovery from mine leachates) [49] and for the treatment of the Wilson disease [50]. Membrane lipids in methanotrophs may have an alternative high-value application as a health supplement. There is a current patent for using methanotrophic lipids to manufacture an oral administration to reduce plasma cholesterol levels or lower the ratio of LDL to HDL in animal subjects [51,52]. On the other hand, soluble metabolic intermediates such as methanol, formaldehyde and organic acids are all potential products from methanotrophs with multiple industrial applications. In this regard, Calysta and NatureWorks have an R&D collaboration to transform methane into lactic acid. Moreover, there is a wide number of gas fermentation companies – such as, Kiverdi, Coskata, INEOS Bio or LanzaTech - that produce a wide range of commercially useful molecules using methanotrophic microbes.

#### 4. Current biotechnological limitations

Although the perspective of a near future methane based bio-refinery is promising, the implementation of these CH<sub>4</sub> bioconversion processes is still scarce due to the occurrence of physical and biological limitations. Thus, even if CH<sub>4</sub> treatment biotechnologies have been studied for the last 50 years, conventional bioreactors are still limited by the poor mass transport of CH<sub>4</sub> from the gas to the microbial community. CH<sub>4</sub> is a hydrophobic gas pollutant with a low aqueous solubility (dimensionless Henry's law constant  $H_{CH4} = C_g/C_{aq} = 30$  at 25 °C) [53–55]. This entails a low gas-liquid concentration gradient and therefore process operation at high empty bed gas residence times, which significantly increases both the investment and operating costs of conventional biotechnologies [55]. Moreover, this low

CH<sub>4</sub> solubility limits process performance as a result of the low elimination rates and low biomass concentrations present in the bioreactors. For example, systems operated with sugars as a carbon source achieved biomass concentrations up to 30 g  $L^{-1}$  and therefore, higher fermenter productivities. However, pure methanotrophic strains achieved average biomass concentrations of 1.0 g L<sup>-1</sup> and bioproduct productivities 10 to 100 times lower depending on the product [20,28,38,39,41,56–58]. In this context, mass transfer limitations during EPS and ectoine production can be even more pronounced as a result of the lower CH<sub>4</sub> solubility at higher cultivation broth salinity [59], Nowadays, the process implemented at industrial scale using Halomonas elongate involves the cyclic increase and decrease of the salt concentration in the cultivation broth up to 12 % NaCl, which severely limits O<sub>2</sub> mass transport and also triggers reactor corrosion. However, recent studies conducted for the production of ectoine with methanotrophs were carried out at an optimum salt concentration of 6 % NaCl, which could eventually limit the above mentioned limitations [28,60]. On the other hand, methanotrophic bacteria are limited by a low growth rate mediated by the slow kinetics of methane uptake. For example, MMO oxidizes methane to methanol in the first step of methane assimilation, but requires a high-energy electron donor (i.e NADPH) as an energy input to functionalize the otherwise inert methane molecule[61]. Additionally, most methanotrophic bacteria discovered to date are sensitive to mechanical stress, which requires reducing the agitation rate of the system used, thus hampering the mass transfer of CH<sub>4</sub> to the microbial community[62].

#### **5.** Potential improvements

One of the major challenges to improve the CH<sub>4</sub> conversion yields is the enhancement of the gas-liquid mass transfer through the design of novel bio-reactors [63]. In this regard, suspended-growth bioreactors are the most suitable configurations for the bioconversion of CH<sub>4</sub>-laden gas streams into valuable byproducts and their subsequent recovery. The most popular approach for the production of high added value bioproducts in industrial biotechnology has been fed-batch cultivation in mechanically stirred fermenters with controlled nutrient feeding[22,64], since this operation mode allows to achieve high cell densities. However, this approach would entail prohibitive operating costs during CH<sub>4</sub> bioconversion as a result of the intensive stirring required. One of the most innovative industrial bio-reactors designed to improve methane abatement and the production of SCP has been the new U-Loop fermentor patented by UniBio A/S[43]. This bioreactor is a

modified airlift capable of handling a large biomass concentration while providing a high gas to liquid mass transfer in comparison with those obtained in stirred tank reactors or in previous tubular loop reactors. Other novel concepts for enhanced mass transport are suspended-growth membrane diffusion and pressurized bioreactors, which operate at low-moderate energy demands. In addition, the performance of these innovative high-mass transfer bioreactors can be boosted via internal gas recirculation, which allows decoupling the  $K_{IaG/A}$  from the gas residence time [65].

On the other hand, the development of a bioprocess maximizing the production of a target product requires the standardization of culture conditions. The most important environmental variables affecting the cultures of methanotrophs are pH, temperature, dissolved  $O_2$  concentration, the ratio of methane and  $O_2$ , and the time of cultivation [10,61]. However, the composition of the cultivation medium often has a key influence in the synthesis of specific bio-products. For instance, the starvation of an essential nutrient under a sustained CH<sub>4</sub> supply can trigger the production of PHAs and copper concentration has been identified as a factor inducing the natural excretion of ectoine to the extracellular medium [11]. In addition, selective conditions such as pH values and high salt contents can minimize and control microbial contamination in the process. Moreover, the effect of co-substrates addition during methane bioconversion must be investigated in order to tailor the characteristics of the bioproducts synthesized.

Finally, methane-activation strategies using a dioxygenase-like enzyme capable of oxidizing two methane molecules simultaneously have been also envisaged to boost process performance [61]. However, such an enzyme has not been found or engineered successfully to date. In this regard, '-omics' technologies will play a key role in the near future to improve and realize a profitable methane bio-refinery. Companies like Intrexon and Calysta are deeply investing into finding more competitive modified methanotrophs capable of generating multiple products from a single methanotroph process in order to improve the economic viability of the process.

#### **6.** Perspectives

Provided that the current economic and technical barriers for the operation of methane biorefineries are solved, these climate-change mitigating technologies can be a costeffectiveness solution for the continuous abatement of methane dilute emissions (Figure 1). In this regard, a brief environmental and economic viability analysis of a methane biorefinery producing ectoine, SCP, PHAs and EPS from a 50 000 m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> landfill emission is shown in Table 2.

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# Tables\_COBIOT\_2017

# Table 1: Bio-compounds production

Product	<b>Production yield using sugar</b> ( mg g biomass <sup>-1</sup> )	Main organism producer	<b>Production yield using</b> <i>methane</i> ( mg g biomass <sup>-1</sup> )	Main methanotrophic producer
Brevibacterium				
Bioplastics	300-850[4,5]	Ralstonia	100-500[[6,7]	Methylocystis
		Alcaligenes		Methylosinus
		Azotobacter, Pseudomonas		memyiosinus
SCP Biofuel	680-710[8]	Bacillus	690-730[8]	Methylomonas
		Ralstonia, Brevibacillus, Aneurunibacillus		Methylococcus
				Methylococcus
	300-510[9]	Botrioococcus brauni	200-500[10,11]	Methylosinus
				Methylocystis
EPS	600-2775[12]	Pseudomonas	300-1800[13]	Methylobacter
		Enterobacter		-
		Leuconostoc		<i>Methylomonas</i>
		Lactobacillus		Methylomicrobium

#### Table 2: Economic and environmental analysis of a methane bio-refinery producing ectoine, SCP, PHAs and EPS from a landfill emission

#### **REACTOR OPERATIONAL PARAMETERS Total Gas Sparged Biomass Biomass produced** Landfill emission Qgas **Internal Gas** Methane feed from CH<sub>4</sub> Qgas concentration Oliquid (4.5%) $(m^{3}h^{-1})$ $(\text{Kg CH}_4 \text{h}^{-1})$ $(g L^{-1})$ $(m^3 h^{-1})$ Recirculation $(m^3 h^{-1})$ $(\psi_{\text{biomass}}=0.6)$ $(g CH_4 m^{-3})$ $(\text{kg h}^{-1})$ 50 900 18 30 50.000 x10 550000 1500 **REACTOR ENERGY CONSUMPTION** Centrifuge Centrifugation Blower Air flow Total **Total Gas** Liquid pressure $\Delta \mathbf{P}$ efficiency Energy Energy Energy Energy Sparged (bar) (kPa) consumption Consumption Consumption consumption $(m^3 s^{-1})$ (KWh $h^{-1}$ ) $(KWh m^{-3} h^{-1})$ $(KWh h^{-1})$ $(KWh h^{-1})$ 0.4 153 38.7 0.7 8451 3.2 58.1 8509 **BIOCOMPOUNDS PRODUCED** SCP EPS PHA Ectoine SCP EPS Ectoine PHA (50% of CH<sub>4</sub>) (40% of CH<sub>4</sub>) (10 % of CH<sub>4</sub>) (40% of CH<sub>4</sub>) $(\$ h^{-1})$ $(\$ h^{-1})$ $(\$ h^{-1})$ $(\$ h^{-1})$ $(kg h^{-1})$ $(kg h^{-1})$ $(kg h^{-1})$ $(kg h^{-1})$ 90 450 360 360 90000 450 1800 5400 ECONOMICAL BALANCE **Operating cost Bioproduct** value $(\$ h^{-1})$ $(\$ h^{-1})$ 1021 100000 ENVIRONMENTAL BALANCE CO<sub>2</sub> from CH<sub>4</sub> CO<sub>2</sub> from energy **Total CO<sub>2</sub> produced** Kg CO<sub>2</sub> removed (w=0.4) consumption $(Kg h^{-1})$ $(Kg h^{-1})$ $(Kg h^{-1})$ $(Kg h^{-1})$ 35250 3157 4807 1650 $\Psi$ was obtained from García-Pérez et al. (2018); The energy consumption [kw] for gas circulation was calculated as Q [m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>] × $\Delta$ P [kPa] / Blower

 $\Psi$  was obtained from Garcia-Perez et al. (2018); The energy consumption [kw] for gas circulation was calculated as Q [m<sup>3</sup> S<sup>-1</sup>] ×  $\Delta$ P [kPa] / Blower efficiency (~0.7) according to Estrada et al. (2012); The cultivation broth was obtained from Strong et al. (2016); The centrifuge energy consumption (Kwh m<sup>-3</sup>) was calculated according to Acien et al. (2012).

# Figures\_COBIOT\_2017



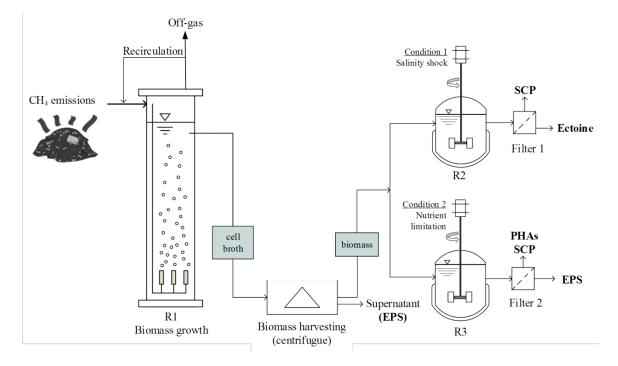


Figure 1. Process diagram for a methane bio-refinery producing ectoine, SCP, PHAs and EPS from a landfill emission.