

1 **Highlights**

2 • High robustness of CH₄-treatment biotechnologies towards inlet load
3 fluctuations

4 • Recovery of CH₄ abatement performance within 1.5 – 2 h after CH₄ resumption

5 • Different recovery strategies (*pmoA*-based) of methanotrophs against CH₄
6 starvation

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1 **Quantitative analysis of methane monooxygenase**
2 **(MMO) explains process robustness in continuous and**
3 **feast-famine bioreactors treating methane**

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1 Abstract

2 The ability of methanotrophs to rapidly respond to intentional or accidental stress
3 conditions caused by operational failures or process fluctuations is of utmost importance
4 to guarantee the robustness of CH₄ abatement biotechnologies. In this study, the
5 performance of a continuous and two feast-famine (5:5 days feast-famine cycles) stirred
6 tank reactors treating diluted CH₄ emissions (4-5 % v/v) was comparatively assessed for
7 149 days. The robustness of the three bioreactors towards a 5 days CH₄ deprivation
8 episode was thoroughly evaluated at a molecular level (*pmoA* gene expression level)
9 and correlated to macroscopic process performance. The bioreactors recovered their
10 steady-state abatement performance (in terms of CH₄ elimination capacity and CO₂
11 production rate) within 1.5 – 2 h following CH₄ supply resumption concomitantly with
12 a maximum in *pmoA* gene expression, regardless of the previous operational mode.
13 However, while methanotrophs from the continuous unit maintained higher basal levels
14 of *pmoA* expression as a strategy for a rapid CH₄ metabolism initiation, the strategy of
15 the feast-famine adapted-methanotrophs consisted on a more accurate regulation of their
16 *pmoA* transcripts levels along with a higher and/or more rapid induction of the *pmoA*
17 gene by CH₄ availability.

18

19 **Keywords:** expression level; gas treatment; load fluctuation; *pmoA*; robustness;
20 transcripts

1 **1 Introduction**

2 Methane (CH₄), with a lifespan on Earth of ~12 years, is a short-lived greenhouse gas
3 (GHG) (IPCC, 2014). This GHG possesses a global warming potential (GWP) 27 and
4 83 times higher than that of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in a 100-year and a 20-year horizon,
5 respectively, and has been ranked the second most abundant GHG produced by
6 anthropogenic activities after CO₂ (EEA, 2017; EPA, 2016; IPCC, 2014). Moreover, its
7 actual global warming effect on Earth may be systematically underestimated since the
8 United Nations and policymakers of the 100-year GWP use indistinctly the impact of
9 both short-lived and long-lived GHGs as the default metric for its evaluation (Daniel et
10 al., 2012; Ocko et al., 2017).

11 Today, flaring of CH₄-laden emissions is a common practice to safely dispose this
12 potent GHG when present at concentrations > 30 % (v/v) (Nikiema et al., 2007).
13 However, about 55 % of the anthropogenic CH₄ emissions contain CH₄ concentrations
14 lower than 3 % (v/v), which are not adequate for energy recovery purposes or for their
15 treatment through conventional flaring (Avalos Ramirez et al., 2012; Nikiema et al.,
16 2007). In this context, biotechnologies constitute a low-cost and sustainable alternative
17 for CH₄ abatement at the low concentrations (<5 %) typically found in emissions from
18 waste treatment activities, coal mining or animal farming (Scheutz et al., 2009).

19 To date, biofiltration constitutes the most studied and implemented biotechnology for
20 CH₄ abatement, which can support high CH₄ removal efficiencies (RE) (> 90%) when
21 parameters such as the O₂ concentration, moisture content and gas residence time are
22 optimized (López et al., 2013). However, biomass accumulation in biofilters (typically
23 entailing pressure drop increases, bed clogging and channeling problems) and their
24 claimed poor robustness towards process fluctuations and failures, have limited the

25 widespread implementation of this technology (Cox and Deshusses, 1999; Devigny and
26 Ramesh, 2005; Dorado et al., 2012). The application of starvation periods has been
27 consistently proven as a simple and inexpensive way to control biomass accumulation
28 in biofilters (Kim et al., 2005; Dorado et al., 2012; López et al., 2018), however, few
29 data exist about the robustness of this strategy as compared to a continuous operation
30 mode. Recently, the robustness (at macroscopic level) of biofilters operated under 3:3
31 and 5:5 days CH₄ feast-famine cycles (López et al., 2018) or subjected to a longer and
32 single CH₄ famine period (30 days) has been assessed, observing a rapid recovery of the
33 methanotrophic activity after the starvation conditions (Ferdowsi et al., 2016). In
34 addition, studies in literature based on pure cultures of methanotrophs suggest that these
35 bacteria possess regulatory mechanisms that allow them to survive well under starvation
36 conditions (Roslev and King, 1994; Roslev and King, 1995). However, to demonstrate
37 the robustness of this biomass control strategy compared to biofilter operation under
38 continuous mode, dedicated studies at a molecular level (microbial robustness)
39 correlated to a macroscopic process monitoring (CH₄ abatement) during feast-famine
40 cycles are needed.

41 In this context, analyzing the response of methanotrophic bacteria through
42 quantification of the expression of the key genes involved in CH₄ oxidation is a
43 valuable but unexplored approach to understand process robustness towards sudden or
44 cyclic fluctuations in the pollutant load. Quantification of the expression of the
45 particulate methane monooxygenase gene (*pmoA*) (encoding the alpha subunit of the
46 particulate methane monooxygenase (pMMO) enzyme catalyzing the conversion of CH₄
47 to methanol), is a widely used method to analyze methanotroph responses towards
48 environmental fluctuations (McDonald et al., 2008). Besides copper and ammonia
49 (NH₄⁺), the concentration of the growth substrate (CH₄) regulates the expression of

50 *pmoA* gene and, consequently, methanotrophic activity (Baani and Liesack, 2008;
51 Erikstad et al., 2012; Farhan Ul Haque et al., 2017). Tavormina and coworkers
52 investigated the response of *pmoA* and other genes in a type II methanotroph
53 (*Methyloprofundus sedimenti*) towards a short-term CH₄ starvation period followed by
54 CH₄ supply resumption. Interestingly, *pmoA* expression declined in the presence of CH₄
55 and increased during CH₄ starvation as a strategy of *M. sedimenti* to be prepared to
56 rapidly uptake CH₄ following substrate resumption (Tavormina et al., 2017).

57 In this study, the robustness (at the macroscopic and microscopic level) towards a feast-
58 famine period (5:5 days CH₄ feast-famine cycles) of three stirred tank reactors (STRs)
59 treating CH₄ at low concentrations (4-5 % v/v) was investigated. STR 1 was previously
60 operated under continuous regime, while STR 2 and STR 3 were already acclimated to
61 5:5 days feast-famine cycles for 149 days. At day 149, a complete feast-famine cycle
62 (5:5 days) was also applied to STR 1. From this day onwards, an intensive process
63 monitoring of the macroscopic performance (based on CH₄ elimination capacities (ECs)
64 and CO₂ production rates (PCO₂)), and of the transcriptional levels of the *pmoA* gene
65 was conducted in the three STRs during the complete feast-famine cycle. This study
66 aimed at elucidating the influence of the history of the microbial communities on their
67 macroscopic and microscopic robustness towards the feast-famine periods typically
68 encountered or intentionally applied in full-scale biofilters.

69 **2 Material and methods**

70 **2.1 STRs configuration, inoculum and nutrient solution**

71 The STRs consisted of cylindrical PVC columns (V = 3 L) top-sealed with butyl lids. A
72 humidified air stream (93 ± 12 % of relative humidity) was mixed with a pure CH₄
73 stream (regulated with a mass flow controller, Aalborg USA) in a mixing chamber,

74 which resulted in a 4-5 % CH₄ air emission sparged at the bottom of the reactors using 2
75 µm metallic diffusers (Fig. 1). STR 2 and STR 3 were operated under feast-famine
76 regimes, while STR 1 was operated under continuous mode. The STRs were inoculated
77 with microbial consortia previously grown for 243 days in lab-scale biofilters (packed
78 with K1 Kaldnes rings) treating CH₄ at low concentrations (4-5% v/v) under feast-
79 famine (inocula of STR 2 and STR 3) or continuous mode (inoculum of STR 1) (López
80 et al., 2018). The initial volatile suspended solid (VSS) concentration in STR 1, STR 2
81 and STR 3 was 8.8, 5.0 and 3.9 g L⁻¹, respectively. The cultivation broths were
82 magnetically agitated at 800 rpm and maintained at 25 ± 1 °C during the entire
83 experiment.

84 Centrate was used as a low-cost nutrient solution containing a high nutrients
85 concentration and a low biodegradable organic fraction. This wastewater was obtained
86 from the anaerobically digested sludge dewatering centrifuges of the Wastewater
87 Treatment Plant (WWTP) of Valladolid and maintained at 4°C prior to use. Centrate
88 was diluted with tap water at 1:2 ratio and supplemented with SO₄²⁻ at a final
89 concentration of 150 mg L⁻¹. This diluted centrate was characterized by N-NH₄⁺
90 concentrations of 170.84 ± 15.24 mg L⁻¹, pH values of 7.71 ± 0.12, inorganic carbon
91 (IC) and total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations of 153.6 ± 11.4 mg L⁻¹ and 12.82 ±
92 10.02 mg L⁻¹, respectively, and concentrations of P-PO₄³⁻, N-NO₃⁻ and N-NO₂⁻ of 15.6 ±
93 3.4 mg L⁻¹, 2.2 ± 2.2 mg L⁻¹ and 5.1 ± 3.4 mg L⁻¹, respectively. Liquid broth from the
94 CH₄-supplemented STRs was retrieved and replaced by fresh diluted centrate at a rate
95 of 225 mL d⁻¹. The biomass removed during the renewal of the nutrient solution was
96 returned to the STRs after centrifugation (no biomass withdrawal) in order to mimic
97 biofilter operating conditions.

98 2.2 STR operation and monitoring

99 The STRs were operated for 149 days before conducting the systematic evaluation of
100 their robustness towards CH₄ deprivation. STR 1 was operated in a continuous mode,
101 while STR 2 and STR 3 were operated under a feast-famine regime (5-days CH₄
102 starvation: 5-days CH₄ supply) in an alternate mode. The CH₄-laden air emission was
103 continuously fed at 8 L h⁻¹ to STR 1, and to STR 2 and STR 3 during their feast periods.
104 During starvation conditions, the feast-famine units were supplied with a continuous
105 CH₄-free air stream at 3 L h⁻¹ to maintain the cultivation broth under aerobic conditions.
106 The CH₄ inlet load (IL) in STR 1 and in STR 2 and STR 3 during the feast periods was
107 $129.7 \pm 6.2 \text{ g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$, which resulted in CH₄ concentrations of $48.0 \pm 2.3 \text{ g m}^{-3}$ ($\approx 4\text{-}5 \%$
108 v/v) and an empty bed residence time (EBRT) of $17.2 \pm 0.0 \text{ min}$.

109 During the first 149 days of operation the performance was evaluated by monitoring the
110 CH₄ and CO₂ gas concentrations at the inlet and outlet of the STRs during the feast
111 periods at days 0, 1, 3 and 5 of each cycle and determining the CH₄ EC, PCO₂ and CO₂
112 production yield (YCO₂) as described in López et al. (2018). Additionally, 100 mL of
113 cultivation broth from the STRs and the diluted centrate were used to determine once a
114 week the concentration of NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, SO₄²⁻, PO₄³⁻, total suspended solids (TSS)
115 and VSS. The pressure drop, temperature and pH of the cultivation broths were also
116 periodically monitored.

117 2.3 Systematic evaluation of process robustness in continuous and feast-famine 118 cultures

119 At day 149, STR 1 was operated under a feast-famine regime similar to STRs 2 and 3 in
120 order to evaluate the macroscopic and microscopic response of the three bioreactors to
121 starvation conditions, and the influence of the previous operation mode on *pmoA*
122 expression and on the recovery of CH₄ oxidation activity following the resumption in

123 CH₄ supply. Thus, a complete 5:5 days feast-famine cycle was initiated at day 149, STR
124 1 and STR 2 being initially operated under famine conditions and STR 3 under feast
125 conditions. The feast-famine cycle was thoroughly analyzed by sampling 10 mL of
126 cultivation broth (for *pmoA* expression analysis by qPCR) at designated times: -1.7,
127 0.03, 0.25, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 6.0, 12.0, 24.0, 72.0, 120.0 h during the first 5 days.
128 Numbering was restarted for the second-half of the cycle so that sampling point t =
129 120.0 h of the first half of the cycle corresponded to sampling point t = -2.3 h for the
130 second half of the cycle. Samples at 0.03, 0.25, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 6.0, 12.0, 24.0, 72.0,
131 120.0 h were then collected during the second 5 days (feast period for STR 1 and STR
132 2; famine period for STR 3). CH₄ supply shutdown and resumption occurred at t = 0 h
133 on each feast or famine half-cycle (Fig. 2). CH₄ and CO₂ gas concentrations at the inlet
134 and outlet of the STRs were also determined at the above sampling times, except for the
135 first 15 min after CH₄ supply shutdown and resumption (t = 0.25 h) to allow the renewal
136 of the bioreactor headspace.

137 **2.4 Analytical procedures**

138 CH₄ and CO₂ gas concentrations in the gas phase and NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, SO₄²⁻ and
139 PO₄³⁻ concentrations in the cultivation broth and centrate were determined according to
140 López et al. (2018). The determination of TSS and VSS concentrations was performed
141 according to standard methods (Eaton AD, Clesceri LS, Greenberg AE, 2005).
142 Temperature and humidity of the inlet gas stream were on-line measured by a
143 thermohygrometer (Testo 605-H1, Testo AG, Germany).

144 **2.5 qPCR analyses**

145 *2.5.1 DNA and RNA isolation and cDNA generation*

146 Cultivation broth samples for qPCR analyses were collected in sterile nuclease-free
147 polypropylene tubes and immediately stored at -80 °C prior DNA/RNA extraction.
148 DNA extraction was performed using the Fast[®] DNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP
149 Biomedicals, LLC) according to the manufacturer but optimizing the time for cell lysis
150 (130 s) in the Mini-Bead-beater equipment (Bio Spec Products, Inc.), and the time
151 required (1 h) for optimal DNA binding to the silica matrix. DNA integrity was checked
152 by agarose gel (1.2 % (w/v)) electrophoresis, while DNA concentrations were
153 determined using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies,
154 Wilmington, USA).

155 Total RNA was purified using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen Iberia SL) according
156 to the manufacturer. Briefly, 900 µL (STR 1) and 1400 µL (STR 2 and STR 3) of
157 cultivation broth sample were used for RNA extraction. After centrifugation, the pellet
158 was resuspended in RLT buffer and then subjected to bead beating (2 min at 4800 rpm).
159 Subsequently, a series of cleaning/purifying steps were carried out to recover the total
160 RNA from samples. The total RNA obtained was subjected to a DNase treatment using
161 the DNA-free[™] DNA Removal Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific S.A.). DNase treatment
162 reactions comprised 40 µl of purified RNA, 4 µl of DNase I Buffer and 1 µl of rDNase
163 I. Digestion reactions were performed at 37 °C for 30 min and were subsequently
164 inactivated by adding 4 µL of DNase Inactivation Reagent (2 min at room temperature).
165 The DNase Inactivation Reagent was pelleted through centrifugation (5 min at 10000
166 rpm) allowing the DNA-free total RNA be recovered. The Experion[™] RNA StdSens
167 Analysis Kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.) was used to assess the total RNA integrity in
168 an Experion[™] Automated Electrophoresis System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.). DNA-

169 free total RNA concentrations were quantified using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer
170 (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA). Then, the DNA-free total RNA was
171 reverse transcribed to cDNA using the iScript™ Reverse Transcription Supermix for
172 RT-qPCR (Bio-rad Laboratories, Inc.). The reactions were set up according to the
173 manufacturer. The final concentration of DNA-free total RNA on each reaction was
174 adjusted to 10 ng μL^{-1} . No-RT control reactions (no-reverse transcriptase) were also
175 included to further detect the interference of genomic DNA contamination in RNA
176 samples during the qPCR assays.

177 2.5.2 Generation of standard curves

178 Standard curves for the quantification of *pmoA* DNA and cDNA were constructed by
179 cloning a 510 bp *pmoA* gene fragment (generated using the primer pair A189f/mb661r
180 (Holmes et al., 1995; Costello and Lidstrom, 1999)) into the pCR4-TOPO plasmid
181 vector (one-shot chemical transformation) using the TOPO TA cloning® kit for
182 sequencing (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Clones bearing the target inserts were identified
183 first by PCR screening using M13f and M13r-targeting vector sequences. Subsequently,
184 positive clones were confirmed by sequencing using the above-mentioned primer pair,
185 after plasmid DNA extraction with the Wizard® Plus SV Minipreps DNA Purification
186 System (Promega, Madison, WI). Positive clones were stored at -80°C in 20 % (v/v)
187 glycerol prior use for standard curve generation.

188 Plasmid DNA was isolated from a positive clone (deposited in GenBank under
189 accession number MH025892) using the kit indicated above and then linearized by *speI*
190 restriction enzyme-based digestion (Promega, Madison, WI) at 37°C for 4 h. The
191 digestion mixture was prepared according to the manufacturer. The linearized plasmid
192 was purified using the Wizard® DNA Clean-Up System (Promega, Madison, WI) and
193 the resulting DNA plasmid concentration was measured using a NanoDrop

194 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA). Plasmid DNA
195 concentration ($\text{ng } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$) was transformed to copy number concentration of standard
196 DNA molecules ($\text{copies } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$) using the following equation:

$$197 \quad pmoA \left(\frac{\text{copy}}{\mu\text{L}} \right) = \frac{pmoA \text{ concentration } \left(\frac{\text{ng}}{\mu\text{L}} \right) \times 6 \times 10^{23} \left(\frac{\text{copy}}{\text{mol}} \right)}{\text{plasmid length (bp)} \times 6 \times 10^{11} \left(\frac{\text{ng}}{\text{mol of bp}} \right)} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

198 To avoid inter-run variation, a standard curve was run in triplicate on each qPCR assay
199 (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). Serial dilutions spanning 5 orders of magnitude (10^5 to 10^1 *pmoA*
200 DNA or cDNA copies μL^{-1}) of the *pmoA* standard stock solution (3.9×10^5 copies μL^{-1})
201 were prepared to generate the standard curves. Serial dilutions used for quantification of
202 cDNA from STR 3 spanned 4 orders of magnitude (10^5 to 10^2 *pmoA* cDNA copies μL^{-1})
203 (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). The dilution series of standards were prepared once using large
204 volume stock solutions, which were subsequently divided in 12 μL aliquots and
205 maintained at -80°C prior to use, in order to reduce sampling errors during standard
206 curve generation for each qPCR assay and enable calibration across a wider dynamic
207 range (Svec et al., 2015).

208 2.5.3 qPCR and data treatment

209 qPCR of *pmoA* gene copies and gene transcripts was performed in a iCycler[®] Thermal
210 Cycler coupled with an iQ5[™] Multicolor Real-Time PCR detection system (Bio Rad
211 Laboratories, Inc.). The aforementioned primer set A189f/mb661r was used to amplify a
212 510 bp fragment of the *pmoA* gene from the cultivation broth samples. PCR efficiency
213 (*E*) and linearity (R^2) of each qPCR assay were determined using the slopes of the
214 standards curves and using a linear regression analysis on the obtained data,
215 respectively (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2). Primer specificity of the qPCR assay was optimized
216 by applying a touchdown PCR program (Korbie and Mattick, 2008) (Table S1) and

217 adjusting the primer concentrations in the PCR reaction mixture. Primer specificity was
218 confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. S3) and melting analysis (temperature
219 range: 55°C - 95°C) (Fig. S4). PCR reactions were performed in 96-well reaction PCR
220 plates. Each PCR reaction was set up to a final volume of 20 μL in each well containing
221 10 μL of SsoAdvanced™ Universal SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories,
222 Inc.), 1 μL of DNA or 2 μL of cDNA, 0.5 μL of each forward and reverse primers (250
223 nM final concentration) and nuclease-free water to complete the total reaction volume.
224 Cycle threshold (Ct) values obtained for the standards and unknown samples were
225 imported into Microsoft Excel for *pmoA* gene or transcript quantification. DNA
226 standard curve concentrations were plotted as the linear regression of the Ct values of
227 the amplification curves versus the log of the initial gene copy number. The
228 concentration of the unknown samples (n° copies μL^{-1}) was determined by comparison
229 of the Ct values of the target templates against the standard curve. The results obtained
230 were converted to copy number per unit of volatile suspended solids (n° copy mgVSS^{-1})
231 to allow a fairer comparison of the STR microscopic performance. The relative
232 expression level of the *pmoA* gene in each sample was calculated as the mRNA/DNA
233 ratio (Yun et al., 2006; Freitag and Prosser, 2009), which indicates “per gene copy
234 transcription level”.

235 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

236 The software Statgraphics Centurion XV was used for the statistical analysis of the data.
237 A parametric ANOVA Tukey test was conducted for the analysis of the STRs
238 performance data before robustness assessment. Non-parametric procedures (Mann–
239 Whitney Rank Sum and Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA) were carried out for the analysis of
240 qPCR data during robustness analysis. Differences were considered significant at *P*-
241 value ≤ 0.05 .

242 **3 Results and Discussion**

243 **3.1 Long-term performance of the STRs**

244 Biomass concentrations of 4.0 ± 0.6 , 1.8 ± 0.3 and 2.7 ± 0.5 g VSS L⁻¹ were maintained
245 in STR 1, STR 2 and STR 3, respectively during the long-term operation of the STRs.
246 Despite the inoculation of the STRs with microorganisms acclimated to continuous and
247 feast-famine feeding strategies, from 3 to 6 weeks were needed to reach a stable
248 performance in terms of CH₄-EC in the STRs (Fig. 3). The performance of STR 1 was
249 characterized by low and unstable ECs during approximately the first six weeks of
250 operation (4.6 ± 1.3 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (~ 27 % EC variation)). Steady state CH₄-ECs of $12.8 \pm$
251 0.8 g m⁻³ h⁻¹) were recorded from day 47 onwards. Shorter initial instability periods
252 were recorded in STR 2 (approx. 5 weeks) (10.0 ± 2.0 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (~ 20 % EC variation)
253 and in STR 3 (approx. 3 weeks) (6.0 ± 0.7 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (~ 11 % EC variation). Steady state
254 CH₄-ECs of 11.6 ± 0.8 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ in STR 2 and 12.8 ± 0.8 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ in STR 3 were
255 recorded from day 35 and 20 onwards (Fig. 3). Despite similar ECs were recorded in the
256 three STRs, a rigorous statistical analysis showed significant differences between STR 1
257 and STR 2 (p-value < 0.001) and between STR 2 and STR 3 (p-value = < 0.001), which
258 revealed a slightly better performance of STRs 1 and 3. In this context, similar CH₄-ECs
259 were reported for the three lab-scale biofilters used as inoculum in this study when
260 operated under a 5-days / 5 days CH₄ feast-famine regime using almost identical IL and
261 NH₄⁺ concentration to those implemented in this study (López et al., 2018). Slightly
262 lower CH₄ ECs ($8 - 9$ g m⁻³ h⁻¹) have been observed in a biofilter operated at similar ILs
263 (95 g m⁻³ h⁻¹) and NH₄⁺ concentrations (~ 0.15 g L⁻¹) at an EBRT of 4.3 min (Nikiema et
264 al., 2009), while higher ECs (~ 45 g m⁻³ h⁻¹) were recorded in a biofilter supplied with an
265 IL of 87 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ but higher NH₄⁺ concentrations (3 g L⁻¹) (EBRT of 6 min) (Ferdowski
266 et al., 2016). These results reflect the influence of nitrogen concentration on CH₄ EC.

267 For biofilters treating CH₄ ILs comprised between 55 and 95 g m⁻³ h⁻¹, an optimum
268 nitrogen concentration (in the form of nitrate) of ~0.75 g L⁻¹ has been previously
269 observed (Nikiema et al., 2009).

270 PCO₂ of 11.6 ± 0.2 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ were observed for the first 12 days of operation in STR 1,
271 stabilizing afterwards at 25.0 ± 0.4 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (corresponding to a YCO₂ of 2.1 g CO₂ g
272 CH₄⁻¹). PCO₂ in the feast-famine units reached steady values almost immediately,
273 remaining at 21.5 ± 0.3 and 28.2 ± 0.4 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ in STR 2 and STR 3, respectively,
274 corresponding to YCO₂ values of 2.3 and 2.4 gCO₂ gCH₄⁻¹ (Fig. 3). Statistically
275 significant differences were found among all STRs (p-value = 0.0) in terms of PCO₂,
276 STR 3 and STR 1 supporting slightly higher PCO₂ compared to STR 2, which was in
277 accordance to their slightly superior CH₄ ECs. Comparable PCO₂ and YCO₂ values have
278 been reported in literature in biofilters and biotrickling filters treating CH₄ under similar
279 or higher CH₄ ILs (Estrada et al., 2014; Lebrero et al., 2015; López et al., 2018), which
280 supports the hypothesis that higher ILs favor the use of CH₄ for maintenance rather than
281 for methanotrophic biomass formation (Ferdowsi et al., 2016). In this context, the
282 theoretical maximum mineralization yield of CH₄ accounts for 2.75 gCO₂ gCH₄⁻¹.

283 Steady state ammonium removal in the STRs was characterized by the accumulation of
284 nitrate in the cultivation broth (74.1 ± 15.2, 94.5 ± 8.8, 98.3 ± 8.7 mg N-NO₃⁻ L⁻¹ in
285 STR 1, STR 2 and STR 3, respectively), which suggested the development of a
286 nitrifying consortia (detected through Illumina sequencing (data not shown)) and/or the
287 contribution of methanotrophs to NH₄⁺ oxidation. Negligible values of NO₂⁻ were
288 detected in the cultivation broth of the STRs. STR 1 showed N-NH₄⁺ REs (76.2 ± 5.8
289 %) significantly higher than the N-NH₄⁺ REs in STR 2 (66.2 ± 4.2 %) (p-value = <
290 0.001) and STR 3 (66.6 ± 4.9 %) (p-value < 0.001). These N-NH₄⁺ REs are higher than
291 those observed in CH₄-abatement biofilters under similar NH₄⁺ loading rates (Veillette

292 et al., 2011; López et al., 2018). On the other hand, the total nitrogen RE was also
293 higher in STR 1 (31.1 ± 12.0 %) than in STR 2 (10.0 ± 8.4 %) and STR 3 (9.1 ± 8.0 %).
294 These differences among the STRs in terms of N-NH₄⁺ REs and total nitrogen RE were
295 likely mediated by the higher biomass productivity of STR 1 induced by the continuous
296 CH₄ supply. The different contribution of methanotrophs to NH₄⁺ oxidation could have
297 also played a key role on ammonia removal.

298 **3.2 Assessment of process robustness in the continuous and feast/famine STRs**

299 PCO₂ gradually decreased during starvation conditions following the sudden shutdown
300 in CH₄ supply, reaching steady-state PCO₂ values of 5.9 ± 1.7 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (STR 1), $1.5 \pm$
301 0.5 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (STR 2) and 3.3 ± 1.6 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ (STR 3) between hour 24 and 120 of the
302 famine period as a result of the endogenous metabolism (Fig. 4). The unexpected
303 increase in PCO₂ observed from the last sample of the previous feast period (t = -1.7 h)
304 to the first sample of the famine period (t = 0.03 h) in the three units was likely due to
305 the decrease in STR aeration from 8 to 3 L h⁻¹, which induced a pre-concentration of the
306 residual CO₂ stripped out/generated from the cultivation broth during the first minutes
307 of CH₄ deprivation (Fig. 4). Similar to PCO₂, *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratios stabilized by
308 the end of the famine cycle (from t = 24 - 72 h to t = 120 h), although in this case, a
309 gradual decrease of the *pmoA* transcriptional activity was not observed during the first
310 12 hours of starvation (Fig. 5, Table 1). An initial decrease in the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA
311 ratio (2 - 3-fold) was observed from t = -1.7 h to t = 0.03 h in the three STRs, followed
312 by the recovery of the preceding ratio at t = 0.25 h in STR 1 or t = 0.5 h in STRs 2 and 3
313 (Fig. 5, Table 1). Subsequently, STR 1 was characterized by another decrease in the
314 *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio by a factor of 5 at t = 0.5 h of starvation (compared to the
315 preceding sample), followed by the recovery of the initial ratios (prior CH₄ supply
316 shutdown) at 2 h of the famine cycle, and remaining constant during the following 10 h

317 (Fig. 5, Table 1). The *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratios in STR 1 decreased to basal levels of
318 expression at an average value of $1.7 \times 10^{-4} \pm 6.0 \times 10^{-5}$ from hour 24 to 120 (Fig. 5,
319 Table 1). Interestingly, a pronounced decrease in the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio was not
320 observed in STR 2 and STR 3 during the first 12 h of starvation, which maintained their
321 *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratios almost constant or even slightly higher (STR 3). Hence, ~ 2-
322 fold variations in the *pmoA* gene expression level were recorded in STR 2 (Fig. 5, Table
323 1) until basal expression levels ($4.7 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.6 \times 10^{-6}$) were reached from $t = 24$ h to t
324 $= 120$ h (Table 1). STR 3 showed a slight increase in the *pmoA* transcriptional activity
325 ($3 \times$ higher compared to $t = -1.7$ h), which initiated at $t = 0.25$ h and peaked at $t = 1.5$ h.
326 Then, the *pmoA* gene expression decreased to basal levels (average ratio of $2.6 \times 10^{-6} \pm$
327 8.2×10^{-7}) from $t = 72$ h onwards. Overall, the variations in the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA
328 ratio in the three STRs during the first 12 hours of starvation suggest an early *pmoA*
329 regulation in response to the sudden CH₄ shutdown until steady-state *pmoA*
330 mRNA/DNA levels were reached.

331 Similar CH₄-ECs to those observed prior CH₄ supply shutdown (16.3, 16.8 and 16.1 g
332 m⁻³ h⁻¹ in STR 1, 2 and 3, respectively) were achieved within the first 1 - 2 h following
333 CH₄ supply resumption (Fig. 6). Similarly, PCO₂ comparable to those recorded under
334 steady state in the previous CH₄ feast period were reached within the first 2 hours
335 following CH₄ supply restoration in the three STRs (Fig. 4). A transient induction of the
336 gene (sharp increase in the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio) mediated by the enhanced CH₄
337 availability was observed during the first 12 h - 24 h of the feast cycle in the three STRs
338 (Fig. 5, Table 1). Then, the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratios stabilized at basal levels of
339 expression (Fig. 5, Table 1). This expression pattern characterized by a pronounced
340 increase in the *pmoA* transcriptional activity at the initial stage of recovery, followed by

341 a return to basal levels of expression, is typical of stress-induced genes. In fact, the gene
342 expression response (induction or repression) after a transient or persistent exposure to
343 stressors finally returns to steady-state levels close to those present in unstressed cells
344 (Fong et al., 2005; López-Maury et al., 2008). Maximum *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratios
345 during transient *pmoA* induction were recorded at 2 h, 1.5 h and 2 - 6 h after CH₄ supply
346 restoration in STR 1, STR 2 and STR 3, respectively (Fig. 5, Table 1). The periods
347 matched with the time needed to recover steady state CH₄-ECs (1.5 - 2 h following CH₄
348 supply resumption) (Fig. 6). This suggests a rapid physiological adaptation of
349 methanotrophs to the new environmental conditions and explains the quick recovery of
350 the CH₄-EC in the three STRs within less than 2 h, thus revealing an outstanding
351 process robustness regardless of the previous operation mode. Similar results in terms of
352 CH₄-EC were observed by López et al. (2018) in biofilters operated under 5:5 days
353 feast-famine cycles at similar CH₄ ILs. Lebrero et al. (2010) also observed a fast
354 recovery (30 min) of the previous ECs of butanone, toluene and H₂S (fed at trace level
355 concentrations (mg m⁻³)) in biofilters and air diffusion bioreactors subjected to 3-day
356 pollutant starvation periods. In contrast, 5 days were needed to reach the previous
357 process performance in a biofilter operated at an IL of 13 g m⁻³ h⁻¹ after a 30-day CH₄
358 and nutrients starvation period (Ferdowsi et al., 2016). At this point it should be
359 highlighted that our study constitutes, to the best of our knowledge, the first evaluation
360 of *pmoA* gene expression (key functional gene involved in CH₄ oxidation) in CH₄-
361 treating bioreactors.

362 The apparently high CH₄-ECs (45-66 g m⁻³ h⁻¹) recorded immediately after CH₄ supply
363 restoration (maximum CH₄-EC at t = 0.03 h in STR 1 and 2 and at t = 0.5 h in STR 3) in
364 all bioreactors were likely mediated by the high headspace volumes of the STR
365 compared to the CH₄-laden emission rates (Fig. 6). Therefore, these initial CH₄-ECs

366 probably do not represent the real ECs at the gas-liquid interphase of the reactors, since
367 the CH₄ concentrations measured at the outlet gas sampling ports were diluted with the
368 CH₄ free air initially present at the headspace of the STRs. In fact, these high CH₄-ECs
369 occurred before induction of the *pmoA* gene, which would entail similar or even lower
370 CH₄ oxidation activities if a direct correlation between CH₄ oxidation and *pmoA*
371 mRNA/DNA ratio is assumed. This rules out the potential biological basis of the large
372 CH₄-ECs recorded during this period. Similarly, the high CO₂ concentrations recorded
373 during the first 30 min following CH₄ restoration in STR 2 and STR 3 (Fig. 4) were
374 probably not induced by higher CH₄ oxidation activities but by the enhanced stripping
375 (caused by the higher aeration rates) of CO₂ generated by non-methanotrophic
376 methylophs or denitrifying bacteria (detected in this study through Illumina
377 sequencing (data not shown)) (Nikiema et al., 2009).

378 **3.3 Different survival strategies of methanotrophs explain process robustness in** 379 **continuous and feast-famine STRs**

380 The monitoring of the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio revealed common and differential
381 aspects in the regulation of *pmoA* gene expression between methanotrophs non-adapted
382 and adapted to cyclic fluctuations in CH₄ supply (continuous vs feast-famine operation).
383 Interestingly, the trend observed in the expression of the *pmoA* gene in the
384 methanotrophs from the feast-famine units suggests an adaptation of the *pmoA* gene
385 expression program to the long-term cyclic stress conditions (feast-famine) imposed.
386 The basal levels of *pmoA* expression during feast and famine conditions (t = 24 h to t =
387 120 h) in STRs 2 and 3 were significantly lower (two orders of magnitude under famine
388 regime, one order of magnitude during feast regime) than those observed in STR 1 (p-
389 value < 0.001) (Table 1). This lower expression levels of the *pmoA* gene in the feast-
390 famine units could represent a beneficial evolutionary adaptation acquired due to the

391 repeated famine stress, since stress conditions not only promote short-term adaptations
392 but may act as a major driving force for evolutionary innovation (López-Maury et al.,
393 2008). Some authors have hypothesized that the conserved intracellular ATP that would
394 result from a reduced expression of these genes potentially represents a factor driving
395 faster adaptation of bacteria to stress (Fong et al., 2005).

396 On the other hand, the differences in basal levels of *pmoA* transcription between feast
397 and famine conditions were higher in STR 2 and STR 3 (adapted to feast-famine
398 operation) than in STR1 (adapted to continuous operation), which maintained similar
399 *pmoA* basal expression levels during the feast and starvation periods (Fig. 5, Table 1).
400 The maintenance of high levels of *pmoA* expression during starvation (even higher than
401 those observed under CH₄ supply) have been observed in bacteria typically inhabiting
402 oligotrophic environments where longer periods of starvation can occur. This has been
403 considered as a survival strategy that facilitate the resumption of microbial growth
404 immediately upon substrate replenishment (Bollmann et al., 2005; Tavormina et al.,
405 2017). On the contrary, methanotrophs in STR 2 and STR 3 seem to have adopted a
406 different recovery strategy through fine-tuning of *pmoA* gene expression regulation
407 acquired due to the repeated exposure to feast-famine cycles. In fact, in addition to the
408 above-mentioned lower basal levels of expression, the regulation of *pmoA* in
409 methanotrophs from STR 2 and STR 3 was characterized by a decrease in the *pmoA*
410 mRNA/DNA ratio from the last sample of the famine period (t = 120 h) to the first
411 sample of the feast period (t = 0.03 h). However, *pmoA* expression rapidly recovered
412 fifteen minutes later (t = 0.25 h) (Table 1). It seems that the *de novo* synthesis of *pmoA*
413 transcripts decelerated immediately after the resumption of CH₄ supply in order to
414 maximize ATP conservation until CH₄ was effectively available in the cultivation broth.
415 Interestingly, the intensity of the induction of the *pmoA* gene during the first 12 -24 h of

416 the feast period was higher in STRs 2 and 3. Thus, based on the lowest *pmoA*
417 mRNA/DNA ratio at the end of the famine cycle ($t = 120$ h for STR 1) or immediately
418 after the resumption of CH₄ supply ($t = 0.03$ h for STRs 2 and 3), the maximum *pmoA*
419 mRNA/DNA ratio recorded during the feast period increased over one order of
420 magnitude in STR 1 (from 1.3×10^{-4} to 1.6×10^{-3}), two orders of magnitude in STR 3
421 (from 6.9×10^{-7} to 5.3×10^{-5}) and four orders of magnitude in STR 2 (from 4.4×10^{-7}
422 to 2.1×10^{-3}) (Table 1). These results are consistent with the hypothesis of a
423 transcriptional adaptation or transcriptional memory acquired along the cyclic stress
424 events (feast-famine), which has been consistently observed by other authors (López-
425 Maury et al., 2008 ; Lambert and Kussel, 2014).

426 Altogether, these results revealed two different recovery strategies of methanotrophic
427 activity in response to CH₄ starvation as a function of the previous operational mode
428 (continuous *vs* feast-famine). The methanotrophic communities present in the
429 continuous and feast-famine units exhibited a response memory: a behavior in which
430 gene expression persists after removal of an external inducer (Lambert and Kussel,
431 2014). However, methanotrophs in STR 1 based their recovery strategy on the
432 maintenance of higher basal levels of *pmoA* expression as a strategy to quickly oxidize
433 CH₄ upon replenishment. This strategy has been typically observed in bacteria adapted
434 to changing environments where unexpected fluctuations can occur (Bollmann et al.,
435 2005; Tavormina et al., 2017). However, this survival strategy did not seem to be
436 optimal in the case of environments where an expected programmed fluctuation (i.e.
437 feast-famine cycle) prevail, due to the high energy costs associated to an unnecessary
438 *pmoA* transcription during the famine period. In STR 2 and STR 3, methanotrophs
439 avoided such long-term energy cost by finely regulating the quantity of *pmoA*
440 transcripts necessary for CH₄ oxidation activity, which likely entailed maximal

441 metabolic costs through transient induction of the *pmoA* gene during the first hours
442 following the restoration of CH₄ supply (Fig. 5). This metabolic cost is typically
443 determined by the duration of this transient expression (Lambert and Kussel, 2014) and
444 likely, by the intensity of the induction. In this study, STR 2 exhibited a stronger but
445 shorter induction compared to STR 3, although both units experienced a higher
446 induction than STR 1 during the recovery of CH₄ oxidation (Fig. 5, Table 1). These
447 results suggest an adaptation of methanotrophs to a cyclic fluctuating environment
448 (feast-famine) by adjusting *pmoA* gene expression levels, and confirm that gene
449 expression levels may be evolutionarily tuned not only to support growth in a single
450 environment, but also to provide cells' progeny with memory of past environments
451 (Lambert and Kussel, 2014).

452 **4 Conclusions**

453 This study demonstrated at a macroscopical and molecular level the robustness of CH₄-
454 treatment biotechnologies towards sudden or cyclic fluctuations in pollutant load
455 regardless of the previous operational mode (continuous in STR 1, feast-famine in STRs
456 2 and 3). The steady-state CH₄ biodegradation performance was recovered within the
457 first 1.5 – 2 h after CH₄ resumption concomitantly with a maximum in *pmoA* gene
458 expression, which suggested a rapid response of methanotrophs to CH₄ availability.
459 Although a comparable recovery capacity was recorded in the three STRs, two different
460 strategies against CH₄ deprivation were observed as a result of the previous operational
461 mode. Thus, methanotrophs in STR 1 maintained high basal levels of *pmoA* expression
462 as a strategy to be set to rapidly oxidize CH₄ upon replenishment. On the contrary,
463 methanotrophs in STR 2 and STR 3 reduced their basal levels of expression of the
464 *pmoA* gene and finely regulated the quantity of *pmoA* transcripts necessary to support
465 CH₄ oxidation activity. Unfortunately, whether these two different recovery strategies

466 impacted or not on the maximum CH₄ biodegradation capacity of the methanotrophs fed
467 continuously or under a feast-famine regime was impossible to elucidate in this work
468 due to ultimate occurrence of CH₄ mass transfer limitations (similarly to the scenario
469 encountered in biofilters or biotrickling filters). Overall, this work consistently
470 demonstrated the outstanding robustness of methanotrophs, whose metabolism was not
471 significantly damaged under 5-days starvation periods and fully recovered within 1.5 –
472 2 h after CH₄ supply resumption.

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480 **Declarations of interest:**

481 None

482

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607

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Experimental set-up. 1 Methane cylinder, 2 Mass flow controller, 3 Mixing chamber, 4 Humidifying column, 5 Compressor, 6 Ambient air, 7 Gas outlet, 8 Rotameter. STR 1 Stirred tank reactor, STR 2 and STR 3 Feast-famine stirred tank reactors.

Figure 2. Schematic overview of the sampling collection times during a complete feast-famine cycle for *pmoA* transcription analysis by qPCR. a) Samples collected during the first 5 days of the feast-famine cycle (famine for STR 1 and STR 2; feast for STR 3). b) Samples collected during the second 5 days of the feast-famine cycle (feast for STR 1 and STR 2; famine for STR 3). Samples for the determination of gas concentration were collected simultaneously except for samples corresponding to 15 min following shutdown or resumption of CH₄ supply ($t = 0.25$ h), which were only collected for qPCR analysis.

Figure 3. Time course of the IL (black dotted line), EC (dark blue triangle) and PCO₂ (green square) in STR 1 (a), STR 2 (b) and STR 3 (c) during long-term performance.

Figure 4. Time course of PCO₂ during the 5:5 days feast-famine cycle in STR 1 (dark blue continuous line), STR 2 (pink dashed line) and STR 3 (green dotted line). The vertical dashed black lines indicate CH₄ supply shutdown and resumption. Reduced-size upper graphs show the detail of PCO₂ dynamics during the first 12 h of famine (left) or feast (right) conditions for the three STRs.

Figure 5. a) Time course of the *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio during the 5:5 days feast-famine cycle in STR 1 (dark blue continuous line), STR 2 (pink dashed line) and STR 3 (green dotted line). Reduced-size upper graphs show the detail of *pmoA* mRNA/DNA

ratio variations during the first 12 h of famine (left) or feast (right) conditions for the three STRs. Some sampling points are indicated on the graph for clarity purposes. b) Detail of *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio dynamics during the first 12 h of famine (left) or feast (right) conditions for STR 1 (dark blue continuous line), STR 2 (pink dashed line) and STR 3 (green dotted line). One graph per STR under feast or famine condition is presented using different numeric scale in order to appreciate *pmoA* mRNA/DNA ratio variations. The vertical dashed black lines indicate CH₄ supply shutdown and resumption.

Figure 6. Time course of the EC during the 5:5 days feast-famine cycle in STR 1 (dark blue continuous line), STR 2 (pink dashed line) and STR 3 (green dotted line). The vertical dashed black lines indicate CH₄ supply shutdown and resumption. Reduced-size upper graphs show the detail of CH₄ EC dynamics during the first 12 h of famine (left) or feast (right) conditions for the three STRs.

Figure 1.

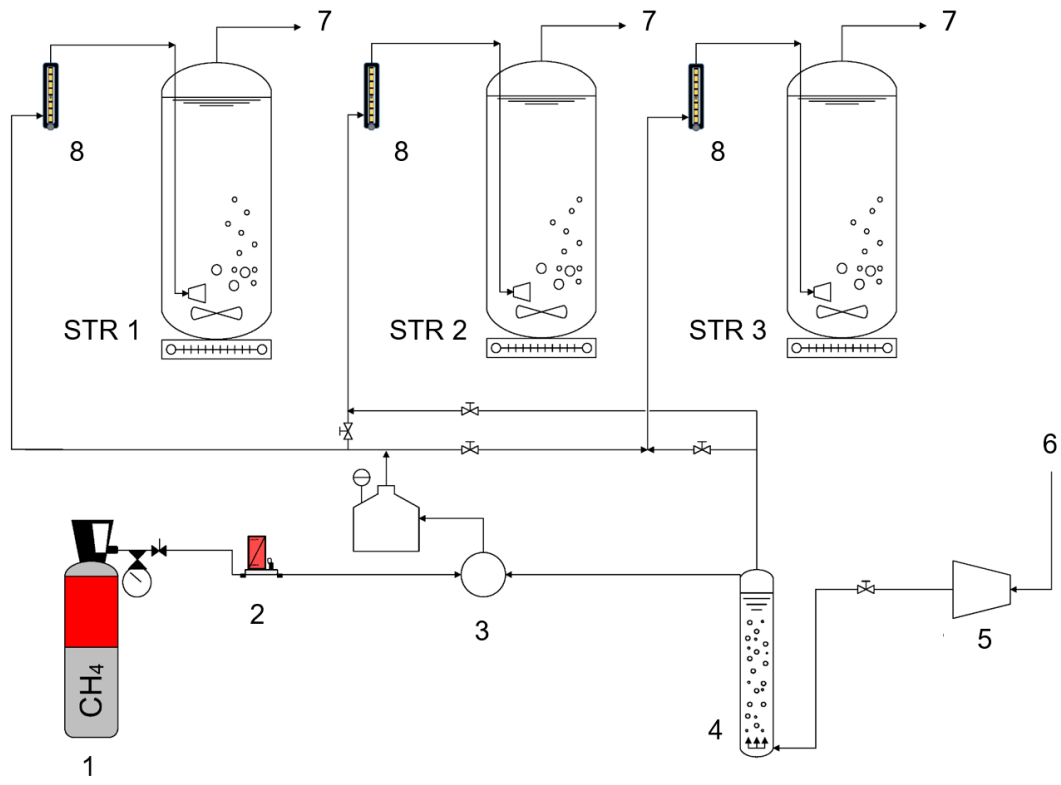


Figure 2.

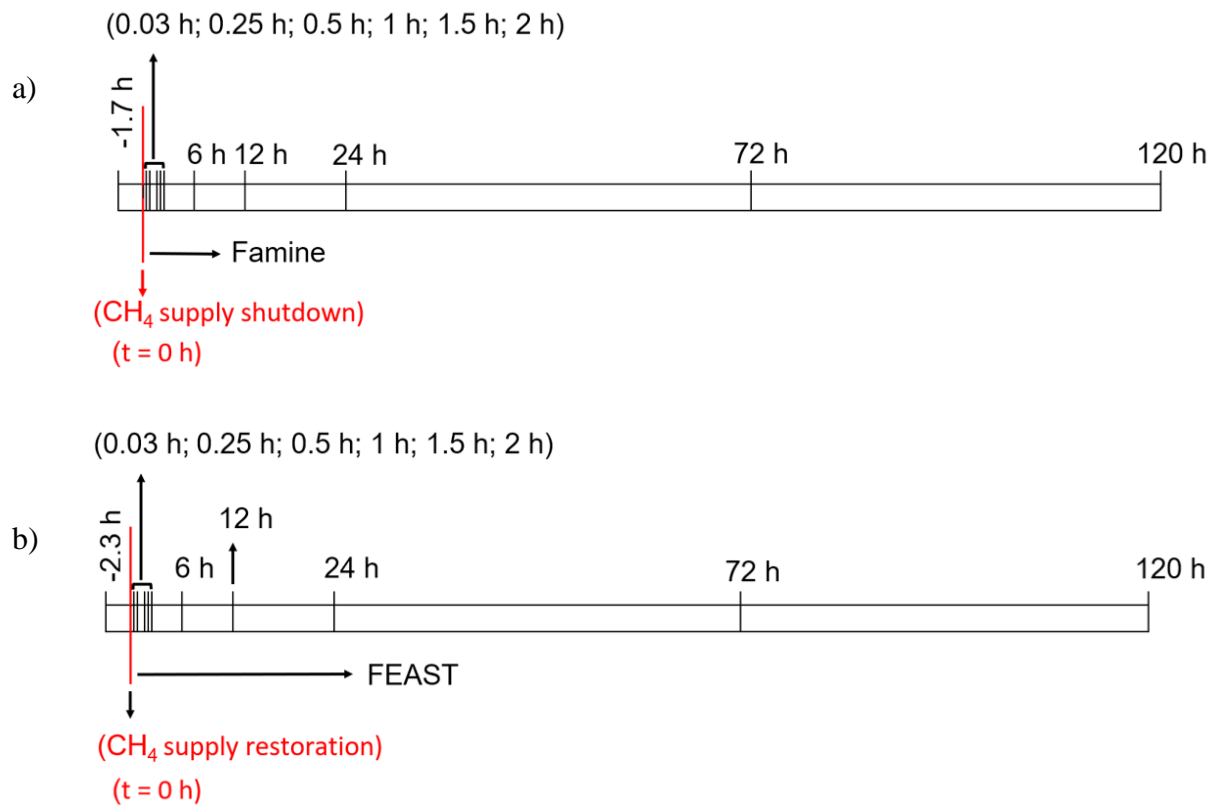
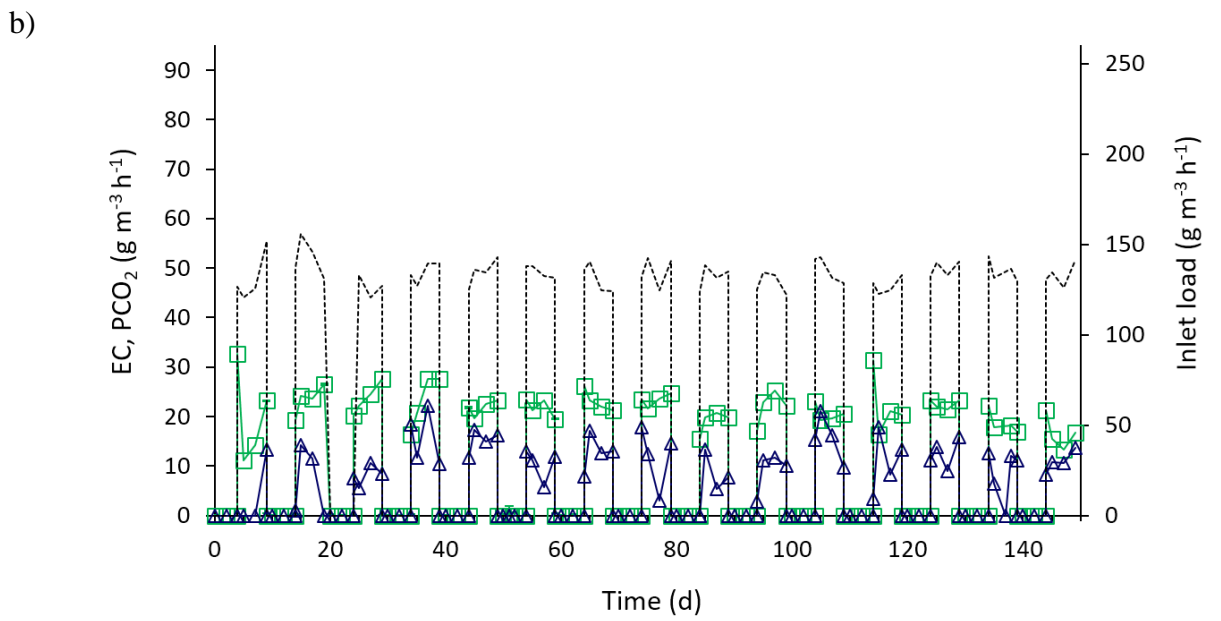
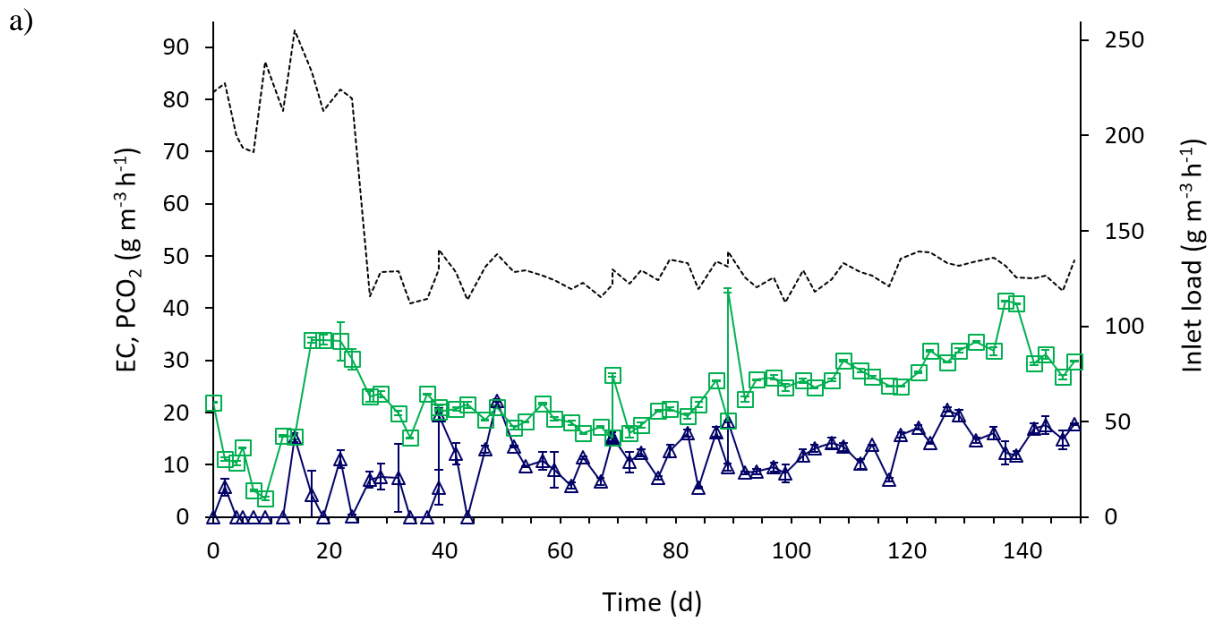


Figure 3.



c)

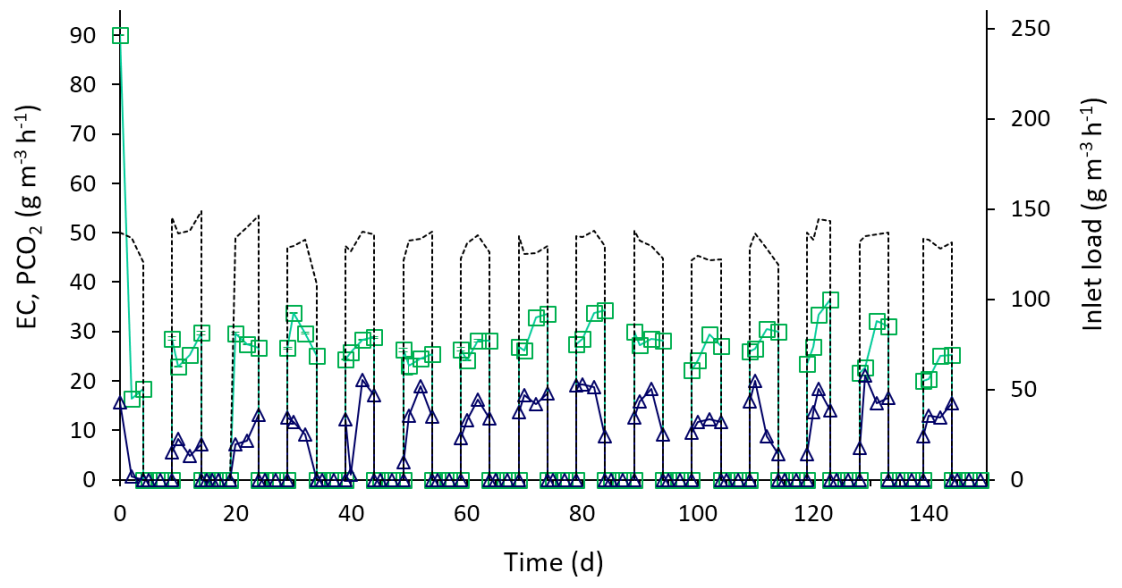


Figure 4.

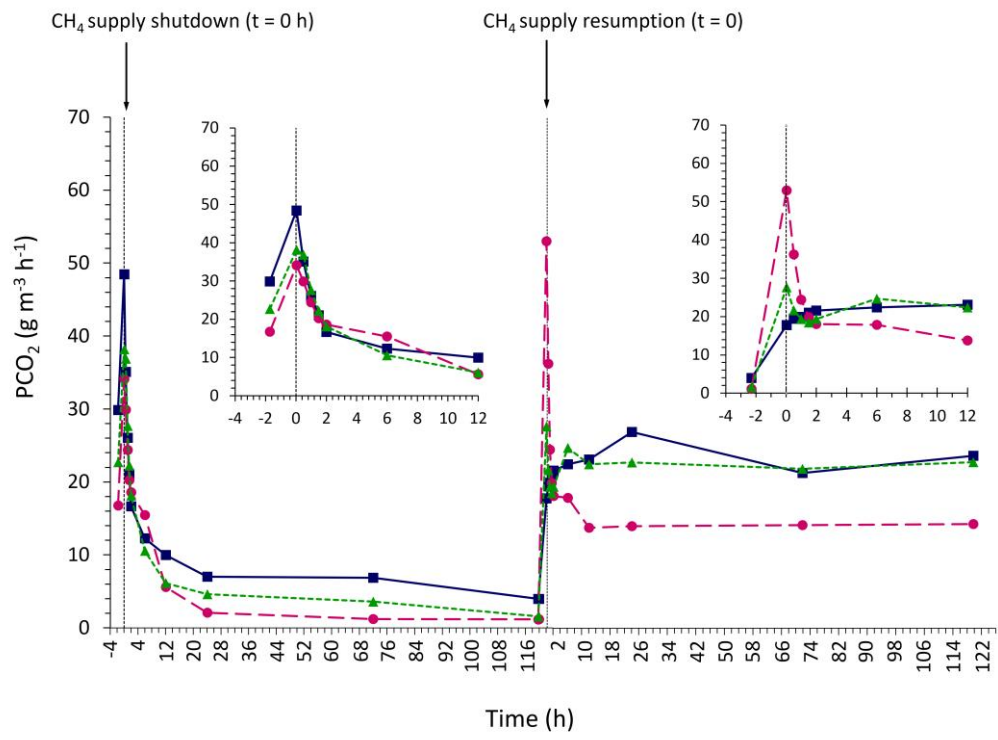


Figure 5.

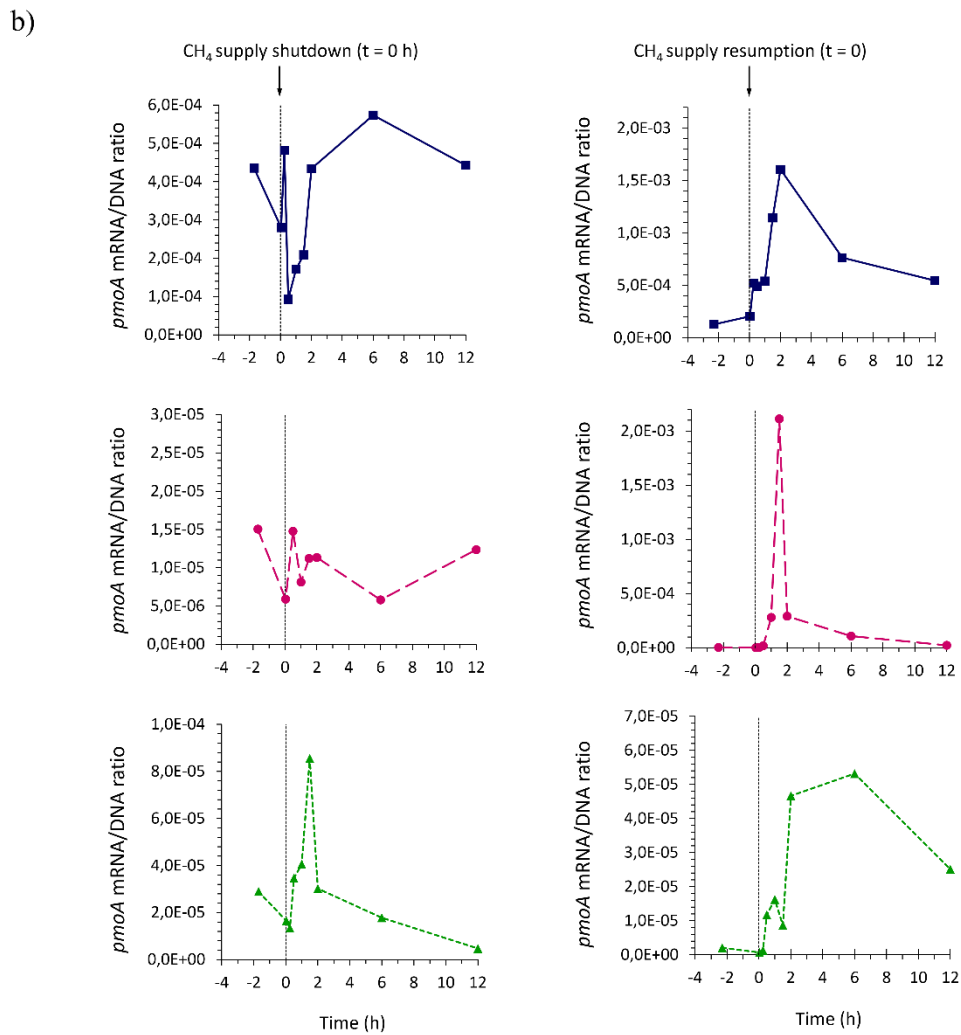
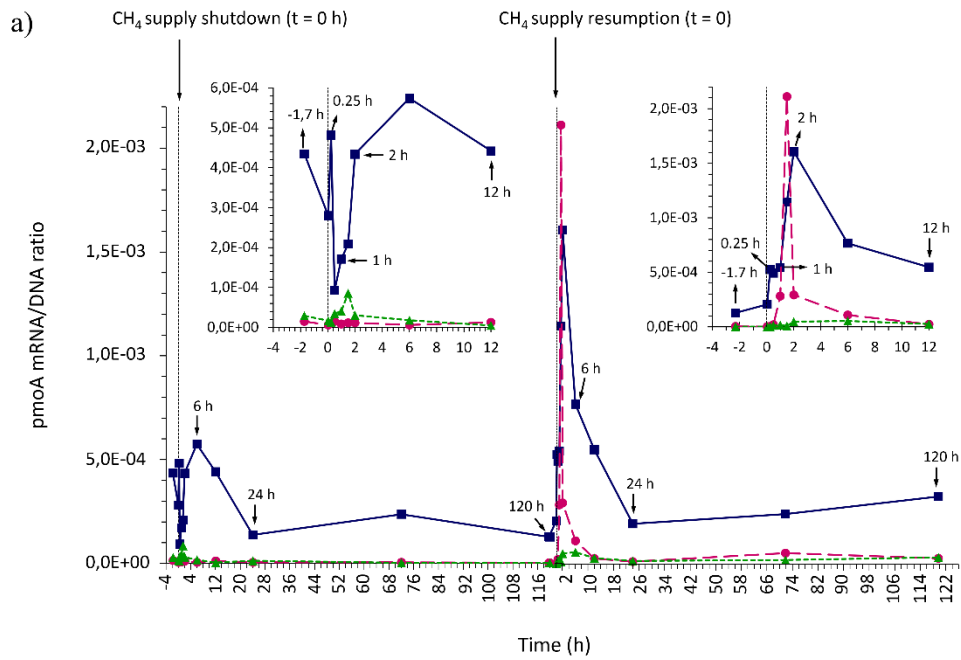


Figure 6.

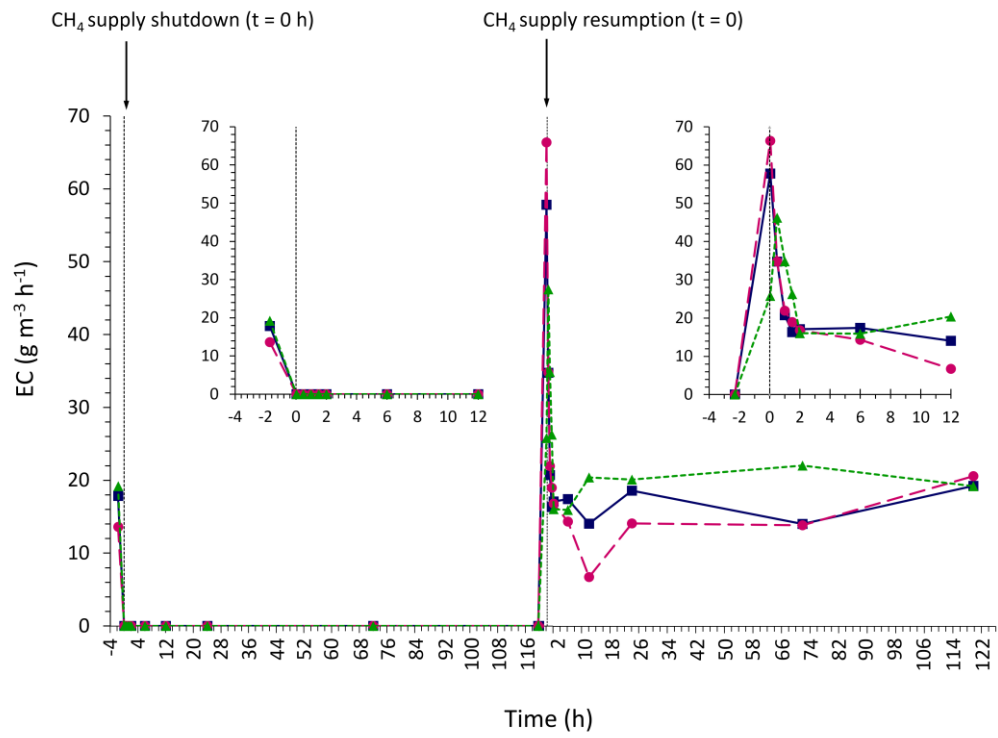


Table 1. mRNA / DNA ratios (copy mg VSS⁻¹) obtained by qPCR during the robustness analysis of the three STRs.

Time (h)	<i>pmoA</i> mRNA /DNA ratio (copy mg VSS ⁻¹)		
	STR 1	STR 2	STR 3
<i>Famine</i>			
-1.7	4.3×10^{-4} (3.4×10^{-5})	1.5×10^{-5} (2.2×10^{-6})	2.9×10^{-5} (5.0×10^{-6})
0.03	2.8×10^{-4} (3.4×10^{-5})	5.9×10^{-6} (4.4×10^{-7})	1.7×10^{-5} (1.5×10^{-6})
0.25	4.8×10^{-4} (5.9×10^{-5})	-	1.3×10^{-5} (3.9×10^{-7})
0.5	9.3×10^{-5} (1.4×10^{-5})	1.5×10^{-5} (1.2×10^{-5})	3.5×10^{-5} (3.5×10^{-6})
1	1.7×10^{-4} (1.2×10^{-5})	8.1×10^{-6} (9.5×10^{-7})	4.0×10^{-5} (5.1×10^{-6})
1.5	2.1×10^{-4} (3.3×10^{-5})	1.1×10^{-5} (1.5×10^{-6})	8.5×10^{-5} (4.6×10^{-6})
2	4.3×10^{-4} (7.1×10^{-5})	1.1×10^{-5} (2.4×10^{-6})	3.0×10^{-5} (4.1×10^{-6})
6	5.7×10^{-4} (9.8×10^{-5})	5.8×10^{-6} (5.2×10^{-7})	1.8×10^{-5} (1.3×10^{-6})
12	4.4×10^{-4} (7.4×10^{-5})	1.2×10^{-5} (1.6×10^{-6})	4.8×10^{-6} (7.9×10^{-7})
24	1.4×10^{-4} (2.0×10^{-5})	5.8×10^{-6} (3.5×10^{-7})	1.3×10^{-5} (4.9×10^{-7})
72	2.4×10^{-4} (3.9×10^{-5})	5.5×10^{-6} (4.4×10^{-7})	3.2×10^{-6} (5.0×10^{-7})
120 = -2.3	1.3×10^{-4} (1.7×10^{-5})	2.9×10^{-6} (2.2×10^{-7})	2.0×10^{-6} (6.0×10^{-7})
<i>Feast</i>			
0.03	2.0×10^{-4} (1.6×10^{-5})	4.4×10^{-7} (8.8×10^{-8})	6.9×10^{-7} (1.5×10^{-7})
0.25	5.2×10^{-4} (3.0×10^{-5})	4.2×10^{-6} (2.5×10^{-7})	1.3×10^{-6} (2.5×10^{-7})
0.5	4.9×10^{-4} (7.9×10^{-5})	1.8×10^{-5} (3.3×10^{-6})	1.2×10^{-5} (1.4×10^{-6})
1	5.4×10^{-4} (1.1×10^{-4})	2.8×10^{-4} (2.2×10^{-5})	1.6×10^{-5} (4.3×10^{-7})
1.5	1.1×10^{-3} (1.3×10^{-4})	2.1×10^{-3} (2.5×10^{-4})	8.7×10^{-6} (1.8×10^{-6})
2	1.6×10^{-3} (9.1×10^{-5})	2.9×10^{-4} (2.4×10^{-5})	4.7×10^{-5} (8.8×10^{-6})
6	7.7×10^{-4} (6.6×10^{-5})	1.1×10^{-4} (1.3×10^{-5})	5.3×10^{-5} (4.4×10^{-6})
12	5.5×10^{-4} (6.1×10^{-5})	2.3×10^{-5} (2.4×10^{-6})	2.5×10^{-5} (2.9×10^{-6})
24	1.9×10^{-4} (1.7×10^{-5})	8.1×10^{-6} (1.2×10^{-6})	1.2×10^{-5} (2.5×10^{-6})
72	2.4×10^{-4} (1.9×10^{-5})	4.9×10^{-5} (8.9×10^{-6})	1.6×10^{-5} (1.3×10^{-6})
120	3.2×10^{-4} (2.7×10^{-5})	2.4×10^{-5} (5.1×10^{-6})	2.9×10^{-5} (5.0×10^{-6})

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Data Statement

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