ROLE OF LANDFILL COVER IN REDUCING METHANE EMISSION

YUCHENG CAO¹,², * 
EWELINA STASZEWSKA²

¹School of Environment and Resource, Zhejiang Agricultural and Forestry University, 88 Huancheng North Road, 311300, Lin’an, China
²Faculty of Environmental Engineering, Lublin University of Technology, ul. Nadbystrzycka 40 B, 20-618, Lublin, Poland
*Corresponding author e-mail: Cao.y@wis.pol.lublin.pl

Keywords: Greenhouse effects, methane emission, landfill cover, methane reduction.

Abstract: Uncontrolled emissions of landfill gas may contribute significantly to climate change, since its composition represents a high fraction of methane, a greenhouse gas with 100–year global warming potential 25 times that of carbon dioxide. Landfill cover could create favourable conditions for methanotrophy (microbial methane oxidation), an activity of using bacteria to oxidize methane to carbon dioxide. This paper presents a brief review of methanotrophic activities in landfill cover. Emphasis is given to the effects of cover materials, environmental conditions and landfill vegetation on the methane oxidation potential, and to their underlying effect mechanisms. Methanotrophs communities and methane oxidation kinetics are also discussed. Results from the overview suggest that well-engineered landfill cover can substantially increase its potential for reducing emissions of methane produced in landfill to the atmosphere.

INTRODUCTION

There is a growing consensus that the earth temperature is rising, and that the principle cause for this is the emission of greenhouse gases (e.g. CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O) [1–2]. Methane (CH₄), an important greenhouse gas that can remain persistently in the atmosphere for approximately 9–15 years, is 25 times more effective in trapping heat in the atmosphere than carbon dioxide (CO₂) over a 100–year period [1]. Although CH₄ concentration in the atmosphere is rather low, its current contribution to global warming reaches as much as 15% [3]. More unfavourably, this contribution is believed to remain escalating as a result of a growing CH₄ emission to the atmosphere.

Landfill is known as one of the major anthropogenic emissions sources of CH₄. According to the US EPA [4], the total anthropogenic emissions of CH₄ in 2000 were about 282.6 million tons, of which 13% was due to landfill emissions. Therefore, reduction of landfill gas emission to the atmosphere is of importance for mitigation of climate change. One win–win strategy toward this purpose is to collect landfill gas and use it as a substitute fuel for heat or electricity generation. However, there are several scenarios under which collection and utilization of the biogas is not available. For example, some
old landfills were not equipped with gas collection systems; some abandoned landfills still emit more or less methane. Even in modern landfills, the biogas produced cannot be collected sufficiently, primarily limited by the gas collection system, in particular the number of gas wells. This was demonstrated by the study evaluating the amounts of the methane collected and lost for 25 landfills in California [3]; the result showed that the amount of methane lost was approximately two times greater than the collected methane amount on the basis of per ton of municipal solids waste. Therefore, there is a need seeking for other pathway for suppression of landfill CH₄ emission.

Soils, more precisely the microorganisms living in soils, have been widely observed to have the unique ability of utilizing CH₄ as their carbon and energy source and oxidize it to CO₂ [5–6]. Landfill cover, where CH₄ is presented at high concentration and O₂ is partly available, has proven to possess impressive CH₄ oxidation potential [7–14]; recent study reported a mean value of 36 ±6% for CH₄ oxidation efficiency [15], although the default value for this parameter set by IPCC and the USEPA is relatively low (0%–10%) [16].

Landfill CH₄ oxidation potential varies largely, depending on a number of factors. Factors influencing CH₄ oxidation performance in landfill include cover materials (type and physical-chemical properties), landfill gas flux (particularly CH₄ concentration), O₂ availability, landfill vegetation and climatic variables [17–21]. The present work presents a brief overview on CH₄ oxidation potential in landfill cover, main limiting factors and their underlying effect mechanism. Specifically, the methanotrophic communities and CH₄ oxidation kinetics are discussed.

METHANOTROPH COMMUNITIES

CH₄-consuming bacteria (known as methanotroph) can grow under different environment conditions [5–6, 22], even extreme environments, e.g. in permafrost soils of Siberia (a mean annual temperature of −14.7°C) [23], at temperature as high as 72°C [24], and in extremely acidic (pH 2.0–2.5) [25] or alkalic environment (pH 9.5–10.5) [26]. Based on the differences in morphological and physiological characteristics, methanotrophs are divided into two groups: type I and type II, together comprising a total of 12 genera [27]. Among them, type I methanotrophs account for 8 genera: *Methylomonas, Methylobacter, Methylomicrobium, Methylosarcina, Methylosphaera, Methylococcus, Methylocaldum* and *Methylothermus*, while type II consists of the rest, that is, *Methylosinus, Methylocystis, Methylocapsa* and *Methylocella* [27–28]. Recently, several new members of methanotrophs, such as *Crenothrix polyspora* [29] and *Clonothrix fusca* [30], have been isolated and characterized, suggesting that the methanotroph communities are more diverse than were previously thought.

Methanotrophs oxidize methane to methanol by using enzyme methane monooxygenase (MMO). Two types of MMO have been isolated from methanotrophs, including a soluble cytoplasmic MMO (sMMO) and a membrane-bound particulate MMO (pMMO). The pMMO is present in all methanotrophs (except *Methylocella*), while the sMMO only in a few methanotrophic genera [28]. The pMMO-containing cells have better growth capabilities and higher affinity for methane than the cells containing sMMO [27]. Copper ions were suggested to play a significant role in both pMMO regulation and the enzyme catalysis [31].
METHANE OXIDATION POTENTIAL

In general, methane oxidation potential is parameterized by methane oxidation rate and/or methane oxidation efficiency. The former is generally expressed on an area or mass basis (expressed as g CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹ or g CH₄·g⁻¹·d⁻¹) while the latter expressed as percentage (% methane oxidized). Conventional method to determine these parameters is the static flux chamber technique based on mass balance. In some cases stable isotopes measurement was also employed as an alternative or confirmatory approach. More recently, push-pull tests, which were initiated to determine reaction rates of pollutant degradation in groundwater aquifers, were adapted as a possible method for in situ measurement of methane oxidation rates in landfill [32–33].

Table 1 summarizes the methane oxidation capacities measured in different landfill cover materials under different conditions. The potential of the methane oxidation in landfill cover is substantially impressive. As seen from Table 1, up to 100% of CH₄ emissions from landfill can be oxidized to CO₂ and H₂O, if landfill cover is well designed and constructed. The maximum methane oxidation capacity measured in bed layer (60–80 cm depth) at laboratory and field scales ranged from 200 to 400 g m⁻² d⁻¹ [34–37]. Under certain conditions, methanotrophs in landfill cover not only oxidize the CH₄ produced from landfill, but also consume atmospheric CH₄ [38–39].

Table 1. Methane oxidation potential measured in landfill covers

| Landfill cover material                                             | CH₄ Loading | Methane oxidation potential | Source |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------|--------|
|                                                                    | g CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹ | Oxidation rate g CH₄·m⁻²·d⁻¹ | Oxidation efficiency % |        |
| Four terrestrial mineral soils                                     | 25–100      | 45–112                      | 23–56  | [40]   |
| Sediment rich in organic matter                                    |             |                             |        |        |
| Garden waste composts                                              | 179–201     | 45–112                      | 23–56  | [41]   |
| Sewage sludge compost                                              |             |                             |        |        |
| Cover with compost layer                                           | 2.69        | 2.69                        | 100    | [42]   |
| Control (without compost layer)                                    | 29.4        | 19.5                        | 63     |        |
| Landfill cover soil                                                | 233.6       | 118                         | 51     | [43]   |
| Mixture of soil and earthworm cast                                 | 233.6       | 232                         | 99–100 |        |
| Mixture of soil and PAC                                            | 233.6       | 232                         | 99–100 |        |
| Mechanically–biologically treated municipal solid waste             | 30–78       | 22–82                       |        | [44]   |
| Landfill cover soil                                                | 35.3–84.7   | 20–100                      |        | [45]   |

FACTORS AFFECTING METHANE OXIDATION

Methane concentration
The underlying biochemical reaction process of methane oxidation can be simplified as follows [46]:
\[
CH_4 + O_2 \xrightarrow{\text{Methanotrophic microorganism}} CO_2 + 2H_2O
\]  

(1)

Apparently, the methane oxidation activities are intrinsically dependent on \(CH_4\) and \(O_2\) concentrations. Various laboratory and field experiments have shown that higher \(CH_4\) concentration led to an increase in the \(CH_4\) oxidation rate, up to a certain constant level [40].

![Fig. 1. The \(CH_4\) concentration dependence of methanotrophic activity observed in sand materials taken from 9 different depths in the column [14]](image)

Pawłowska and Stepniewski [8, 14] studied the methanotrophic activity in the vertical profile of a simulated landfill cover as a function of \(CH_4\) concentration (Figure 1). As shown in Figure 1, the increase of \(CH_4\) concentrations from 2 to 16% resulted in a 1.1–2.5 fold increase in the \(CH_4\) oxidation rate measured at different depths in the column. A similar value (2.3 – fold) was observed in forest cambisol, where the measured \(CH_4\) concentration varied from 25 to 200 ppm [47]. The reason for the increase in \(CH_4\) oxidation capacity can be partly explained by the fact that higher populations of \(CH_4\) oxidation bacteria are achieved with the presence of higher \(CH_4\) concentrations, leading to more \(CH_4\) consumed.

**Oxygen concentration**

Another limiting factor influencing the methane oxidation process is \(O_2\) supply. Pawłowska and Stepniewski [48] investigated the effect of oxygen concentration on methanotrophic activity in sand material. It was found that the \(CH_4\) oxidation rate almost linearly increased when \(O_2\) concentrations increased from 2.5 to 15%, followed by a slow increase approaching to a constant value (Figure 2). Similar result was observed by Schnell and King [49] who investigated the effect of \(O_2\) concentration ranging from the atmospheric level to 0.2% (v/v) on the methanotrophic activity in forest soils. Results from these studies also indicate that the \(O_2\) dependency of the \(CH_4\) oxidation rate can be described by Michaelis-Menten reaction.
It is important to note that the fact that the methanotrophic bacteria recognized are aerobic, does not indicate the methanotrophic abilities cannot occur in anaerobic conditions. There are numerous reports that have observed the methane oxidation activity at the bottom part of landfills cover or simulated landfills cover where O$_2$ concentration is very low. In fact, the phenomena of anaerobic oxidation of methane have been widely observed in CH$_4$ – rich bearing marine sediments [50–51]. The SO$_4^{2-}$–CH$_4$ interface and reaction is recognized as the fundamental mechanism of the CH$_4$ oxidation under anaerobic conditions. The SO$_4^{2-}$–CH$_4$ interface is a thin interval at the base of the SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction zone that separates SO$_4^{2-}$ – containing sediments above from CH$_4$ – rich sediments below [50–51]. During anaerobic oxidation of methane, CH$_4$ and SO$_4^{2-}$ are consumed at the interface, leading to the production of HCO$_3^{-1}$ and HS$. The net reaction for the anaerobic oxidation of methane is formulated as the following equation [51]:

$$CH_4 + SO_4^{2-} \xrightarrow{\text{microorganisms}} HCO_3^{-1} + HS^{-1} + H_2O$$

(2)

Although numerous studies have examined the anaerobic oxidation of methane in marine environments, few have studied this activity in landfill cover. Recent studies have observed the presence of anaerobic oxidation of methane in drained peat and automorphic – sodpodzol soils [52] and landfill – leachate plume [53], suggesting that this process could occur in landfill cover.

**Cover materials**

Land cover materials used are of particular importance for landfill CH$_4$ oxidation systems. Previous studies have revealed that the type and physical-chemical properties of cover materials (e.g. particle size, porosity, moisture, and organic matter content) have a multi-dimensional effect on gas transfer and distribution, methane and oxygen availability, methanotrophs community structure and population, and nutrients supply [18, 54–55]. He et al. [54] investigated the CH$_4$ oxidation capacities and microbial community structures for two types of cover materials: a stabilized waste and an ordinary landfill cover material.
(clay soil). It was found that type II methanotrophs were more abundant in the waste relative to the clay soil, while type I methanotrophes were predominant in the clay soil. Results from the study also suggest that the waste favours the development and growth of methanotrophs in comparison with the clay soil.

Pawłowska et al. [20] carried out an examination of methanotrophic performance on four types of mineral materials with different grain size. Results from their study showed that the grain size of materials had an influence on CH₄, O₂ and CO₂ profiles, water and organic carbon content, and redox profiles. The maximum value of methane oxidation capacity \((227.4 \pm 10.6 \, \text{dm}^3 \, \text{m}^{-2} \, \text{d}^{-1})\) was achieved for the coarse sand material with grain size ranging from 0.5 to 1.0 mm. Further increase or decrease of the grain size resulted in reduced methane oxidation capacity. Gebert et al. [45] pointed out that the methane oxidation performance in landfill cover is governed by the share of pores available for gas transport, if other environmental variables (e.g. pH and nutrients) are not limiting. The authors conducted diffusion tests to investigate the effect of air-filled porosity of cover soil and degree of compaction on diffusivity and methane oxidation efficiency. It was suggested that soils used as methane-oxidizing cover material need to maintain an air-filled porosity of at least 14 vol. %.

Water content of cover soils influences the methanotrophic process, via modification of the conditions for methanotrophs growth and the effect on gas diffusion. Excessive water content can decrease the CH₄ oxidizing capacity of landfill cover soils; gas diffusion is limited when the soil pores are water saturated. On the other hand, insufficient moisture content can also lead to the decrease in the oxidation capacity, presumably due to the response to water stress, which will result in lower microbial activities. Whalen et al. [21] investigated the influence of water contents in the range of 30–50% (v/v) on methanotrophic activity. The optimum moisture content for forest soils was observed in the range of 21–27% of total water retention, whereas the optimum for flooded soil was about 50%. Einola et al. [56] examined the responses of methane oxidation to temperature and water content in cover soil of a boreal landfill. They found that the CH₄ oxidation response to water content varied largely with temperature: at 1–6°C, CH₄ consumption increased with water content (33–67% water-holding capacity), while at 12–19°C the response trend was curvilinear with peak value at 50% water-holding capacity.

The optimal pH value for methanotrophs growth is in the range of between 6 and 8 [57–59]. An increase of pH value caused by the liming of acid soils (pH increase from 3.6 to 4.7) had no visible effect on methanotrophic activity at the atmospheric CH₄ level [59]. It can be concluded that the pH of the landfill cover soil is not a limiting factor for methane oxidation process as it generally varies slightly at around 7 [55].

**Climatic conditions**

Temperature has a significant effect on the methanotrophic activity, especially when the process is not limited by gas diffusion. An exponential increase in CH₄ oxidation rate was observed in response to temperatures ranging from 4–30°C [18]. Further increase in temperature leads to rapidly declined CH₄ oxidation rate. The temperature effect can be described by a parameter referring to the Van’t Hoff Q₁₀ temperature coefficient. When the Q₁₀ value is below 2, the processes of methane oxidation is limited by diffusion. Conversely, the process is determined by biochemical factors.
Table 2. Q_{10} coefficients for the methane oxidation process in sand material [48]

| Range of temperature change (°C) | Methanotrophic activity change (cm³ kg⁻¹ s⁻¹) | Temperature coefficient of Van’t Hoff Q_{10} |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| 7–14                             | 4.8                                           | 7.3                                      |
| 14–21                            | 2                                             | 2.7                                      |
| 14–7                             | 1.84                                          | 2.3                                      |
| 21–14                            | 1.72                                          | 2.1                                      |

The results presented in Table 2 show different behaviour of the methanotrophic activity during the increase and decrease of temperature [48]. These Q_{10} values were higher than the temperature coefficient measured in landfill cover soils by other authors. Whalen and Reeburgh [60] found Q_{10} equal to 1.9 (at the temperature range from 5°C to 26°C), indicating that the process of methane oxidation was limited by diffusion. The examined material in their study was heterogeneous soils with different grain sizes. While the sand materials examined by Pawłowska and Stepniewski et al. [48] had homogenous granulometric composition (without silt and clay fractions), the diffusion limitation was not observed.

Vegetation

Plants are known to play a considerable role in CH₄ oxidation process occurring in landfill. Several studies have unanimously showed that the type of plant has a significant influence on methanotrophs populations (both type I and type II) and methane oxidation potential [61]. In a study [61] comparing the effect of four different plants (Miscanthus, poplar, grass, alfalfa–grass mixture) and an unplanted control, the alfalfa–grass mixture cover was shown to have the best performance, with a high relative abundance of Methylocystis. Wang et al. [19] investigated the effect of landfill vegetation of a plant (Chenopodium album L, tolerant to high concentrations of landfill gas) on the methane oxidation potential and bacterial community in the presence and absence of landfill gas. The co-presence of the plant and landfill gas was found to significantly enhance the population of methanotrophic bacteria and their methane oxidation potential. The study also revealed that there were interactive effects of landfill gas and vegetation on methanotrophic bacterial activity and community composition.

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the positive effect of plant vegetation on landfill CH₄ oxidation activities [19, 61–62]. First, plant vegetation leads to the form of rhizosphere, a soil zone that surrounds and is influenced by the roots of plants, creating a favourable habitat for methane oxidizing bacteria. Second, the spread of plant roots loosens the soil structure, and thus benefits landfill gas diffusion and facilitates the transport of oxygen from the atmosphere. Another possibility is that plant root exudates serve as selective substrates for methanotrophic bacteria and promote their growth.

KINETICS OF METHANE OXIDATION

Studies of methane oxidation kinetics can not only provide the information on how fast the methanotrophic reaction occurs, but also allow for the potential of methane oxidation
to be evaluated. In most cases, kinetics of the methane oxidation can be described by Michaelis-Menten equation, which is given as:

$$ V = \frac{V_{\text{max}}}{1 + \frac{K_M}{C}} \quad (3) $$

where $V$ (m$^3$·m$^{-3}$·s$^{-1}$) is the actual methane oxidation rate, $V_{\text{max}}$ (m$^3$·m$^{-3}$·s$^{-1}$) is the maximum methane oxidation rate, $K_M$ (%) is the Michaelis constant for CH$_4$, and $C$ (%) is the CH$_4$ concentration.

The kinetics parameter of $V_{\text{max}}$ can be used to indicate the capacity of the methane oxidation. The half-saturation constants, $K_M$, can characterize the affinity (reciprocal of $K_M$) of methanotrophs to CH$_4$; a high $K_M$ value indicates a poor affinity (reciprocal of $K_M$) of methanotrophs to CH$_4$. Based on the difference in $K_M$ [63], the CH$_4$ oxidation and CH$_4$-consuming bacteria are grouped into two distinct forms. The first form occurs at low CH$_4$ concentrations (atmosphere-level), commonly known as high affinity oxidation (low capacity CH$_4$ oxidizer) [64]. The second form is typical of those encountered in landfill cover soils where methanotrophs oxidize high CH$_4$ concentrations, known as low affinity (high capacity CH$_4$ oxidizer) [64].

Table 3 summarizes the results of several kinetics studies on methane oxidation in landfill cover soils and in materials tested. For comparison, the kinetic characteristics of the methane oxidation under natural conditions with the atmospheric level of methane concentration are also listed.

| Material examined | CH$_4$ concentration (vol.%) | $V_{\text{max}}$ (cm$^3$·kg$^{-1}$·s$^{-1}$) | $K_M$ (%) | Source |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|
| Sand material (column experiment) | 1–16 | 1.1·10$^{-4}$–8.3·10$^{-4}$ | 0.6–2.9 | [8] |
| Landfill cover soil | 1.7·10$^{-4}$–1.0 | 0.88–1.09·10$^{-3}$ | 0.18–0.7 | [21] |
| Landfill cover top soil | 1.6·10$^{-2}$–8.0 | 4.65·10$^{-3}$ | 2.54 | [65] |
| Loam from Landfill cover | <10 | 4.8·10$^{-3}$–6.2·10$^{-3}$ | 0.75 | [35] |
| Coarse sand soil from landfill cover | 0.05–5.0 | 6.2·10$^{-3}$–0.36·10$^{-3}$ | 0.6–2.41 | [64] |
| Clay layer in biofilter | 0.2–10 | 1.1·10$^{-2}$ | 1.2 | [66] |
| Sand loamy soil (column experiment) | <3 | 1.5·10$^{-3}$–1.7·10$^{-2}$ | 0.17–0.58 | [36] |
| Forest cambisol | 0.2·10$^{-5}$–0.03 | 2.2·10$^{-5}$a | 2.2·10$^{-3}$ | [47] |
| Bog soil in Alaskan | 1.7·10$^{-4}$–0.1 | 1.48·10$^{-3}$ | 0.084 | [60] |
| Forest soil in Alaskan | 1.7·10$^{-4}$–0.1 | 1.48·10$^{-3}$ | 0.084 | [60] |

The largest values of methanotrophic activity ($V_{\text{max}}$) oscillate at the scale of two orders of magnitude (Table 3), depending on CH$_4$ concentration and type of cover material. The $K_M$ values calculated for the methane oxidation exposed to high CH$_4$ concentration...
in landfills and simulated biofilters ranges from 0.17% up to 2.9% (v/v), and are two to three orders of magnitude greater as compared to the methane oxidation process exposed to the atmospheric level of methane concentration. For example, the $K_M$ values measured in the box and forest soils ranged from $2.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$ to $9.9 \cdot 10^{-3}$% (v/v), while the $K_M$ values measured in the sand material simulated by column experiment had a perk value of 2.9% (Table 3).

It should be mentioned that the Michaelis-Menten equation cannot universally describe the kinetics of the methane oxidation. According to Bender and Conrad [47], and Streese and Stegmann [67], the kinetics of methane oxidation follows first order reaction, when the methane concentration is below substrate saturation level.

**CONCLUSION**

Microbial methane oxidation is a promising way to control methane emission from landfill, but still having significant undeveloped potential. The landfill methane oxidation capacity has been found to be affected by a range of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, such as landfill gas flux and oxygen availability, type and properties of cover soil, ambient conditions and landfill vegetation. An understanding of how these factors influence the performance of methane oxidation in landfill cover allows for this undeveloped potential to be better exploited. Different from climatic conditions and landfill gas flux and oxygen availability, which are not easy to be artificially managed, landfill cover material and associated physical-chemical features can be effectively controlled. An in-depth understanding of the effect of properties of cover materials and their underlying effect mechanisms appears to be needed to optimize the potential of landfill methane oxidation. In addition, further research needs to be conducted on the kinetics of the landfill methane oxidation to develop design requirements for an in situ application of this approach.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Appreciation is expressed to prof. dr. Lucjan Pawłowski from Lublin University of Technology, for his valuable suggestion and guidance.

**REFERENCES**

[1] ICPP: Forster, P., Ramaswamy, V., Artaxo, P., Berntsen, T., Betts, R., Fahey, D.W. Haywood, J., Lean, J., Lowe, D.C., Myhre, G., Nganga, J., Prinn, R., Raga, G., Schulz, M., & Van Dorland, R. (2007). Changes in Atmospheric Constituents and in Radiative Forcing. In: Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Solomon, S., D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K.B. Averty, M. Tignor and H.L. Miller (Eds.), New York:Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

[2] Juda-Rezler K. (2010). New Challenges in Air Quality and Climate Modeling, Arch. Environ. Prot., 36, 3–28.

[3] Themelis N.J., & Ulloa, P.A. (2007). Methane generation in landfills. Renew. Energy, 32, 1243–1257.

[4] USEPA: Development document for final effluent limitations guidelines and standards for the landfills pointsource category, EPA-821-R-99-109, Washington, DC; 2000; http://www.epa.gov.

[5] Heyer J., Galchenko, F.V., & Dunfield, P.F. (2002). Molecular phylogeny of type methane – oxidizing bacteria isolated from various environments. Microbiology, 148, 2831–2846.

[6] Jaatinena K., Knief, C., Dunfield, P.F., Yrjäläc, K., & Fritzea, H. (2004). Methanotrophic bacteria in boreal forest soil after fire. FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 50, 195–202.
[7] Pawłowska M., Rożej, A., & Śtepniowski, W. (2011). The effect of bed properties on methane removal in an aerated biofilter – Model studies, *Waste Manage.*, 31, 903–913.

[8] Pawłowska M., & Śtepniowski, W. (2006). An influence of methane concentration on the methanotrophic activity of a model landfill cover. *Ecol. Eng.*, 26, 392–395.

[9] Śtepniowski W., & Pawłowska, M. (1996). A Possibility to Reduce Methane Emission from Landfills by its Oxidation in the Soil Cover. In L. Pawłowski, et al. (Eds.), *Chemistry from the Protection of the Environment, 2. Environmental Science Research*. New York: Plenum Press., 75–92.

[10] Huber-Humer M., Röder, S., & Lechner, P. (2009). Approaches to assess biocover performance on landfills. *Waste Manage.*, 29, 2092–2104.

[11] Albanna M., Fernandes, L., & Warith, M. (2007). Methane oxidation in landfill gas-purged laboratory biofilters by tyramine signal amplification-fluorescence in situ hybridization. *Bioresour. Technol.*, 99, 6426–6433.

[12] Watzinger A., Stemmer, M., Pfeffer, M., Rasche, F., & Reichenauer, T.G. (2008). Methanotrophic methanotrophs in landfill gas-purged laboratory biofilters by tyramine signal amplification-fluorescence in situ hybridization. *Bioresour. Technol.*, 99, 6426–6433.

[13] Pawłowska M. (2010). Efficiency of microbial oxidation of methane in biofilter. In L. Pawłowski, M.R. Dudziska, A. Pawłowski (Eds.), *Environmental Engineering III*. (pp. 409–416). Boca Raton: CRC-Press Taylor & Francis Group.

[14] Wang J., Xia, F., Bai, Y., Fang, C., Shen, D., & He, R. (2011). Methane oxidation in landfill cover soil: the combined effects of moisture content, nutrient addition, and cover thickness. *J. Environ. Eng. Sci.*, 6, 191–200.

[15] IPCC: Guidelines for national greenhouse gas inventories. <http://www.ipccnggip.iges.or.jp/public/2006gl/index.html> (2006).

[16] Horz H.P., Raghubanshi, A.S., Heyer, J., Kammann, C., Conrad, R., Dunfield, P.F., Yuryev, A., Senin, P., Smirnova, A.V., Stott, M.B., Hou, S., Ly, B., Saw, J.H., Zhou, Z., Ren, Y., Wang, J., Mountain, B.W., Crowe, M.A., Weatherby, T.M.P., Bodelier, L.E., Liesack, W., Feng, L., Wang, L., & Alam, M. (2007). Methane oxidation by an extremely acidophilic bacterium of the phylum Verrucomicrobia. *Nature*, 450, 879–882.

[17] Kaluzhnaya M., Khmelenina, V., Eshinimaev, B., Suzina, N., Nikitin, D., Solonin, A., Lin, J., McDonald, I., Murrell, C., & Trotsenko, Y. (2001). Taxonomic Characterization of New Alkaliphilic and Alkalitolerant Methanotrophs from Soda Lakes of the Southeastern Transbaikal Region and description of Methylomicrobium buryatense sp.nov., *Sys. Appl. Microbiol.*, 24, 166–176.
[27] Hanson R.S., Hanson, T.E. (1996). Methanotrophic bacteria. Microbiol. Rev., 60, 439–471.
[28] Jiang H., Chen, Y., Jiang, P., Zhang, C., Smith, T.J., Murrell, J.C., & Xing, X. (2010). Methanotrophs: Multifunctional bacteria with promising applications in environmental bioengineering. Biochem. Eng. J., 49, 277–288.
[29] Stoecker K., Bendinger, B., Schöning, B., Nielsen, P. H., Nielsen, J.L., Baranyi, C., Toenshoff, E.R., Daims, H., & Wagner, M. (2006). Cohn’s Crenothrix is a filamentous methane oxidizer with an unusual methane monooxygenase. PNAS.103, 2363–2367.
[30] Vigliotta G., Nutricati, E., Carata, E., Tredici, S.M., De Stefano, M., Pontieri, P., Massardo, D.R., Prati, M. V., De Bellis, L., & Alifano, D.P. (2007). Clonothrix fusca Roze 1896, a Filamentous, Sheathed, Methanotrophic-Proteobacterium. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 73, 3556–3565.
[31] Lieberman R.L., Rosenzweig, A.C. (2004). Biological Methane Oxidation: Regulation, Biochemistry, and Active Site Structure of Particulate Methane Monoxygenase. Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol., 147–164.
[32] Gómez K.E., Gonzalez-Gil, G., Lazzaro, A., & Schroth, M.H. (2009). Quantifying methane oxidation in a landfill-cover soil by gas push–pull tests. Waste Manage., 29, 2518–2526.
[33] Streese-Kleeberg J., Rachor, I., Gebert, J., & Stegmann, R. (2011). Use of gas push–pull tests for the measurement of methane oxidation in different landfill cover soils. Waste Manage., 31, 995–1001.
[34] Powelson D.K., Chanton, J., Abichou, T., & Morales, J. (2006). Methane oxidation in water-spreading and compost biofilters. Waste Manag. Res., 24, 528–536.
[35] Stein V.B., Hettiaratchi, & J.P.A. (2001). Methane oxidation in three Alberta soils: influence of soil parameters and methane flux rate. Environ. Technol., 22, 101–111.
[36] De Visscher A., Thomas, D., Boeckx, P., & Van Cleemput, O. (1999). Methane oxidation in simulated landfill cover soil environments. Environ. Sci. Technol., 33, 1854–1859.
[37] Wilshusen J.H., Hettiaratchi, J.P.A., Stein, V.B. (2004). Long-term behavior of passively aerated compost methanotrophic biofilter columns. Waste Manage., 24, 643–653.
[38] Schroth M.H., Eugster, W., Gómez, K.E., Gonzalez-Gil, G., Niklaus, P.A., Oester, P. (2012). Above- and below-ground methane fluxes and methanotrophic activity in a landfill-cover soil. Waste Manage., 32, 879–889.
[39] Bogner J., Spokas, K., Burton, E., Sweeney, R., & Corona, V. (1995). Landfills as atmospheric methane sources and sinks. Chemosphere, 31, 4119–4130.
[40] Rachor I., Gebert, J., Gröngroft, A., Pfeiffer, E. (2011). Assessment of the methane oxidation capacity of compacted soils intended for use as landfill cover materials. Waste Manage., 31, 833–842.
[41] Pedersen G.B., Scheutz, C., & Kjeldsen, P. (2011). Availability and properties of materials for the Fakse Landfill biocover. Waste Manage., 31, 884–894.
[42] Abichou T., Mahieu, K., Yuan, L., Chanton, J., & Hater, G. (2009). Effects of compost biofilters on gas flow and methane oxidation in a landfill cover. Waste Manage., 29, 1595–1601.
[43] Park S., Lee, I., Cho, C., & Sung, K. (2008). Effects of earthworm cast and powdered activated carbon on methane removal capacity of landfill cover soils. Chemosphere, 70, 1117–1123.
[44] Einola J.M., Karhu, A.E., & Rintala, J.A. (2008). Mechanically–biologically treated municipal solid waste as a support medium for microbial methane oxidation to mitigate landfill greenhouse emissions. Waste Manage., 28, 97–111.
[45] Gebert J., Groengroef, A., & Pfeiffer, E. (2011). Relevance of soil physical properties for the microbial oxidation of methane in landfill covers. Soil Biol. Biochem., 43, 1759–1767.
[46] Semrau J.D., Chistoserdov, A., Lebron, J., Costello, A., Davagnino, J., Kenna, E., Holmes, A.J., Finch, R., Murrell, J.C., & Lidstrom, M.E. (1995). Particulate methane monooxygenase genes in methanotrophs. J. Bacteriol., 177, 3071–3079.
[47] Bender M., & Conrad, R. (1993). Kinetics of methane oxidation in oxic soils. Earth. Planet. Sci. Lett., 70, 1117–1123.
[48] Schnell S., & King, G.M. (1995). Stability of Methane Oxidation Capacity to Variations in Methane and Nutrient Concentrations. FEMS Microbiol. Ecol., 17, 285–294.
[49] Reebeurgh W.S. (1976). Methane consumption in Cariaco Trench waters and sediments. Earth. Planet. Sci. Lett., 28, 337–344.
[50] Ussler III W., & Paull, C.K. (2008). Rates of anaerobic oxidation of methane and authigenic carbonate mineralization in methane-rich deep-sea sediments inferred from models and geochemical profiles. Earth. Planet. Sci. Lett., 266, 271–287.
[52] Pozdnyakov L.A., Stepanov, A.L., Manucharova, N.A. (2011). Anaerobic Methane Oxidation in Soils and Water Ecosystems. Moscow University Soil Science Bulletin, 66, 24–31.

[53] Grossman E., Cifuentes, L., & Cozzarelli, I. (2002). Anaerobic methane oxidation in a landfill-leachate plume. Environ. Sci. Technol., 36, 2436–2442.

[54] He R., Ruan, A., Jiang, C., Shen, D. (2008). Responses of oxidation rate and microbial communities to methane in simulated landfill cover soil microcosms. Bioresour. Technol., 99, 7192–7199.

[55] Jugnia L., Cabral, A.R., & Greer, C.W. (2008). Biotic methane oxidation within an instrumented experimental landfill cover. Ecol. Eng., 33, 102–109.

[56] Einola J.M., Kettunen, R.H., & Rintala, J.A. (2002). Extremophilic and extremotolerant methanotrophic bacteria. Arch. Microbiol., 177, 123–131.

[57] Pol A., Heijmans, K., Harhangi, H.R., Tedesco, D., Jetten, M.S., & den Camp, H.J.O. (2007). Methanotrophy below pH 1 by a new Verrucomicrobia species. Nature, 450.

[58] Powson D.S., Goulding, K.W.T., Willison, T.W., Webster, C.P., & Hütsch, B.W. (1997). The Effect of Agricultural on Methane Oxidation in Soil. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosy., 49, 59–70.

[59] Whalen S.C., & Reeburgh, W.S. (1996). Moisture and temperature sensitivity of CH4 oxidation in boreal soils. Soil Biol. Biochem., 28, 1271–1281.

[60] Stralis-Pavese N., Bodrossy, L., Reichenauer, T.G., Weiharter, A., & Sessitsch, A. (2006). 16S rRNA based T-RFLP analysis of methane oxidising bacteria–Assessment, critical evaluation of methodology performance and application for landfill site cover soils. Appl. Soil Ecol., 31, 251–266.

[61] Bohn S., Brunke, P., Gebert, J., & Jager, J. (2011). Improving the aeration of critical fine-grained landfill top cover material by vegetation to increase the microbial methane oxidation efficiency. Waste Manage., 31, 854–863.

[62] Bender M., & Conrad, R. (1992). Kinetics of CH4 oxidation in oxic soils exposed to ambient air or high CH4 mixing ratios, FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 101, 261–270.

[63] Kightley D., Nedwell, D.B., & Cooper, M. (1995). Capacity for Methane Oxidation in Landfill Cover Soils Measured in Laboratory-Scale Soil Microcosms. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 61, 592–601.

[64] Bogner J.E., Spokas, K.A., & Burton, E.A. (1997). Kinetics of methane oxidation in a landfill cover soil: temporal variations, a whole-landfill oxidation experiment, and modeling of net CH4 emissions. Environ. Sci. Technol., 31, 2504–2514.

[65] Gebert J., Groengroeft, A., & Miehlich, G. (2003). Kinetics of microbial landfill methane oxidation in biofilters. Waste Manage., 23, 609–619.

[66] Streese J., Stegmann, R. (2003). Microbial oxidation of methane from old landfills in biofilters. Waste Manage., 23, 573–580.