1	Degradation of biogas in a simulated landfill cover soil at laboratory
2	scale: Compositional changes of main components and volatile organic
3	compounds
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18	Submitted to Waste Management
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21	Keywords: Anaerobic digestion, Biogas, Degradation, Landfill gas, Landfill cover soil,
22	VOCs

23 Abstract

24 A laboratory experiment lasting 28 days was run to simulate a typical landfill system and to investigate the compositional changes affecting the main components (CH₄, CO₂, and 25 H₂) and nonmethane volatile organic compounds from biogas generated by anaerobic 26 27 digestion of food waste and passing through a soil column. Gas samples were periodically collected from both the digester headspace and the soil column at increasing distances 28 from the biogas source. CH₄ and H₂ were efficiently degraded along the soil column. The 29 30 isotopic values of δ^{13} C measured in CH₄ and CO₂ from the soil column were relatively enriched in ¹³C compared to the biogas. Aromatics and alkanes were the most abundant 31 groups in the biogas samples. Among these compounds, alkylated benzenes and long-32 chain C₃₊ alkanes were significantly degraded within the soil column, whereas benzene 33 and short-chain alkanes were recalcitrant. Terpene and O-substituted compounds were 34 35 relatively stable under oxidising conditions. Cyclic, alkene, S-substituted, and halogenated compounds, which exhibited minor amounts in the digester headspace, were virtually 36 absent in the soil column. These results pointed out how many recalcitrant potentially 37 38 toxic and polluting compounds tend to be relatively enriched along the soil column, claiming action to minimise diffuse landfill gas (LFG) emissions. The proposed 39 40 experimental approach represents a reliable tool for investigating the attenuation capacities of landfill cover soils for LFG components and developing optimised covers by adopting 41 proper soil treatments and operating conditions to improve their degradation efficiencies. 42

43 **1. Introduction**

Landfilling represents the most common option for municipal waste (MW) management
on a global scale, also in the expected temporal projection by 2050 (Chen et al., 2020a).
However, the costs of measures needed to mitigate the potential environmental impacts

from landfilling may be relevant (Nahman, 2011; Rabl et al., 2008). In fact, two potential 47 48 contaminating outputs, i.e., leachate and landfill gas (LFG), are generated during the lifetime of a landfill by the degradation of deposited heterogeneous waste categories 49 50 (Allen et al., 1997). Among these waste categories, the organic fraction of MW (OFMW), which primarily consists of food waste (FW) (Panigrahi and Dubey, 2019), poses major 51 52 concerns for landfill management since its moisture content and biodegradability may contribute significantly to LFG and leachate generation (Alibardi and Cossu, 2015; 53 Campuzano and González-Martínez, 2016). 54

LFG consists mainly of CO₂ and CH₄ (Tassi et al., 2009), followed by other relevant 55 56 components such as N₂, O₂, and H₂ (Muñoz et al., 2015), and it includes small fractions (< 1% by vol) of nonmethane volatile organic compounds (hereafter, VOCs) (Duan et al., 57 2021). CH₄ in LFG accounts for greenhouse gas emissions (Capaccioni et al., 2011). 58 Several VOCs are recognised as potential pollutants contributing to (i) negative 59 tropospheric impacts, (ii) the greenhouse effect, (iii) photochemical smog, and (iv) 60 61 groundwater contamination (Martí et al., 2014; Nair et al., 2019; Ravina et al., 2020). 62 Some of the VOCs have also demonstrated carcinogenic effects or a strong odorous impact (Cogliano et al., 2011; Gallego et al., 2012). 63

64 Placement of soil-based covers on landfill surfaces represents the most economical and reliable method for reducing diffuse LFG emissions into the atmosphere (Majdinasab and 65 Yuan, 2017). Landfill cover soils (i) host active populations of methanotrophic bacteria 66 (Cébron et al., 2007; Kjeldsen and Scheutz, 2018) and (ii) sustain the growth and 67 development of different bacterial communities that metabolise selected VOCs (Alvarez-68 69 Cohen and McCarty, 1991; Alvarez-Cohen and Speitel, 2001). Degradation processes and 70 related microbial activities leading to LFG attenuation in landfill cover soils are generally explored through (i) in situ measurements or (ii) laboratory experiments. The former 71

approach is based on chemical analyses of interstitial gas samples collected at different depths along vertical profiles within full-scale landfill cover soils whose physicochemical and biological parameters are expected to vary in both horizontal and vertical directions (Tassi et al., 2009; Randazzo et al., 2020; Scheutz et al., 2008). Instead, laboratory experiments are carried out by investigating the degradation rates of selected gases contained in artificial simplified gas mixtures by using soil incubations and simulated soil columns under optimal conditions (e.g., Scheutz and Kjeldsen, 2003, 2004, 2005).

The use of gas mixtures in laboratory experiments that have physicochemical characteristics close to the characteristics of typical LFG is necessary to improve the comprehension of biochemical mechanisms for degrading of LFG components in landfill cover soil.

This study concerns a laboratory experiment designed and optimised to reliably simulate a 83 landfill system consisting of a digester filled with degrading FW and connected to a soil 84 column in which the generated biogas is degraded under oxidising conditions. Gas 85 86 samples from the digester headspace and the soil column were periodically collected and 87 analysed to monitor the temporal evolution of the composition of biogas released by the digester and to investigate the fates of the biogas components (CH₄, CO₂, H₂, VOCs, and 88 isotopic signatures in ¹³C-CO₂ and ¹³C-CH₄) within the soil column. The aims of this 89 study were (i) to evaluate the relative efficiencies of biodegradation processes occurring 90 within a cover soil for the different LFG components and (ii) to provide an indication of 91 the effective mitigation of the diffuse LFG emissions into the atmosphere. 92

93 2. Biodegradation processes of LFG in soils

Gaseous components in soils undergo several biodegradation processes triggered by soil
enzymes (Bilen and Turan, 2021). Under aerobic conditions, CH₄ is effectively oxidised

by methanotrophic bacteria. This reaction is catalysed by the nonspecific CH₄ 96 97 monooxygenase (MMO) enzyme, which is also found to react with aromatic and aliphatic compounds, including those containing halogen atoms (Alvarez-Cohen and McCarty, 98 99 1991; Alvarez-Cohen and Speitel, 2001; Hanson and Hanson, 1996). Accordingly, many aromatics are removed efficiently from landfill cover soils hosting methanotrophic 100 communities (Merouani et al., 2022; Qin et al., 2020a, 2020b). Unspecific MMO 101 102 enzymes, as well as aromatic-specific monooxygenase or dioxygenase genes, catalyse the breaking of the C-H chemical bonds in the aromatic ring through a complex series of 103 reactions, such as epoxidation, hydrolysis, dehydrogenation, and hydroxylation (Su et al., 104 105 2014), which form highly toxic pyrocatechol and phenol byproducts (Lee et al., 2011; Nunes-Halldorson et al., 2004). 106

Various microorganisms can metabolise alkanes under aerobic conditions. In particular, 107 degradation of C₂-C₁₇ alkanes is carried out by different microbial enzymes depending on 108 the molecular chain length (Wang and Shao, 2013). Specifically, C₂-C₄ alkanes are 109 110 degraded by microorganisms having enzymes such as MMO, while degradation of C₅-C₁₇ 111 alkanes involves enzymes containing soluble cytochrome P450s and integral-membrane non-heme iron monooxygenase (AlkB). Aerobic degradation pathways for *n*-alkanes may 112 113 proceed through terminal and subterminal chain oxidation (Rojo, 2009). Terminal chain oxidation starts with hydroxylation of the final methyl group to produce a primary alcohol 114 that is converted to an aldehyde and finally to a fatty acid. Subterminal chain oxidation 115 proceeds through hydroxylation of a secondary carbon atom and generates a secondary 116 117 alcohol that is converted to the corresponding ketone and then to an ester. The ester is then 118 hydrolysed to produce an alcohol and a fatty acid. Accordingly, the contents of alkanes and O-substituted compounds in interstitial gases from landfill cover soils are expected to 119 show an inverse correlation (Randazzo et al., 2020; Tassi et al., 2009). 120

The fates of cyclics and alkenes in landfill cover soils are expected to be similar to the fates of alkanes (Randazzo et al., 2020), with both organic groups catabolised by MMO and alkane hydroxylases (Abbasian et al., 2015; Van Beilen and Funhoff, 2007).

Laboratory experiments have demonstrated that numerous chloro-, chlorofluoro-, and hydrochlorofluoro-carbon compounds can be cometabolised by methanotrophic bacteria under physicochemical conditions similar to the conditions expected for landfill cover soils (Jechorek et al., 2003; Koh et al., 1993; Schuetz et al., 2003). Under aerobic conditions, chlorocarbons are degraded at a lower rate as the Cl/C ratios increase, and fully chlorinated aliphatics, as well as F-containing compounds, are poorly degraded (Scheutz et al., 2004).

degrading S-substituted 131 Biochemical processes VOCs exhibiting significant concentrations in LFG, such as dimethylsulfide (DMS), dimethyldisulfide (DMDS), and 132 methanethiol (MT) (Duan et al., 2021), have been investigated extensively over the past 133 decades (e.g., De Bok et al., 2006; Phae and Shoda, 1991; Xia et al., 2014), since these 134 135 compounds contribute significantly to the odourous impact (Liu et al., 2018; Piccardo et al., 2022). Different microbial communities, especially methanotrophs and sulfur-136 oxidising bacteria (Lee et al., 2012, 2017, 2018), remove sulfur-reduced compounds in 137 138 landfill cover soils (Pecorini et al., 2020). Biochemical reactions involving different enzymes can affect DMS, DMDS, MT, and dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), mostly producing 139 formaldehyde which, in turn, is assimilated into the biomass or converted to CO₂ and H₂S 140 (Schäfer et al., 2010). 141

Little is known about the fate of terpenes in landfill cover soils, although some basic
studies have shown that these compounds can be significantly biodegraded under aerobic
conditions (Misra and Pavlostathis, 1997; Misra et al., 1996).

145 **3. Materials and methods**

146 *3.1. Materials*

The FW was collected from the household and food service sectors and sorted into the 147 following components: fruit, vegetable, pasta/rice, bread/bakery, meat/fish, dairy, and 148 other (i.e., food not falling into the previous components). The relative amounts (Table 1) 149 were combined to approximate an indicative FW composition for the Italian situation (De 150 Laurentiis et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2013). The FW sample was macerated with an electric 151 blender to decrease the substrate size and enhance biodegradation (Carchesio et al., 2014; 152 153 Zhang et al., 2014) and stored for 1 day at room temperature (25 °C) in 1 L bottles with no headspace. 154

The inoculum (INO), which was collected from a municipal wastewater treatment plant located in Central Italy, consisted of anaerobic sludge derived from the anaerobic digestion (AD) stage.

The natural soil was collected from a periurban forest at an altitude of 250 m above sea 158 level (a.s.l.) after removal of the surface layer (approximately 20 cm thick). The resulting 159 160 grain size distribution was determined by following the recommendations of the American 161 Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM 1998, 2007). The soil granulometric classes consisted of (% by wt): 11.5% gravel, 62.2% sand, 22.4% silt, and 3.9% clay. 162 Consequently, the soil was identified as silty sand according to the Unified Soil 163 164 Classification System. In the laboratory, the soil was manually milled and sieved with a 2-165 mm mesh.

166 *3.2. Experimental setup*

The experimental apparatus used to simulate a landfill system was constructed following
the indications from previous studies (Kightley et al., 1995; Scheutz and Kjeldsen, 2005).
The apparatus consisted of (1) a 20-L tank (hereafter: digester) coupled with (2) a dark

polypropylene (PP) cylinder (height = 105 cm, inner diameter = 7 cm) (hereafter: soil 170 column) (Fig. 1). The adopted volume of the digester was within the wide range of 0.1 to 171 120 L derivable in the literature for reactor volumes used to perform anaerobic 172 173 biodegradability batch assays (Raposo et al., 2011a). The digester was filled with a FW-INO mixture (1:1 on a volatile solid basis; Carchesio et al., 2014), and a small (< 1 L) 174 headspace was left. INO addition was functional to provide the necessary microorganisms 175 for allowing AD to proceed (Angelidaki and Sanders, 2004). No control digester with INO 176 as a blank was set because the experimental procedure did not require quantification of 177 CH₄ production specifically attributable to the FW substrate (Angelidaki and Sanders, 178 179 2004; Carchesio et al., 2014). The soil column was packed from the bottom with (i) gravel (15-cm thick) and (ii) the considered wet soil (90-cm thick). The bottom of the cylinder 180 was tapped with a dark PP plate equipped with an inlet port connected to the digester 181 through a silicone tube (inner diameter = 3 mm). At the top of the digester, the silicone 182 tube connector was equipped with a three-way stopcock for biogas sampling. The top of 183 184 the soil column remained uncapped to allow free escape of the biogas and the interaction 185 with the above air environment, as expected at full-scale in a landfill. The gravel layer, consisting of calcareous stones (diameter = 0.5 cm), was placed to homogenise biogas 186 187 fluxes. The soil column was equipped with six sampling ports, placed along the vertical axis (spaced 15 cm except the upper one at 7.5 cm), where 5.5 cm long polyamide tubes 188 (inner diameter = 4 mm) were inserted up to the middle of the inner cylinder diameter and 189 connected to three-way stopcocks on the outside. The experiment was performed outdoors 190 191 (i.e., under a roof in the internal courtyard of the Department of Earth Sciences at the 192 University of Florence) during the summer season $(27 \pm 6 \text{ °C})$ and lasted 28 days. This duration time was close to the mean of 32 days resulting from an international 193 interlaboratory study on anaerobic biodegradability tests for organic substrates (Raposo et 194

al., 2011b). Additionally, this duration time was consistent with the 30-day period for
anaerobic biodegradability tests first recommended by Owen et al. (1979) to ensure, in
most cases, complete decomposition of biodegradable substrates. To prevent temperature
variations, the digester was placed within a polystyrene box.

Once filled with the FW-INO mixture, the digester was closed and placed for 1 day at 25
°C. Following this initial time (hereafter, day 0), the digester was connected to the soil

201 column after flushing the biogas through the connection tube to avoid air contamination.

202 Periodically, the digester was gently shaken to homogenise the mixture.

203 *3.3. Gas sampling and analysis*

Gas samples from the digester and the six ports along the soil column were collected twice a week using a 60-mL Luer lock syringe (Beroject III[®]) and transferred into 12-mL glass vials (Labco Exetainer[®], Manhattan, KS, USA) equipped with a pierceable rubber caps. The glass vials were prefilled with deionised water and acidified with ultrapure HCl to avoid CO₂ dissolution, which was displaced by the biogas entering the vials through a needle inserted into the cap. With this procedure, air contamination in the soil column was minimised by pulling out small gas volumes (~ 20 mL).

The main gaseous components (CO₂, CH₄, N₂, H₂, O₂, and Ar) were analysed using a Shimadzu 15A gas chromatograph (GC) with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) (Shimadzu, Columbia, MD, USA). CH₄ at concentrations < 0.05% by vol and light hydrocarbons (C₂-C₃) were analysed using a Shimadzu 14A GC with a flame ionisation detector (FID) (Shimadzu, Columbia, MD, USA). The analytical errors for both GC-TCD and GC-FID were < 5%.

217 Carbon isotopic signatures $({}^{13}C/{}^{12}C)$ in CO₂ ($\delta^{13}C$ -CO₂) and CH₄ ($\delta^{13}C$ -CH₄), expressed as

218 % vs. V-PDB, were analysed by cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS) using a Picarro

G2201-i analyser (Picarro, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The analytical error for CRDS was <
1.15‰ vs. V-PDB.

C₄₊ VOCs were analysed according to the solid-phase microextraction (SPME) method 221 222 (Arthur and Pawliszyn, 1990) using a Thermo Trace Ultra GC combined with a Thermo DSQ quadrupole mass spectrometer (MS) (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, 223 fibre, consisting of a divinylbenzene and carboxen -224 USA). The SPME polydimethylsiloxane assembly (Supelco; Bellefonte, PA, USA), was exposed to the 225 samples (stored into the vials) for 15 min. C₄₊ VOCs absorbed by the fibre were desorbed 226 into the headspace of the GC and passed to the quadrupole MS. GC/MS operating settings 227 228 are described in detail in Tassi et al. (2009). C₄₊ VOCs were identified from the retention times of the chromatographic peaks and by comparing the mass spectra with the mass 229 spectra database of the National Institute of Standards and Technology library (NIST, 230 2005). Quantitative analyses were performed with an external standard calibration 231 procedure based on calibration curves created by analysing standard mixtures containing 232 233 different organic functional groups, as described by Tassi et al. (2012). The limit of 234 quantification and the relative standard deviation (RSD) were determined by linear extrapolation from the lowest standard used for the calibration curve adopting the area of a 235 236 peak with a signal/noise ratio of 5, and from five replicate analyses of the standard mixtures, respectively. The RSD values were < 5%. 237

238 **4. Results**

The concentrations of CO₂, CH₄, H₂, N₂, Ar, and O₂, the values of ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratios in CO₂ and CH₄, and the compositions of VOCs in the gas samples collected from the digester and the soil column are reported in Table S1 (Supplementary material).

242 4.1. Composition of main gaseous components and values of δ^{13} C-CO₂ and δ^{13} C-CH₄

Carbon dioxide, CH₄, and H₂ in the biogas from the headspace of the digester ranged from 34.3 to 64.1%, from 1.72 to 24.1%, and from 0.01 to 15.3% by vol, respectively (Table S1, Supplementary material). N₂, O₂, and Ar ranged from 17.0 to 58.7%, from 0.02 to 4.50%, and from 0.21 to 0.72% by vol, respectively (Table S1, Supplementary material). The δ^{13} C-CO₂ and δ^{13} C-CH₄ values ranged from -22.6 to 4.1‰ and from -48.8 to -25.1‰ vs. V-PDB, respectively (Table S1, Supplementary material).

Gases from the soil column showed relatively low CH₄, CO₂, and H₂ concentrations 249 (ranging from 0.005 to 0.93%, from 0.73 to 2.6%, and from 0.001 to 0.29% by vol, 250 respectively) and high N₂, Ar, and O₂ contents (ranging from 79.3 to 95.4%, from 0.97 to 251 252 1.19%, and from 0.41 to 18.9% by vol, respectively) (Table S1, Supplementary material). In particular, the CH₄, CO₂, and H₂ concentrations decreased as the O₂ contents increased 253 towards the top of the soil column. In contrast, N₂ and Ar concentrations as well as δ^{13} C-254 CO₂ and δ^{13} C-CH₄ values (ranging from -13.1 to 12.2‰ and from -55.5 to 17.1‰ vs. V-255 PDB, respectively: Table S1, Supplementary material) fluctuated with no identifiable 256 257 vertical trends.

258 *4.2. Composition of VOCs*

Up to 50 VOCs were measured in the biogas samples from the headspace of the digester, and the sums on the different sampling days ranged from 7,230 to 130,840 ppbv (Table S1, Supplementary material). VOCs were dominated by aromatics (mainly toluene) and alkanes (mostly ethane), which represented up to 58 and 45% of the total VOC concentration (Σ VOCs), respectively (Fig. 2). Terpenes ranged from 0.03 to 4.6% Σ VOCs (Fig. 2), whereas cyclic and O-substituted species were up to 0.48 and 0.20% Σ VOCs, respectively. Alkene, halogenated, and S-substituted compounds were < 0.03% Σ VOCs.

Overall, the interstitial gas samples collected along the soil column showed total amounts 266 267 of VOCs (from 12 to 1,664 ppbv: Table S1, Supplementary material) significantly lower than the FW biogases and strongly decreasing upwards. VOCs detected in the soil column 268 269 consisted of alkanes, aromatics, terpenes, and O-substituted compounds in proportions that 270 varied over time and along the vertical profile, ranging from 29 to 86%, from 2.6 to 51%, from 3.7 to 46%, and from 3.7 to 29% ΣVOCs, respectively (Fig. 2). Alkenes and cyclics 271 $(< 0.43\% \Sigma \text{VOCs})$ occurred sporadically, while halogenated and S-substituted compounds 272 were not detected. 273

274 **5. Discussion**

275 5.1. Main gaseous components and carbon isotopic signature (δ^{13} C-CH₄ and δ^{13} C-CO₂)

276 *5.1.1. Temporal evolutions in the digester headspace*

277 The AD process of the FW substrate proceeded during the whole experiment, as shown by the relatively high concentrations of the main AD-related components (AD_c, i.e., CO₂, 278 CH₄, and H₂: Angelidaki and Batstone, 2010) compared to those of the air-related 279 280 components (air_c, i.e., N_2 , O_2 , and Ar) in the biogas samples collected from the headspace of the digester (Fig. 3a). As expected, the lowest AD_c/air_c ratio was measured at the 281 beginning of the experiment (Fig. 3a) due to the initial air contained in the digester 282 headspace. In the following days, the AD_c/air_c ratio increased abruptly until day 6, then it 283 284 remained almost constant until day 17, dropped drastically on day 20 and increased again 285 until the end of the experiment (Fig. 3a). The negative peak that occurred on day 20 (Fig. 3a) suggested a strong decrease in biogas production that favoured air entering the 286 digester. The increase in the AD_c/air_c ratio in the last week (Fig. 3a) may have indicated a 287 288 slight renewal of the AD process. The increase seen for the N₂/O₂ ratio up to day 17 (Fig.

289 3b) was consistent with the overall decrease in the air_c in the first part of the experiment 290 (Fig. 3a). This trend was likely dictated by (i) effective rinsing of the digester headspace by the relatively high biogas outflow and (ii) relative consumption of O₂ by microbial 291 292 consortia in the earliest steps (i.e., hydrolysis and acidogenesis) of the AD process (Chen et al., 2020b; Nguyen and Khanal, 2018). In the last week of the experiment, the N_2/O_2 293 294 ratio decreased (Fig. 3b), possibly indicating that air contamination, occurred on day 20, continued in the following days, notwithstanding the biogas production showing a slight 295 renewal (Fig. 3a). 296

The evolution of the biogas composition in the digester headspace depended on the 297 balance between the biogas moving upwards and the air descending from the soil column. 298 The former was driven mostly by convection due to the slight overpressure caused by the 299 ongoing AD process; the latter was due mainly to diffusion caused by the strong 300 concentration gradient of the air components. Accordingly, the reduction in biogas 301 production that occurred after the first two weeks of the experiment caused a decrease in 302 303 biogas convection, which allowed air diffusion into the digester headspace. In agreement 304 with the trends seen for the AD_c/air_c and N_2/O_2 ratios (Fig. 3a, 3b), the CH₄/CO₂ ratio in the digester headspace showed an increasing trend until day 17, followed by a decreasing 305 306 trend (Fig. 3c), with the methanogenesis process hindered by increasing O₂ (Botheju and 307 Bakke, 2011). This temporal pattern was consistent with the composition of biogas produced by the AD process in previous experiments (Brown et al., 2012; Chen et al., 308 2020c). The CH₄/CO₂ ratios measured in this experiment (ranging from 0.05 to 0.5: Fig. 309 3c) were lower than the CH_4/CO_2 ratios generally expected for organic substrates (0.5-3.9: 310 311 Poulsen and Adelard, 2016; Poulsen et al., 2017). This may have been related to different aspects, such as chemical composition of the FW as well as operating conditions, 312 including temperature and the substrate to inoculum ratio (Capson-Tojo et al., 2016; 313

Gunaseelan, 2004; Negri et al., 2020). The low carbon to nitrogen ratio and high 314 315 biodegradability generally seen with FW (Bong et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2021) may inhibit methanogenic activity, leading to (i) excessive release of free ammonia that may damage 316 317 bacterial cell membranes (Zhao et al., 2021) and (ii) quick accumulation of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) that may decrease the pH and limit the development of methanogens (Kawai 318 et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2019). However, the relatively high H₂/CH₄ ratios 319 320 recorded in the digester headspace from day 3 to day 17 (Fig. 3d) suggested that the low CH₄/CO₂ ratios were probably related to dominating AD steps such as acidogenesis and 321 acetogenesis (Greses et al., 2021). Indeed, these steps produce relatively high amounts of 322 323 CO₂ and H₂ (D' Silva et al., 2021). However, these two compounds promote CH₄ production since they are consumed by hydrogenotrophic methanogens (Guo et al., 2010; 324 Zhang et al., 2020) or autotrophic acetogens that provide the acetate substrate for 325 326 acetoclastic methanogenesis (Valdez-Vazquez and Poggi-Varaldo, 2009).

The methanogenesis pathways occurring during the AD process may be conveniently 327 328 reconstructed by investigating the stable carbon isotopic signature in CO₂ and CH₄ 329 (Conrad, 2005). In particular, acetate dismutation was the main pathway generating CO₂ and CH₄ in the first two weeks, as the corresponding δ^{13} C-CO₂ and δ^{13} C-CH₄ values were 330 consistent with those generally expected for acetoclastic methanogenesis (from -30 to -0 331 ‰ vs. V-PDB and from -30 to -15 ‰ vs. V-PDB, respectively: Polag et al., 2015; 332 333 Randazzo et al., 2020) (Fig. 3e). In contrast, hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis, which is generally characterised by isotopically heavier C-CO₂ and lighter C-CH₄ (up to 20 ‰ vs. 334 V-PDB and from -60 to -40 ‰ vs. V-PDB, respectively: Polag et al., 2015; Randazzo et 335 al., 2020), may have been the major process generating CO₂ and CH₄ in the last days of 336 the experiment (Fig. 3e). This change suggested that, after day 13 (Fig. 3e), acetate was 337 largely consumed, and CO₂ started to degrade. However, the CH₄/CO₂ ratio decrease seen 338

from day 17 (Fig. 3c) indicated the possible occurrence of other concomitant processes (leading to net CO₂ production) that may involve oxidation of CH₄, as suggested by the concurrent, progressive decrease in the N_2/O_2 ratio (Fig. 3b).

342 5.1.2. Features along the soil column

The temporal evolutions of the AD_c/air_c ratios in the interstitial gas samples collected at 343 the selected depths along the soil column were consistent with the temporal evolution of 344 biogas production, which showed a peak on day 17 (Fig. 4a), i.e., just before biogas 345 production decreased. Therefore, in the first 17 days, the flow of biogas from the digester 346 347 counteracted air permeation from the top of the soil column. After day 17, when biogas production in the digester decreased, interstitial soil pores were rapidly enriched in the airc 348 (Fig. 4a). According to these considerations, the experiment consisted of two phases: (i) 349 high biogas production from the beginning to day 17 of the experiment (hereafter, the HB 350 351 period) and (ii) low biogas production, after day 17 to the conclusive day (hereafter, the LB period). 352

In both periods, interstitial soil gas samples were largely dominated by air, as indicated by 353 the low AD_c/air_c ratios that even decreased upwards (i.e., at increasing distances from the 354 355 digester) (Fig. 4a). This was accompanied by a general decrease in the (CH₄+H₂)/CO₂ 356 ratios towards the top of the soil column (Fig. 4b). This evidence indicated that advective 357 transport (Scheutz et al., 2009) of biogas along the aerobic soil column was associated 358 with microbial degradation of CH₄ and H₂ within the soil by different microbial consortia 359 (Hanson and Hanson, 1996; Schuler and Conrad, 1990), while CO₂ was less reactive, representing the byproduct of CH₄ oxidation (Pratt et al., 2013). The occurrence of 360 361 oxidation processes was also supported by the N₂/O₂ ratios, which were higher than that of air, especially in the deepest part (> 45 cm depth) of the soil column (Fig. 4c). During the 362

HB period, the $(CH_4+H_2)/CO_2$ ratio showed a relatively low decrease towards the top of the soil column with respect to the following LB period (Fig. 4b), indicating that when biogas production in the digester was relatively high, its convection through the soil column was more efficient, counteracting the aerobic degradation of the reduced gas species (He et al., 2008; Randazzo et al., 2020).

Notably, no clear trend was observed for the H_2/CH_4 ratio along both (HB and LB) vertical profiles (Fig. 4d), indicating that the degradation processes likely affected these gaseous components to comparable extents. The distinct H_2/CH_4 ratios in the HB and LB profiles properly reflected the H_2/CH_4 ratios of the biogas source in the pertaining temporal periods (Fig. 4d).

The δ^{13} C-CO₂ and δ^{13} C-CH₄ values were generally higher than those revealed in the biogas from the digester (Fig. 4e, 4f); this was expected, since microorganisms prefer to metabolise ¹²C, resulting in the enrichment of both ¹³C-CO₂ and ¹³C-CH₄ in the residual gases (Randazzo et al., 2020). The lower ¹³C-CO₂ enrichment in the HB profile with respect to LB may have been due to the heavier CO₂ provided by biogas in the last period (Fig. 4e). Similarly, the higher values of δ^{13} C-CH₄ in the HB profile were related to the heavier CH₄ released by the AD process in the first 17 days (Fig. 4f).

380 *5.2. VOCs*

381 5.2.1. Generation by AD of FW

In the biogas samples from the digester headspace, the temporal evolution of the total concentration of VOCs (Fig. 5a) was consistent with biogas production; it increased in the HB period and decreased in the following LB period.

In particular, aromatics, which dominated the overall VOC chemical composition in all the biogas samples (Fig. 5a), showed the highest relative amounts in the HB period and 387 declined from day 17 (Fig. 5a) when benzene started to enrich on alkylated benzenes 388 (Σ alkylbenzenes) (Fig. 5b). Presumably, O₂ entering from day 17 into the headspace of the digester (Fig. 3b) promoted degradation of the aromatic compounds by preferentially 389 390 oxidising the alkylated compounds. Indeed, alkylated benzenes such as toluene, 391 ethylbenzene, and xylene are recognised to be more degradable than benzene because their 392 substituent groups are easily attacked by microorganisms (El-Naas et al., 2014). The 393 presence of relatively high contents of aromatics in the FW biogas samples (Fig. 5a) was not surprising, considering that several compounds of this group have been detected in 394 chees, beef, fish, eggs, fruits, and dairy and bakery products (Fleming-Jones and Smith, 395 396 2003; Qian and Reineccius, 2002). Moreover, vegetables, fruits, and cereals contain high levels of lignin (Tao et al., 2020), a natural aromatic polymer whose degradation may 397 release a wide variety of aromatic compounds (Kamimura et al., 2019). Finally, the 398 presence of aromatic compounds in foods may potentially be associated with 399 400 environmental pollution or contamination by food processing procedures. In fact, aromatic 401 compounds may: (i) be absorbed by fruits and vegetables, including apples, blackberries, 402 cucumbers, spinaches, cabbages, lettuces, and scallions, from contaminated soil, air, and water (Chang et al., 2013; Dela Cruz et al., 2014); (ii) originate from peculiar food 403 404 treatments such as smoking and heating, including grilling and roasting (Plaza-Bolaños et al., 2010); and (iii) derive from flavouring additives (Frank et al., 2019; Paulino et al., 405 406 2021).

The contents of alkanes, which were relatively high in all FW biogas samples, decreased during the HB period and increased until the end of the experiment (Fig. 5a). In particular, the alkanes were characterised by high values for the ratio of (ethane+propane) to longerchain C_{3+} alkanes (\sum ALK C_{3+}) (Fig. 5c), which highlighted a substantial release of lighter molecules. Furthermore, the sharp rise of this ratio during the LB period (Fig. 5c), when

O₂ contents increased in the digester headspace (Fig. 3b), suggested that oxidation 412 413 processes occurring in the headspace mostly affected longer-chain alkanes. The occurrence of alkanes in the biogas samples could be linked to the presence of vegetables 414 415 in the degrading FW substrate (Table 1); in fact, alkanes are frequently contained in 416 vegetables as components of the cuticle waxes of plant tissues (Srbinovska et al., 2020). Moreover, alkanes, in association with alkenes, may be produced by the irradiation 417 treatments commonly employed for preserving and sterilising food (Hwang et al., 2001). 418 Terpenes were the third most abundant organic group in the biogas samples (Fig. 5a), 419 except at the beginning of the experiment (< 0.03% Σ VOCs). Their relative amounts 420 421 increased until a peak on day 20 (Fig. 5a), when air entered the digester headspace (Fig. 3a), and then remained almost constant, demonstrating that they were recalcitrant to 422 oxidation. These compounds are naturally emitted and synthesised by plants and 423 determine the aromas and flavours of fruits and vegetables (Siegmund, 2015). In addition, 424 as flavour and fragrance agents, terpenes are commonly employed in the food industry 425 426 (Tetali, 2019), which explains their relatively high abundances in the biogas samples (Fig. 427 5a). The relatively high amounts of limonene (Table S1, Supplementary material), which typically provides the flavour of citrus fruits (Battista et al., 2020; Ravichandran et al., 428 429 2018), may be dictated by the presence of orange and mandarin orange peels in the considered FW substrate. 430

The relative contents of cyclic compounds increased during the first 6 days, fluctuated until day 13, and then slowly decreased until the end of the experiment (Fig. 5a). This evolution indicated that either these compounds were released mainly during the decomposition of the fresh FW or they underwent degradation during the LB period when environmental conditions were more oxidising. In contrast, the relative amounts of alkenes, after a rapid decrease in the first 3 days, peaked on day 20 with a further decrease until the end of the experiment, confirming the instability of these compounds under
relatively high oxidising conditions (Abbasian et al., 2015). The presence of cyclic and
alkene compounds in all biogas samples (Fig. 5a) may have been due to degradation of
vegetables and fruits, as they are constituents of the wax coatings of plant tissues
(Randazzo et al., 2022). Cyclics and alkenes are also found in many essential oils
synthesised in leaves, flowers, and fruits of plants (Mugao et al., 2020; Vergis et al.,
2015).

The contents of O-substituted compounds (i.e., esters, ketones, aldehydes, and alcohols) 444 increased during the first 6 days and then fluctuated until the end of the experiment (Fig. 445 446 5a). O-substituted compounds are typical food flavouring components (Panakkal et al., 2021) and have been detected during initial anaerobic decomposition of easily 447 biodegradable wastes (Liu et al., 2020) and in composting facilities (Mustafa et al., 2017). 448 The relatively low concentrations detected for O-substituted compounds in the biogas 449 450 samples (Fig. 5a) may be related to both (i) low content in the investigated FW substrate 451 and (ii) consumption during AD since they are recognised as intermediate metabolites in 452 the process (Duan et al., 2014; Wieczorek et al., 2011; Wikandari et al., 2015).

Halogenated compounds were detected from day 3, and their relatively low concentrations showed a decreasing trend along the AD time (Fig. 5a). Low amounts of these compounds in the FW biogas were expected, as they have been commonly detected at low levels in various foods, including meats, cheeses, oils, and dairy and baked products (Fleming-Jones and Smith, 2003). These compounds may enter the food chain by (i) accumulation in vegetal and animal tissues from polluted air, water, and soil and (ii) contamination from packaging and processing practices (Thakali and MacRae, 2021).

460 Finally, S-substituted compounds are typically emitted by degradation of fermented foods461 rich in sulfur-containing organic compounds (Zheng et al., 2020). Among the numerous

compounds pertaining to this group, only DMS and DMSO were detected at relatively low 462 463 concentrations in the FW biogas and presented a peak (as a sum) on day 13 (Fig. 5a). The absence of DMSO in the first 6 days of the experiment (Table S1, Supplementary 464 465 material) was followed by a decrease in the calculable DMS/DMSO ratio from day 10 466 until day 27 (Fig. 5d), when only DMSO was detected. This indicated that DMSO may have been derived from DMS oxidation, a process common in nature (Hopkins et al., 467 2016; Lee et al., 1999), that particularly occurred when enough O₂ was available in the 468 digester headspace (Table S1, Supplementary material). 469

470 *5.2.2. Features along the soil column*

471 VOCs measured at relatively low amounts in biogas samples from the digester headspace were only sporadically detected (alkenes and cyclics) or virtually absent (S-substituted and 472 halogenated compounds) in gas samples from the soil column, mostly due to air dilution. 473 Notably, the composition of the measured VOCs in gas samples from the soil column was 474 475 rather different than the composition of the measured VOCs in biogas samples collected from the digester headspace, being generally dominated by alkanes, terpenes, and O-476 477 substituted compounds, while aromatics showed lower amounts (Fig. 2). This 478 compositional evolution indicated that VOCs generated by the AD of FW were affected not only by air dilution during migration through the soil column but also by degradation 479 processes to different extents, depending on the stabilities of the various VOCs under 480 481 increasing oxidising conditions (when approaching the top of the soil column).

482 Among alkanes, the increasing trends of (ethane+propane)/ \sum ALK C₃₊ values towards the 483 top of the soil column in both the HB and LB periods suggested a certain hierarchy for 484 aerobic biodegradation; longer chains were more readily degraded (Fig. 6a), as observed 485 for biogas samples from the digester headspace, whereas recalcitrant compounds (i.e.,

ethane and propane) were progressively enriched as the O₂ content increased (Fig. 5c). 486 487 According to the degradation processes expected for alkanes under strongly oxidising conditions, which generate oxygenated compounds as intermediate or final products 488 489 (Singh et al., 2012), the values of the $\Sigma OXY / \Sigma ALKA$ (ΣO -substituted 490 compounds/ Σ alkanes) ratio for gases from the HB and LB column profiles (Fig. 6b) were significantly higher than the $\Sigma OXY/\Sigma ALKA$ ratios from the digester headspace (equal to 491 492 0.005 ± 0.001 and 0.005 ± 0.0004 , respectively), where oxidation of the alkanes was controlled by the limited O₂ availability. Coherently, the increasing rate of 493 $\sum OXY / \sum ALKA$ values was higher in the upper 15 (for LB) and 30 (for HB) cm of the soil 494 495 column (Fig. 6b), where the exposition of alkanes migrating from the digester to adverse (oxidising) conditions was longer than when they passed through the lower column levels. 496 Gases collected from the soil column during the LB period showed lower and less variable 497 $\sum OXY / \sum ALKA$ ratios than those collected during the HB period (Fig. 6b). This was 498 499 likely related to the decrease in biogas production in the digester and the relative 500 enrichment of recalcitrant short-chain alkanes in the LB period (Fig. 5c), which hindered 501 secondary production of the O-substituted compounds.

The degradation of aromatics, which explained the abovementioned distinction between 502 503 the composition of VOCs from the soil column with respect to the composition of VOCs from the digester headspace, was supported by the increasing trends seen for 504 benzene/ Σ alkylbenzenes ratios while moving upwards along the soil column in both the 505 HB and LB periods (Fig. 6c). This confirmed that alkylated benzenes were easily 506 degraded compared to benzene, as observed for the biogas samples from the digester 507 508 headspace under the relatively high oxidising conditions of the LB period (Fig. 5b). As a result, the potentially toxic benzene was passively enriched upwards along the soil 509 510 column.

The relatively high abundance of recalcitrant short-chain alkanes (Fig. 6a) and the rapid degradation of alkylated aromatics (Fig. 6c), which were dominant among the aromatic group in biogases from the digester (Fig. 5b), explained the increasing trend seen for the $\Sigma ALKA/\Sigma ARO$ ($\Sigma alkanes/\Sigma aromatics$) ratio upwards along the soil column (Fig. 6d), although alkanes are generally known to be more affected by biodegradation than aromatics due to the high stability of the aromatic ring (Fathepure, 2014).

The concentrations of odorous terpenes (Σ TER) showed an opposite trend during the HB 517 period with respect to those of alkanes and aromatics, as displayed by the increase in the 518 values of the $\Sigma TER / \Sigma (ALKA + ARO)$ ratio upwards along the soil column (Fig. 6e); this 519 520 suggested that they were the most recalcitrant among the detected VOCs. Actually, during the LB period, the biogas from the digester headspace was particularly enriched in 521 recalcitrant alkane and aromatic compounds (Fig. 5b, 5c) and the values of 522 $\Sigma TER/\Sigma(ALKA+ARO)$ were almost constant (Fig. 6e), indicating a similar fate for 523 terpenes, ethane, propane, and benzene. The increasing trend seen for the 524 525 $\sum TER / \sum (ALKA + ARO)$ ratio towards the top of the soil column during the HB period 526 (Fig. 6e) may have been exacerbated by α -pinene intake from the air, as indicated by its relative enrichment among terpenes in the gas samples from the upper layers of the soil 527 528 column, especially during the first days of the experiment when the soil gas was not completely rinsed by the biogas inflow (Table S1, Supplementary material). In fact, α -529 pinene is a persistent compound and frequently occurs at significant levels in both indoor 530 and outdoor air (Villanueva et al., 2018; Waidyanatha et al., 2022). 531

532 6. Conclusions

Biogas was generated by the AD of the selected waste category (FW) in the digester andpassed through the soil column, which indicated that the developed experimental setup

reliably simulated a typical landfill system. The results of this experiment showed that the 535 536 physicochemical and biological processes occurring within the simulated landfill cover soil effectively degraded the biogas permeating from the underneath digester, indicating 537 538 the capacity of cover soils to mitigate a wide range of gaseous compounds expected in the LFG. The biodegradation processes were highly selective for specific main gaseous 539 components and VOCs. In fact, gases permeating towards the top of the soil column were 540 541 strongly depleted in CH₄, H₂, alkylated benzenes, and long-chain alkanes, whereas they were relatively enriched in CO₂ and selected organic volatiles, such as short-chain alkanes, 542 benzene, O-substituted compounds, and terpenes. These recalcitrant gaseous species are 543 544 toxic and odoriferous and may cause severe environmental impacts if high amounts are released into the atmosphere. Therefore, actions aimed at minimising the impacts of LFG 545 diffuse emissions from landfill sites should focus mainly on recalcitrant components, since 546 the others are expected to be efficiently degraded by cover soils. 547

The experimental setup used in this study provided useful information on the fates of 548 549 biogas components permeating a soil column, and the findings could be used to increase 550 and optimise the attenuation capacities of landfill cover soils. On this basis, complementary works should be focused on further experiments by: (i) implementing 551 552 parallel lines of the setup and varying the operating conditions (e.g., soil moisture, thickness, compaction, and leachate application); (ii) digesting different organic waste 553 categories, i.e., those commonly disposed of at landfills, as degrading substrates; (iii) 554 treating soils with organic amendments, such as compost or digested sludge, to improve 555 LFG degradation efficiency. 556

557 Acknowledgements

This study was financially supported by the Laboratory of Fluid and Rock Geochemistry 558 559 of the Department of Earth Sciences at the University of Florence and, secondarily, by the Research Unit in Sanitary-Environmental Engineering at the University of Urbino "Carlo 560 561 Bo". The authors thank Mr. M. Di Domenico at the Hera in Rimini (Emilia-Romagna Region, Italy) for providing the inoculum (anaerobic sludge sample). Dr.-Eng. A. Folino, 562 previously at the University of Urbino "Carlo Bo", is mentioned for the support in 563 organising the inoculum collection. The authors are also grateful to T. Burresi, F. 564 Giannetti, L. Chelucci, and M. Rumachella for their assistance in collecting the food waste 565 566 substrate.

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