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Evaluation of short-circuited electrodes in combination with dark fermentation for promoting biohydrogen production process

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Abstract

Short-circuited electrodes, in combination with dark fermentation, were evaluated in a biohydrogen production process. The system is based on an innovative design of a non-compartmented electromicrobial bioreactor with a conductive tubular membrane as cathode and a graphite felt as anode. In particular, the electrode specialization occurred when the bioreactor was inoculated with manure as the whole medium and when a vacuum was applied in the tubular membrane, for allowing continuous extraction of gaseous species (H₂, CH₄, CO₂) from the bioreactor. This specialization of the electrodes as anode and cathode was further confirmed by microbial ecology analysis of biofilms and by cyclic voltammetry measurements. In these experimental conditions, the potential of the electrochemical system (short-circuited electrodes) reached values as low as -320 mV vs. SHE, associated with a significant bioH₂ production. Moreover, a higher bioH₂ production occurred and a potential of the electrochemical system as low as -429 mV vs SHE was temporarily observed, when additional heat treatments of the whole manure were applied in order to remove methanogen microorganisms (i.e., hydrogen consumers). In the bioreactor, the higher production of bioH₂ would be promoted by electrofermentation from the current flow observed between short-circuited anode and cathode.

Keywords

Biohydrogen, short-circuited electrodes, electrochemical snorkel, dark fermentation

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 In the context of global warming, energy transition is both a societal and an environmental
3 challenge. With the transition out of fossil energy, development of renewable energy is one of
4 the main solutions to make possible this transition. In recent years, hydrogen has been seen as
5 a credible carbon-free energy resource, used either for direct combustion or in a fuel cell.
6 However, the production of hydrogen is currently of petrochemical origin, thanks to processes
7 that are cheap but that have the disadvantage of being non-renewable and polluting, and
8 therefore generating large amounts of CO₂ (Mosca et al. 2020). As a result, efforts have been
9 made to reduce both costs and CO₂ emissions, by developing alternatives using e.g.
10 electrolyzers or, to a lesser extent, biological processes using microbial technologies (Ghimire
11 et al. 2015).

12 One of the most studied microbial methods is based on dark fermentation (DF), and more
13 specifically on the capability of specific microorganisms to produce biohydrogen (bioH₂)
14 (Ghimire et al. 2015; Renaudie et al. 2021; Oh et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2018). In these
15 microorganisms, mainly strict anaerobe species such as *Clostridium sp.*, carbon substrates are
16 fermented to provide energy, which consequently generates an electron flux that can be used
17 by a hydrogenase activity to produce bioH₂ (Saint-Amans et al. 2001). In fact, with the use of
18 specific co-factors, this enzyme can catalyze both the production and/or the consumption of H₂,
19 depending on different parameters such as H₂ partial pressure (P_{H2}) (Mizuno et al. 2000) and
20 the redox environment or pH (Guo et al. 2010). This enzyme is mainly found in a large range
21 of microorganisms such as *Clostridium* species, present in mixed culture dedicated to dark
22 fermentation for bioH₂ production (Barca et al. 2016; Morsy 2017; Zagrodnik et Łaniecki
23 2017). During this process, H₂ pressure (i.e. P_{H2}), can be reduced in order to favor H₂ production
24 by using a gas flow as a carrier or using vacuum directly in the headspace of the bioreactor or
25 through a liquid/gas membrane (Renaudie et al. 2021; Lee et al. 2012).

26 As an alternative to DF, Microbial Electrolysis Cell (MEC) have been evaluated for hydrogen
27 production (Lalauette et al. 2009; Mohan et Pandey 2013; Jeremiasse, Hamelers, et Buisman
28 2010). This approach is based on microorganisms that can exchange electrons with the
29 extracellular environment, and more specifically with electrodes. In fact, electroactive
30 microorganisms can be either exoelectrogenic or electrotrophic, according to their capacity of
31 giving/receiving electrons to/from the environment, respectively (Logan et al. 2019). MEC can
32 use the electron flow extracted from organic substrate oxidation at the bioanode to induce
33 reactions of interest at the cathode, e.g. bioH₂ production. The production of bioH₂ is however

1 thermodynamically unfavorable (Cheng et Logan 2007; Zaybak et al. 2013; Reeve et al. 2017).
2 and it is necessary to add at least a potential of 0.13 V between the microbial anode and the
3 cathode (biotic or abiotic) to overcome this thermodynamic barrier. The potential applied in
4 MEC for bioH₂ production is significantly lower than the one needed for water splitting when
5 water is oxidized in place of organic matter, but the microbial electrolysis still consumes energy
6 for H₂ production. This limitation has been somehow overpassed by microbial bioH₂ producers
7 from the environment that have developed during their evolution biochemical pathways to
8 produce this gas despite the unfavorable potential difference between NADH/NAD⁺, H⁺ and
9 H⁺/H₂ redox couples (-320 and -414 mv vs. SHE respectively). The purpose of this study was
10 to evaluate a strategy to promote bioH₂ without the external energy input requested in microbial
11 electrolysis.

12 According to the literature, bioH₂ recovery can reach 33% using DF and 50 to 90 % using 0.6
13 V applied for MEC, the highest recovery being observed with acetate and lactate as the substrate
14 (Cheng et Logan 2007). This value can be difficult to reach in complex media such as in organic
15 waste because of the complex microbial population present inside. To reach the highest bioH₂
16 production from organic wastes, combining DF and MEC has to be considered (Lalauette et
17 al. 2009; Guo, PrévotEAU, et Rabaey 2017; Katuri et al. 2014; Werner et al. 2016; Wang et al.
18 2013). In fact, bioH₂ production on its highest rate on MEC is done using substrates that are
19 found in fermentation such as volatile fatty acid (VFA, i.e. acetate, butyrate...) instead of
20 glucose substrate for which bioH₂ recovery could only reach 71% in MEC operated at 0.6 V
21 (Cheng et Logan, 2007). In initial experiments that involved the integration of DF and MEC
22 technologies, the production of bioH₂ was achieved through a sequential two-step process. In
23 the initial phase of DF, the oxidative breakdown of organic substrates within the medium
24 resulted in the generation of hydrogen, concurrently with the production of VFA. In a
25 subsequent stage, these VFA generated in the DF process were transported to an
26 electrochemical cell and subjected to oxidation by an electroactive bacteria biofilm within the
27 anodic chamber (Lalauette et al. 2009). It has been demonstrated that the combination of these
28 two methods led to an increase in bioH₂ production (Lalauette et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2012;
29 Moreno et al. 2015). For example, Lalauette et al., demonstrated that employing effluents from
30 cellobiose fermentation to supply a MEC resulted in achieving a hydrogen yield of 9.95
31 mol_{H₂}/mol_{glucose} while DF alone yielded only 1.64 mol_{H₂}/mol_{glucose} (Lalauette et al. 2009). This

1 difference can be attributed to the various oxidation degrees of organic components of the
2 medium.

3 The combination of the two methods into a single step process was later considered. In order to
4 reduce internal resistance present in MEC, the two electrodes chamber could be combined by
5 implementing electrodes closer to each other without separation. In addition, the global system
6 could be additionally simplified by using conductive membranes, such as nickel based hollow
7 fiber, making them able to work either as a cathode and for gas extraction (Katuri et al. 2014;
8 Werner et al. 2016). However, some important experimental conditions are not always easy to
9 set up, depending mostly on microorganism optimal cultures. As an example, the optimal pH
10 of fermentative microorganisms in DF usually ranges between 5 to 6 (Guo et al. 2010) while it
11 is around 7 for electroactive bacteria in MEC (Patil et al. 2011) and some compromise values
12 had to be established. Another difficulty is related to H₂ consumer microorganisms that are
13 naturally present in the complex environment such as manure or waste-based media.

14 Apart from MEC, DF and any combination of these two processes, another concept, the
15 microbial electrochemical snorkel involving short-circuited electrodes (SCE; anode and
16 cathode) emerged recently in the area of microbial electrochemistry (Erable et al. 2011). SCE
17 do not produce nor consume electricity but permits to connect efficiently separated
18 electromicrobial processes and was shown to be efficient for the passive water treatment by
19 promoting organic matter oxidation (Hoareau et al. 2023), nitrate removal (Rogińska et al.
20 2021, 2023) or metal recovery (Mitov et al. 2021, 2022; Hubenova et al. 2023). The main
21 interest of SCE lies in its simplicity, not requiring external power sources to run the process.
22 For electrochemical studies, the short-circuit can be analyzed with zero resistance
23 amperometry, allowing identification of the anodic and the cathodic sides of the
24 electrochemical system and measurement of both the current flowing between the two short-
25 circuited electrode and the potential of the system versus a defined reference electrode
26 (Rogińska et al. 2021).

27 Hence, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the possibilities offered by short-circuited
28 electrodes in combination with DF for bioH₂ production, considering the mechanism of
29 electrofermentation. To this end, experiments were carried out in a non-compartmentalized
30 bioreactor inoculated with manure as the whole medium, inside which a graphite felt was used
31 as a bioanode while a conductive tubular membrane was used as both biocathode and for gas
32 extraction. First, the experimental design has been optimized to achieve the lowest electrode
33 potential, close to -300 mV vs SHE, in order to promote the production of microbial bioH₂,

1 monitored with gas chromatography. Subsequently, the electrochemical specialization of the
2 electrodes on which biofilms developed was characterized and monitored during the process,
3 using electrochemical measurements and metagenomic analyses of microbial communities.

4 **2. Material and methods**

5 **2.1. Experimental design**

6 A 5 liters bioreactor was used for all experiments. The electrochemical device was composed
7 of three electrodes, the working electrode was a carbon-based silicone tubular membrane
8 (Getelec, France), the counter electrode was made with a piece of graphite felt (GFD 4.6EA,
9 SGL, Germany) and the reference electrode was an Ag/AgCl/KCl 1M. A porous separator,
10 made with a high-density polypropylene geotextile membrane, was implemented at the surface
11 of the graphite felt, between the two electrodes to prevent direct contact. Electrochemical
12 analysis was done with a VSP-3e potentiostat (Biologic, France). Following a previous report
13 (Rogińska et al. 2021), the electrochemical noise mode of the EC-Lab software (Biologic,
14 France) was used to short-circuit the graphite felt and the conductive tubular membrane while
15 the current as well as the potential of the whole system were measured between the two
16 electrodes. All potentials were then recorded versus standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) by
17 adding 240 mV to the measured values. The current density was calculated according to the
18 geometric surface area of the electrodes. Potential and current values were collected every
19 minute. Open circuit voltage (OCV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) at 1mV/s were measured on
20 individual electrodes.

21 Three designs of the bioreactor process were tested during this study (Figures 1 to 3). For all
22 experiments, the tubular membrane was connected to an insulated stainless-steel tube. The
23 graphite felt was connected to a stainless-steel rod and through a butyl septum in the headplate
24 of the bioreactor in order to avoid any oxygen entry.

25 In the first design of the bioreactor process, a tubular membrane (inner diameter x outside
26 diameter x length of 3.5 mm x 5.5 mm x 80 mm) was connected to two stainless steel tubes
27 inside which 0.11 mL/min of air or N₂ were used as gas carrier for gas extraction. The graphite
28 felt piece (80mm x 85 mm x 4 mm) was placed at two-thirds in the organic medium and one-
29 third in the headspace of the reactor.

30 In the second design of the bioreactor, the graphite felt piece (a 160 mm disc in diameter with
31 5 mm in thickness) was placed at the bottom of the reactor whereas the tubular membrane did

1 not change compare to the first design. A flow of N₂ at 0.11 mL/min inside the tubular
2 membrane was used as gas carrier for gas extraction

3 In the third design of the bioreactor, the graphite felt piece (a 160 mm disc in diameter with 5
4 mm in thickness) was placed at the bottom of the reactor and a 80 mm tubular membrane was
5 closed in one extremity with a 20 mm stainless steel stem. Instead of a gas carrier, a vacuum of
6 80 kPa was applied inside the tubular membrane, using membrane pump (N86 Labort, KNF,
7 Germany).

8 In this final experimental design of the bioreactor, a vacuum of 80 kPa was applied continuously
9 for long term electrochemical and gas analyses.

10 **2.2. Culture conditions**

11 Cultures were inoculated using manure from either the methanizers of Methanason (Einville-
12 au-Jard, France) or La Bouzule farm (Nancy, France) as the whole medium. The two
13 methanizers were feed with the same organic wastes, were associated and were actives for dark
14 fermentation. The manure collected at t₀ was directly introduced into the bioreactor. A first
15 vacuum was made through the membrane, in the medium and in the headspace to remove all
16 O₂ present in the bioreactor. Then, N₂ was, used to fill the membrane and the headspace in order
17 to limit O₂ entry when the vacuum was stopped. Electrochemical and daily gas analyses started
18 when vacuum was applied to the membrane. After the system reached potential and current
19 equilibrium values, two successive heat treatment at 121 °C were done to the medium for
20 electrochemical and gas analysis.

21 **2.3. Gases analysis**

22 H₂ and CH₄ from the membrane and headspace of the reactor were analyzed online with a Micro
23 Gas chromatography (microGC fusion, Chemlys) equipped with two Thermal Conductivity
24 Detector (TCD, columns A and B) were used for gas composition analysis with argon as carrier
25 gas on the detector A and helium as carrier gas for the detector B. The A and B column were
26 set at 80 °C and 75°C respectively. The detector was set 70 °C.

27 **2.4. Electrofermentation coefficient**

28 Electrofermentation coefficient (η_{EF}) was calculated following the equation proposed by
29 Moscoviz et al., 2016, using the charge transferred (Q_e) and the total charged product (Q_p):

$$30 \quad Q_e = \int Idt \quad (1)$$

1 Where I is the electric current recorded over a time.

$$2 \quad Q_p = n_p \times N_p \times F \quad (2)$$

3 With n_p the number of moles of the product, N_p the number of moles of electrons available per
4 mole of product which can be calculate using this formula: $N(C_a N_b O_c H_d) = 4a - 3b - 2c + d$, and
5 F the Faraday constant (96 485 C/mol).

$$6 \quad \eta_{EF} = Q_{e-} / Q_p \quad (3)$$

7 The value of the coefficient is always positive. If the value is >1 , the system may be close to a
8 microbial fuel cell that a significant current density and the system is able to drive a bioH₂
9 electrosynthesis. If the coefficient is comprised between 0 and 1, the electron present in the
10 electric circuit could not contribute directly to H₂ production and the electrosynthesis may not
11 be the main reaction in the electrochemical system (Moscoviz et al. 2016).

12 **2.5. Microbial community analysis**

13 *DNA extraction and amplicon sequencing.* At the beginning and the end of each experiment,
14 manure was sampled for global microorganism community analysis. Biofilm samples, from
15 both the felt (anode) and tubular membrane (cathode) surfaces were collected at the end of the
16 experiment. Total DNA extraction from biofilm and manure were made in 50 mL of phosphate
17 buffer following two steps. First of all, an ultrasound treatment was made at 45 kHz for 10 min,
18 using an Ultrasonic Cleaner (VWR, France). Then, each electrode was scratched using a scalpel
19 in order to remove biofilm from their surface. All biofilm and manure samples were then
20 centrifuged at 5 500 G for 10 min and supernatants were removed before storing them at -80
21 °C. DNA extraction from all supernatants was performed using DNeasy PowerSoil Pro
22 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer recommendations for water and
23 biofilm samples, respectively. DNA were eluted in 100 µL of elution buffer and their
24 concentration were measured using a QuBit4 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Waltham, USA). In
25 addition, purity of extracted DNA was assessed by measuring both 260/280 nm and 260/230
26 nm ratios with a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, USA). DNA was
27 stored at 4°C until further analysis. 16S rDNA V3-V4 region sequencing was performed by
28 Novogene (Cambridge, United Kingdom) at PE250 an Illumina Novaseq (Illumina, United
29 States).

30

1 *Bioinformatic analysis.* Data were subsequently imported into the FROGS pipeline (Find
2 Rapidly OTU with Galaxy Solution) implemented on a galaxy instance (v.2.3.0) ([http://](http://sigenae-workbench.toulouse.inra.fr/galaxy/)
3 sigenae-workbench.toulouse.inra.fr/galaxy/) (Escudié et al., 2018). After a quality control, 16S
4 paired-end sequences were merged into contigs with VSEARCH (Rognes et al., 2022).
5 Sequences were dereplicated before being clustered using SWARM algorithm (v.2.1.5) (Mahé
6 et al., 2022) with a first denoising step using an aggregation distance equal to 1 and a second
7 one equal to 3. Chimera were removed using VSEARCH (Rognes et al., 2022). Filters were
8 applied to remove clusters that are not present in at least 3 samples or with an abundance below
9 a 0.005% threshold (Bokulich et al., 2013). The taxonomic assignation of each OTU was
10 performed using the BLAST tools against (Camacho et al., 2009) the database SILVA 132 16S
11 (Pruesse et al., 2007). Phyloseq (1.26.1) R package was used to identify community
12 composition analysis, to normalize and to generate α -diversity indexes (richness and evenness)
13 after a rarefaction curve using the transform counts method (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013).

14 *Statistical analysis.* All statistical analyses were carried out using R software version 2023.06.1
15 (R Development Core Team, <http://www.R-project.org>). We first compared α -diversity indexes
16 to summarize the structure microbial communities with respect to its richness (number of
17 Amplicon Sequence Variant (ASV)) and Simpson index (distribution of abundances of the
18 OTU) with phyloseq (1.44.0) (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). A t-test was performed on
19 richness and shannon for pairwise comparisons using “Microbiome” package. The β -diversity,
20 to assess the degree of community differentiation, was estimated using multivariate analyses.
21 The dissimilarities (Weighted Unifrac distances) among treatments were assessed using
22 Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA). After testing the multivariate homogeneity of group
23 dispersions, permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) (adonis” function on vegan
24 2.6-4 R package) was performed to test for significant differences in sample clustering patterns
25 across sampling points (9999 permutations). Plots were drawn using the R packages ggplot2
26 (3.4.3) 1). Heatmaps were plotted with R package ampvis2 (2.8.6) (Andersen et al., 2018).

27

28 **2. Results and discussion**

29 ***3.1. Reactor designs***

30 Preliminary experiments were carried out in order to design a reactor that could be favorable to
31 bioH₂ production by simply short-circuiting an anode to a relatively smaller cathode, in a liquid
32 manure coming from methanizers as the biological component. In such conditions, low

1 potentials and current flow from the larger anode to the smaller cathode were expected. In this
2 study, the large anode was made with a piece of graphite felt whereas the smaller cathode was
3 designed with a conductive tubular membrane that allows extraction of the produced gases,
4 either by flowing N₂ or by applying a limited vacuum to the membrane in order to specialize
5 electrodes. The main criteria in this first series of experiments were the measurement of the
6 current, the characterization of the direction of this electron flow (current must be negative at
7 the tubular membrane side, the cathode), and the potential reached by the system with manure
8 while the current was flowing between anode and cathode. In this configuration of the process,
9 the potentiostat was only used to monitor the resulting potential and was never used for applying
10 any external potential and forced current flow.

11

12 A first process configuration is reported in Figure 1. In this experiment, a carrier gas (N₂) was
13 used through the internal tube of the conductive membrane located inside the manure. A
14 graphite felt piece was introduced as represented in Figure 1A, a larger part being in the organic
15 matter, and a smaller emerged in the headspace of the reactor where electrical connections were
16 established. The experiment was initiated by flowing air inside the membrane, while N₂ was
17 injected in the headspace of the bioreactor. The two electrodes, i.e. the conductive tubular
18 membrane and the graphite felt, were short-circuited using a special measurement mode offered
19 by the potentiostat that allowed implementing a zero-resistance between them. As a result, an
20 electrical current between these electrodes and the potential of the whole system were measured
21 (Figure 1B).

22 In these experimental conditions, the potential was close to -30 mV vs SHE and the current
23 reached -5 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ at the tubular membrane that behaved thus as a cathode when air was
24 flowing through it (Figure 1B). Air contains 20 % oxygen that was readily reduced at the
25 membrane, and at this potential, it could result from either abiotic reduction, or reduction
26 through biofilm catalysis. Flowing N₂ inside of the tubular membrane drastically changed the
27 experiment and the current became positive, reaching 8-9 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$. Hence, the membrane
28 switched from a cathode to an anode and the origin of this positive current could result from
29 the oxidation of organic matter at the membrane surface, due to microorganism activities.
30 Microbial electrodes that can rapidly switch from bioanodic to biocathodic behavior have been
31 already reported in the literature (Rozendal et al. 2008; Jeremiasse et al. 2010). However, the
32 potential of the system did not change dramatically during the experiment and only oscillated
33 between -20 to -50 mV in the presence of air to -30 and -50 mV in the presence of N₂. In this

1 experiment, the lowest potential was observed when the membrane was behaving as an anode,
2 when purged with N₂, but potential measurements were very far from what was expected, i.e. a
3 low equilibrium potential close to -300 mV vs SHE. Higher potentials were obtained if one of
4 the electrode is contaminated by oxygen, as already reported (Reeve et al. 2017). In our study,
5 the hypothesis that the headspace of the reactor was not completely free of oxygen was
6 privileged. Therefore, the first design of the reactor that involved a wetted graphite felt, largely
7 exposed to the headspace, probably switched from an anodic to a cathodic behavior since this
8 structure can canalize organic matter components by capillarity, that can consequently be in
9 contact and react with oxygen traces and thus limiting the bioH₂ production (Hoareau et al.
10 2023).

11 To prevent such exposure to oxygen traces, the graphite felt electrode was more deeply
12 immersed at the bottom of the reactor (see Figure 2A), and covered with an insulating porous
13 separator to prevent any uncontrolled short-circuit with the tubular membrane. In addition, N₂
14 was flowed in the tubular membrane in order to extract gases produced at the vicinity of the
15 surface membrane where dark fermentation occurred.

16 Figure 2B reports the behavior of the new configuration of the system as described above, when
17 the two electrodes were short-circuited. The initial potential was relatively high, around -50 mV
18 vs SHE before to gradually decrease to -250 mV within 25 hours, which was close to the
19 maximum potential that bacteria can reach in anaerobic conditions, -300 mV (Cheng et Logan
20 2007). In the same time, an unstable positive current, starting from 5 μA/cm², decreased to a
21 negative and stable value of -0.28 μA/cm². The large current observed during the first hours
22 was probably due to the presence of oxygen traces in the manure due to the inoculation from
23 methanizer into the bioreactor that were gradually consumed until exhaustion. Whereas the final
24 measured current was relatively low but stable, the electron flow was consistent with the
25 membrane behaving as a cathode. After 100h, when the N₂ flow was stopped, some oxygen
26 traces probably entered again into the tubular membrane. The current remained negative but a
27 rapid switch in current was observed, from -0,28 μA/cm² to -9 μA/cm², associated to a rapid
28 switch of the potential from -250 mV to -100 mV. In such experimental system equipped with
29 short-circuited electrodes, a higher current is usually associated with a higher potential of
30 equilibrium (Rogińska et al. 2021). Moreover, it was assumed that the presence of oxygen
31 necessarily pushed the redox potential of the whole system to higher values. Flowing N₂ again
32 through the membrane allowed a rapid recovery of the low potential and the current diminished
33 back to about -3μA, and the tubular membrane behaved continuously as a cathode.

1 In this second design of the bioreactor, the conductive tubular membrane could behave as a
2 robust cathode when short-circuited with a larger piece of graphite felt that behaved as a stable
3 anode. However, the potential that was reached could be not low enough to promote bioH₂
4 production at the cathode tubular membrane. In order to reach lower potentials, N₂ flow was
5 replaced by a small vacuum of about 80 kPa in the membrane (Figure 3A). Figure 3B reports
6 the kinetic of the potential and current measured between the two electrodes when the vacuum
7 was applied and stopped. Results indicated that a potential as low as -323 mV was reached and
8 a negative current was continuously measured, varying from -0.53 μA/cm² (at the beginning of
9 the experiment) to -1.1 μA/cm² (at the end of the experiment). In these conditions, a functional
10 cathode was thus established, offering, among the series of experiments, the most compatible
11 redox environment for hydrogen producers. When the vacuum was stopped, some oxygen
12 probably entered into the membrane, resulting in a current that gradually increased (from 3h to
13 18h of the kinetic). The potential of the system was then gradually increasing up to -300 mV,
14 which still remains more negative than during the previous experiment when N₂ was stopped (-
15 100 mV) in the second design of the bioreactor design. One can assume that the risk of oxygen
16 contamination is lower with the use of vacuum than with N₂ as the carrier gas. At the final stage
17 of the experiment, the lowest potential was finally recovered when the vacuum was applied
18 again (Figure 3B).

19 In conclusion, applying a vacuum in the conductive tubular membrane allowed reaching the
20 lowest possible equilibrium potential of -323 mV vs SHE in the manure when this electrode
21 was connected to a larger graphite felt while the two first designs did not show a low potential
22 that can be maintained. Different cyclic voltammetry measurements were performed on the
23 tubular membrane, allowing to observe oxygen contamination when vacuum, air or N₂ were
24 used, when vacuum was stopped or when no gas flow was used in the membrane (figure 4B).
25 Results indicated that the reduction curve tended to higher potentials in presence of air or in
26 absence of any gas flow in the tubular membrane that did not passed below -200 mV vs SHE.
27 However, lowest reduction curve potentials were observed with a N₂ flow, in the presence of a
28 vacuum and even when the vacuum was stopped.

29 In the third design of the bioreactor, the tubular membrane became systematically the cathode,
30 and the graphite felt the anode, which should correspond to different electrochemical reactions
31 on these electrodes. To verify this electrode differentiation, cyclic voltammetry measurements
32 were done with the graphite felt and the tubular membrane as individual electrodes. Results
33 indicated dramatic differences between them. With the graphite felt, an anodic wave was

1 observed (Figure 4A, curve a), starting from a potential slightly more negative than -300 mV
2 while such anodic wave was not observed at the tubular membrane (Figure 4A, curve b). The
3 current at the tubular membrane was negative with a potential below -300 mV, which is
4 consistent with the low cathodic current measured in short-circuit (Figure 3B). Such low current
5 flow should not affect dramatically the bioH₂ production by direct reduction of proton but could
6 induce favorable electrofermentation. This potential role of electrofermentation for bioH₂
7 production was further evaluated by combining electrochemical measurements and gas
8 analyses (see next section).

9 **3.2. Online monitoring of gas production during the DF-SCE experiment**

10 In order to evaluate the environment generated in the third design of the bioreactor, i.e. with the
11 optimal setup and electrode implementation, and to verify its capability to promote bioH₂
12 production, the bioreactor was connected to an online Micro Gas chromatography analyzer,
13 both at the headspace and at the tubular cathode. The bioreactor was also connected to a
14 potentiostat in order to evaluate the potential and current state that the system could naturally
15 reach in these conditions. Since the reactor was inoculated with manure coming from a
16 methanizer, it was assumed that the whole system was able to naturally produced CH₄, whereas
17 bioH₂ is usually not detected in the atmosphere of such environment (Lebranchu et al. 2019).
18 However, there are effective methods for favoring bioH₂ (from dark fermentation) over CH₄
19 (anaerobic digestion) and one of the most efficient consists in applying heat treatment to the
20 bioreactor (Castelló et al. 2020).

21 Figure 5 shows electrochemical analysis at the beginning of the process with the whole medium,
22 i.e. manure collected from the methanizer (Figure 5A) and with the same medium heat treated
23 twice at 121 °C for 20 min (Figure 5B). When the medium was not heat treated, the potential
24 of the whole system was stable and reached -277 mV with a stable current density established
25 at -0.086 μA/cm² (Figure 5A). Such low potential was not observed when the inoculation of the
26 bioreactor occurred after a heat treatment of the manure. In these experimental conditions the
27 potential of the system reached only -42 mV with a stable current at -0.098 μA/cm² (Figure
28 5B). Results indicated that the heat treatment was not favorable to establish the
29 bioelectrochemical system and did not allow reaching the low potential that was targeted (-300
30 mV). Moreover, gas analysis indicated that no bioH₂ was produced in the reactor with heat
31 treated manure (Figure A, see annex). In addition, current measurements showed that the
32 electrochemical system was slightly altered after each gas analysis, resulting in a brief increase
33 in the cathode current value (this was observed for both reactors).

1 Electrochemical data measurements and the gas analysis, either in the tubular membrane and in
2 the headspace of the reactor were carried out using this configuration of the process (Figure 6).
3 In this experiment, the resilience and stability of the bioreactor were evaluated during the first
4 4 steps of the process. In particular, the two first stages described the beginning of the
5 experiment and its stabilization before and after heat treatment respectively. The two last stages
6 were carried out to illustrate the stability and resilience of the microbial based electrochemistry
7 phenomenon after disconnection and re-connection of electrodes respectively, as shown by gas
8 analysis and electrochemical measurements. In addition, to avoid the negative influence of gas
9 analysis on electrochemical data, current and potential values were always collected just before
10 gas samplings and analysis.

11 At the beginning of the experiment, CH₄ was detected in the tubular membrane in low amount,
12 around 0.028%mol, then in higher quantity after 110 hours of culture with a maximum at 0.20
13 %mol (Figure 6B). BioH₂ was also detected through the membrane, and started to increase after
14 110 hours of culture and remained stable at 0.20%mol during this experiment. In the headspace
15 of the bioreactor (Figure 6C), CH₄ production was also measured, from 0.15%mol at the
16 beginning of the experiment, up to 0.22%mol after 100 hours of culture, while bioH₂ production
17 reached a maximum value of 0.22%mol after 44 hours of culture before to remain stable at
18 0.18%mol. Before heat treatment, CH₄ production in the headspace of the bioreactor was
19 always higher than bioH₂ production compared to the tubular membrane, showing that
20 biomethanation was very active in these conditions.

21 After heat treatment, CH₄ decreased in the headspace of reactor, starting from 0.39 % mol to
22 0.07 %mol after 230 hours of the culture (Figure 6C). Production of this gas also decreased in
23 the tubular membrane, going from 0.14 %mol, down to 0.05 %mol (Figure 6B). For both the
24 headspace and the membrane, CH₄ was completely abolished after 338 hours of culture for the
25 membrane and 374 hours in the headspace of reactor. Conversely, bioH₂ production increased
26 in both compartments, with a higher amount detected through the membrane than in the
27 headspace. In fact, the maximum amount of H₂ detected in the membrane was 0.37 %mol after
28 284 h instead of 0.26 %mol at the same time in the headspace of the reactor. Then, the gas
29 production decreased and stabilized at 0.34 %mol through the tubular membrane and at 0.24
30 %mol in the headspace of the bioreactor respectively. In parallel, electrochemical
31 measurements showed a temporary drop in potential of the system that reached -429 mV, at the
32 lowest and a maximum of current density at -0.81 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$, which was highly unexpected, but
33 suggesting that the medium evolved to a very reductive environment, probably due to the excess

1 of hydrogen produced in the media. The electrode potential stabilized at values closed to -300
2 mV with a current density at $-0.11 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ until 344 h. An increase in current density to -0.66
3 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$, was then observed at 360 hours at the same potential. In fact, due to the vacuum created
4 in the membrane, bioH_2 was directly collected when produced. The P_{H_2} is one of the critical
5 parameters in DF for bioH_2 production and high values of H_2 pressure could inhibit its own
6 production during DF (Chung 1976; Kim et al. 2006; Jung et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2017).

7 On the basis of these results, the hypothesis that the current generated by the bioreactor could
8 be responsible for the direct bioH_2 production or was the consequence of the implementation
9 of a favorable environment at the vicinity of the membrane that promoted DF microorganism
10 species, had to be investigated. Moscoviz and al., proposed a coefficient based on Faradic yield,
11 called electro-fermentation efficiency η_{EF} (Moscoviz and al., 2016). In this study, the index
12 value of our system was 0.0018 at the tubular membrane, indicating that electron flow measured
13 in the electrochemical system could not be directly linked to the H_2 production. Therefore, the
14 hypothesis that the microenvironment created next to the electrodes could promote bioH_2
15 production by microorganisms was privileged. In fact, bioH_2 can be naturally produced by
16 electro-active microorganisms that are able to give or receive electrons to or from the
17 environment, and particularly these capabilities can help fermentative microorganisms by
18 oxidizing products from fermentation into CO_2 and protons (Bhagchandani et al. 2020;
19 Schievano et al. 2016). Thus, specific environmental conditions created by anode and cathode
20 may impact the redox potential, near the electrodes, that could promote bioH_2 production by
21 microorganisms (Moscoviz et al. 2016).

22 In order to observe if the SCE implementation on the bioreactor could have a direct influence
23 on gas production, electrodes were disconnected from 366 h to 471h. CH_4 was not detected and
24 H_2 slightly decrease from 0.33 and 0.23 %mol to 0.29 and 0.19 %mol through the membrane
25 and in the headspace, respectively. After electrodes reconnection at 471h, the electrochemical
26 properties were restored, gas analyses indicated that bioH_2 production did not increase through
27 the membrane and stays around 0.31 %mol whereas CH_4 remained undetectable. In the
28 headspace of the bioreactor, the H_2 production increased slightly, reaching 0.21 %mol,
29 suggesting a minor contribution of SCE on bioH_2 production. Concerning electrochemical
30 measurements, the potential stabilized at -264 mV with a current density of $-0.78 \text{ A}/\text{m}^2$. These
31 values were consistent with the data measured at the beginning of the experiment. A direct link
32 between electron flow and hydrogen production was not observed, supporting the idea that the

1 bioH₂ production was mainly due to DF microorganisms, and electrofermentation in a lesser
2 extent.

3 **3.3. Microbial analysis**

4 To verify that hydrogen production was the result of a microbial activity and especially a
5 microbial specialization in the bioreactor during the process kinetic, either in the whole medium
6 or in the vicinity of electrodes, analysis of the microbial ecology was carried out. In details,
7 microbial analyses were performed on the media; i.e. manure, at the beginning of the
8 experiment, before heat treatment and at the end of the process, after heat treatment. Biofilm
9 presents on the surface of tubular membrane (cathode) and graphite felt (anode) were also
10 analyzed in order to see the impact of the bioreactor configuration on the implementation of
11 microbial population on electrodes before and after heat treatment.

12 The figure 7 shows the microbial diversity found in medium samples and biofilm from anode
13 and cathode before heat treatment and after heat treatment. The results from figure 7A did not
14 showed any significant difference in richness (ASV number) between cathode, the medium and
15 anode, at the starting of the experiment, and before and after heat treatment. Onn the other hand,
16 Shannon index (figure 7B) presented a significative difference, after heat treatment, between
17 the cathode biofilm that hosted more diversity than the anode and medium. The PCoA of the
18 microbial communities confirmed this result (figure 8). In fact, the structure of bacterial
19 communities is strongly affected by the thermic treatment (according to axis 1, which explained
20 more than 67% of the variability). In addition, after heat treatment, the structure differed
21 between the group's cathode/ medium and the anode.

22 In order to understand the impact of the heat treatment on the microbial communities, the
23 microbial composition of samples from the media at the beginning and at the end of the
24 experiment, as well as biofilms on the anode and the cathode, have been analyzed. The main
25 populations found and presented at the class taxonomic level, is showed on the figure 9. Six
26 main classes were observed: *Bacteroidia*, *Cloacimonadia* *Clostridia*, *Gammaproteobacteria*,
27 *Limochordia* and *Spirochaetia*. There are no obvious differences in microbial community
28 compositions between the beginning of the experiment, and before the heat treatment, either at
29 class o taxonomical level. However, after the heat treatment, we observed a change in the
30 communities in the three environments, i.e. anode, cathode and medium, with a drastic decrease
31 in Cloacimonadales, for example, and an increase in the relative abundance of

1 Pseudomonadales. Interestingly, the anode showed higher relative abundances of the Clostridia
2 class after heating treatment.

3 To confirm this result, a heatmap have been done with abundancy values in order to observe
4 significant differences between population at the taxonomic class level on samples taken from
5 manure after heat treatment (figure 10). At the lower taxonomic level and only after heat
6 treatment the relative abundance of minority classes did not present any difference, excepted for
7 *Cloacimonadia* that were found in higher quantity in the media at the end of the process.
8 However, the anode displayed a different pattern compared to the cathode and the medium,
9 with an under-representation of *Gammaproteobacteria* and *Bacteroidia*. Moreover, an increase
10 in relative abundance of *Clostridia* and *Bacilli* Class was shown at the anode with 56.5 and 7.2
11 respectively while the cathode and the medium showed a lower relative abundances of 25 and
12 4 respectively. In fact, *Gammaproteobacteria* and *Bacteroidia* are able to produce bioH₂ as well
13 as *Clostridia* and *Bacilli* for some species, *Gammaproteobacteria* are also known to be
14 electroactives bacteria such as *Shewanella* sp.

15 Moreover, because of their electroactive capabilities, species from those main classes found at
16 the cathode may be electrotrophic, resulting in additional bioH₂ production. Those
17 microorganisms were less present on the graphite felt that was composed in majority with
18 *Clostridia*, sporulating species involved in the degradation of lignocellulosic materials, and in
19 the production of acetate and bioH₂. The relative high abundancy of *Clostridia* on the graphite
20 felt may suggest that those species, mainly exoelectrogenic, could be involved in the electrons
21 transfer from the anode to the cathode (Otoni et al. 2021; Wirth et al. 2012; Logan et al. 2019).
22 Thus, it was supposed that combining activities of specialized microorganisms on both
23 electrodes in such SCE-DF bioprocess may favor substrate oxidation, enhancing bioH₂
24 production. Some other electroactive microorganisms belonging to *Geobacter*, or *Clostridium*
25 species, that are part of the *Gammaproteobacteria* or *Clostridia* class respectively, are usually
26 found in those systems using agricultural wastes, have the capacity to oxidize acids such as
27 VFAs or more complex substrate such as cellulose (Ndayisenga et al. 2021; Logan et al. 2019).
28 It has to be noticed that some species from those phyla may not be electroactives too. Besides,
29 it was expected that electroactive and non-electroactive microbes were present in biofilms,
30 interacting together in symbiosis, as revealed by metagenomic analyses. However, the role of
31 the latter remained unknown or at least could not be revealed in this study, and further
32 experimentations are needed to characterize them and to confirm the importance of
33 electroactives bacteria in this dual SCE-DF bioprocess for bioH₂ production.

1

2 **4. Conclusion**

3 In this study, a bioH₂ production process combining short-circuited electrodes with dark
4 fermentation was evaluated. Results indicated that potential as low as -320 mV vs SHE could
5 be reached with manure when electrodes made with a graphite felt and a tubular membrane
6 were short-circuited resulting in a specialization in a functional anode and cathode,
7 respectively. In these experimental conditions and after heat treatment, a negative current was
8 observed at the tubular membrane surface, resulting in bioH₂ production higher in the
9 membrane than in the headspace of the bioreactor. Such electrode specialization was confirmed
10 by microbial ecology analyses and cyclic voltammetry measurements. Based on this pioneering
11 work, additional studies are needed for further characterization of the process and improvement
12 of bioH₂ production.

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1 **Figure captions**

2

3 **Figure 1.** (A) First design of the bioreactor and (B) Electrochemical evaluation of this reactor
4 with utilization of air or N₂ as gas carriers in the tubular membrane. N₂ was flushed into the
5 headspace at the experiment's outset to establish anaerobic conditions. The orange curve
6 represents the potential, and the blue curve represents the current, recorded throughout the
7 experiment.

8

9 **Figure 2.** (A) Second design of the bioreactor and (B) Electrochemical evaluation of this reactor
10 with and without the utilization of N₂ as the tubular membrane's gas carrier. N₂ is introduced
11 into the headspace at the experiment's outset to establish anaerobic conditions in the headspace.
12 The orange curve represents the potential, and the blue curve represents the current recorded
13 throughout the experiment.

14

15 **Figure 3.** (A) Third design of the bioreactor and (B) Electrochemical evaluation of this reactor
16 under vacuum and without vacuum conditions. N₂ was introduced into the headspace at the
17 experiment's outset to establish anaerobic conditions in the headspace. The orange curve
18 represents the potential, and the blue curve represents the current recorded throughout the
19 experiment.

20

21 **Figure 4.** Cyclic voltammetric measurements (A) on (a) the graphite felt and (b) the tubular
22 membrane at the end of the experiment presented in Figure 3, with the third design of the
23 bioreactor; and (B) carried out on the membrane in the first and third designs of the bioreactor
24 (a) with vacuum, (b) after the vacuum was stopped, (c) without any gas carrier, (d) with N₂ as
25 a gas carrier and (e) in presence of air as a gas carrier. All cyclic voltammetric measurements
26 were done with a scan rate set at 1mV/s.

27

28 **Figure 5.** Potential (in orange curves) and current (in blue curves) measurements obtained from
29 the setup comprising a tubular membrane short-circuited with a piece of graphite felt within the
30 reactor. This was inoculated with (A) manure and (B) with manure after double heat treatment
31 of 121 °C for 20 minutes.

32

33 **Figure 6.** Kinetic of electrochemical responses and gas analyses in the third design of the
34 experiment. The experiment consisted in four consecutive phases: the "Starting" phase with
35 untreated manure, the "After Heat Treatment" in which the bioreactor was heat treated twice at
36 121 °C for 20 min in order to inactivate methanogen species, the "Electrode disconnection" and
37 "Electrode connection" in order to evaluate short-circuited electrodes on gas production. (A)
38 electrochemical equilibrium potential and current analysis between the short-circuited tubular
39 membrane and graphite felt throughout the entire experiment, (B) analysis of CH₄ and bioH₂
40 gas from the tubular membrane, (C) analysis of CH₄ and bioH₂ gas from the head of the reactor.

41

1 **Figure 7.** Microbial alpha diversity (diversity indices) between of microbial communities
2 sampled in reactor at different time/treatments. A: The alpha diversity is presented as a measure
3 of species richness (ASV number) and B: biodiversity index (Shannon index) Stars above the
4 histograms indicate significant differences between treatments; *P < 0.05, **P < 0.005 and ***P
5 < 0.001.

6

7 **Figure 8:** Pcoa of microbial communities structure among different processes and
8 time/treatments, based on weighted Unifrac Distance

9

10 **Figure 9:** Composition plot of microbial communities recovered from different area for each
11 treatment at Class taxonomical level

12

13 **Figure 10:** Heatmap reporting on microbiota composition and relative abundances of bacterial
14 at the class level among cathode, anode and medium for reactor 4 after heat treatment. Colors
15 are scaled from highest (red) to lowest (blue) values within columns.

16

17 **Figure A (supplementary material):** Kinetic of electrochemical responses and gas analyses
18 in the third design of the experiment with heatreated manure before inoculation. The experiment
19 consisted in six consecutive phases - a: after two heat-treatment at 80 °C for 45 min, b: after
20 two heat-treatment at 80 °C for 45 min, c: after one heat-treatment at 80°C for 2h30, d: after 2
21 heat-treatment at 121 °C for 20 min, e: after 2 heat-treatment at 121 °C for 20 min and f: after
22 3 heat-treatment at 121 °C for 1h. (A) electrochemical equilibrium potential and current
23 analysis between the short-circuited tubular membrane and graphite felt throughout the entire
24 experiment, (B) analysis of CH₄ and H₂ gas from the tubular membrane, (C) analysis of CH₄
25 and H₂ gas from the head of the reactor.

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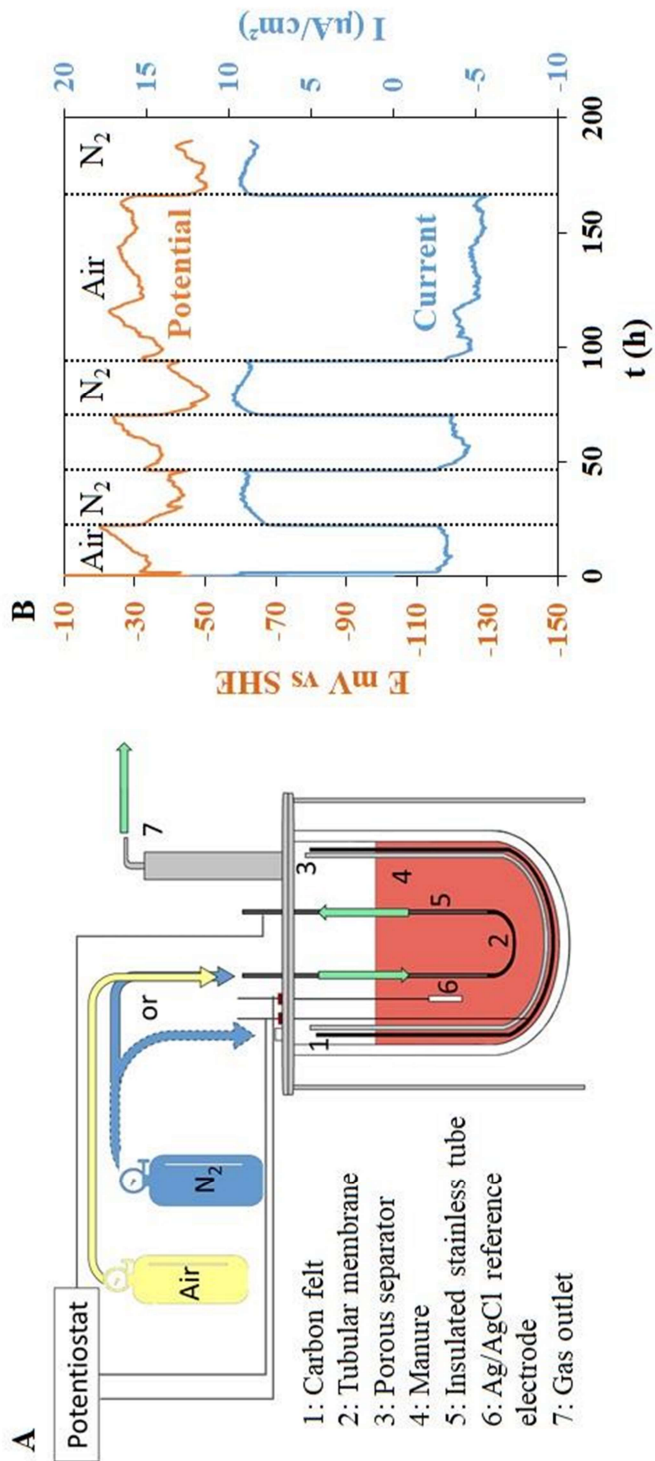


Figure 1

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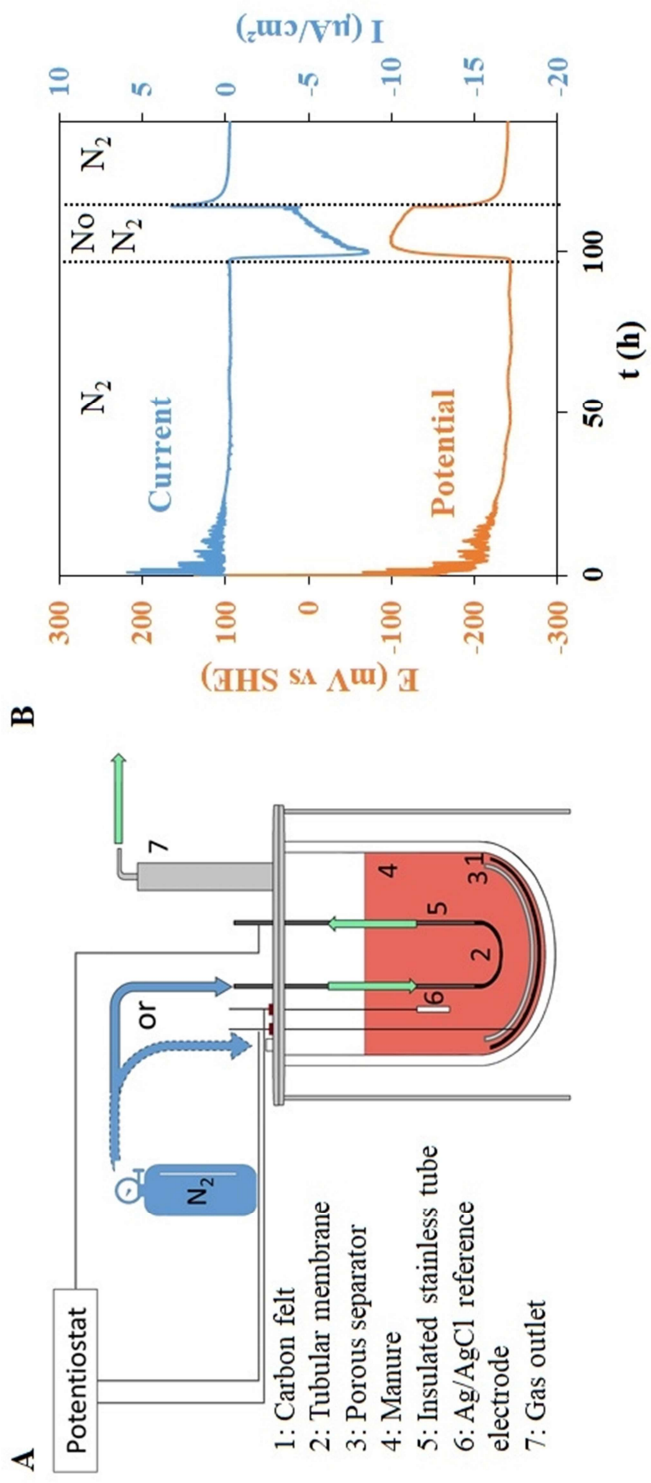


Figure 2

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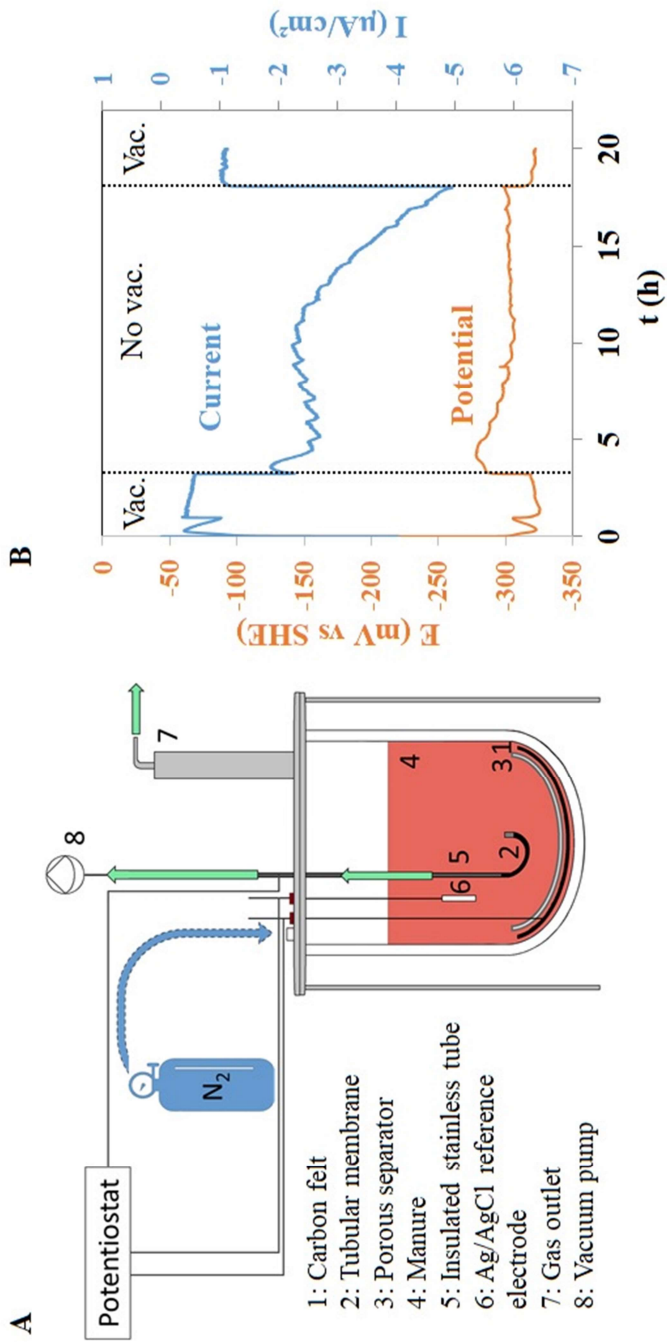
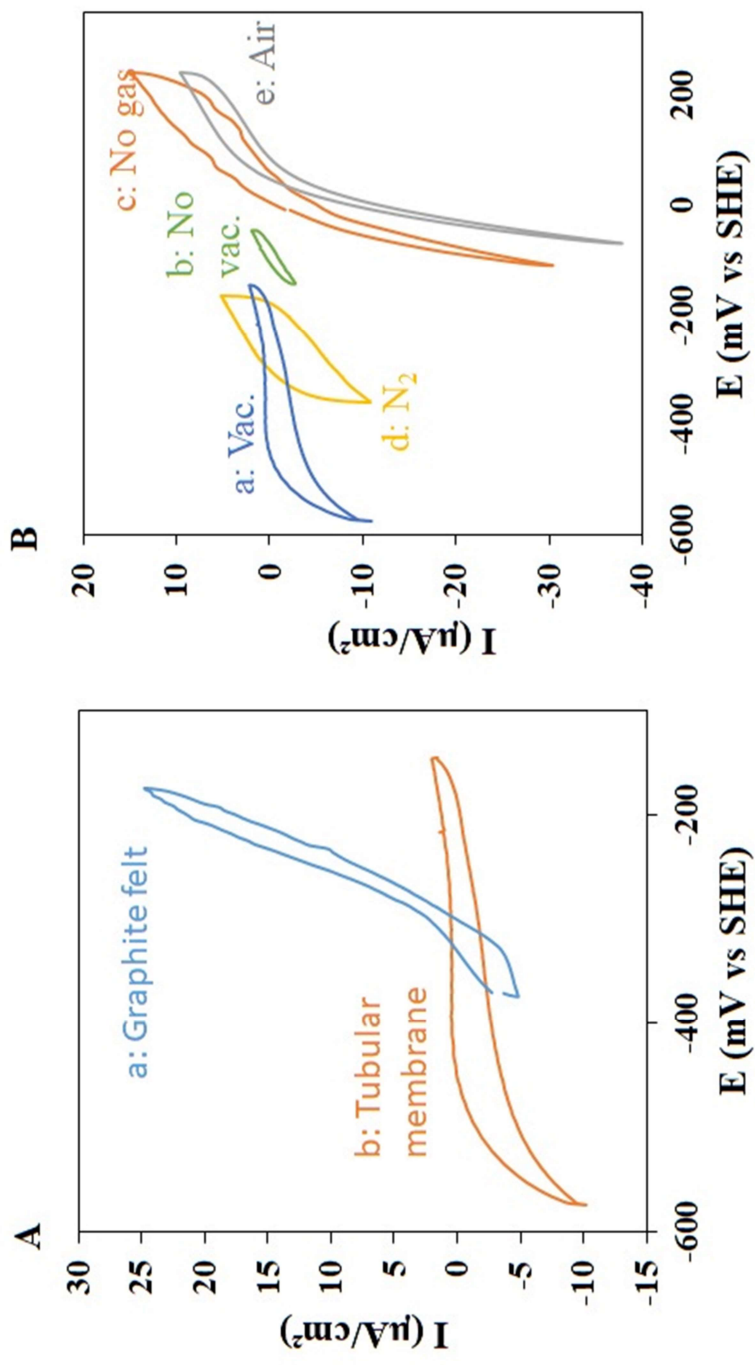


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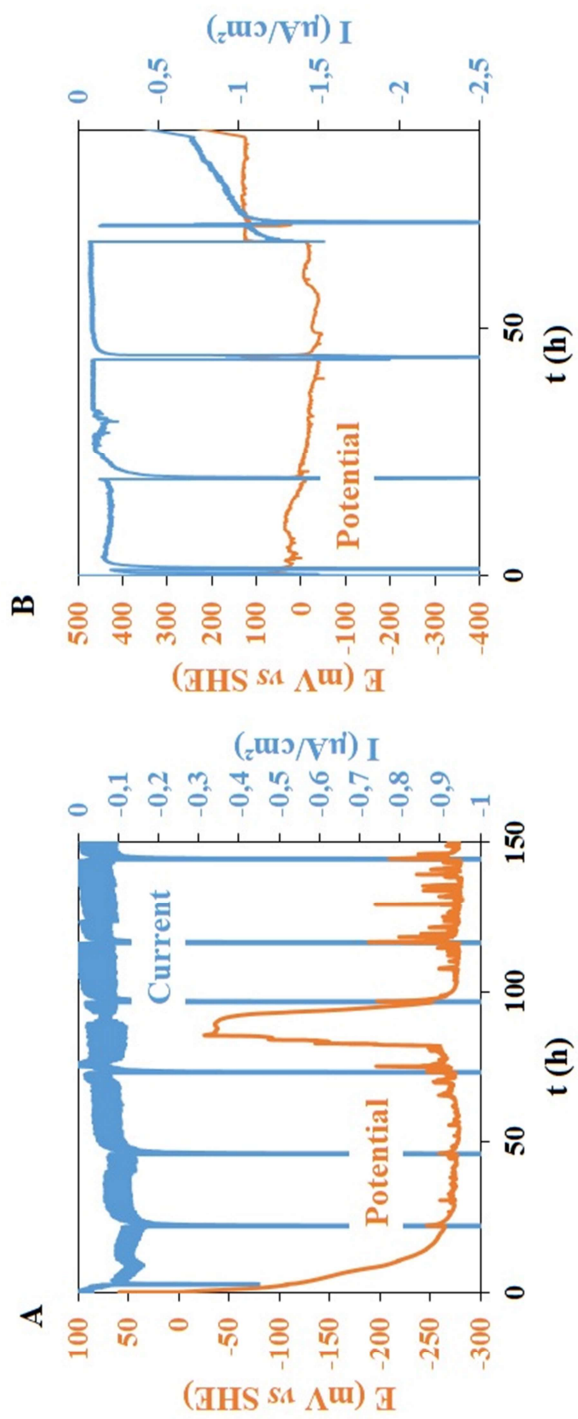
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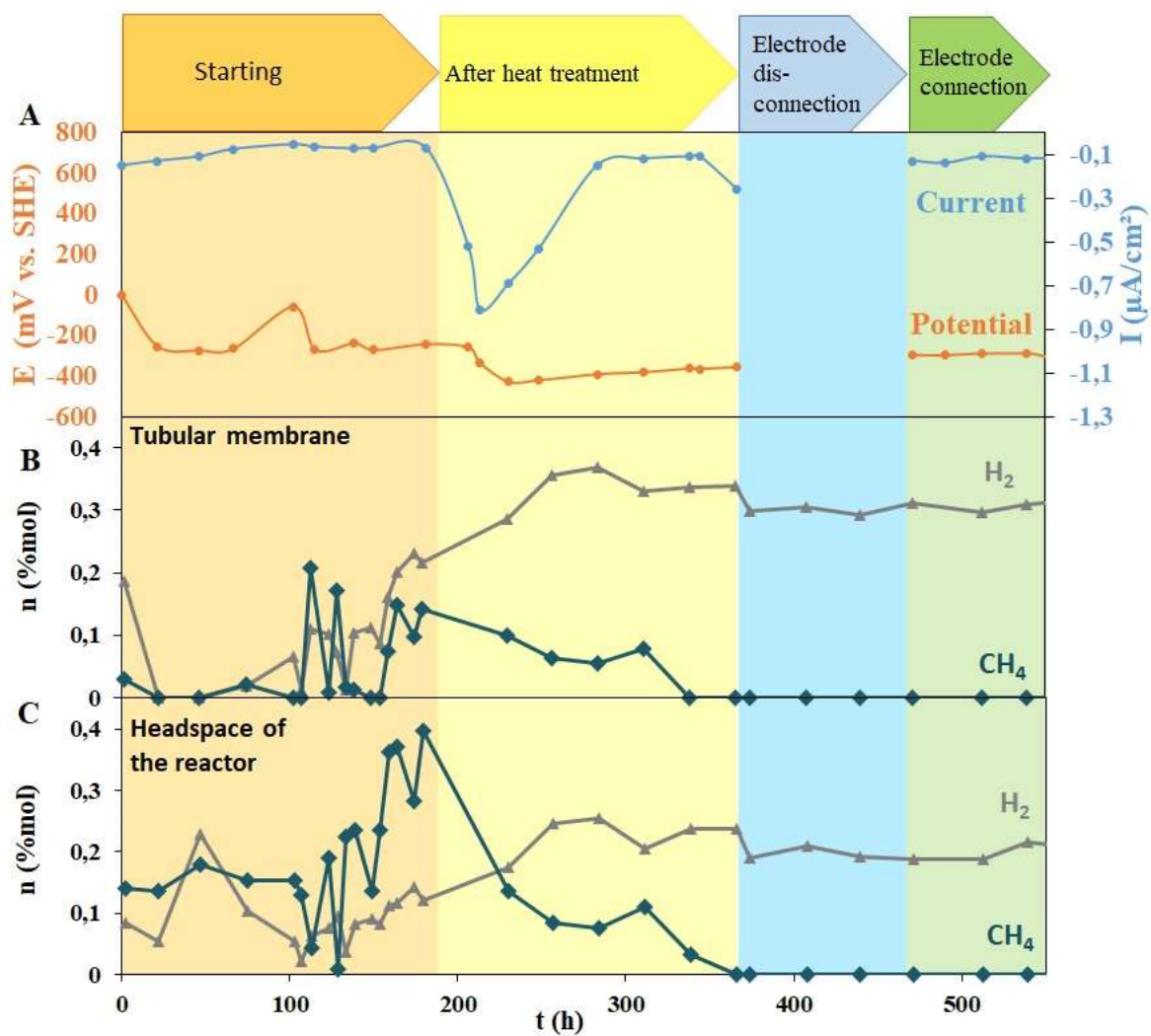
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Figure 5

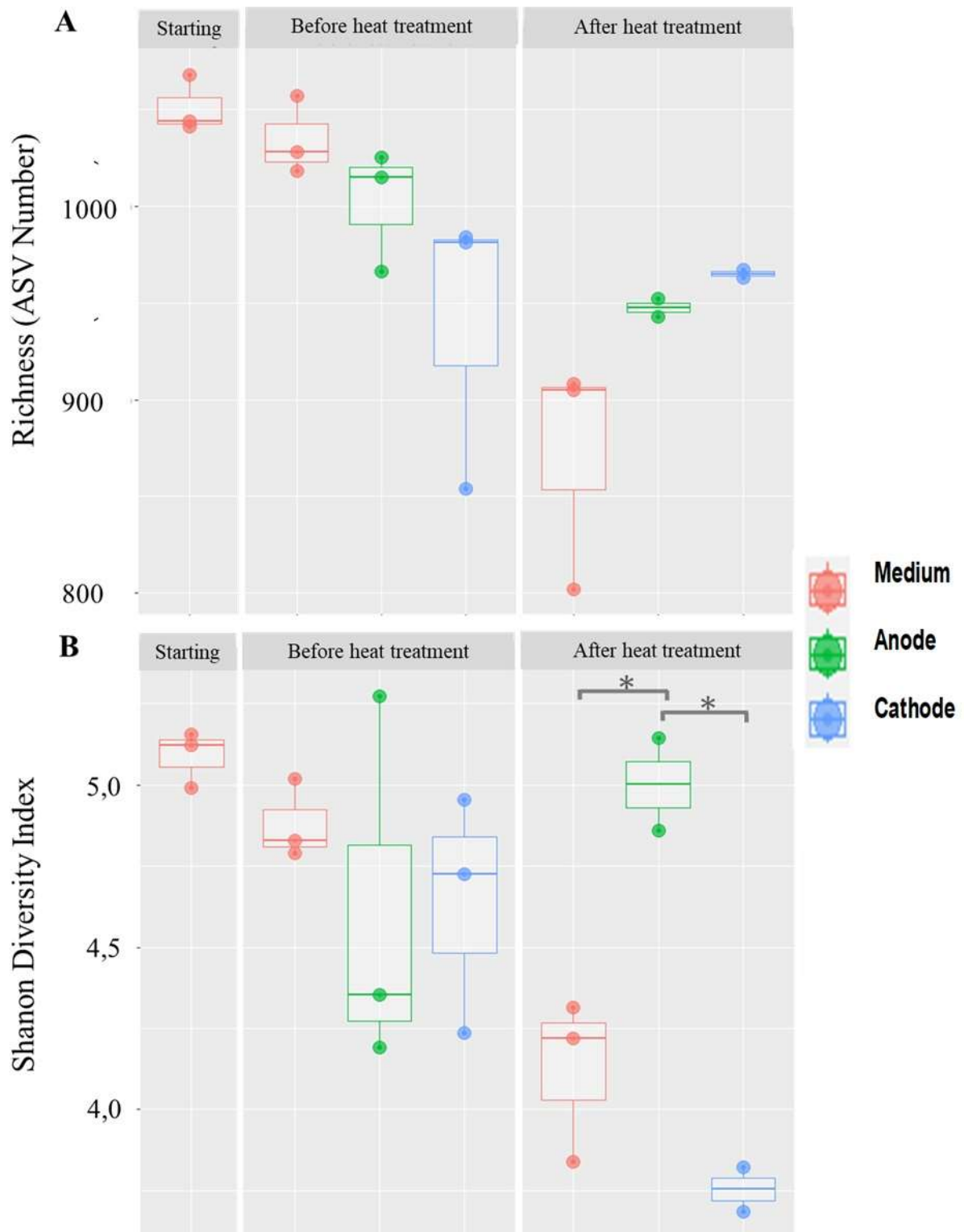


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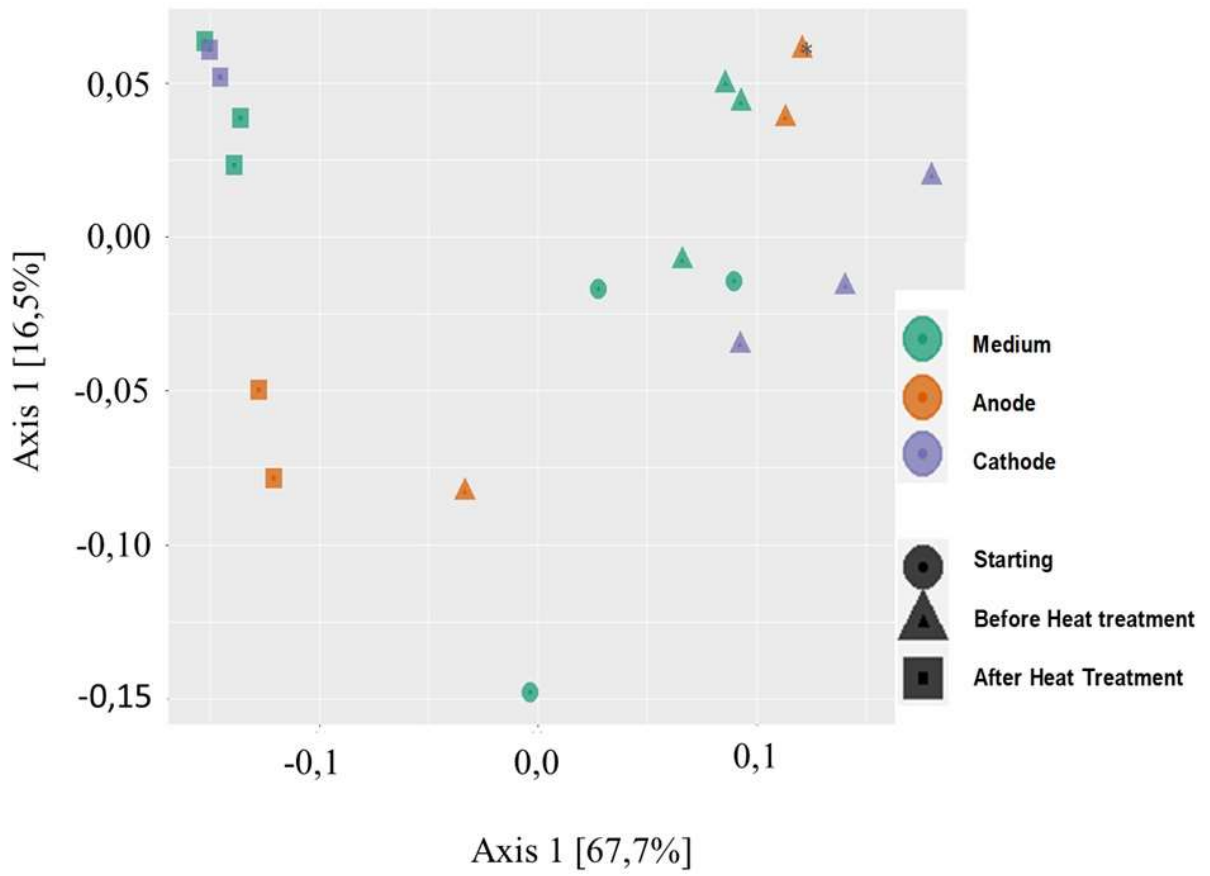
3 Figure 6

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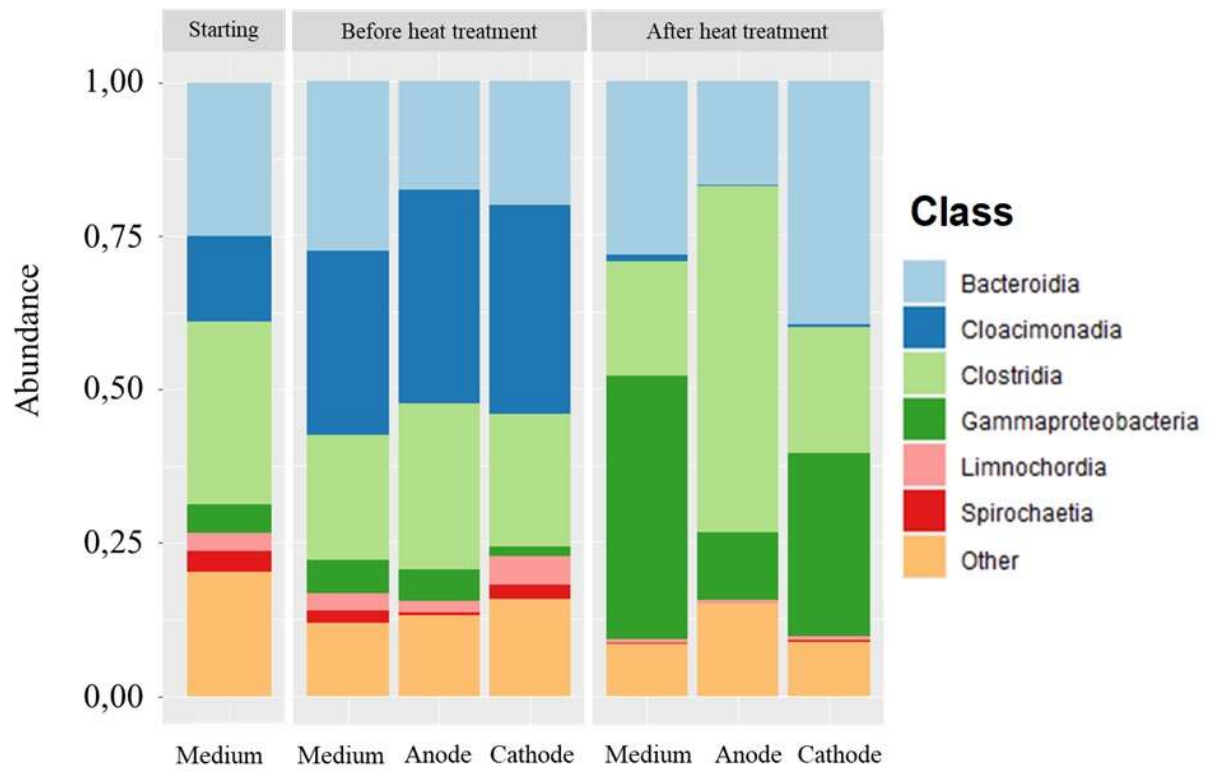
Figure 7



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2 Figure 8

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Figure 9

Gammaproteobacteria	42.8	10.7	30.1
Clostridia	18.5	56.5	20.2
Bacteroidia	28.3	17	39.5
Bacilli	3.6	7.2	3.9
Actinobacteria	1.6	1.9	1
Limnochordia	0.6	0.6	0.7
Cloacimonadia	1	0.2	0.5
Dethiobacteria	0.6	0.5	0.5
Thermoanaerobacteria	0.4	0.8	0.6
Alphaproteobacteria	0.3	0.4	0.3
	Medium	Anode	Cathode

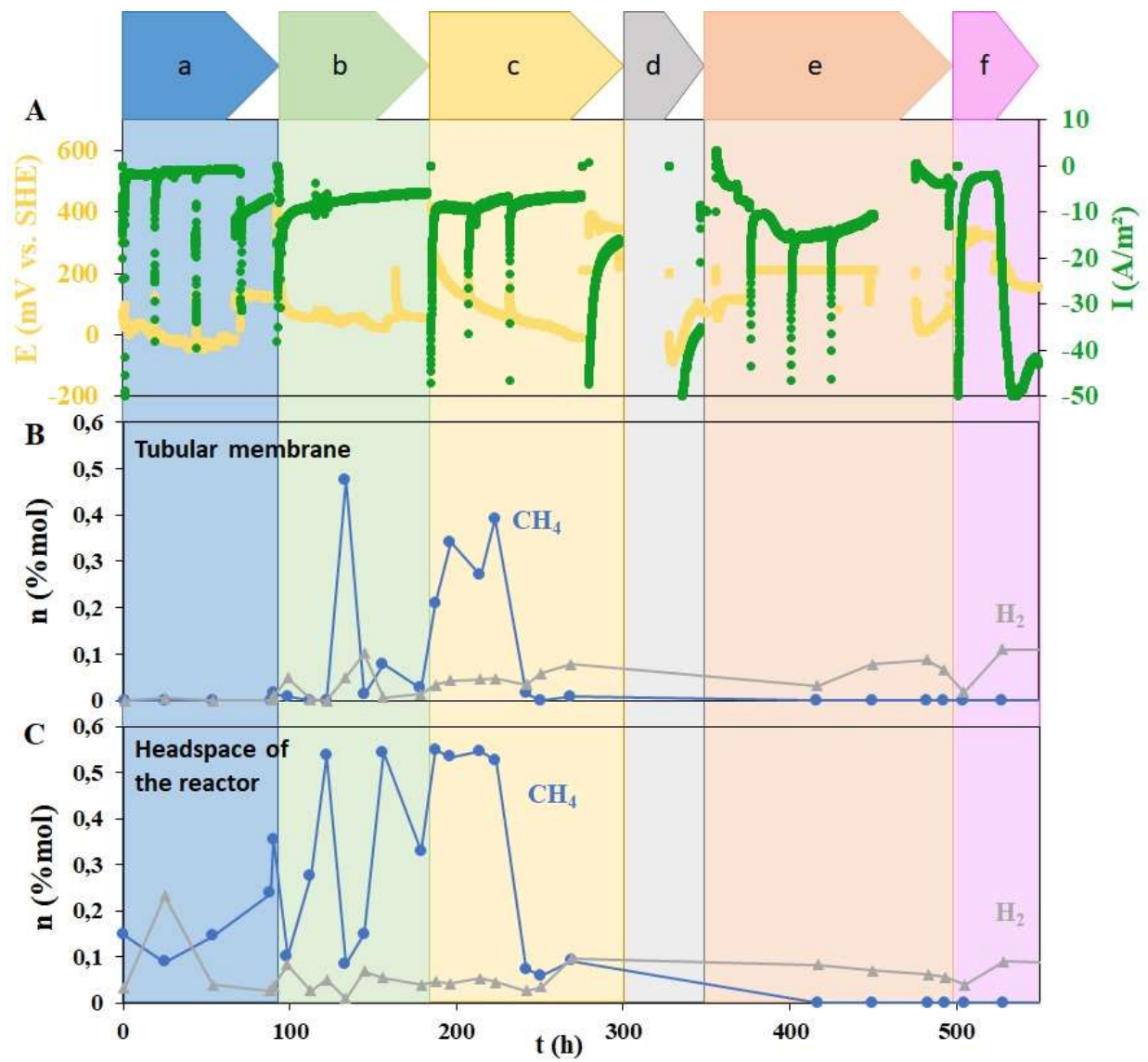
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3 Figure 10

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4 Figure A