Strategies for merging Microbial Fuel Cell Technologies in Water Desalination processes: start-up protocol and desalination efficiency assessment

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- 14 Abstract

15 Microbial Desalination Cells constitute an innovative technology where microbial fuel 16 cell and electrodialysis merge in the same device for obtaining fresh water from saline 17 water with no energy-associated cost for the user. In this work, an anodic biofilm of the 18 electroactive bacteria Geobacter sulfurreducens was able to efficiently convert the 19 acetate present in synthetic waste water into electric current (j=0.32 mA cm⁻²) able to 20 desalinate water. .Moreover, we implemented an efficient start-up protocol where desalination up to 90 % occurred in a desalination cycle (water production:0.308 L m⁻² 21 h^{-1} , initial salinity: 9 mS cm⁻¹, final salinity: <1 mS cm⁻¹) using a filter press-based 22 23 MDC prototype without any energy supply (excluding peristaltic pump energy). This 24 start-up protocol is not only optimized for time but also simplifies operational 25 procedures making it a more feasible strategy for future scaling-up of MDCs either as a single process or as a pre-treatment method combined with other well established 26 desalination technologies such as reverse osmosis (RO) or reverse electrodialysis. 27

29 Introduction

30 Shortage of fresh water is one of the major challenges for societies all over the world. In 31 this sense, current water desalination technologies can significantly increase water 32 resources for human consumption, industrial use and irrigation, but require significant 33 electric or thermal energy. On top of the environmental impact due to brine disposal [1], reverse osmosis (RO) consumes around 3.5 kWhm⁻³ of electric energy [2] for seawater 34 35 desalination with only a recovery of 50%, while thermal technologies could reach more than 7 kWhm⁻³ to drive desalination processes. The installed capacity of systems in year 36 2015 was about 86.8 million $m^3 day^{-1}$ of desalted water, this is expected to increase 37 38 drastically in the next years. The desalination market is mostly dominated by reverse 39 osmosis (RO), compared to competition between multi-stage flash (MSF) and multi-40 effect distillation (MED). These systems require electric or thermal energy to drive the 41 desalination process, and the equivalent amount of fossils fuel to produce the energy related to desalination processes (i.e. 86.8 million m³ day⁻¹) is around 793 million tons 42 43 per year, according to Kalogirou [3]. Thus, if desalination is accomplished by such 44 technologies, environmental pollution would be a major concern because of green-45 house gases emissions. On top of that, conventional desalination technologies spend an 46 important amount of energy to produce desalted water, so innovative desalination 47 systems are required to be developed.

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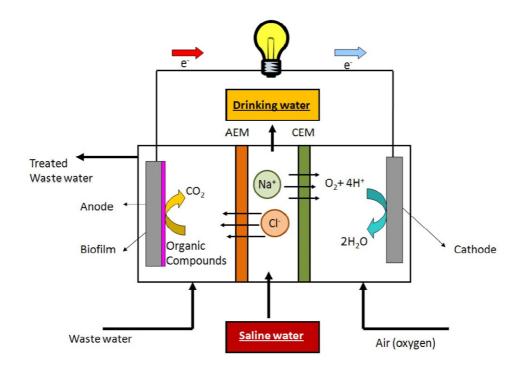
Microbial Electrochemical Technologies (METs) constitute a platform [4] of emerging technologies based on the interaction between electroactive bacteria and electrodes. Indeed, a variant of the fuel cell, the microbial fuel cell (MFC), allows the direct transformation of soluble organic matter into electric current [5]. The produced power (in the range of 0.001-19 W m⁻² (referenced to cross section) [6]) could be used in the same system to enhance organic matter degradation or drive other processes requiring electrochemical energy, and operate in a self-sufficient and decentralised fashion as apassive system.

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58 In this microbial electrochemical context, the Microbial Desalination Cell (MDC) is the 59 integration of a MFC and an electrodialysis (ED) cell in order to treat wastewater and desalinate seawater. By using the energy provided by the oxidation of organic matter, 60 61 contained in the wastewater, this system drives the migration of ions and the 62 desalination process. Thus, MDC technology is able to desalinate saline water without 63 consuming electric or thermal energy and allowing the use of the energy for any other 64 processes. In this sense, MDC technology could be employed to save energy and avoid 65 the greenhouse gases related to the conventional processes (seawater RO produces 1.78 kg of CO_2 per m³ using 600 g CO_2 kWh⁻¹ in the average European Union (EU) energy 66 67 mix). Indeed, the versatile and simultaneous applications of MDC have made it a real and feasible alternative for both desalination and wastewater treatment [7]. 68

69 The MDC unit is composed of at least three chambers (figure 1): 1) an anaerobic anodic 70 chamber that contains the electroactive microbial community which first oxidises the 71 organic matter (fuel) contained in wastewater and then transfer electrons to the anode; 72 2) a central desalination compartment separated from the others by an anion exchange 73 membrane (AEM) and a cation exchange membrane (CEM); 3) a cathodic chamber 74 where the reduction counter-reaction occurs. In a MDC reactor, CEM and AEM are 75 alternatively placed between the cathodic and the anodic compartment, as indicated in 76 Figure 1. Moreover, an external load is placed between anode and cathode collector, 77 allowing the flow of electric current. If organic matter is used to feed the anodic 78 compartment, and the cathodic compartment is fed with a catholyte (for example, Fe^{3+} 79 or oxygen in acidic solution), then a potential difference is established between both 80 electrodes. Due to the differential charges of the two chambers, anions and cations 81 migrate through the respective membranes raising the salt concentration in the anodic 82 and cathodic compartments while decreasing it in the saline compartment (central 83 compartment). Thus, the MDC constitutes a sustainable process since it does not require 84 external energy input because microbes harvest it from waste.

85 Different MDC designs have been reported in the literature from the first proof-of-86 concept study [7,8], including cubic and tubular reactors [9-12], stacked cells [13, 14], 87 using batch recirculation [15, 16], biocathodes MDCs [17], increasing water production 88 by applying external voltage [18], or integrating innovative membranes (Forward 89 Osmosis) [19, 20] or ion exchange resins in the compartments [21]. Although most of 90 the MDC prototypes studied in the literature are lab scale (i.e. millilitres), a 100 L pilot 91 scale MDC unit achieving partial desalination of seawater has been reported [22]. Thus, 92 MDC technology has been proposed as a suitable pre-treatment for Reverse Osmosis to 93 reduce energy costs for desalination [23].



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Figure 1. Diagram of MDC unit.

97 Regarding the performance of the MDC, the main limitations are i) the drastic increase 98 of the internal resistance due to the changes in the conductivity of the medium, and the 99 pH variations in the anodic chamber that can affect the biofilm growth. Related to the 100 efficiency of the desalination process, the main constrains are limited potential to drive 101 ion migration and back diffusion of salts between anodic/cathodic and saline 102 compartment. For the application of MDC technology at a pilot scale, most of the 103 studies use the same start-up protocol: a pre-adaptation of the biological anode under a 104 MFC configuration [7,8], followed by the conversion of MFC into a MDC device by 105 adding a supplementary chamber (saline compartment) that requires the disassembly of 106 the whole system. This strategy for starting-up MDC is a time-consuming procedure of 107 up to 20 days [24] and it does not favour reproducible experimental results at lab scale. 108 Furthermore, most previous studies were conducted on millilitre-scale MDCs (<300 ml) 109 where, to the best of our knowledge, just a few works reported on MDC over one litre 110 [11,25]. So, using a more rationale start-up protocol could enable the scale-up of MDC 111 technology in a realistic way and could help to improve the study of such systems by 112 increasing reproducibility and avoiding time-consuming pre-acclimation strategies.

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In the current work, we propose a rational and efficient start-up protocol where desalination up to 90% occurs from the first cycle under the final structural configuration. Once the protocol is performed, the system operates as an autonomous MDC without any energy supply (excluding peristaltic pump energy) and could be used at lab scale for systematic study of MDC performance under different experimental conditions.

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122 **2. Experimental Section**

123 **2.1 Bacterial strain**, culture condition.

124 A pure culture of Geobacter sulfurreducens strain DL1 was used as inoculum for the 125 MDC start-up protocol. The culture was routinely grown at 30 °C in septum-sealed 126 serum bottles containing freshwater medium (FWM, pH=6.9, EC=12.4 mS cm⁻¹) with the following mineral salts: NaHCO₃ 2.5 g L⁻¹; NH₄Cl 0.25 g L⁻¹; NaH₂PO₄H₂O 0.06 g 127 L^{-1} ; KCl 0.1 g L^{-1} ; Fe(NH₄)₂(SO₄)₂6H₂O 0.04 g L^{-1} . The medium was supplemented 128 with a trace mineral and vitamin solutions [26]. Sodium acetate (NaC₂H₃O₂ 1.64 g L^{-1} 129 or 20 mM) was used as electron donor and fumarate ($C_4H_2Na_2O_4$, 6.40 g L⁻¹ or 40 mM) 130 131 as sole electron acceptor. Anaerobic conditions and pH buffering (pH 6.8-7.0) were 132 assured by flushing a mixture of N₂/CO₂ (80:20, industrial ALIGAL-12) into the culture 133 media. Traces of oxygen were removed from the gas phase by passing the gas through 134 heated copper fillings. Exponential-phase culture was used for the inoculation into the 135 anode compartment.

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137 **2.2 Microbial Desalination Cell device (MDC)**

138 A commercial multipurpose electrochemical reactor manufactured by ElectroCELL company (Electro MP-1, effective projected electrode area 100 cm²) was used as MDC 139 140 device. The MDC prototype (see Supplementary Information, Figure S1) had a compact 141 stack design consisting on several polypropylene compartments and neoprene gaskets 142 for an optimal hermetically seal. The dynamic design of the device allows different cell 143 configurations. In this case, the three compartment configuration was used. A desalination chamber (compartment volume: 70 cm³) separated the anodic and cathodic 144 chambers (compartment volume of each one: 70 cm³) by an anionic exchange 145 membrane (AMX Neosepta) and cation exchange membrane (CMX Neosepta), 146

147 respectively. Both electrodes (i.e. anode and cathode), were composed of carbon felt 148 RVG 4000 (MERSEN Ltd.) and contained graphite plates as electric collectors. The 149 device was closed with stainless steel screws in order to avoid any leakage of the 150 system.

The three tanks were connected to the MDC prototype by Pharmed Tubing with an internal diameter 1/4" (SAINT-GOBAIN). A four-channel peristaltic pump (Heidolph Pumpdrive 5201) was used for the recirculation of the streams through the system. Figure S2 (see Supplementary Information) shows a flow diagram of the MDC experimental set-up.

The flow rate of all solutions was of 75 mL min⁻¹. The whole system was placed in a 156 157 temperature controlled room at 30 °C and kept under anaerobic conditions by flushing a 158 mixture of N₂/CO₂ (80:20, industrial ALIGAL-12) into the tanks. Two reference 159 electrodes (Ag/AgCl KCl 3.5 M, CRISON) were placed into the cell, one in the 160 geometric center of the anodic compartment and the other in the cathodic compartment, 161 in order to measure anode and cathode potential respectively. A power supply (Aim-162 TTi, 0-15 V, 0-5 A) was connected to the electrochemical reactor to be used during 163 start-up protocol (see Supplementary Information, Figure S1 and S2).

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165 **2.3. Start-up and operation procedure**

166 **2.3.1 MDC configuration testing**

167 A preliminary process of conventional electrodialysis under abiotic conditions was 168 performed in order to test if the prototype's configuration was feasible for desalination 169 operation. A 2 L solution of FWM supplemented with 20 mM of acetate (1.64 g L⁻¹ 170 sodium acetate) as sole electron donor was used as anolyte and a 3.55 g L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄ 171 solution as catholyte (25 mM Na₂SO₄). A power supply applied a cell potential of 3 V between anode (positive terminal) and cathode (negative terminal). The saline stream consisted on 2 L of 5 g L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ (pH=8.70, CE=5.1 mS cm⁻¹). The system was operated in batch mode (streams recirculation) with a multichannel peristaltic pump with flow rate 75 mL min⁻¹ for all the streams (anolyte, catholyte and saline solution).

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177 **2.3.2 Start-up procedure**

178 Prior to inoculation, the cell was sterilized by the recirculation of 70% w/w 179 ethanol/water solution through the whole system (prototype and tubing). A filtered gas mixture of N₂/CO₂ was gassed through MDC for 2 hours in order to guarantee ethanol 180 181 evaporation and an anoxic environment inside the device. Also, electrolytes and saline solutions were degassed. The analyte was made of 2 L of FWM with 1.64 g L^{-1} sodium 182 acetate (without any terminal electron acceptor, 20 mM, pH=6.95, CE=5.95 mS cm⁻¹), 183 and the catholyte was 2 L of 3.55 g L^{-1} Na₂SO₄ (0.0025 mM, pH=7.87, CE=4.74 mS 184 cm⁻¹) solution. The saline solution was 2 L of 1.25 g L⁻¹ sodium bicarbonate (15 mM, 185 $pH=8.70, CE=5.1 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$). 186

187 It is important to note that the main role of using sodium bicarbonate solution as saline 188 stream in this step is to avoid pH and/or conductivity changes in anodic media from 189 continuous migration of anions (i.e. HCO_3^{-}) from saline compartment, thus preserving 190 optimum anode environment for biofilm colonization of the anode surface.

191 The volume relation of the electrolytes and saline solution was of 1:1:1 ($V_{an:}:V_{cat}$: 192 V_{desal}). The cell potential was fixed at 1.0 V (i.e. potential between anode and cathode) 193 and then all three solutions were recirculated through the system overnight prior to 194 anode inoculation in order to remove any dead volumes or stagnant zones in the system. 195 After this, pump recirculation is switched off. Then, the anodic chamber was inoculated 196 with 300 ml of exponential-phase *Geobacter sulfurreducens* culture. After inoculation, 197 the system was allowed to incubate overnight, to ensure cells adhesion to the anode. 198 After incubation, the pumps were activated to recirculate the different solutions through 199 the system. The cell potential (i.e. 1.0 V) is maintained until anode potential and current 200 density are almost constant (45 hours approx., see figure 4A). After this, the cell 201 potential is increased to 1.5V to allow growth of biofilm on anode surface (70 hours 202 approx.). This first cycle was part of the start-up protocol and involved sodium 203 bicarbonate desalination, in a MEC configuration, since a cell potential of 1.0-1.5 V was 204 applied using an external power supply.

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206 **2.3.3 Desalination operation**

207 Once the start-up protocol was performed, NaCl desalination was carried out in the 208 MDC. The peristaltic pump was deactivated and the power supply was disconnected 209 from electrode collectors. Then, MDC electrode collectors were connected to an 210 external load of 2.5 Ω . This value of the external load was selected to ensure proper 211 measurement of the electric current in the system by voltage drop measurement. 212 Moreover, it is important to note that in the present study the MDC operates near short 213 circuit (low external resistance value) in order to provide all the energy from organic 214 matter oxidation to the desalination process, as the main objective is to maximize the 215 water production. Anolyte tank was refreshed with new solution of the same composition and volume as above. The catholyte was replaced with 2 L of 3 g L^{-1} 216 217 NaClO solution (0.3 %, pH=11.14, CE=14.57 mS cm⁻¹). The saline solution was replaced by 0.2 L of 5 g L⁻¹ NaCl. The volume relation was 10:10:1 ($V_{an:}:V_{cat}: V_{desal}$). 218 219 Once all the solutions were replaced, the recirculation pump was activated to start 220 desalination.

222 **2.4 Electrochemical equipment**

The data acquisition of the anode/cathode potential and electric current was performed using a custom Visual Basic Program and ModBus modules (ICP-DAS). Reference electrodes (Ag/AgCl 3.5 M, CRISON) were placed in anode and cathode compartment, using lugging capillary (Teflon).

227

228 2.5 Analytical methods

Electric conductivity measurements were carried out using GLP 31 conductivity meter (CRISON). A GLP 21 pH-meter (CRISON) was used to measure pH. Both measurements were recorded at 25 °C. For conductivity readings, solution samples were analyzed throughout the experiments. Carrying out a set of conductivity calibration tests at 25.0 \pm 0.4 °C, determined a conversion factor of $\kappa = 0.55$ for converting electric conductivity (EC, mS cm⁻¹) into NaCl concentration (g L⁻¹) (see Supplementary Information).

For total COD determination, 15 mL of sample were collected and kept at 4°C until analysis by APHA method 5520. The content of acetate in the anolyte was measured with HPLC with a ZORBAX PL Hi-Plex H Guard Column (50 mm × 7.7 mm, Agilent Technologies, Madrid, Spain) and mobile phase of 0.1% H₃PO₄. The sample volume was 50 μ L, mobilized at a flow rate of 0.5 mL·min⁻¹. Acetate was detected by using UV detector at 210 nm.

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243 **2.6 Process parameters**

Current density $(j, \text{ mA cm}^{-2})$, and power (P, W) in all experiments were calculated using Eqs. 1, and 2, respectively.

$$246 \qquad j = \frac{I}{A_m} \tag{1}$$

$$247 \qquad P = E_{cell} \times I \tag{2}$$

where E_{cell} is the voltage applied across the MDC system (V), *I* is the operating current (A) and A_m is the effective electrode surface area (cm²). Cell potential, anode and cathode potential, as well as electric current data were measured throughout the process. Specific energy consumption (SEC, kWh m⁻³) defines the energy required for producing one cubic meter of fresh drinking water by the MDC system (Eq. 3).

253
$$SEC = \frac{1}{3.6 \times 10^6 \times Q_t} \int E_{cell} I(t) dt$$
 (3)

In Eq. 3, Q_t is the volume of the treated water (m³). In desalination experiments, water production (*WP*, m³ m⁻²h), defining the cubic meter of drinking water produced by the MDC system per available membrane surface area per hour, was calculated using Eq. 4;

$$257 \qquad WP = \frac{Q_t}{A_m \times t_d} \tag{4}$$

where, t_d is the total time taken for the completion of the desalination process (h). Current efficiency (η_c , %) defines the ratio of total mass of salt removed from the saline channel to the amount of electric charge transferred across the membranes (ECT, C m⁻³) over a complete process of desalination. η_c and ECT were calculated using Eqs. 5 and 6, respectively.

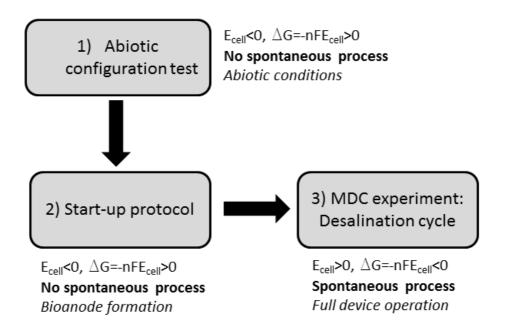
263
$$\eta_c = \frac{v \times z \times F \times \left(c_s^f - c_s^p\right)}{ECT}$$
(5)

$$264 \qquad ECT = \frac{1}{Q} \int I(t)dt \tag{6}$$

where, v and z represent the stoichiometric coefficient and the valence of the salt ions, respectively and F is the Faraday constant (96,485 C mol⁻¹). c_s^{f} and c_s^{p} represent the initial and final molar concentrations of salt in the saline tank (mol m⁻³), respectively.

269 **3. Results and Discussion**

In this section we have explored a rational and efficient start-up protocol where
desalination occurs (Figure 2) while current efficiency was compared to conventional
electrodialysis.



273

274 Figure 2. Schematic diagram: start-up protocol for MDC study at lab scale.

275 3.1 Testing desalination under an abiotic MDC configuration

276 In order to characterize the performance of the cell stack under non-limiting conditions 277 an abiotic electrochemical desalination was carried out. An electric potential of 3.0 V 278 was applied between anode (positive terminal) and cathode (negative terminal). Under this condition, water was oxidised on the anode $(2H_2O(1) \rightarrow O_2(g) + 4H^+ + 4e^-, E^0 = -$ 279 1.23 V) while water was reduced on the cathode $(4H_2O(1) + 4e^- \rightarrow 2H_2(g) + 4OH^-, E^0 =$ 280 -0.42 V) and a solution of 5 g L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ was desalinized in the middle compartment 281 282 (Figure 3C).

283 The electrodes potential remained constant throughout the desalinization process 284 (Figure 3A). It is known that the potential of the whole MDC should correspond to the 285 following equation:

286
$$E_{cell}=E_{cathode}-E_{anode}-R_{cell}$$
 [Ecell<0, $\Delta G=-nFE_{cell}>0$, No spontaneous process]
287 (7)

287

288 where E_{cell} is the applied potential (mV), $E_{cathode}$ is the cathode potential (mV), E_{anode} is 289 the anode potential (mV), R_{cell} is the overall resistance of the cell (Ω), and I is the 290 electric current that circulates through the system (mA). The electric current started at a maximum current density of j = 0.72 mA cm⁻² and decreased to values around 0.32 mA 291 cm^{-2} after 20 hours of polarization (figure 3B). This behaviour of the current output is 292 typical of conventional electrodialysis systems [27] operating at a constant applied 293 294 potential in batch mode. This is due to the electric conductivity of the saline 295 compartment (i.e. saline stream) decreasing during the desalination process, and in turn 296 increasing the overall resistance of the cell. Indeed, after 24 hours of cell operation, a 297 68.6% desalination was correlated to a 75% decrease of the electric current (Figure 3C).



B)

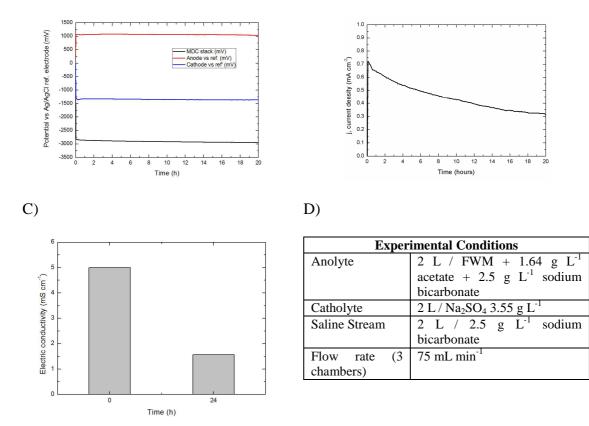


Figure 3. A) Potential for the anode, the cathode and the whole cell; B) Electric current produced during the desalination process; C) Electric conductivity drop in the desalination compartment; D) Chemical composition of anolyte, catholyte and saline stream employed in the MDC configuration test.

303 In this abiotic experiment desalination process was completed after 24 h, thus specific energy consumption (SEC) was 1.46 kWh m⁻³, water production (WP) 10 L m⁻² h (0.01 304 $m^3 m^{-2} h$) for the initial conductivity of 5 mS cm⁻¹ (i.e. brackish water), and the current 305 306 efficiency of the process was $\eta_c=94\%$. For similar water conditions in electrodialysis 307 experiments (analogous ion exchange membranes system), the SEC is in the range of 0.6-0.8 kWh m⁻³ [27]. Even if the systems are not comparable from construction point 308 309 of view (i.e. different configuration of the unit cell, higher thickness for anode/cathode 310 and saline compartments, low conductivity in the anode compartment to avoid 311 microorganisms saline stress), abiotic desalination experiments could be useful to 312 compare the energy consumption in different MDC prototypes at lab scale. Also, it is 313 important to note that efficiency in the desalination process is similar to conventional 314 electrodialysis stacks, suggesting proper assembly and a correct operation in abiotic 315 conditions for the MDC system. The current efficiency is lower than 100%, due to the 316 non-ideal membranes and the existence of shunt currents.

317

318 **3.2 Start-up procedure for the Microbial Desalination Cell (MDC).**

319 Once the system was abiotically tested, the MDC was ready to host a microbial anode. 320 So, maintaining the previous setup and electrolytes composition, a cell potential of 1.0 321 V was set between electrodes and sterile solutions were recirculated overnight through 322 the two chambers. The anode was inoculated without recirculation (recirculation pump 323 switched OFF) and incubated for 20 hours, as previously noted in section 2.3.2. So, the complete acetate oxidation to CO₂ by *Gsulfurreducens* (C₂H₄O₂ + 2 H₂O \rightarrow 2 CO₂ + 8 324 $e^- + 8 H^+$, $E^\circ = -0.290 V$) and the reduction of water (2 H₂O + 2 $e^- \rightarrow$ H₂+ 2 OH⁻, $E^\circ = -$ 325 326 0.8277 V) were the main reactions on anode and cathode respectively, being the process 327 no spontaneous ($E_{cell} < 0$, $\Delta G = -nFE_{cell} > 0$).

During this period (Figure 4A) the anode potential dropped from 500 mV to values near -300 mV (vs. Ag/AgCl KCl 3.5 M) while the current density increased from the original values to j=0.048 mA cm⁻². Both phenomena are characteristic of *G sulfurreducens* electroactive behaviour [28–30] when the electric current is obtained from acetate oxidation. On the other hand, the cathode potential decreased following the anode potential in order to maintain cell potential (water reduction was the main reaction in the cathode).

335 After 20 hours of operation, the electric current decreased 33% (Figure 4B). Local 336 starvation of electron donors (i.e. acetate) as a consequence of an insufficient mixing of 337 the solution may have caused this bacterial metabolic limitation. Moreover, local pH 338 decrease could also be a factor that affects bacterial cells performance. Even if 339 bicarbonate ions migrate from the desalinization chamber, the lack of flow through the 340 anode chamber could produce internal biofilm acidification as a result of microbial 341 metabolism. Those physiological limitations were confirmed once electrolyte 342 recirculation was re-started according to the sudden raise of 375% in current generation 343 (Figure 4B).

344 After 24 hours operating with continuous media flow, a stable current output of 11.2 mA was reached (j=0.112 mA cm⁻²). At the same time, the anode potential decreased 345 346 indicating an insufficient anode polarization. This is consistent with the maximal 347 electroactive performance of G. sulfurreducens (-0.2 V (vs. Ag/AgCl) reported 348 elsewhere [31,32]. When the electrode polarization was below this potential, the biofilm 349 cells became reduced due to the charge accumulation in a network of redox proteins 350 made of multiheme c-type cytochromes [30,33,34]. The outstanding nature of this 351 network allows *Geobacter* strains to exhibit a capacitive property unique in microbes 352 [35,36]. So, in order to increase current production and biofilm discharge, cell voltage 353 was extended from 1 V to 1.5 V, leading to the expected rise in current output of 330% 354 (i.e. from 9.6 to 32.0 mA) in just 8 h. Moreover, upon repolarization after inoculation, 355 there was a discharge peak confirming a charge accumulation in the cytochrome 356 network due to the capacitor effect of the biofilm. Then, current increased from 24.0 to 357 32.0 mA suggesting the presence of a biofilm colonizing the electrode surface with 358 enough electroactive capacity to produce an electric field in the system able to drive the 359 migration of ions from the saline compartments to anode/cathode compartments. 360 Indeed, electric conductivity of the saline chamber significantly decreased until it had 361 removed 94% of the initial bicarbonate ion at the end of the desalination cycle (110 h) 362 (Figure 4C).

363 It is important to note that the main role of using sodium bicarbonate solution as saline 364 stream is to avoid pH and/or conductivity changes in anodic media from continuous 365 migration of anions (i.e. HCO₃) from saline compartment, thus preserving optimum 366 anode environment for biofilm colonization of the anode surface. In this sense, also other experimental conditions as high solution flow rate (75 mL min⁻¹) ensured adequate 367 368 substrate concentration inside the carbon felt anode, minimizing local pH variations 369 (Figure S3) or substrate depletion (removal of COD < 49% of the original COD during 370 the start-up procedure).

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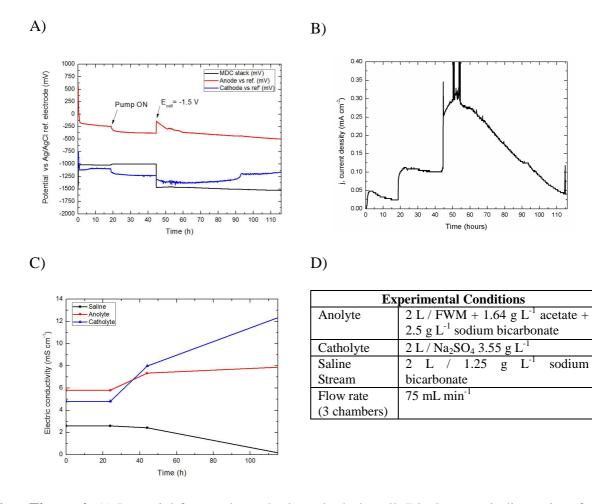


Figure 4. A) Potential for anode, cathode and whole cell. Black arrow indicate time for starting up the recirculation; B) Electric current obtained during the desalination process; C) Electric conductivity in the three chambers (anodic, cathodic and saline chamber) D) Characteristics of anolyte, catholyte and saline solution used during the MDC start-up procedure.

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384 **3.3 Microbial Desalination Process**

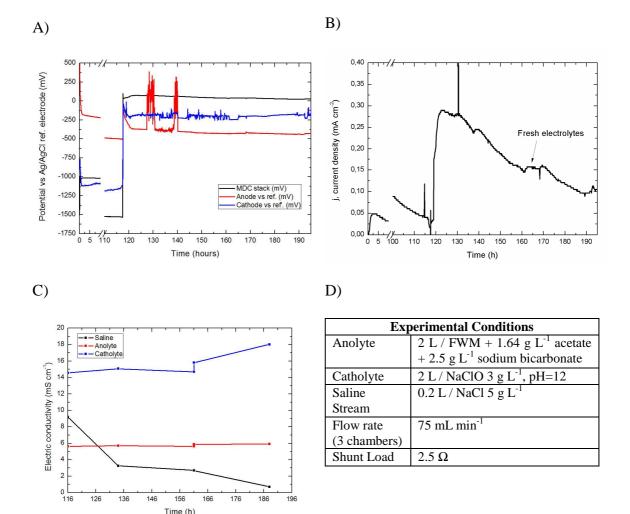
The start-up period was considered to be completed after 100 hours of operation, when an electroactive *Gsulfurreducens* biofilm had developed. At this point, the catholyte was replaced with 2 L of NaClO 3 g L⁻¹ (0.3%, pH=12), the anolyte was refreshed (2 L, FWM, pH=6.9, 1.64 g L⁻¹ / 20 mM sodium acetate) and saline solution was changed to 0.2 L solution of NaCl 5g L⁻¹. Finally, the circuit was closed using a shunt resistance

(external load) of 2.5 Ω that allowed monitoring of the electric current through the MDC unit. In this condition, the oxidation of acetate to CO₂ by *Gsulfurreducens* and the reduction of NaClO to chloride ion (ClO⁻+ H₂O + 2 e⁻ \longrightarrow Cl⁻+ 2 OH⁻, E^o=0.89 V) are the main reactions on anode and cathode respectively, enabling the spontaneous process of desalination (migration of ions from saline compartment, E_{cell}=E_{cathode}-E_{anode}>0, Δ G=-nFE_{cell}<0).

396 During the initial desalination period, the electric current production dropped from 28 397 mA to 15 mA while the anode potential remained stable (Figure 5A). The reduction of 398 electric conductivity of the saline stream -and the increased internal resistance due to 399 this fact - is the main reason for this current shift. Although more than 20% of the total 400 acetate (enough for microbial growth) was detected in the anolyte after this current drop, anolyte was replaced by new fresh anolyte (2 L, FWM, 1.64 g L^{-1} / 20 mM 401 402 sodium acetate) in order to assure bioanode performance (i.e. no influence by changes 403 concentration or metabolite accumulation). In the same context, catholyte was also 404 replaced by new media (2 L, NaClO 3 g L^{-1} , pH=12).

The MDC device was able to desalinate 65% of the NaCl content in the first 18 hours, and 90% in 65 hours (end of desalination cycle, 1mS cm⁻¹, drinking water limit) (Figure 5C). At the same time, both the anolyte and the catholyte conductivity remained stable, mainly due to the high ratio anolyte/saline volume and/or catholyte/saline volume. Electric resistance of MDC system was constant (2.5 Ω , value of external load).

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415 Figure 5. A) Potential for anode, cathode and whole cell; B) Electric current produced 416 during the desalination process. Black arrow indicates the replacement of anolyte and 417 catholyte; C) Electric conductivity of the anodic, cathodic and saline streams; D) 418 Chemical composition for anolyte, catholyte and saline stream employed in the 419 desalination process

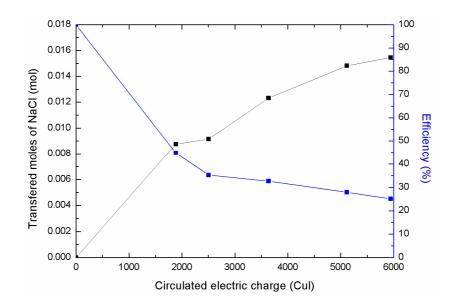
420 Another key aspect for the proper performance of the microbial biofilm on the anode is 421 the pH. In that sense, both anolyte and catholyte pH slightly increase in less than one 422 unit allowing the maintenance of the anodic biofilm (Figure S4). Actually, COD 423 removal was incremented from 49% under power supply conditions to 53% under MDC 424 mode operation.

425 At the end of the process, water production was 0.308 Lm^{-2} h (initial concentration

426 NaCl 5 g L⁻¹) while efficiency vs circulated electric charge was η_c =25% (Figure 6). The 427 decrease of the efficiency could be attributed to back-diffusion processes [37] and the 428 low available potential (compared to the abiotic desalination). Also, it is assumable that 429 initial conductivity of saline stream and ratio among anolyte-catholyte-saline tank 430 volumes would have and strong effect on the efficiency of the process, and this effect 431 should be studied before scale-up and optimization of MDC technology.

In relation to the specific energy consumption (SEC), it is important to note that energy consumed associated to MDC-based desalination was equal to 0 (excluding pumping energy). We indeed considered negligible the energy produced by the external load used for voltage/current monitoring (i.e. energy produced 0.082 Wh, 412 Wh per m⁻³ of desalted water, or 20.63 Wh per m⁻³ of treated water),.

437 Conventional reverse osmosis system or electrodialysis system typically require an energy value of 0.5-0.8 kWh m⁻³ to drive the same desalination process (from of 5 mS 438 cm⁻¹ to 1 mS cm⁻¹) exhibited by our MDC [38]. On top of that, the associated emissions 439 of 0.3-0.48 kg m⁻³ of CO₂ would be avoided (using the value 600 g CO₂ kWh⁻¹ in the 440 441 average European Union energy mix [39]). Moreover, if we consider that the energy for waste water treatment is in the range of 0.2-0.4 kWh m⁻³, and assuming a ratio waste 442 water/desalted water 10:1, we could avoid the emissions of 1.2-2.4 kg of CO_2 per m⁻³ of 443 444 desalted water. Thus, the challenge is to develop MDC technology and scale up to a reasonable production of desalinated water (i.e. small and medium size desalination 445 plants are in the range of $2,000-10,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$). 446



449 Figure 6. NaCl transferred (mol) and Efficiency (%) of the process vs circulated electric
450 charge (Cul).

448

451 The MDC system presented in this paper was able to produce desalinated water with a 452 simplified start-up procedure compared to other experimental systems reported in the 453 literature adapting the microorganism before starting the MDC operation [24,25], thus 454 significantly reducing the start-up period. Also, the start-up strategy presented in this 455 study avoids the need of pre-running as a MFC and disassembly for incorporating the 456 saline compartment, as presented in some papers for MDC operation at lab scale 457 [7,8,13]. So, the start-up protocol presented is not only optimized for time but also 458 simplified in operation, making it a more feasible strategy for future scaling-up. Also, 459 the start-up protocol presented could be used at lab scale to systematically study MDC 460 performance. It is useful tool to design and optimize MDC experimental set-ups (i.e. 461 study of energy consumption in abiotic conditions).

The desalination performances of several MDC studies (including the current one) are shown in Table 1. Even the experimental set-ups presented in the literature are different in configuration (i.e. compartments volumes, cathode reactions, operation mode in continuous or batch) and it is not possible direct comparison among them, the efficiency 466 of our treatment was remarkable considering the low ratio of volumes for anolyte and 467 catholyte compared to the ones reported in the literature with similar removal rate. In 468 some cases, those volumes ratios were quadrupled or even 100 times larger than the 469 volumes employed in our system [8,13]. Those studies using similar volume ratio 470 reached less than 50% of the desalination obtained in the MDC presented in this study 471 [9,40,41]. **Table 1.** MDC system comparison (a V_{an}: anolyte volume, V_{cat}: catholyte volume, V_{desal}: desalinated water volume; b With additional voltage of

V _{an} : V _{cat} : V _{desal} ^a	Start-up protocol	Initial concentration of Salt	Salt Removal (%)	COD Removal(%)	Ref.
100:33:1	Transfer of pre-adapted MFC anode (10 days)	5 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	88	-	[7]
36:11:1	Transfer of pre- adapted MFC anode (10 days)	20 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	80	-	[13]
10:10:1	Bicarbonate desalination	5 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	90	53	This study
4:4:1	1 week anode in-sit stabilization	$0.5 \text{ g.l}^{-1} \text{ NaCl}$	95.8	-	[25]
4:2:1	Inoculation with a mixture sludge	35 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	42	74-77	[22]
3:3:1	Transfer of pre- adapted MFC anode	5 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	46	25	[24]
1.5:1.8:1	Transfer of pre- adapted MFC anode	20 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	<84	72-94	[8]
1:2:1	Inoculation of a pre-a adapted biofilm	5 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	43	-	[9]
1:2:1	40 days anode in situ stabilization	20 g.l ⁻¹ NaCl	37 ^{e b}	-	[40]

0.55 V; Removal (%): desalination percentage; COD: percentage of Chemical Oxygen Demand removal.

Related to volume ratios, in the present MDC system 10:10:1 ratio was key to avoid the generation of brine, one of the main environmental problems associated to desalination technologies. However, more research should be performed to optimize a) the ratios for different applications (i.e. desalination of brackish water for irrigation, seawater for drinking water) and b) the nature and organic load of the wastewater (i.e. municipal or industrial wastewater). Other important parameter to explore in order to maximize water production would be the thickness of the saline compartment that would decrease internal resistance of the MDC system [41].

From the point of view of energy production in MDC systems, an increase in the energy production is related to a drastic decrease in desalination rate or production of water, as a great amount of available energy from water oxidation is diverted towards energy production (rather than desalination process). Even whether the production of energy is an interesting topic itself, increasing desalinated water production is a key point to develop MDCs as sustainable and low-energy desalination technology. For this reason, in the present study the MDC operates near short circuit conditions, thus providing all the energy from organic matter oxidation to the desalination process, maximizing the water production.

It is important to note here that in the case of MDC, to operate in such conditions of low external load, it is not producing a degradation of the biofilm performance due to acidification of the media. The reason is that even the operation conditions are near the short circuit conditions from the point of view of the electrochemical device, the anode potential is similar to the equilibrium (i.e. open circuit potential) of the bioanode (see figure 5A, red line). So, short circuit condition for the MDC is somehow different from MFC short circuit conditions, as in the latter the anode potential is decreased due to high overpotential, thus providing higher density current (i.e. higher rate of organic

matter oxidation) and consequently problems of biofilm acidification, producing decrease in the performance of the system. In the case of MDC system, a part of the available electrochemical potential in the whole device is dropped in the saline compartment, and this effect is more noticeable when desalination process is progressing.

Finally, the use of NaClO reduction as the cathodic reaction (used in this study) has been tested in similar bioelectrochemical systems for waste water treatment [42] as a suitable alternative for oxygen reduction with increased performance (due to faster kinetics). So far, the present study is the first using a MDC with this cathodic reaction for desalination. However, it is important to indicate that the use of NaClO as catholyte could produce both damage on membrane surface in the long term and environmental issues related to chlorinated by-products formation (i.e. chlorinated organic matter). Consequently, more strategies for cathodic reactions and catholyte regeneration should be studied in the future to enable the development of MDC technology as sustainable desalination process, as well as operation with real waste water and brackish/sea water.

4. Conclusions

Microbial Desalination Cells constitute an innovative technology where microbial fuel cells and electrodialysis merge in the same device for obtaining fresh water from saline water with no energy-associated cost and greenhouse gas emissions. However, a number of factors should be further explored in order to optimized the methodology and make it profitable. The start-up procedure as well as the modular nature of our MDC prototype was demonstrated a viable alternative to the conventional procedures used. The start-up protocol presented here, could allow our MDC prototype to be a real possibility for scaling-up as either a stand-alone process or as a pre-treatment method combined with other well established desalination technologies such as reverse osmosis (RO) [9,23] or reverse electrodialysis.

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