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**A scalable, Rotating Disc Bioelectrochemical Reactor (RDBER) suitable for the cultivation of both cathodic and anodic biofilms**

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**Abstract**

This study presents the construction and operation of a membrane-less reactor suitable for different bioelectrochemical applications. The system employs rotating graphite disks as working electrodes with a total surface area of 1 $m^2$. Given the reactor volume of 10 L, this results in a surface-to-volume ratio of 100:1 $m^2$ $m^{-3}$. Moreover, this rotating disk bioelectrochemical reactor (RDBER) is fully autoclavable, pressurizable to at least 0.5 bars and an optical window allows for in vivo monitoring of biofilm development on the electrodes by means of optical coherence tomography (OCT). As a proof-of-principle for an aerobic microbial electrosynthesis process, we cultivated the thermoacidophilic, electroautotrophic bacterium *Kyrpidia spormannii* in the RDBER and investigated the spatial distribution of the cathodic biofilm on the rotating working electrode by OCT. Thereby, biofilm heights of more than 75 µm were achieved. To demonstrate the versatility of the system, we further operated the reactor anodically as a microbial electrolysis cell employing a co-culture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens*. Finally, the cultivation experiments with different electroactive microorganisms not only prove the basic functionality of the RDBER, but also illustrate that the RDBER can satisfy a wide range of biotechnological requirements for pure culture applications.

**Graphical Abstract**

**Highlights**

- **Construction of a 10 L membrane-less, pressurizable bioelectrochemical reactor**
- **Rotating working electrodes with up to 1 m$^2$ electrode surface**
- **Electroautotrophic cultivation and quantification of *K. spormannii* biofilms**
- **Initial cell density crucial for successful *K. spormannii* biofilm formation**
- **Anodic operation as MEC with *Shewanella* / *Geobacter* coculture**

**Keywords**

60    microbial electrosynthesis; microbial electrolysis cell; Kyrpidia spormannii; RDBER; RBC;

61    microbial electrochemical technologies; pure culture MES upscaling;

## 1. Introduction

Tapering off fossil resources by renewable commodities that are based on a circular utilization

of resources is key to the transition towards a sustainable economy (Lieder and Rashid, 2016).

In this context, future (bio)chemical transformations of raw materials and waste streams must

be fueled by renewable electrical energy (Krieg et al., 2018b). The so-called microbial

electrosynthesis (MES) is a promising biotechnological example for such a conversion of

electricity and carbon dioxide into value-added organic compounds (Nevin et al., 2010). This

process relies on electroactive microorganisms that serve as a biocatalyst on the cathode of a

bioelectrochemical system (BES) (Logan et al., 2019). By applying a voltage to the BES,

typically water is oxidized at the anode into oxygen and protons. Driven by a power source the

released electrons are subsequently used either directly or indirectly by the autotrophic,

cathodic biofilm as the sole energy and electron source for the reduction of $CO_2$. Although

MES could theoretically outperform abiotic carbon utilization technologies as well as

established gas fermentations in some specific applications, the technology is not yet

economically feasible on a large scale (Christodoulou and Velasquez-Orta, 2016; Jourdin et

al., 2020; Jourdin and Burdyny, 2021; Prévoteau et al., 2020; Wood et al., 2021). However,

the novel electroautotrophic species *Kyrpidia spormannii* EA-1$^T$ was isolated from a

thermophilic cathodic community recently (Reiner et al., 2018a, 2018b). This thermoacidophilic

'Knallgas' bacterium is a natural producer of polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) and was shown

to thrive on cathodes as the sole electron and energy source for the reduction of $CO_2$ (Reiner

et al., 2020). Hence, *K. spormannii* is a promising candidate for MES - not only since PHAs

are precursors for biodegradable bioplastics - but also due to the organisms comparably good

biofilm-formation abilities on cathodes. Thus, it was shown that *K. spormannii* forms robust

biofilms with a thickness of well over 100 μm – an important prerequisite for MES as stated

recently by Vassilev and colleagues (Barham et al., 1984; Hackbarth et al., 2020; Vassilev et

al., 2022). Although it seems to be an intrinsic property of electroautotrophic organisms, the

molecular details of extracellular electron uptake (EET) from a cathode are also subject to keen

debate with regard to *K. spormannii* (Jung et al., 2020; Pillot et al., 2022a; Prévoteau et al.,

2020; Reiner et al., 2020).

While - with respect to the inanimate components of a MES system - much effort has been put

into studying the effect of material and structural properties of electrodes, the development of

new and, in particular, scalable reactor concepts for MES has been rather sidelined (Enzmann

et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2015; Kerzenmacher, 2017; Pillot et al., 2022a, 2022b; Zhang et al.,

2021). This is in spite of the fact that whether microbial electrochemical technologies (METs)

can carve a niche in a future sustainable economy depends strongly on the availability of a

suitable reactor technology. Typical reactor systems for the cultivation of electroactive

microorganisms in laboratory settings are cube, bottle, or flat-plate-type reactors (Enzmann et

al., 2019; Krieg et al., 2018a). Especially for MES applications, a semipermeable membrane

is commonly required to spatially separate anode and cathode compartments. Membranes can

be advantageous when extremely high Coulombic efficiencies are desired, as they avoid

chemical short circuits caused by diffusion of electrochemically active chemicals (Krieg et al.,

2018a). Moreover, due to anodically produced oxygen a membrane is particularly crucial if

strict anaerobes, such as acetogenic or methanogenic organisms, serve as cathodic

biocatalysts for MES (Gildemyn et al., 2017). However, the utilization of membranes leads to

significantly increased surface-specific ohmic losses as a plain result of an increased distance

between anode and cathode, but also through diffusion limitations often caused by hardly

mixed zones around the membranes. The latter may also result in undesirable pH shifts in the

separated compartments (Gildemyn et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2017; Krieg et al., 2018a;

Prévoteau et al., 2020; Zeppilli et al., 2016). Finally, most membranes are not autoclavable

(according to the manufacturer), sensitive to fouling and prone to leakage due to lack of

mechanical stability (Utesch and Zeng, 2018). The above-mentioned disadvantages of

membranes, along with the resulting complexity of the reactor set-up, lead to a high-

maintenance reactor system which is likely to be very cost-intensive in long-term operation

(Kracke et al., 2018).

Here, we present the concept of a membrane-less, scalable rotating disk bioelectrochemical

reactor (RDBER) for aerobic MES and other pure culture bioelectrochemical applications. The

systems design is inspired by a so-called rotating biological contactor (RBC) (Hassard et al.,

2015). An RBC is a fixed-film bioreactor used in wastewater treatment that consists of closely

spaced discs that are mounted on a common horizontal shaft and are typically partially

submerged in liquid. Cortez and colleagues highlight the low maintenance and operating costs,

ease of process control and monitoring, and low land requirements as particular advantages

of an RBC (Cortez et al., 2008). This is mainly due to the fact that the flow velocity across the

biofilm enhancing substrate supply is not achieved by energy-intensive pumping of high

volumes or stirring, but by rotation of the biofilm-covered disks. The first steps in the

"electrification" of RBCs have already been successfully carried out on a laboratory scale

(Cheng et al., 2012, 2011; Rodziewicz et al., 2019; Sayess et al., 2013): Several attempts have

been made to use conductive rotating disks as cathode or anode of a bioelectrochemical

system. However, these studies consistently focus on the purification of wastewater. Hence,

biotechnological requirements for a pure culture MES process (e.g., working with pure cultures

under sterile conditions, control of temperature and pH, or pressurizability to increase the

solubility of the gaseous substrates like $CO_2$) were not considered in the reactor design.

In this study we discuss the development of a fully autoclavable RDBER, that can be

pressurized to at least 0.5 bar, and is equipped with an optical window allowing for in vivo

monitoring of biofilm development on the electrodes using optical coherence tomography

(OCT). The 10-liter membrane-less system operates in either anodic (as a microbial

electrolysis cell) or cathodic mode with an effective working electrode area of up to 1 $m^2$

(depending on the number of graphite disks mounted). As a proof of principle for an axenic,

aerobic MES-process we cultivated *K. spormannii* in the system and correlated the OCT-

derived, spacial resolved biovolume of the cathodic biofilm with the radius of the rotating

cathodes. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the developed system can also be operated as

a microbial electrolysis cell by culturing a co-culture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter*

*sulfurreducens* as an anodic biofilm in the RDBER. Thus, we were not only able to demonstrate

the general functionality of the system, but also to provide a first insight into the range of

possible applications that the RDBER offers as a technological platform for METs.

**2. Material and methods**

**2.1 Reactor Design**

The design of the reactor system is illustrated in detail in Fig. 1. The reaction chamber,

consisting of the reactor jacket (Fig. 1b) and two flanges, was designed as a horizontal cylinder

made of polypropylene. The inner diameter of the jacket measuring 238 mm and the length of

230 mm result in an inner volume of the reaction chamber of 10 L. An inspection window made

of polycarbonate (Fig. 1a) was integrated in the front flange allowing the observation of the

foremost working electrode (Fig. 1d). A circular recess milled in the center of the window serves

as a guide and seat for the shaft bearing (Fig. 1f). Figure 1 III shows a cross-sectional view of

the RDBER illustrating the arrangement of the electrodes in the reaction chamber. The shaft,

which was made of high-purity titanium and sealed from the environment by a shaft seal, is

located concentrically in the reactor. A precisely aligned shaft bearing in the rear flange,

together with the fixed bearing in the front window, ensures that the shaft runs as friction-free

and balanced as possible. For compensation of the temperature-related expansion of the shaft

relative to the reaction chamber, the bearing in the rear flange was designed as a floating

bearing. The shaft was manufactured as a threaded rod onto which working electrode holders

(custom made titanium nuts) are mounted. The working electrode discs made of graphite are

clamped between two holders in each case and centered in the process. This ensures that the

discs are in contact with the shaft and thus also with the voltage source. In total, up to 14

working electrode disks with a thickness of 3 mm and a diameter of 210 mm can be mounted

on the shaft. This corresponds to an active working electrode surface (front and back) of up to

1 m² and, relative to the reaction chamber volume, a surface-to-volume ratio of 100 m² m⁻³.

Since in RBC-like systems the cross-flow across the biofilm is adjusted by the rotational speed

of the rotating substrate (here the working electrode), a high-resolution stepper motor (Fig. 1c)

was implemented (Lexium MDrive Motion Control, Schneider Electric) on the rear flange. The

employment of such a stepper motor allows, in addition to the load-independent control of the

rotational speed, the position-accurate visualization of selected locations on the substrate.

Apart from the toothed belt wheel required for this purpose, a double leg carbon brush holder

(Fig. 1l) with silver-graphite brushes was attached to the end of the titanium shaft (Fig. 1n). Via

this brush holder, electrical contact was made from the potentiostat to the rotating shaft and

thus also to the working electrodes. The counter electrodes were made of titanium sheet with

an iridium mixed oxide coating (platinode type 177, Umicore) in the form of half-rounds (Fig.

1m) and connected to each other by means of four titanium threaded rods (Fig. 1o). Exactly

cut pieces of titanium pipe (Fig. 1p) are mounted between each two anode sheets to provide

the desired distance between the working and counter electrodes. The distance between

anode and cathode amount to 5.5 mm. A total of up to 15 fixed counter electrode sheets with

an active area of approx. 0.5 m² can be installed in the reaction chamber in this way. The four

titanium threaded rods are led out of the reaction chamber through the rear flange (Fig. 1i) and

can thus be connected to the potentiostat. Cable bushings made of polytetrafluoroethylene

(PTFE) provide the necessary sealing.

In order to supply the growing biofilm with $CO_2$-enriched media during cathodic operation, the

gas-saturated and pre-tempered culture medium was pumped by means of a gear pump with

an autoclavable pump head (REGLO-Z Digital, Z-1830 P, Ismatec) (Fig. 1t) from an optional

stainless-steel (Fig. 1r) double jacket container via a compression fitting (Fig. 1e) located in

the front flange into the reaction chamber. The medium is then circulated in the overall system

via two screw fittings (Fig. 1h, j) located on the rear flange. During operation the volume flow

was led via the compression fitting (Fig. 1j) connected to the reference electrode holder

containing an Ag/AgCl reference electrode (Fig. 1q) (SE23l, Meinsberg Sensortechnik). The

second screw connection (Fig. 1h) served as an outlet for any gas that may have formed and

collected in the reaction chamber.

Fig. 1: 3D renderings of the RDBER: (I) Front view of the reaction vessel, (II) rear view of the reaction vessel, (III) cross-section of the reaction vessel, (IV) full system with stainless-steel vessel and piping. (a – inspection window, b – reactor jacket, c – stepper motor , d – working electrode disc, e – inlet to reaction chamber, f – shaft journal bearing, g – outlet of heating jacket, h – gas outlet, i – connector to counter electrode, j – outlet of reaction chamber and connection to reference electrode holder, k – inlet to heating jacket, l – carbon brush holder as connector to rotating working electrodes, m – counter electrodes , n – working electrode shaft , o – counter electrode shaft, p – counter electrode spacers, q – reference electrode, r - double jacketed vessel with integrated pH electrode, s – OCT probe head, t – magnetic gear pump, u – magnetic stirrer).

To ensure constant temperatures in the reaction chamber, heating channels were milled into

the 31 mm thick polypropylene jacket. These channels were flushed with heating liquid and

are shown in the cross-section of the reaction chamber (Fig. 1 III). Inlet (Fig. 1k) and outlet

(Fig. 1g) of the heating jacket were placed at the rear flange of the reaction chamber and

coupled to a circulation thermostat via clamping ring connections. Simultaneously the growth

medium was heated supportively in the optional stainless-steel double jacket vessel during

cathodic operation (Fig. 1r). Moreover, the gaseous substrates for electroautotrophic growth

were continuously passed through the headspace of the stainless-steel vessel under pressure.

The inlet and outlet of the substrate gases are equipped with sterile filters to prevent

contamination. By installing a pH electrode (Ceragel CPS71D, Endress + Hauser) in the

vessel, the pH value and temperature was logged and the circulation thermostat was regulated.

The RDBER was aligned and rigidly fixed on a base frame. Moreover, a holder on which the

OCT probe (Fig. 1f) can be fixed was mounted to the base frame.

**2.2 Strains and preculture conditions**

Electroautotrophic experiments were conducted with a population of *K. spormannii* EA-1$^T$

previously adapted to cathodic growth (Jung et al., 2020). The preculture for RDBER

experiments was grown from freezer stocks in a modified R2A medium (yeast extract 5 g L$^{-1}$,

tryptone 1 g L$^{-1}$, casamino acids 0.5 g L$^{-1}$, sodium pyruvate 0.5 g L$^{-1}$, MgSO$_4$·7 H$_2$O 0.05 g L$^{-1}$,

K$_2$HPO$_4$ 0.1 g L$^{-1}$, MOPS 10 mM - pH 6) at 60 °C without agitation. The heterotrophically grown

pre-culture of *K. spormannii* was washed two times with ES medium (pH 3.5; 10 mM NH$_4$Cl,

2.5 mM NaCl, 0.3 mM KH$_2$PO$_4$, 0.12 mM MgSO$_4$, 0.1 mM CaCl$_2$, 1 ml L$^{-1}$ Wolfe's mineral elixir)

before inoculating the autoclaved RDBER setup (Reiner et al., 2018a). Depending on the

desired planktonic cell number per working electrode surface ratio the initial optical density

(OD$_{600}$) in the RDBER was 0.1 or 0.3 respectively. A counting chamber (Bürker-Türk) was

consulted in order to determine the specific cell number per OD$_{600}$ and Volume (an OD$_{600}$ of 1

corresponded to 3.16±0.25 *K. spormannii* cells per ml).

A mixed culture of the model organisms *Shewanella oneidensis* MR-1 and *Geobacter*

*sulfurreducens* PCA was employed as biocatalyst during anodic operation of the RDBER.

*S. oneidensis* was precultured aerobically in LB-Medium (Lennox), while the cultivation of the

*G. sulfurreducens* preculture was conducted under anoxic conditions in BES-Medium

[0.42 g $L^{-1}$ $KH_2PO_4$, 0.22 g $L^{-1}$ $K_2HPO_4$, 0.2 g $L^{-1}$ $NH_4Cl$, 0.38 g $L^{-1}$ KCl, 0.36 g $L^{-1}$ NaCl,

0.21 g $L^{-1}$ $MgCl_2$, 11.92 g $L^{-1}$ HEPES – after autoclaving the medium was complemented with

1 ml $L^{-1}$ 0.4 mM $CaCl_2$ solution, 10 ml $L^{-1}$ NB trace mineral solution, 1.0 ml selenite–tungstate

solution (13 mM NaOH, 17 µM $Na_2SeO_3$, and 12 µM $Na_2WO_4$), 10 ml vitamin solution (German

Type Culture Collection, DSMZ, media 141) and then sparged in rubber sealed bottles with

$N_2/CO_2$ (80:20 vol%) for 30 minutes]. For preculturing, the BES-medium was complemented

with 20 mM sodium acetate as electron donor and disodium fumarate (40 mM) as electron

acceptor. The final pH was set to 7.4. Before inoculating the reactor with a mixture of

*G. sulfurreducens* and *S. oneidensis* in a 9 to 1 ratio to an initial $OD_{600}$ of 0.1, the cells were

washed two times in BES-Medium.

**2.3 Cultivation of cathodic *K. spormannii* biofilms**

After pumping the previously inoculated ES-Medium into the sterile RDBER, the medium

temperature was adjusted to 60 °C. The headspace of the mixing vessel was pressurized to

0.5 bar and continuously flushed with a mixture of 99.5% $CO_2$ (v/v) and 0.5% $O_2$ (v/v) while the

liquid phase was continuously stirred at 300 rpm. The additional stirring of the medium in the

mixing vessel by means of a magnetic stirrer (Fig. 1u) ensured improved mass transfer of the

gases and increased the heat transfer of the heated jacket into the medium. The cultivation

medium enriched with the gaseous substrates was pumped through the RDBER at a constant

volumetric flow rate of 500 ml $min^{-1}$. In order to achieve different planktonic cell number per

working electrode surface ratios, either only one or all electrodes were mounted (714 $cm^2$ vs.

1 $m^2$ working electrode surface). The rotational speed of the working electrodes amounted to

one revolution per minute. A constant current density of 1 µA $cm^{-2}$ was applied for 24 h

immediately after inoculation by means of a potentiostat (Interface 5000P, Gamry Instruments,

Warmister, USA). After this initial polarization phase, the current density was set to 3 µA cm$^{-2}$

by the end of the experiment. The experiments were stopped upon detection of no further

biofilm                                         increase.

**2.4 Anodic operation as Microbial Electrolysis Cell**

10 L of inoculated BES-medium containing 20 mM sodium acetate and 20 mM sodium lactate

as carbon source was pumped in the previously autoclaved RDBER. Chronoamperometric

batch experiments were performed at 30 °C and a constant working electrode potential of 0 mV

vs. SHE (standard hydrogen electrode) was set. For anodic operation the stainless-steel

mixing vessel was omitted while the pipeline was shorted with a pH-electrode holder. Evolving

reaction gases (e.g. Hydrogen and $CO_2$) were collected at the upper outlet (Fig. 1h) and led

through a MilliGascounter (Ritter, Germany) into a gas sampling bag. Analysis of collected

gases was conducted by means of a Micro GC (490 Micro GC, Agilent Technologies,

Germany) using two different carrier gases (argon and helium) and two stationary phases (CP-

Molsieve 5 Å Plot and PoraPLOT U J&W GC columns, Agilent Technologies, Germany).

Moreover, liquid samples were taken twice a day in order to quantify the concentration of

organic acids by means of a Metrohm 881 Compact Pro Ion Exchange Chromatograph with a

Metrosep Organic Acids 250/7.8 column (Metrohm, Switzerland).

**2.5 OCT imaging and digital image processing**

A GANYMEDE II spectral domain OCT system (Thorlabs GmbH, Dachau, Germany) equipped

with a LSM04 objective lens was employed for 3D biofilm visualization (Thorlabs GmbH,

Dachau, Germany). Prior to each OCT acquisition, the stepper motor was consistently halted

in the same pre-assigned position. Together with the fixed position of the OCT probe holder,

this allowed reproducible visualization of a selected radial cathode section. OCT 3D data sets

(C-scans) were acquired regularly over the visualizable radial area (see Fig. 2). Each spot was

scanned with a size of 10.0 mm × 6.0 mm × 2.0 mm (L × W × H) and pixel resolutions of

8 μm px$^{-1}$ (lateral, xy-plane) and 2.06 μm px$^{-1}$ (axial, z-direction). Adjacent OCT data sets were

then stitched to depict the whole radius of the cathode. The generated OCT datasets were

then analyzed, merged, and finally assembled into a height profile (6 mm × 70 mm; H × W).

The visualized rectangular area was then trimmed into an isosceles trapezoid for final

evaluation. The trapezoid represents a circular sector of the round disk, which abuts the outer

radius of the substrate and was shortened to 70 mm by cutting off the tip. 110 of these

trapezoids could thus be approximately combined to form a circular ring with an outer diameter

of 21 mm and an inner diameter of 70 mm. Finally, the mean biovolume $\overline{BV}$, the mean

accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^{*}$, and the mean coverage $\overline{SC}$ over the radius were determined from the

cropped trapezoid (detailed view Figure 2). In addition, the trapezoid was divided into 7 further

10 mm long sub-trapezoids to obtain detailed information about the spatial distribution of

biovolume ($BV$) along the radius of the circular blank. ImageJ [23], operated with in-house

made macros [24], was used to calculate topographic representations of the bulk-biofilm

interface (height maps) and the structural parameters used for biofilm characterization.

Fig. 2: Representation of the visualized area and the analyzed trapezoidal sections of the generated

OCT data sets.

**2.6 Parameters for biofilm characterization**

The calculation of the biofilm structure parameters - biovolume $BV$ ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}$), mean biovolume $\overline{BV}$ ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}$), mean biofilm accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^*$ ($\mu m^3\,\mu m^{-2}\,d^{-1}$) and mean substratum coverage $\overline{SC}$ (-) was based on height maps according to Wagner and Horn(Wagner and Horn, 2017).

Biovolume $BV$ is defined as the measured biofilm volume $V_{BF}$ ($\mu m^3$) per specific area of a single small trapezoid $A_{ST}$ ($\mu m^2$)

$$BV = \frac{V_{BF}}{A_{ST}}$$

whereas $\overline{BV}$ is being defined as

$$\overline{BV} = \frac{\sum V_{BFn}}{\sum A_{STn}}$$

Where $n$ indexes the individual small trapezoids.

Mean biofilm accumulation rate $\overline{BV}^*$ corresponds to $\overline{BV}$ derived by time:

$$\overline{BV}^* = \frac{\partial \overline{BV}}{\partial t}$$

Finally, mean substratum coverage $\overline{SC}$ is described as

$$\overline{SC} = \frac{\sum A_{STn} - A_{uc}}{\sum A_{STn}}$$

342    with the area of uncovered substratum $A_{uc}$ (biofilm thickness = 0 µm).

### 3.  Results and discussion

### 3.1 Cultivation of cathodic *K. spormannii* biofilms

In order to prove the functionality of the newly developed reactor concept, two different pure

culture cultivations of electroactive microorganisms were performed in the RDBER. Moreover,

initial cultivation experiments performed with *K. spormannii* were designed to answer the

question of whether an RBC-like reactor could even be a potential technological platform for

upscaling a biofilm-based, aerobic MES process that was previously demonstrated in small-

scale, custom-made flow cells (Hackbarth et al., 2020; Jung et al., 2020). Thus, as many

process parameters as possible were transferred from the established flow cell cultivation to

the cultivation of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER (see Table 1). Hence, for preliminary cultivation

experiments the previously autoclaved RDBER was filled with sterile ES-Medium (pH 3.5),

omitting any organic carbon source and inoculated with *K. spormannii* to an initial $OD_{600}$ of 0.1.

In order to increase their solubility, the system was then pressurized to 0.5 bars with the

substrate gases $CO_2$ and $O_2$ and the mediums temperature was set to 60 °C. The rotational

speed of the cathodes amounted to 1 rpm. After several days of reactor operation, OCT

analysis of the cathode revealed isolated tower-like structures formed on the cathode.

However, their quantity and height decreased sharply again in the course of a few days (see

Supplementary Fig. 1). Moreover, the surface coverage of the substratum never exceeded

20% even after one month of cultivation. In summary, no continuous biofilm could be detected

on the cathodes by OCT during the preliminary cultivations. When examined more closely,

there were two particular process parameters that deviated from the flow cell experiments due

to the entirely divergent reactor concept of the RDBER:  Firstly, the initial cell number per

cathode area, and secondly, the hydraulic retention time in the reaction chamber (0.5 min in

the flow-cells compared to 18.4 min in the RDBER). However, since in an RBC-like reactor the

flow velocity over the substratum depends on the angular velocity of the substrate rather than

the hydraulic residence time (HRT), we assumed that HRT was not likely to be the key process

parameter that hindered biofilm growth during the preliminary cultivation experiments. In

particular, because care was taken to ensure that the angular velocity of the circular blank at

the outermost radius should not exceed the optimum flow velocity for cultivation of *K.*

*spormannii* in the flow cell system. Using the circumference of the circular blanks, it was

calculated that a velocity of 11 mm s$^{-1}$ is achieved at the outermost radius at a rotational speed

of 1 U min$^{-1}$, which is within the range of the flow velocity over the cathode in the flow cell

system based on the previously conducted CFD simulation (Hackbarth et al., 2020). Hence,

we hypothesized, that the 44 times lower initial cell number per cathode surface ratio

($3.4 * 10^9$ cm$^{-2}$ in the flow-cells vs. $7.6 * 10^7$ cm$^{-2}$ for the preliminary RDBER experiments) might

be the limiting factor for consistent biofilm growth.

392 Table 1: Listing of important process parameters comparing the RDBER cultivations of *K. spormannii* 393 performed in this study and flow cell cultivations performed in another study. LSV – Linear sweep 394 voltammetry, CA – Chronoamperometry.

| Process parameter | Flow-cell cultivation [18] | Preliminary cultivation (this study) | Optimized cultivation (this study) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Medium | ES-medium | Es-medium | Es-medium |
| pH | 3.5 | 3.5 | 3.5 |
| Gas mixture | $CO_2/O_2$ (99.5:0.5) | $CO_2/O_2$ (99.5:0.5) | $CO_2/O_2$ (99.5:0.5) |
| Pressure | 1.5 bar | 0.5 bar | 0.5 bar |
| Temperature | 60 °C | 60 °C | 60 °C |
| Circulation pump speed | 100 ml min$^{-1}$ | 500 ml min$^{-1}$ | 500 ml min$^{-1}$ |
| Volume reaction chamber | 50 ml | 8500 ml | 9850 ml |
| Hydraulic retention time | 0.5 min | 17 min | 19.7 min |
| Flow velocity / angular velocity over / of substratum at r = 210 mm | up to 21 mm s$^{-1}$ | up to 11 mm s$^{-1}$ | up to 11 mm s$^{-1}$ |
| Electroanalytics | potentiostatic LSV (first 24 h), then CA (-500 mV vs. SHE) | potentiostatic LSV (first 24 h), then CA (-500 mV vs. SHE) | galvanostatic 1 µA cm$^{-2}$ (first 24 h), then 3 µA cm$^{-2}$ |
| Volume system (incl. pipes, etc.) | 850 ml | 9500 ml | 10850 ml |
| Initial $OD_{600}$ | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| Working Electrode Surface | 20 cm$^2$ | 10000 cm$^2$ | 700 cm$^2$ |
| Initial cell number per working electrode ratio | 1.34 * 10$^9$ cm$^{-2}$ | 3.0 * 10$^7$ cm$^{-2}$ | 1.47 * 10$^9$ cm$^{-2}$ |

Previously it was shown that at the initially uncovered cathode a part of the dissolved oxygen
might be abiotically reduced into reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Hackbarth et al., 2020; Jung
et al., 2020). As the initial cell number decreases, the cumulative ROS-detoxification capacity
of the cells also decreases, possibly preventing a sufficient initial cathode coverage that serves
as an insulator to minimize abiotic ROS formation. Therefore, we adjusted the cell number to
cathode surface ratio for the subsequent experiments. Besides increasing the initial $OD_{600}$ from
0.1 to 0.3, we also reduced the working electrode area to 700 $cm^2$, in order to avoid the need
of a tremendous amount of preculture, which would not have been cultivatable in our laboratory
infrastructure yet. Furthermore, the current density of the system was limited by galvanometry
to 1 µA $cm^{-2}$ for 24 h (and then to 3 µA $cm^{-2}$ for the rest of the experiment) to minimize initial
ROS-formation. Operation of the RDBER under adapted process conditions now resulted in
the formation of nearly continuous *K. spormannii* biofilms covering more than 90% of the
cathode. Figure 3 shows a timeseries of height maps derived from OCT datasets covering a
radial excerpt of the working electrode.

Fig. 3: Time series of selected OCT-derived height maps of the optimized cultivation of *K. spormannii* in the 10 L-RDBER. The same radial section has been visualized on the working electrode in each case in order to show the spatial distribution of the biofilm along the rotating working electrode. Colors are coded from black (0 mm) to white (80 µm). The calculated biovolumes ($BV$) of the subtrapezoids are shown below the height profiles.

The first visible biofilm structures formed after a lag phase of 8 days near the shaft, i.e. at

regions with comparatively low shear stress. A spatially resolved calculation of the local

biovolume clearly shows that $BV$ decreases with larger radius towards the edge of the circular

blank. So, with an increased angular velocity of the substratum and therefore a higher flow

velocity over the biofilm, the biovolume of the *K. spormannii* biofilm is decreasing. After 24 days

$BV$ reached the maximum values measured in the course of the experiment in all segments.

The maximum $BV$ in the outer region of the cathode averaged 25 $\mu m^3$ $\mu m^{-2}$, only about a

quarter of the max $BV$ of approximately 100 $\mu m^3$ $\mu m^{-2}$ observed in the inner visualized region.

It should also be mentioned that in an abiotic control experiment, no growth-like precipitation

was detected on the cathodes after 24 days. The extent to which the biovolume can be used

to draw conclusions about the productivity (i.e., $CO_2$-fixation rate) of the *K. spormannii* biofilm

is not conclusive from this data. Nevertheless, it is known that compressed and denser biofilms

generally exhibit higher turnover rates, since more catalytically active biomass is present per

biovolume. At the same time, denser biofilm structures might hamper the diffusion of substrates

and products within the biofilm (de Beer et al., 1994; Horn and Morgenroth, 2006), whereas

the heterogeneity of the biofilm structure will also influence diffusion reaction (van den Berg et

al., 2020). Certainly, the increased shear force at increased angular velocity affects the biofilm

height to some extent as well. This effect may also be exploited in a future biotechnological

process. Thus, a fluctuating and short-term increase of the rotational speed could serve for an

optimal harvesting of the biomass from the substratum. In this way, the planktonic biomass

could be partially and discontinuously extracted from the reactor, creating a self-sustaining

system, since some of the detached cells can recolonize uncovered areas of the substratum.

In order to compare the results of the RDBER system with those of the previously published

flow cell experiments, calculated $\overline{BV}$ values were fitted by a logistic growth function:

$\overline{BV}$ = 40.718 + (3.055 − 40.718) / (1 + (t / 17.765)$^{11.14}$) (R$^2$ = 0.98)

The course of the plotted values of $\overline{BV}$ shows a significantly longer lag phase compared to the

flow cell experiments. The highest biofilm accumulation rate of 6 $\mu m^3$ $\mu m^{-2}$ d$^{-1}$ was reached

between days 17 and 18 and was 45% lower compared to the flow cell experiments (see figure

6 in [12]). Moreover, the maximal achieved mean biovolume in the RDBER system was

42 $\mu m^3 \mu m^{-2}$, which accounted to around 25% of the max. mean biovolume in the flow-cells.

The highest coverage of 87% was reached on day 24, with $\overline{SC}$ not describing a steeply

increasing degressive course like in the flow-cell experiments, but a linear course until the

biofilm finally detached. The biofilm in the RDBER system thus showed a generally weaker

and slower growth per area of cathode surface. Notwithstanding, to our knowledge, this data

shows the first successful cultivation of an aerobic, electroautotrophic organism in a BES at

this scale (700 $cm^{-2}$ working electrode). One of the reasons for the comparatively slow growth

of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER was probably the moderate, limited current density (3 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$)

- especially in contrast to the measured currents of the flow cell experiments (between 13 and

20 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$ at a constant working electrode potential of -500 mV vs. SHE). Although excessive

ROS production does not occur if the current density is too low, the biocatalyst may not have

enough electrons available for rapid and, above all, complete coverage of the substrate. Thus,

in future experiments, the maximum current density should be limited to that extent only during

the initial start-up phase and should also be increased as the surface coverage increases.

Fig. 4: Plot of calculated biofilm parameters of the optimized cathodic operation of the RDBER over time [mean biovolume ($\overline{BV}$), mean biofilm accumulation rate ($\overline{BV}^*$), and mean substrate coverage ($\overline{SC}$)].

In addition to the limitation of the electron donor, reduced substrate availability due to lower

solubility of the gaseous substrates at reduced pressure in the RDBER (0.5 bar) compared to

the flow cells (1.5 bar) has to be assumed. Indeed, in their computational model of a microbial

electrosynthesis process, Cabau-Peinado et al. demonstrated that $CO_2$ limitations can occur

and thus may play a role in low turnover rates of a MES system (Cabau-Peinado et al., 2021).

According to the manufacturer, the shaft seal of the titanium shaft in the rear flange is currently

the only tender spot that limits the maximum pressure in the system to 0.5 bar. Both the reactor

periphery and the entire reactor jacket can be pressurized to at least 1.5 bar. Therefore, future

reactor generations should incorporate a shaft seal in the rear bearing that is designed for

higher pressure ranges in order to assess the impact of the pressure on the biofilm

development in the RDBER.

### 3.2 Anodic operation as Microbial Electrolysis Cell

Following the successful cultivation of an electroautotrophic species in the RDBER, we used

the reactor to cultivate a defined coculture of *Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter*

*sulfurreducens*. Both organisms are well-studied electroactive model organisms for

extracellular electron transfer of respiratory electrons to insoluble electron acceptors such as

an anode of a BES. The anodic operation of the RDBER as a microbial electrolysis cell (MEC)

was intended not only to prove the basic functionality of the system, but also to emphasize the

flexibility regarding the possible applications of the RDBER. In a MEC, electroactive organisms

oxidize organic matter into $CO_2$ and protons, whereby the released electrons are transferred

from the organisms to the anode, which serves as a terminal respiratory electron acceptor.

From the anode, the electrons are transferred to the cathode by means of a current source.

Subsequently, protons are then reduced to hydrogen at the cathode. The experiments were

performed as batch experiments with a full set of the 14 working electrodes (here anodes) with

a total surface area of 1 $m^2$ at a rotational speed of 1 rpm. Acetate and lactate served as carbon

source with an initial concentration of 20 mM each. The current density at a constant working

electrode potential of 0 mV vs. SHE was recorded over the experimental course of roughly

9 days (see Fig 5). After an initial polarization phase of a few hours, characterized by negative

current densities most likely due to the depletion of residual oxygen in the system, the current

steadily increased until it peaked at 130 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$ after about 4 days. Subsequently, the current

density drops again to slowly decrease to about 90 $\mu A\ cm^{-2}$ after 9 days. Almost uniform in

shape runs the graph of the gas evolution rate recorded by means of a MilliGascounter from

the gas outlet of the RDBER. The hydrogen fraction in the outflowing gas was examined

regularly using a MicroGC and remained almost constant over the entire experimental period

(88.1 ± 1.2%). Daily liquid sampling of the reactor's broth was conducted to determine the

concentration of the organic acids via ion chromatography.

Fig. 5: Correlation of current density, gas evolution rate and substrate specific degradation rate with

calculated biofilm parameters obtained during anodic operation of the RDBER. A coculture of

*Shewanella oneidensis* and *Geobacter sulfurreducens* was cultivated at a working electrode potential of

0 mV vs. SHE in a MEC-like operation. For a clearer representation, the graphs of current density and

gas evolution rate were smoothed with an FFT filter. Raw data of organic acid concentrations, as well

as the applied fits (displayed in color), are provided in the Supplementary Material.

The course of the concentration values over time was fitted and derived after time to obtain

the specific degradation rates for acetate and lactate, respectively (please refer to the

supplementary material for original data and fit). In this context, it was important to consider

that *Shewanella* degrades one molecule of lactate into one molecule of acetate and $CO_2$ or

formate. Since the acetate concentration did not increase during the experiment, it was

therefore assumed that the acetate produced by *Shewanella* was directly metabolized by

*Geobacter*. This was taken into account when calculating the specific acetate degradation rate.

Since both the peak in current data, and in the gas production rate, correlate with the peak in

acetate degradation rate on day 4, these data clearly demonstrate that *Geobacter* is

accounting for most of the current production, as *Shewanella* is not capable of metabolizing

acetate. The maximum degradation rate for acetate was 5 mmol $d^{-1}$ $m^{-2}$ cathode surface and

1.5 mmol $d^{-1}$ $m^{-2}$ for lactate, respectively. Regular OCT scans of a radial anode section

provided the basis for calculating $\overline{BV}$ and $\overline{SC}$. Figure 5 shows the mean biofilm accumulation

rate ($\overline{BV}^*$) derived from a logarithmic fit through the calculated $\overline{BV}$ values:

$\overline{BV}$ = 0.343 + (14.646 - 0.343) / (1 + 10^((4.083 - t) * (0.404)))  ($R^2$ = 0.99)

The highest biofilm accumulation rate of almost 3 $\mu m^3$ $\mu m^{-2}$ $d^{-1}$ is likewise reached after about

4 days. Again, based on the correlations with the degradation rate, conclusions can be drawn

that *Geobacter* cells appear to be the predominant species in the biofilm. This is also consistent

with the literature findings that attribute rather modest biofilm capabilities to *Shewanella*

compared to *Geobacter* (Engel et al., 2019). After 9 days the anodic biofilm covered around

90% of the observed working electrode surface. Interestingly, the mean surface coverage does

not increase linearly as in the cathodic cultivation experiments of *K. spormannii*, but rather

logarithmically. Hence, it can be concluded that the growth pattern seen in the cathodic

experiments is not so much an intrinsic phenomenon of the RDBER, but probably due to the

abiotic formation of ROS on uncovered cathodes described above. Comparing the

performance of the RDBER with other single-chamber upscaling attempts of MECs, it is

apparent on the one hand that there is still room for improvement in terms of current densities,

but on the other hand the excellent surface to reactor volume ratio (100 $m^2$ $m^{-3}$) of the RDBER

is worth emphasizing (Enzmann et al., 2018). For example, Brown et al. measured current

densities up to 720 µA cm$^{-2}$, but at a surface to volume ratio of 15 m$^2$ m$^{-3}$ (0.58 m$^2$ anode area

and 30 L reactor volume) (Brown et al., 2014). In another study, the measured maximum

current densities were in similar ranges around 700 µA, but again with a surface to volume

ratio five times lower than in the RDBER (Cusick et al., 2011). However, it should be noted that

the experiments conducted here were only short-term batch experiments to validate the

functionality of the system. The above studies were conducted in a continuous operating mode

for a significantly longer period of time, up to several months, allowing a more productive

biofilm to grow on the working electrode over the longer cultivation period. In addition, the ion

chromatographic data also indicate that the biofilm may have already reached a degree of

substrate limitation (original data in supplementary material). Furthermore, the optimal

rotational speed of the working electrodes must be identified for each future application of the

RDBER and thus for each specific microbial community specifically.

**4. Conclusions**

In conclusion, the study aimed on the design of a novel, scalable electrochemical reactor

concept that meets the requirements of biotechnological pure culture cultivations. During the

construction of the single-chamber system, emphasis was laid on a long operating lifetime and

low-maintenance operation. The successful cultivation of different electroactive model

organisms, both in anodic and cathodic operation, prove on the one hand the basic functionality

of the system. On the other hand, we were able to demonstrate that an increase in the working

electrode area is not only possible by numbering up individual small reactor systems, as is

often the case for METs. If microbial electrochemical technologies are to become truly

competitive, a greater range of creative reactor designs that can be scaled up without

excessive numbering-up is necessary. A further scale-up of the RDBER is conceivable as well:

While the diameter of the electrode discs is limited mainly by the angular velocity at the outer

edge, the shaft can be extended (and equipped with more electrodes) until it is unable to

statically support its own weight. Moreover, based on this work, we were able to show that an RBC-like reactor is, in principle, a feasible way to upscale the previously flow cell-based cultivation of *K. spormannii* for bioplastic production from electricity and $CO_2$. Since the pumping power required for successful cultivation of *K. spormannii* in an upscaled flow cell process would presumably render the overall process quickly uneconomical, an RBC-like reactor might be an interesting option to generate HRT independent crossflow velocities across the working electrode. Furthermore, the cultivation experiments of *K. spormannii* in the RDBER highlighted the crucial role of the start-up phase in aerobic MES processes. The impact of reactive oxygen species should not be underestimated in the development of future MES processes. Therefore, for the necessary development of targeted strategies, it is important to better understand the formation of reactive oxygen species at cathodes under physiological conditions, as well as the different detoxification mechanisms of electroautotrophic microorganisms.

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## 6. Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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**8. CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Max Hackbarth:** Investigation, Conceptualization, Methodology, Visualization. **Johannes**
**Gescher:** Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. **Harald Horn:**
Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. **Johannes Eberhard**
**Reiner:** Investigation, Conceptualization, Methodology, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft
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